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Esteemed delegates
Distinguished guests,
Dear comrades,

The entire Party, people and army of Viet Nam are paying homage to our great President Ho Chi Minh and celebrating, in a wide variety of ways, his 131st birthday, the 110th anniversary of his departure in search of national salvation, and the 80th anniversary of his return to the homeland to directly lead the Vietnamese revolution. The Vietnamese people across the country are also rejoicing with pride and confidence at the resounding success of the 13th National Party Congress, and the election of deputies to the 15th National Assembly and all-level People's Councils for the 2021-2026 term. In such an ambience, we are today to solemnly organize the National Conference to review the 5-year implementation of the Politburo's Directive No.5 on "Promoting the study and emulation of Ho Chi Minh thoughts, morals and style". This is necessary deed of great significance.

On behalf of the Party Central Committee, I would like to extend my warmest welcome, most sincere greetings and best wishes to the leaders of the Party and State, the exemplary collectives and individuals, and all delegates attending this Conference.

Dear comrades,

As we all know, our beloved President Ho Chi Minh is the brilliant leader of the Party and nation, the great mentor of the Vietnamese revolution, the national liberation hero, an exemplary fighter among international communists, and a world cultural celebrity. He is no longer with US, but the legacy he left for our Party and people is monumental and invaluable, including the Ho Chi Minh Era, Ho Chi Minh's cause and Ho Chi Minh thoughts, morals and style, and an exemplary model for us to always follow. He is the noblest symbol of Viet Nam's patriotism and revolutionary heroism, a radiant crystallization of virtue, wisdom, courage and conscience of our nation and our time.

Throughout his life, President Ho Chi Minh made tireless efforts in dedication to our Fatherland, our countrymen and our cause of national liberation, class liberation, social liberation and human liberation. His was a life full of hardships and sacrifices. Yet it is an extremely glorious and noble, a truly vibrant, virtuous and admirable life. He had gone down in history as a colossus, even a legend during his lifetime. His life and cause have become a symbol of revolution, inspiring hope and dream for the Vietnamese and the progressive people around the world in then struggles for independence, freedom, peace, democracy and social progress. "Our nation, our people and our country nurtured President Ho Chi Minh, the great national hero, and it was him who in turn glorified our nation, our people and our country."

The thoughts, morals and style of President Ho Chi Minh are invaluable spiritualassets of our Party and people, illuminating our revolutionary cause, guiding each step forward to the success of the Vietnamese revolution. Studying and following President Ho Chi Minh's thoughts, morals and style remain a crucial, regular and indispensable task for the entire Party and people, particularly the Party organizations, State agencies, and Party cadre and members, in their endeavors for self-improvement, and in service of the country and people.

How, then, should we understand Ho Chi Minh Thought? Ho Chi Minh morals? And Ho Chi Minh style?

In brief, Ho Chi Minh Thought is a system of fundamental positions, understanding and guiding thoughts by President Ho Chi Minh concerning Viet Nam' revolution and its way forward in the present era. It is resulting from the innovative application and further development of Marxism-Leninism against the backdrop of Viet Nam's particular condition, inheriting and advancing the traditional virtues of our nation while absorbing the cultural quintessence of mankind. President Ho Chi Minh had said on multiple occasions that "Viet Nam is one country. The Vietnamese are one nation. Rivers may run dry, mountains may erode away, but this truth shall never change"; "We would rather sacrifice all than forfeit our country or be slaves"; "Nothing is more precious than independence and freedom"; "Even though we have to set ablaze the Truong Son Range, we must resolutely win national independence"; "I have but one desire, a desire above all else, and that is for our country to be truly independent, our people to be truly free, for every single one among our countrymen to have food, clothes and education, and for our nation to enjoy a commensurate standing in the world". "If our country were to be independent yet our people are without happiness and freedom, that independence would be meaningless".

Therefore, independence must go hand-in-hand with socialism. National liberation must be coupled with class liberation, social liberation, and human liberation. To that end, we must conduct socialist revolution. Whether Viet Nam would become prosperous and the Vietnamese nation would stand proudly as equals to major powers of the five continents, are much predicated upon our ability to marshal the strength of the all-nation unity and rally all forces, ethnicities, religions and patriotic Vietnamese national. "Unity, unity, great unity. Success, success, grand success!" "For national salvation and liberation, there is no way other than the way of proletarian revolution". "Today there are so many theories and doctrines, yet the truest and most revolutionary of all philosophies is Leninism, Marxism-Leninism". Revolutions are the people's cause, for the people and by the people, under the judicious leadership of a true revolutionary party. Only with a strong Party would the nation be strong, for the Party is the vanguard and the leader of the working class, the working people, and the entire nation.

Ho Chi Minh Morals are indeed the revolutionary morals. These are the virtuous qualities of a revolutionary: diligence, frugality, integrity, uprightness, public - spiritedness and selflessness. Diligence means to work hard and tirelessly, and devotewhole-heartedly to the common good in the interest of our country and people. Frugality means to exercise moderation without extravagance or luxury; especially when, it comes to public property. Integrity means to keep ourselves untarnished and untainted. Uprightness means to remain true and honest, never to bend our knees, and uphold a noble and righteous spirit. Public-spiritedness and selflessness mean to act in the common good and place the common interest above all, without private designs for personal gains. We must resolutely combat individualism, "wipe out individualism", as "individualism is the enemy from inside", "the most wicked foe", and "an insidious and crafty enemy that pulls the unwary down a slippery slope". President Ho Chi Minh paid special attention to the education and reinforcement of revolutionary morals. He often said that "just as rivers would run dry without their sources, or as trees would wither without their roots, revolutionists must have morals, without morals no matter how talented they are, they shall not be able to lead the people".

- Ho Chi Minh Style refers to a humble lifestyle and simple presence. It also means to be willing to learn from, to stay close to, to respect, and to trust the people. Everything is done in the best interest of the people. The Party cadre and members are the servants of the people, neither their masters nor "revolutionary mandarins". Each Party cadre and member must take it upon themselves to study and discipline themselves so as to continually enhance their understanding and expertise, and ennoble themselves as principled human beings, who are "wholly loyal to the Party, wholly filial to the People, who shall fulfill any mission, overcome any hardship, and defeat any enemy".

In his life, President Ho Chi Minh was especially attentive towards the education and cultivation of the Party cadre and members. He often shared that "ours is a ruling party. Each Party member and cadre must be truly immersed in revolutionary morals, to truly uphold diligence, frugality, integrity, uprightness, public-spiritedness and selflessness. We must maintain a truly untarnished Party that is a worthy leader and a loyal servant of the people". It is important to understand that "success or failure of all things boil down to whether our cadre is good or bad" and "cadre is the root of all our work". As such, it is essential to pay special attention to the education, training and cultivation of the Party cadre and members, nurture a wealth of exemplary persons and deeds. Uncle Ho reminded US that "good folks and good deeds are as flowers blossoming in spring, setting the bright examples of revolutionary heroism". "Upholding exemplary persons and deeds to educate each other daily is one of the best ways to build our Party, build the revolutionary organizations, and build a new people and a new life".

In recent years, the Party has early invoked and provided leadership over the study and emulation of Ho Chi Minh thoughts, morals and style through various decrees and resolutions. The most recent iteration is Directive No. 5 issued by the 12th Politburo on "Promoting the study and emulation of Ho Chi Minh thought, morals and style" in conjunction with the implementation of the Resolution of the 4th Meeting of the 12th Central Party Committee on "Strengthening Party-building and rectification, combating, and stemming the tide of degradation in political thoughts, morals, lifestyles, and signs of'self-evolution' and 'self-transformation' within the Party". Through new, creative and practical ways of conduct, these efforts have achieved important and fairly well-rounded achievements. As a result, dramatic positive and far-reaching changes have been generated within the Party and the entire society, and were highly applauded by the 13th Party Congress.

Notably, the leadership and guidance concerning the study and emulation of Ho Chi Minh thoughts, morals and style were exercised seriously, professionally and with high quality. There has been improvement in the cultivation of morals in conjunction with the duty to set the example. The Party committees, cadre and members, and heads of organizations and units, especially the Members of the Politburo, Members of the Secretariat and Members of the Central Committee, have set examples through concrete acts and deeds, taking to heart the mantras "Leaders first, subordinates later", "inner first, outside later" and "studying side-by-side with doing". Mass education was conducted in a variety of innovative ways, thus positively improving both the awareness and actions of the Party cadre and members and the broader public. This has gradually turned the Ho Chi Minh thoughts, morals and style into the spiritual bedrock of our society. Inspections and supervision have received due attention and proved to be an effective channel of education and deterrence and prevention of wrongdoings.

These positive results have contributed to our fights against degradation in political thoughts, morals, lifestyle, and signs of self-evolution and self-transformation among Party cadre and members, particularly among the leadership and managerial echelon and heads of organs, offices and units. Such accomplishments are a boon to the building of a collective of Party cadre who are endowed with solid political mettle, untarnished morals, and a righteous sense of responsibility and motivation. They themselves are also the exemplary vanguard that shall successfully fulfil any given task, and the contributors to breakthroughs in socio-economic development, nation-building and defense. A plethora of difficult and highly complex issues in Party-building, especially with Party rectification, were mentioned across different terms of office, and as of the tenure of 12th Congress, saw clear improvements.

From within the movement of studying and emulating Uncle Ho has emerged a multitude of exemplary collectives and individuals. Their undertakings are encouraging to the broader society, inspiring the national spirit and patriotism, and the motivation and desire to devote to the nation from all walks of life. Their examples speak to the entire Vietnamese nation, exhorting US to resolutely and eagerly work towards the goal of national independence alongside socialism.

On behalf of the Party Central Committee, I would like to send my warm congratulations and salutations to all exemplary collectives and individuals of excellence in their study and emulation of President Ho Chi Minh. Each and every such exemplary collective and individual are as "beautiful flowers", whose efforts are blooming into "a forest of beautiful flowers" for our nation. Such endeavors of yours are well recognized by the Party and State. It is my hope that you would continue to build upon these accomplishments, set the examples and duplicate your good deeds for others to follow, and therefore grow.

However, apart from these achievements, there remain considerable shortcomings in the implementation of Directive No. 5 that require rectification. These include the irresolute, slow and impractical guidance, directions and organization of implementation, and the indistinct roles and responsibilities of the leadership in certain places. Commitments to self-improvement and discipline alongside the duty to set examples were not truly effective among a part of the Party cadre and members. The identification of potential breakthroughs was muddled in places. Refutation of false and hostile narratives remains passive. Discovery and praise given to exemplary collectives and individuals in studying and emulating Uncle Ho are yet timely or complete. Public information and commendation of such exemplary persons and deeds are not persuasive enough from time to time.

The struggles against phenomena of degradation in political thoughts, morals and lifestyle are not yet carried out with due vigor. It is exhibited by the insincere and superficial process of self-criticism and criticism in a number of places from time to time. It also includes the unwillingness to admit but blame the mistakes on -external circumstances, and hesitation in confronting wrongdoings. Inspections and supervision are executed irregularly and irresolutely with limited scope. Early warning and prevention of violations remain inefficient.

Dear comrades,

After 35 years of Doi Moi, from a poor country with outdated and underdeveloped physical, technical, economic and social infrastructure, Viet Nam has arisen and achieved enormous and historical accomplishments. "Our country has never enjoyed such fortune, power, international standing and prestige as it does today". The international and domestic landscapes are changing rapidly, in complicated and unpredictable ways, with opportunities intertwining with challenges and adversities. This poses new, more complex and more urgent questions to our cause of nationbuilding, renewal and development. The revolutionary cause of our Party and people is still faced with a multitude of hardships and challenges. The four threats warned by our Party still remain relevant, perhaps even more severe in certain aspects. Hostile elements are relentlessly working to subvert the revolutionary cause of our Party and people through denying the leadership of the Party and dividing the Party from the people, with the aim of overthrowing our Party and polity.

This state of affairs has exerted dramatic and multidimensional effects on our Party cadre and members and the people. It requires US to continue stepping up the study and emulation of Ho Chi Minh thoughts, morals and style, protecting the ideological cornerstone of the Party, and combating and refuting misleading and hostile narratives in order to meet the requirements of the revolutionary cause in the new period.

The Resolution of the 13th Party Congress clearly pointed out that "in the upcoming years, we must especially pay attention to and advance comprehensive Party building and rectification with regards to politics, ideology, morals, organization and cadre work". "We must remain steadfast and perseverant in the implementation of the Resolutions of the Meeting of the 11th Central Party Committee and the 4th Meeting of the 12th Party Central Committee on Party-building in conjunction with stepping up study and emulation of Ho Chi Minh thoughts, morals and style. This must be conducted through vigorous, determined and cohesive measures in order to stem the tide of degradation in political thoughts, morals, lifestyle, and signs of self-evolution and selftransformation within our own ranks".

The Party Committees, Government and State agencies must build upon the achievements of the past years, and continue to strengthen the study and emulation of Ho Chi Minh thoughts, morals and style. The Party cadre and members must take it upon themselves to seriously and effectively meet the requirements and fulfill the tasks set under the recent Conclusion No. 01-KL/TW dated 18 May 2021 of the Politburo on "Promoting the study and emulation of Ho Chi Minh thoughts, morals and style. In this regard, it is important to focus on and effectively implement three tasks, namely the study and emulation of President Ho Chi Minh thoughts, morals and style, and setting good examples among the Party cadre and members.

Learning from Uncle Ho means to study the revolutionary thoughts, world outlook and perceptions of life, and the morals and lifestyle of a genuine communist. Learning from Uncle Ho should become part of the lifestyle, way of thinking, and work method of each Party cadre and member, and people. The thoughts, morals, and lifestyle of President Ho Chi Minh need to be truly integrated into the social life and become the spiritual bedrock and sources of immense strength, thus enabling the entire Party, people, and army to fully demonstrate our internal synergy, overcome difficulties and challenges, and accomplish all revolutionary missions in the new period.

Every Party cadre and member needs to fully understand the thoughts of Uncle Ho and become consistent in their thoughts and deeds, words and actions. Each and every person can find in Uncle Ho's philosophy a moral standard to learn from and emulate, and a natural need and desire for self-improvement. Such qualities are the courage, perseverance, and absolute loyalty to the revolutionary goals and ideals; diligence, frugality, integrity, uprightness, public-spiritedness and selflessness; closeness to, faith in and love for the people, and the willingness to learn from and forge a flesh-and-blood connection with the masses; and whole-hearted dedication to the Fatherland and the people. These virtues help nourish patriotism, the spirit of national self-reliance and resilience, the aspirations for prosperity, happiness, and the desire to play our part in national development to bring about enduring prosperity to our people.

With a well-trained and mature pool of Party cadre and members, our Party will grow stronger with enhanced combativeness and candor. As such, our Party befits the revolutionary leadership and mission, and meeting the people's trust and expectations to be "the worthy leader and the loyal servant of the people".

Emulating Uncle Ho means to promote a strong shift from "studying" to "emulating", and deliver on promises through concrete programs and actions to implement the political mandate at each locality, agency, and unit, and in the work of Party building and rectification. These efforts need to go in tandem with upholding the responsibilities and ethics of each Party cadre and member, effectively implementing the breakthroughs and resolving critical pressing issues in reality, with the Ho Chi Minh Thoughts and Marxism-Leninism as the guiding principles in all actions.

Each Party cadre and member needs to have a thorough understanding of Ho Chi Minh Thoughts on Party building and rectification in terms of political thoughts, ideology, morals, lifestyle, organization and personnel. It is important to enhance the leadership capacity and the combativeness of the Party, build a socialist rule-of-law state that is "truly of the people, by the people, and for the people".

Being an exemplar means to learn from and emulate Uncle Ho and at the same time set an example. It is crucial to promote the effectiveness of the inter-relationships between these three tasks through upholding the pioneering role of the Party cadres and members. In this connection, the leaders of the Party committees, authorities, and agencies, particularly the members of the Politburo, the Party Secretariat, and the Party Central Committee need to take the lead in setting examples.

Each Party cadre and member needs to shoulder the responsibility of being a role model. The higher the position and rank, the more responsibility one must take in setting example in the cultivation of morals, in the lifestyle, manner, and work discipline for the people to follow. It is of great importance to firmly uphold the ideology and correct viewpoints; dare to think, dare to act, and dare to assume responsibility; and dedicate to the country and people. A leader must display science-based leadership, grounded in democracy and reality, and serve as the nucleus of solidarity and unity, in order to stimulate and harness collective wisdom. As Uncle Ho said, "a living role model is worth more than 100 motivational speeches".

It is essential to "uphold revolutionary morals, wipe out individualism", persistently and patiently combat, prevent and repel corruption, vices, stem the tide of degradation in political thoughts, morals, and lifestyle of Party cadres and members, and the phenomena of "self-evolution" and "self-transformation". The study of Ho Chi Minh Thoughts and emulation of his morals and lifestyle must become a routine task, for they serve the Party's spiritual need and leave behind a deep imprint on the cultivation of the Party culture. Such endeavors will truly bring about a truly "virtuous and civilized" Party.While performing these three tasks, it is important to closely combine "building" and "combating". In this process "building" is of fundamental and strategic significance while "combating" is a vital and urgent task. It is essential to "walk the talk", promote "lifelong self-improvement" and regularly conduct "self-reflection" and "selfcorrection". We need to exert every effort to combat, prevent and stem the tide of degradation in political thoughts, morals, lifestyles, and signs of 'self-evolution' and 'self-transformation' within the Party. We also need to persistently and patiently fight corruption and wrongdoings, bearing in mind that there is neither "red zone", exception nor influence from any ill-intentioned organization or individual in these struggles. To that end, it is vital to enhance inspections and supervision, warning and deterrence against any wrong thoughts or deeds. At the same time, we need to encourage the Party cadre and members to think and act in the interests and for the happiness of the people, and to build a truly pure and strong Party.

Dear comrades,

Our people often say that "Party members are the ones at the forefront, followed by the people". Throughout different chapters in the revolutionary history of our nation, our people always have the firm belief that "Under the able leadership of the Party, our nation has incessantly advanced from one victory to another". "Our party has nurtured a generation of revolutionary youth, regardless of being male or female, that are enthusiastic and courageous in all aspects. They are as beautiful flowers bloomed from revolutionary heroism".

I sincerely hope that after this Conference, the movement of studying and emulating President Ho Chi Minh thoughts, morals and style will continue to be promoted and deepened to be more practical and effective, thus contributing to the successful implementation of the Resolution of the 13th National Party Congress and the cause of renewal, nation-building and defense. We will exert every effort so that by the mid-21st century and on the centenary of the birth of the Democratic Republic of Viet Nam, now the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, Viet Nam will become a developed and high-income country. This also aims to realize President Ho Chi Minh's wish for Viet Nam to stand proudly as equals to major powers across all five continents.

May I wish you all good health, happiness and success!

Thank you for your kind attention.

LA LANGUE VIETNAMIENNE ET SES CARACTÉRISTIQUES TYPOLOGIQUES

Vietnamese language and its basic features

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ABSTRACT

Vietnamese language is a long term cultural heritage which has been formed, transformed and developed in history of building and protecting our country. In this article, the author outlines developmental process of this language (from ancient Vietnamese language to Nom writing and Modern Vietnamese writing) and differentiates two basic features which are isolating and tonal.

Keywords: *Vietnamese language, ancient Vietnamese language, Nom writing, Modern Vietnamese writing, isolating, tone*

1. INTRODUCTION

La langue vietnamienne est le parler de plus de 80% de la population du Vietnam. Elle est aussi la langue commune des 54 groupes ethniques minoritaires répartis sur l'actuel territoire du Vietnam. Par ailleurs, le vietnamien est encore parlé par plusieurs vietnamiens d'outre-mer (Việt Kiều) et étrangers qui vivent aux États-Unis, au Canada, en Allemagne, en France, en Australie, au Laos et au Cambodge, en Chine...

L'origine de la langue vietnamienne faisait toujours l'objet de recherches. Pourtant selon les recherches récemment publiées, on peut arriver à conclure que la langue vietnamienne appartenant au groupe Việt-Mường, au sous - groupe Việt-Chứt est située dans le groupe Việt-Katu, la zone de l'Est de la famille Môn-Khmer qui fait partie de la branche austro-asiatique (NGUYỄN Thiện Giáp, 2005).

Dans le cadre restreint de cet article, nous nous contentons d'aborder a priori l'évolution historique de cette langue et ses caractéristiques typologiques.

2. ÉVOLUTION HISTORIQUE DE LA LANGUE VIETNAMIENNE

Comme toute autre langue du monde, la langue vietnamienne a connu un long chemin de formation et de développement. En effet, les mutations linguistiques et sociales dues à l'usage de plus en plus amplifié de la langue nationale par la population et les contraintes d'une transformation profonde des structures fondamentales de la langue et des modes de composition de ses unités de base, en vue d'une meilleure organisation langagière au profit de l'efficacité de la communication, allaient renforcer ses caractéristiques les plus saillantes. L'histoire de la langue vietnamienne peut se résumer comme suit:

2.1. Le Việt cổ - l'écriture vietnamienne ancienne et Le Hán - le chinois classique (des siècles avant J.C au X^ème^ après J.C)

D'après le professeur LÊ Trọng Khánh (2010) - un grand linguiste vietnamien, le Vietnam a sa propre langue appelée le Việt cổ ou le Khoa đẩu (l'écriture vietnamienne ancienne) depuis des siècles avant Jésus Christ et cette langue apparut avant le Hán des milles ans et son écriture est tout à fait différente de celui de Hán (le chinois classique) Pourtant, avec la colonisation chinoise, cette langue ne put continuer à se développer dans le peuple. Il est à souligner que l'origine, l'existence et l'évolution historique du Việt cổ sont un sujet vraiment problématique. Il nous faut encore des recherches pour justifier la vie du Việt cổ.

Durant le temps de l'occupation chinoise (du I^{er} siècle avant J.C au X^{ème} après J.C), le Hán, langue dominante dans l'ancien Vietnam, est utilisé dans le domaine de l'administration, de l'éducation, de la philosophie, de la création littéraire des milieux cultivés, des études historiques et médicales, des rituels par les lettrés vietnamiens ainsi que dans les examens impériaux.

2.2. Le Nôm - l'écriture démotique (du X^{ème} siècle au XVII^{ème} siècle)

Au X^{ème} siècle, lorsque l'indépendance nationale « fût déjà un fait acquis et le contexte social favorable, la langue et une culture nationale véritable purent prendre un essor » (Vương Lộc, 1975, p. 15). Les Vietnamiens à cette époque ont éprouvé un besoin linguistique, celui d'inventer une écriture propre pour transcrire la langue nationale populaire. Pour ce fait, une écriture vietnamienne a vu le jour, qu'on appelle *Nôm*, écriture démotique issue de l'écriture chinoise, Hán et représentant une transcription mi-phonétique mi-idéographique du vietnamien. Les contacts fréquents entre le vietnamien et le Hán dont la prédominance existait toujours, ont eu pour conséquence inévitable l'existence d'un grand nombre d'emprunts Hán dans le lexique du vietnamien. Selon NGUYỄN Văn Nhân, le Nôm, issu du modèle chinois, peut être formé de plusieurs façons dont les principales sont les suivants:

- Emprunt d'un caractère chinois avec sa signification et sa prononciation adaptée à la vietnamienne;

- Création d'un caractère Nôm par la combinaison de deux caractères chinois, l'un exprime le sens, l'autre la phonétique;

- Formation d'un caractère Nôm par la combinaison d'un caractère chinois pour la partie sémantique et d'un caractère Nôm déjà existant pour la partie phonétique.

- Création d'un caractère Nôm par la combinaison de deux caractères chinois ayant chacun un sens.

Selon Đinh Văn Đức (2018), le Nôm est créé vers la fin du IX^{ème} siècle ou au début du X^{ème} siècle. Il faudra pourtant attendre jusqu'au XIII-XV^{ème} siècle pour lire des œuvres littéraires en Nôm des grands écrivains tels que Nguyễn Thuyên, Nguyễn Sĩ Cố, Chu Văn An, Nguyễn Trãi... Parmi ces œuvres, «Recueil de poèmes en langue nationale» (Quốc âm thi tập) de Nguyễn Trãi marqua le premier succès en littérature écrite du Vietnam. Depuis le XV^{ème} siècle, et plus tard, le XVIII^{ème} et le XIX^{ème}, il existe des courants littéraires en Nôm au cours desquels naquirent de grands chefs d'œuvre comme *Plaintes d'une femme dont le mari est parti pour la guerre (Chinh phụ ngâm) - Đặng Trần Côn, Histoire de Kiều (truyện Kiều) - Nguyễn Du.* De ces courants, le Nôm a pris l'éclat, son lexique est devenu de plus en plus amplifié et varié.

Le Roi Quang Trung décréta l'usage obligatoire du Nôm dans l'administration et les concours impériaux. De ce fait, le Nôm fut la langue officielle du Vietnam pendant 24 ans au cours de la dynastie de Tây Sơn (1778-1802).

En 1802, la monarchie de Nguyễn rétablit l'usage du Hán dans l'administration et la littérature. Pourtant ces interdits ne purent empêcher la littérature en Nôm se développer. Durant ce temps-là, plusieurs poèmes en Nôm sont apparus comme les représentants de la littérature vietnamienne. On peut citer quelques grands auteurs de ces poèmes: Hồ Xuân Hương, Đoàn Thị Điểm, Nguyễn Du, Trần Tế Xương, Nguyễn Khuyến...

Selon Maurice Durant (cité par Nguyễn Văn Nhân), la langue vietnamienne s'étant sans cesse enrichie et totalement dégagée de l'influence chinoise vers la seconde moitié du XIXème siècle, elle est prête à se mouler dans la forme du Quốc ngữ pour se divulguer plus largement dans toutes les classes sociales et recevoir les idées que lui apporte la civilisation occidentale. Le Nôm fait place peu à peu au Quốc ngữ pour disparaitre au XXème siècle.

2.3. Le Quốc ngữ - le vietnamien moderne, langue nationale (à partir du XVIIème siècle).

Du temps de colonisation française (du 1858 jusqu'au 1954), le français était la langue officielle au détriment du vietnamien relégué au second rang. La naissance du Quốc ngữ (le vietnamien moderne) relia toujours avec l'arrivée des missionnaires européens au Vietnam. Mais aujourd'hui encore, les Vietnamiens ne connaissent pas encore exactement l'inventeur de leur langue nationale. En effet, lorsque l'on parle du créateur du Quốc ngữ, il existe encore de nombreuses controverses entre historiens et chercheurs culturels vietnamiens et étrangers. Il existe deux grandes tendances. La première affirme que Le Père Alexandre Rhodes est le créateur du Quốc ngữ. La deuxième prétend que le Quốc ngữ est une œuvre internationale et collective dont les créateurs ne sont pas seulement les missionnaires européens (Francisco de Pina (Portugais), Chirstoforo Borri (Italien), Gaspar de Amiral et Antonio Barbora (Portugais) mais aussi les chrétiens vietnamiens, catéchistes, les frères et des prêtes. Pourtant, tous les chercheurs reconnaissent le rôle important d'Alexandre Rhodes dans la création de la langue nationale du Vietnam. Qui que soit l'inventeur du Quốc ngữ, sa création est de prêcher la religion catholique au Vietnam.

Selon NGUYỄN Văn Nhân, le Quốc ngữ a connu des grandes étapes qu'on pourrait résumer comme suit:

1er période: de 1862 à 1906: Disparition du Nôm et naissance du Quốc ngữ et sa vulgarisation par tous les moyens.

2ème période: de 1906 à 1913: Expansion de l'emploi du Quốc ngữ et usage obligatoire du Quốc ngữ dans l'enseignement secondaire.

3ème période: de 1913 à 1930: Déclin de l'ancienne culture chinoise par le gouvernement français, en faveur de la diffusion de la culture française par le Quốc ngữ. En 1919, le Quốc ngữ devint l'écriture nationale. En 1945, la fondation de la République démocratie du Vietnam qui marqua un pas décisif pour le développement du Quốc ngữ. Pour la première fois dans l'histoire du pays, «le vietnamien est appelé à jouer le rôle de la langue officielle d'une nation indépendante, celui d'une langue nationale au sens plein du terme» (Vương Lộc, 1975, p. 21). Le vietnamien est obligatoire pour l'administration et véhiculaire pour tout le système d'enseignement.

Le Quốc ngữ fut une transcription du vietnamien parlé en signes alphabétiques empruntés tantôt au portugais, à l'italien, à l'espagnol et au français, bref, aux langues d'origine latine. Cela signifie que l'écriture vietnamienne était latinisée. D'après les partisans du Việt cổ, le Quốc ngữ se basa sur le Việt cổ mais il est moins complexe et plus moderne que ce dernier. En parlant du lexique, le vietnamien dispose toujours des mots empruntés au lexique chinois moderne, surtout dans le domaine des sciences sociales. La prononciation des mots étant soumis aux règles de correspondances qui régissent les emprunts dits «Hán-Việt» (Chinois-Vietnamien). Parallèlement à ce domaine, on adopte aussi des termes français arrivés par voie de transcription phonétique. Selon les statistiques de l'édition du dictionnaire vietnamien en 1992, il existe environ 2.000 mots français dans la langue vietnamienne dont la plupart s'appartiennent aux domaines scientifiques et techniques. Prenons quelques exemples:

En français	API	En vietnamien
Radio	/radio/	Ra đi ô
Volant	/volã/	Vô lăng
Antenne	/ãten/	Ăng ten
Violon	/violõ/	Vi ô lông

Le Quốc ngữ fut utilisé d'abord dans les milieux ecclésiastiques pendant plus de deux siècles, et il finit par se répandre vers le dernier tiers du XIX^{ème} siècle, grâce aux progrès de l'évangélisation d'une part, et d'autre part grâce au recul de l'enseignement du Hán. Il est à souligner que cette écriture est d'abord rejetée par les Vietnamiens. En 1869, un arrêt du gouvernement de Nam Kỳ (région du sud du Vietnam - Cochinchine) rend obligatoire l'emploi du Quốc ngữ dans les documents administratifs. Pour certains lettrés patriotes, c'est l'écriture des conquérants, c'est à dire des barbares. L'un d'entre eux, Nguyễn Bá Học (1857-1921) fut dans l'obligation, pour trouver un travail, d'apprendre le Quốc ngữ, et en éprouva de la honte: «Généralement, je n'osais pas apprendre à haute voix; qu'un visiteur vint à la maison, vite je cachai le manuel dans ma poche comme s'il se fût agit - ce manuel contenait les 24 lettres de l'alphabet latin - d'un livre secret, d'un manuel prohibé» (NGUYỄN Văn Hoàn, 1984, p. 80).

Cependant, au début du XX^{ème} siècle, le Quốc ngữ est devenu un outil de lutte pour l'indépendance nationale chez les patriotes vietnamiens et un instrument de diffuser les nouvelles pensées, les nouveaux manuels auprès de masse. De nos jours, le Quốc ngữ appelé vietnamien est donc le véhicule de la modernisation et de l'identité nationale.

En un mot, étant confronté à deux grandes langues (le Hán et le français), le vietnamien constamment enrichi de nouveaux vocables, parvient à exprimer toutes les nuances les plus délicates de la pensée et du sentiment dans tous les aspects de la vie.

3. LES CARACTERISTIQUES TYPOLOGIQUES DE LA LANGUE VIETNAMIENNE

3.1. Le vietnamien - une langue isolante

La première caractéristique typologique de la langue vietnamienne qu'on devrait mentionner, c'est sans aucun doute qu'elle est une langue isolante et monosyllabisme. Cela signifie que « les mots sont ou tendent à être invariables et on ne peut pas, par conséquent, distinguer le radical et les éléments grammaticaux» (Jean Dubois et autres, 2002, p. 258). Cette particularité majeure domine le vietnamien sur tous les plans phonétique, lexical et syntaxique.

Pour mieux expliquer ce caractère isolant du vietnamien, il est nécessaire d'expliquer l'unité particulière dite unité de base du vietnamien qui joue un rôle important dans l'analyse linguistique du vietnamien, c'est tiếng. Il nous semble difficile de trouver son « étiquette équivalente». Comme le fameux linguiste vietnamien NGUYỄN Lân Trung a précisé: « ce n'est pas guère une question de traduction, mais plutôt de conception, car elle est encore assez étrangère aux yeux des linguistes de par le monde, sont souvent habitués à l'analyse des langues indoeuropéens». (NGUYỄN Lân Trung, 2006, p. 14). Nous pouvons, grosso modo, définir tiếng comme l'unité minimale de signification susceptible d'entrer dans la formation des mots de la langue et réalisée sous la forme d'une syllabe. Cette unité linguistique porte trois caractères fondamentaux. Premièrement, tiếng est une syllabe mais c'est une syllabe porteuse de sens. Alors, en tant qu'une unité signifiante qui ne peut pas diviser en unités signifiantes plus petites, tiếng équivaut au morphème (ou monème) dans les langues flexionnelles. Enfin, tiếng est l'unité prête à être composante de l'unité de rang supérieur qu'est le mot. On peut résumer les caractères fondamentaux de cette unité particulière du vietnamien dans le tableau ci - dessous:

	TIẾNG
Phonétique	une syllabe
Sémantique	unité minimale de signification
Grammatical	unité appelée à la formation du mot

(Selon Nguyễn Lân Trung, 2006)

Comme nous avons indiqué précédemment que le caractère isolant affecte tous les domaines linguistiques: phonétique, lexical et syntaxique

Sur le plan de la prononciation, chaque tiếng est une chaîne de vibration. Dans ce cas, un tiếng équivaut à une syllabe qui coïncide avec le morphème. En vietnamien, la syllabe est en même temps *mot* ou *morphème* et constitue une unité de base (*syllabe-morphème)*. En effet, la presque totalité des syllabes vietnamiennes sont des unités signifiantes et dotées de plus d'un statut lexical.

Sur le plan de l'écrit, tiếng est un mot distingué à gauche et à droite par les deux blancs. Un "tiếng" équivaut à un mot.

Considérons l'exemple suivant ci-dessous:

- "Không có gì quý hơn độc lập tự do"

(Rien n'est précieux que l'indépendance et la liberté).

On compte facilement que cet énoncé compte neuf tiếng. Cela signifie qu'il comporte neuf syllabes et neuf morphèmes.

Sur le plan lexical, chaque tiếng est une unité porteuse de sens. Dans ce cas, tiếng équivaut à un morphème *ou syllabe-morphème.* En vietnamien, tous les morphèmes sont monosyllabiques. Pour cette raison, la langue vietnamienne est également appelée langue monosyllabique. De plus, tiếng est l'unité linguistique de base pour former des mots. Le monosyllabisme constitue alors la particularité qui fait du vietnamien une langue typiquement isolante. Soit les suites suivantes :

- đất (la terre)
- nước (l'eau)
- đất nước (le pays)
- đo (mesurer)
- đỏ (rouge)
- đo đỏ (rougeâtre)

Sur le plan syntaxique, contrairement aux langues flexionnelles dont les mots sont pourvus de morphèmes grammaticaux indiquant la fonction des unités, et aux langues agglutinantes dont la structure est caractérisée par l'accumulation après le radical d'affixes distincts pour exprimer les rapports grammaticaux, en vietnamien, on ne remarque aucun changement morphologique, les mots sont invariables, il n'y a ni genre ni nombre ni pluriel ni conjugaison. Prenons un exemple pour illustrer notre propos:

- **Chạy** đi! (Courez !)
- Tôi **chạy** (Je cours)
- Chúng tôi đã **chạy** (Nous avons couru)
- Anh ấy sẽ **chạy** (Il courra)

Dans ces phrases ci- dessus, le verbe "chạy" (courir) ne change pas de forme, il reste toujours le même quoi qu'il soit au singulier ou pluriel, au présent, au passé ou au futur

En langue vietnamienne, la fonction grammaticale d'un mot dépend essentiellement de sa place dans la phrase, chaque mot garde toujours sa forme quoi qu'il soit sujet ou complément, l'adjectif ou le verbe ... Prenons l'exemple:

- Tôi yêu anh ấy. (Je l'aime.)
- Anh ấy yêu tôi. (Il m'aime.)

"Tôi" (je) dans la première phrase et "tôi" (me) dans la deuxième prennent la même forme pourtant ses fonctions sont tout à fait différentes. Le premier "tôi", placé avant le verbe est le sujet du verbe "yêu" (aimer) tandis que le deuxième, placé après le verbe est le complément du verbe. De même pour "anh ấy" (le), placé après le verbe dans la première phrase est le complément du verbe et "anh ấy" (il), placé avant le verbe dans la deuxième est le sujet de la phrase.

Donc, en langue vietnamienne, les propriétés et les diverses fonctions grammaticales des morphèmes et des mots ne se traduisent pas par une transformation sur le plan phonétique. Cela signifie que les parlers vietnamiens utilisent, pour établir les relations grammaticales des unités de leur système linguistique, d'autres procédés que le changement de la forme phonétique fréquemment constaté dans les langues flexionnelles.

Selon Nguyễn Lân Trung, en vietnamien, langue isolante, l'ordre de mot et des «particules» (mots outils) et parfois les faits prosodiques constituent autant de facteurs nécessaires à la détermination des fonctions qu'assurent les mots et de leurs relations mutuelles. Soit deux phrases vietnamiennes:

- Chơi đi! (Jouez + *particule injonctive*)
- Đi chơi. (Allez jouer)

Le premier "đi" est l'indice de l'impératif, tandis que dans la deuxième phrase, il acquiert toutes les qualités d'un verbe de mouvement, le verbe "aller". On voit combien important et strict l'ordre des mots dans cette langue.

3.2. Le vietnamien – une langue tonale

La deuxième caractéristique typologique est à remarquer que le vietnamien est une langue à tons dans laquelle chaque syllabe est prononcée avec un ton, comme certaines langues de l'Est et du Sud- Est de l'Asie (le chinois, le thaïlandais, le japonais…), plusieurs langues en Afrique et quelques langues européennes (le lituanien, le suédois et le norvégien). Mais le système tonal n'est pas le même dans ces langues à tons. Les langues japonaise, norvégienne, suédoise possèdent deux tons, tandis que le chinois du Nord en a 3 et le vietnamien 6. Alors, qu'est-ce que c'est le ton?

En linguistique, selon Jean Dubois, le terme de *ton* "souvent employé comme synonyme d'*intonation*, doit être réservé aux variations de hauteur (ton haut, moyen, bas) et de mélodie (contour montant, descendant, etc.) qui affectent une syllabe d'un mot dans une langue donnée» (J. Dubois et autres, 2002, p. 484). Nous voudrions ajouter à cette définition que le terme de *ton* est réservé aux variations de hauteur d'un mot tandis que l'*intonation* indique les variations de hauteur qui affectent un groupe de mot ou une phrase.

Lê Văn Lý, un grand linguiste vietnamien définit le ton comme «un fait phonétique» comportant des modulations, affectant l'élément vocalique d'un signe vocal et pouvant faire changer le sens des mots possédant les mêmes phonèmes.

Cao Xuân Hạo définit les *tons* comme un ensemble de traits distincts caractérisés comme des traits prosodiques- des unités suprasegmentales – «par opposition aux traits «inhéren » qui constituent les phonèmes» (Cao Xuân Hạo, 1985, p. 101).

De ces considérations, on peut dégager le ton comme l'unité phonologique complexe, constituée par certains traits distinctifs. Sur le plan phonétique, le ton représente le fait habituellement fonctionnel, cet élément a exactement la même fonction constitutive et distinctive que le phonème. Les traits distinctifs du ton sont au nombre de trois:

- Registre (haut/bas)
- Dessin mélodique (ponctuel/modulé)
- Friction glottale (sa présence/son absence)

Le système tonal en langue vietnamienne est assez complexe, il varie en fonction des régions du Nord au Sud. Selon Nguyễn Thiện Giáp (2005),

- Le parler du Nord (dont le modèle est la langue de Hanoï) compte 6 tons.
- Le parler du Sud en compte 5.
- Le parler du Centre n'en compte que 4.

Parmi ces trois dialectes, celui de Hanoï est le dialecte standard, donc, dans le cadre de cette communication nous n'abordons que les caractéristiques des tons de Hanoï. On peut représenter ces tons dans le tableau suivant:

Ton	Description	Signe
Ton 1 (Ton "ngang")	Haut- ponctuel	(sans signe)
Ton 2 (Ton "huyền")	Bas- ponctuel	`
Ton 3 (Ton "ngã")	Haut- glottal	˜
Ton 4 (Ton "hỏi")	Bas- modulé	ˀ
Ton 5 (Ton "sắc")	Haut- modulé	´
Ton 6 (Ton "nặng")	Bas- glottal	.

Les tons vietnamiens connaissent les trois paramètres principaux, à savoir la mélodie (correspondant à la variation de la fréquence fondamentale f_0), l'énergie et la durée. Pourtant, la variation de F_0 est le paramètre le plus important.

En fonction de la hauteur, on divise en deux catégories:

Tons du registre haut: ton1, ton 3, ton 5.
Ton du registre bas: ton 2, ton 4, ton 6

Comparons:

«ma» /ma^1/ (fantôme) et «mà» /ma^2/ (mais)

«mã» /ma^3/ (cheval) et «mả» /ma^4/ (tombeau)

«má» /ma^5/ (joue) et «mạ» /ma^6/ (jeune plant de riz)

On constate que les premières syllabes de chaque groupe sont prononcées à la hauteur haute tandis que les deuxièmes sont prononcées à la hauteur basse. D'après Đoàn Thiện Thuật (2004), les hauteurs différentes ou les traits distincts de la hauteur portent la valeur pertinente des tons vietnamiens.

En fonction de la durée, on a donc deux groupes:

Tons longs: ton1, ton 2, ton 3, ton 4.
Tons courts: ton 5, ton 6

Une autre caractéristique des tons en vietnamien c'est qu'ils sont toujours attachés à la syllabe qui doit nécessairement porter un des six tons précédemment mentionnés et ce ton affecte l'ensemble des phonèmes qui constitue le signe vocal. Mais il est nécessaire de préciser que c'est sur l'élément vocalique que se portent principalement les effets du ton.

Il est à remarquer que le ton porte la même valeur distinctive que le phonème. La seule différente est que le phonème est une unité phonologique segmentale, le ton en est une suprasegmentale.

Sur le plan sémantique, le ton permet de percevoir la différence de signification entre les syllabes ayant une structure identique. Autrement, les syllabes peuvent avoir les mêmes voyelles et les mêmes consonnes mais elles diffèrent par les tons. Prenons un exemple: un groupe phonique composé de deux phonèmes /bi/, suivant la hauteur du ton donné à ce groupe, autrement dit selon l'existence de l'un de six tons, nous avons des mots à significations tout à fait différentes:

«bi» /bi^1/ (bille)
«bì» / bi^2/ (peau de porc)
«bĩ» / bi^3/ (infortuné)
«bỉ» / bi^4/ (Belgique)
«bí» / bi^5/ (courge)
«bị» / bi^6/ (sac)

Ceci n'est pas évident pour les personnes qui parlent des langues dépourvues de tons. Comment un Français arrive-t-il à distinguer dans les trois groupes phoniques «ba», «bà», «bá», les trois significations aussi proches l'une de l'autre dans cette hiérarchie familiale «père', «grand- mère», «tante»? Si la flexion constitue une difficulté majeure pour les apprenants vietnamiens du français, le ton ne l'est pas moins pour les étrangers dont les français apprenant le vietnamien. Il est intéressant de signaler que le ton, de par son caractère mélodique, constitue l'instrument par excellence de la musique et de la poésie vietnamienne.

4. EN GUISE DE CONCLUSION

La langue vietnamienne a connu des vicissitudes comme nous l'avons abordé ci-dessus. Ce sont ses caractéristiques de langue isolante et tonale qui constituent ses originalités. Confronté durant de longs siècles à deux langues de civilisation (le Hán et le français), le vietnamien s'est constamment enrichi de vocables nouveaux pour parvenir à exprimer toutes les nuances les plus délicates de la pensée et du sentiment sous tous les aspects de la vie.

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TIẾNG VIỆT VÀ NHỮNG ĐẶC TÍNH CƠ BẢN CỦA TIẾNG VIỆT

TRẦN THỊ MINH THỤC

Tóm tắt: Tiếng Việt tồn tại như ngày nay là một di sản văn hoá lâu đời được hình thành, biến đổi và phát triển theo thời gian trong quá trình dựng nước và giữ nước của ông cha ta. Trong bài báo này, tác giả phác hoạ lại các quá trình phát triển của ngôn ngữ này (từ tiếng Việt cổ, đến chữ Nôm và chữ Quốc ngữ) và làm rõ hai đặc tính cơ bản tạo nên sự khác biệt của ngôn ngữ này, đó là đặc tính đơn lập và có thanh điệu.

Từ khoá: *Tiếng Việt, Việt cổ, Hán, Nôm, Quốc ngữ, đơn lập, thanh điệu*

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汉越语疑问句中表示揣测的语气词“吧”与“CHỨ/HẢ/NHỈ”对比研究

A comparision between modal particles “吧” and “chu/ha/nhi” in questions indicating judgment in Chinese and Vietnamese

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ABSTRACT

The modal particle “吧” is used in the questions to express prediction, and to mean the doubtful attitude of the speaker. The modal particle “吧” in the Chinese question can be translated as “chu/ha/nhi”, but sometimes the usage of “吧” and “chu/ha/nhi” is not the same. Therefore, the article woud like to analyse questions using the modal particle “吧” at the end of the Chinese sentences and compare with the equivalent forms in Vietnamese to find out the similarities and differences in grammatical aspects between the languages..

Keywords: *modal particle, “吧”, “chu/ha/nhi”, usage, compare*

一、引言

句末语气词“吧”的使用频率非常高，一般用于疑问句，既可用于是非问句末尾，也可用于特指问句末尾，但用于是非问句占绝对优势，极少用于特指问句。

金智妍认为 句末带“吧”的典型是非问句表示说话人的揣测，即对命题内容的不很肯定的态度。基于自己的己知信息加上听话人提供的新信息, 说话人对某种情况作出判断, 且对自己的判断具有一定程度以上的确信。不过说话人获得的信息不够充分，不能对自己的判断做出100% 的肯定, 就通过“询问”的行为要求听话人的证实。所认用于典型是非问句末尾的“吧”表达的是说话人对命题内容的猜测性态度（金智妍，2011，第112页）。

我们通过考察语料，并发现用于是非问句表示揣测的句末语气词“吧”译成越南语时大多数都采用“chứ/hả/nhỉ”的对应表达形式。虽然它们的意义相同，即都表示说话人的揣测，但是两者的用法方面不完全一致。本文尝试对两者的语法性质进行对比分析，进而找出异同点，希望对越南的汉语学习者及研究汉越语言的学者有所帮助。

本文收集的语料主要来自北京大学中国语言学研究中心语料库和越南语中心语料库，另外还有一些来自日常交际口语的语料。

二 、汉越语是非问句中“吧”和“chứ/hả/nhỉ”的语义简介

“吧”是现代汉语中最典型的语气词之一。“吧”用于陈述句、疑问句、祈使句的句末语气词，表达各种丰富的语气。陆俭明已经指出语气词“吧”是半个疑问词、表疑信之间的口气（陆俭明，1984）。胡明扬认为语气词“吧”表示说话内容不肯定的口气（胡明扬，1986）。

根据这两位学者的观点，我们可以看出，句末语气词“吧”用于是非问句时所表达的意义是说话人的揣测，即对命题内容的不很肯定和半信半疑的态度。例如：

（1）你吃饭了**吧**？

例（1）中，若去掉语气词“吧”，说话人对“你吃饭了”的命题内容完全不知道，句子疑惑的口气比较强。加上语气词“吧”会存在说话人的猜测的意味，表示说话人半信半疑的态度即可能已经吃或还没吃；“吧”减少“疑惑”的口气。

越南语语气词“chứ/hả/nhỉ ”用于是非问句句末时，表示揣测的语气，即说话人对不确定的问题或多或少已经有一定的判断，有不敢肯定之意（陈光辉，2015，第68页）。例如：

(2) Mày buồn vì không gặp nó **hả**? (Bảo Ninh, *Nỗi buồn chiến tranh*).

(3) Ông già còn lạc quan **nhỉ**? (Nguyễn Khải, *Gặp gỡ cuối năm*).

(4) Công việc thuận lợi **chứ**?

上面的例句，加上语气词 “hả/nhỉ/chứ” 说话人对 “mày buồn vì không gặp nó”、“ông già còn lạc quan”、“công việc thuận lợi” 的命题有半信半疑的态度、不肯定之意，说话人提出一定的判断。

虽然语气词“hả/nhỉ/chứ”都包含揣测之意，但是它们本身用法也有区别。“hả”用于是非问句，但是稍微带有半信半疑的意思。“nhỉ”一般用于口语，表示缓和的语气，希望对方同意；“chứ”表示已经预测到某种信息，希望对方给予证实。如果根据测度标志来看，“nhỉ”的测度比“chứ”的高。若根据疑问度就反过来，“chứ”疑问度却比“nhỉ”的高。

三、汉越语是非问句中 “吧” 和 “chứ/ hả/ nhỉ” 的语法性质对比

笔者从在句中的位置、跟其他成分搭配、连用现象等三个角度对汉语是非问句中句末语气词 “吧” 与越南语句末语气词 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 的语法性质进行对比。下面将对它们具体情况进行分析：

(一)汉越语是非问句中 “吧” 和 “chứ/hả/ nhỉ” 的位置对比

1. 汉越语是非问句中“吧”和“chứ/hả/nhỉ”位置的相同点

无论汉语还是越南语，从句法分布来看，大部分语气词都位于句子末尾，是汉越语语气词句法分布的一个大特征。语气词 “吧” 和越南语语气词 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 都可以出现在是非问句句末位置，表示揣测或估计的语气。例如：

⑸他们平时也不回来**吧**？(王朔《浮出海面》)

(6) Bỏ tù nó thì dễ rồi; nhưng bỏ tù nó cũng có ngày nó được ra, liệu lúc ấy nó có để mình yên không **chứ**? (Nam Cao, *Tuyển tập Nam Cao, tập 1*).

(7) Hôm nay con vẫn đi học **hả**? - Nó ngồi dậy, vừa ngáp vừa hỏi. Bởi nó thấy mọi chuyện trong gia đình bị đảo lộn lên tất cả rồi. (Bảo Ninh, *Nỗi buồn chiến tranh*).

(8) Ừ. Họ sẽ khốn khổ. Hoà bình, cánh mình có quay trở lại chắc gì họ còn đối đãi tử tế nữa **nhỉ**? (Bảo Ninh, *Nỗi buồn chiến tranh*).

例（5）语气词“吧”用于句末，表示说话人不肯定他们的情况平时回来或不回来，所以提出自己的判断。例（6）语气词 “chứ” 用于句末，表示 说话人根据现在的情况认为 “bỏ tù nó thì dễ rồi”，但是看将来的情况具有一定的确信 “nhưng bỏ tù nó cũng có ngày nó được ra", 说话人没有把握情况所以自己有判断 “liệu lúc ấy nó có để mình yên”。例（7）语气词 “hả” 用在句末，表示说话人根据家庭变化的情况，不知道要不要 “đi học”， 所以自己提出揣测问句。例（8）语气词 “nhỉ” 用在句末，表示说话人看到情况 “họ sẽ khốn khổ”，所以自己还没把握以后他们对回来的人们有如何的态度。

2. 汉越语是非问句中“吧”和“chứ/hả/nhỉ”位置的不同点

通过考察语料，笔者发现, 汉语句末语气词 “吧” 与句子实体连在一起，中间没有停顿。越南语的句末语气词 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 大多数也与句子实体紧密相连，但是 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 可以与

句子实体隔开，句子实体和句末语气词 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 之间有停顿。这样看来，越南语句末语气词 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 位于是非问句的末尾，有的语气词 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 与句子实体连在一起（语气词 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 和句子实体之间没有停顿），有的与句子实体隔开（语气词 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 和句子之间有停顿）。

概括起来，越南语语气词 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 处于是非问句的末尾，包括以下几种（划线部分A为第二人称词语）：

(9) Có thắp đèn **chứ**, <u>chú</u>?（句子语气词, A) (Ma Văn Kháng, *Côi cút giữa cảnh đời*).

(10) Thím Thủ với các cô ấy về rồi **hả** <u>u</u>? (句子语气词A）(Nguyễn Khắc Trường, *Mảnh đất lắm người nhiều ma*).

(11) Mất chỗ tốt bây giờ, Phương? Còn nhìn ai nữa thế, **hả** <u>Phương</u>? （句子，语气词A）(Bảo Ninh, *Thân phận của tình yêu*).

(12) Sao ông ngu thế **hả**, <u>ông Tẩm</u>? Đoạn cô quay ngang, nhìn cả lớp. (句子语气, A) (Ma Văn Kháng, *Côi cút giữa cảnh đời*).

(13) Nghe xưa quá, cổ quá, <u>chú</u> **nhỉ**? Đã có hàng triệu người nói như vậy rồi.（句子，A语气词）(Nguyễn Khải, *Gặp gỡ cuối năm*).

(14) Liệu tàu có đỗ ga ấy không <u>anh</u> **nhỉ**?

(句子A语气词）(Bảo Ninh, *Thân phận của tình yêu*).

(15) Bác Hoàng mặc thế nào cũng đẹp, <u>chú Việt</u> **nhỉ**?（句子，A语气词）(Nguyễn Khải, *Gặp gỡ cuối năm*).

根据上面的例如，我们得出这样的结论：语气词 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 分别为五种不同的分布情况，概括了语气词 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 与句子实体和A之间的关系及分布。无论有没有A，语气词 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 都应处理为句末语气词，因为除了第二人称词语以外，其他词语都不能出现在句末语气词 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 之后。

汉语语气词 “吧” 越南语语气词 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 与第二人称词语共现及停顿的异同如下表。

表1. 汉越语语气词 “吧, chứ/hả/nhỉ” 与第二人称分布情况

语言 / 句式	汉语	越语
1.句子语气词A	V	V（hả, nhỉ）
2.句子语气词，A	V	V（hả, chứ）
3.句子A语气词	X	V（nhỉ）
4.句子，A语气词	X	V（nhỉ）
5.句子，语气词A	X	V（hả）

（V: 表示有，X: 表示没有）

通过上表可见，在汉语里，句子实体与第二人称词语之间可有停顿，但句子实体与语气词“吧”之间是绝对没有停顿的。越南语语气词 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 与句子实体及第二人称词语之间的关系较为松散，他们之间的停顿可有可无，这在一定程度上显示出越南语语气词的独立倾向，是越南语语气词进一步虚化的一种表现。

(二)汉越语是非问句中语气词 “吧, chứ/hả/nhỉ” 跟其他成分搭配

1. 跟表示揣测的情态副词搭配

通过考察语料，笔者发现，汉语带语气词 “吧” 和越南语带语气词 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 表示揣测意义的句子都可以跟揣测情态副词搭配。

再从带语气词 “吧” 的句子情况看，由于句末语气词 “吧” 表示不很肯定的态度，所以句末语气词 “吧” 常常跟表示揣测意义的副词共现，以加强揣测语气。在我们考察的语料中语气词 “吧” 和表示揣测的副词共现的例子数量不多。句末带 “吧” 的典型是非问句也常常含有表示认识情态意义的副词，不过在我们的语料中，这里的情态副词种类更为丰富，即语气词“吧”可以跟表示不确信意义的副词共现，如 “大概、也许、大致”，也可以跟 “肯定、一定” 等表示确信意义的副词共现。例如：

（16）“哎, 你会弹琵琶, 那也一定会弹吉他**吧**？” 许逊冲米兰说。(王朔, 动物凶猛)

例 (16) 中说话人认为听话人会弹琵琶, 那弹吉他也应该没问题，因为吉他跟琵琶都是弦乐器。说话人确信自己的判断而使用确信情态词“一定”，但受句末语气词 “吧” 的影响，句子变为表达说话人的揣测。若去掉句末的“吧”，句子表示说话人的肯定态度。

（17）大概我们的人民个个都是天生的乐观主义者所以如此**吧**？(王朔, 动物凶猛).

例（17）中没有证据证明说话人的判断是否正确，说话人不敢肯定, 就通过句末语气词 “吧” 来表达了揣测的语气。但是，例（17）中也使用了表揣测义的副词 “大概”，所以即使去掉句末语气词“吧”，句子也表示揣测意义。

(18) Bác ơi, ở chỗ đơn vị chắc độ này rét lắm **hả**? (Lê Lựu, *Thời xa vắng*).

(19) Cảnh này có lẽ còn kéo dài anh **nhỉ**? (Bảo Ninh, *Nỗi buồn chiến tranh*).

例（18）中当说话人认为 “ở chỗ đơn vị độ này rét lắm” 就意味着他对这方面比较了解，或曾经在那个地方住过，说话人对自己的判断具有一定的确信, 就使用了表示确信语气的 副词 “chắc”。例（19）中没有证据证明说话人的判断是否正确，说话人不敢肯定，就通过句末语气词 “nhỉ” 来表达了揣测的语气。但是，例（19）也使用了表揣测义的副词 “có lẽ”，所以即使去掉句末语气词 “nhỉ”，句子还是表示揣测意义。

2. 跟表示揣测的情态动词搭配

通过考察语料，笔者发现，句末语气词 “吧” 和 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 用在是非问句可以跟 “应该、可能、会、要” 等表示揣测的情态动词搭配。例如:

(20) 他可能回国了**吧**？

(21) 我忽然感到，在他的心目中、目中，我也应该算是已经老化和过时**吧**？(王朔, 过把瘾就死)

(22) À, thế ông Nghị có việc gì cần tôi giúp đấy **chứ**?（Vũ Trọng Phụng, *Giông tố*).

(23) À cũng tại em quên không nói cho chị biết em đã có chồng mà chồng em là “cớm” nên em có nhà ở Sở mật thám chị **nhỉ**?（Nguyên Hồng, *Bỉ vỏ*).

上面的例子，例（20）中语气词“吧”可以跟情态动词“可能”共现，例（21）中语气词“吧”可以跟情态动词“应该”共现，例（22）中语气词 “chứ” 跟情态动词 “cần” 共现，例(23) 中语气词 “nhỉ” 跟情态动词 “nên” 共现。

(三) 句末语气词 “吧”和 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 连用现象研究对比

1. 句末语气词 “吧” 和 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 的连用现象简介

汉越语是非问句中语气词 “吧” 和 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 一般情况下单独使用。但有的时候，两个甚至三个语气词同时出现，这就是语气词的连用。语气词 “吧” 和 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 的连用现象，汉语和越南语都有，二者有许多相同点，但也存在不同之处。下面将分别考察汉语和越南语语气词 “吧”, “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 的连用现象，在此基础上将二者进行对比。

通过考察大量的实例，我们得出语气词

“吧” 连用的现象有两个语气词 连用 “的吧、了吧、呢吧” 及三个语气词连用只有 “的了吧”。例如：

（24）好容易，日本人走啦，该缓一口气了吧？（老舍, 茶馆）

（25）您在北京住了好几代的了吧？（赵树理, 三里湾）

越南语语气词 “chứ/hả/nhỉ” 连用的现象数量比较多具体如下表：

表2. 越南语语气词 *"chứ/hả/nhỉ"* 连用现象

语气词连用	Chứ	Nhỉ	Hả
两个	Chứ nào, chứ mà, chứ này, chứ đâu, ấy chứ, thế chứ, với chứ, đấy chứ, kia chứ, đâu chứ, thôi chứ, đi chứ, đã chứ, chứ nhỉ, sao chứ	ấy nhỉ, đây nhỉ, thế nhỉ, với nhỉ, đây nhỉ, đấy nhỉ, đâu nhỉ, kia nhỉ, thôi nhỉ, đi nhỉ, đã nhỉ, vậy nhỉ, cơ nhỉ	ấy hả, thế hả, đây hả, đấy hả, đâu hả, kia hả, thôi hả, đi hả, đã hả, vậy hả, cơ hả, chứ hả
三个	Với chứ ạ, với đã nhỉ, đấy chứ nhỉ, thôi chứ nhỉ, thôi chứ hả, thôi đã nhỉ, thôi đã hả, thôi đi chứ, thôi vậy nhỉ, đi chứ nhỉ, đi chứ hả, đi thôi nhỉ, đi đã nhỉ, đi đã hả, đi vậy nhỉ, đã chứ ạ, đã chứ hả, đã chứ nào, đâu đấy nhỉ, thế cơ hả, thế kia hả, với chứ nào, với chứ ạ.		
四个	Đi đã chứ ạ, đi thôi chứ nhỉ, đi đã chứ nhỉ, đâu đấy ấy nhỉ, ấy rồi đấy nhỉ		

例如：

(26) Đầu bài kì này khá nặng **đấy nhỉ**? (Ngô Tất Tố, *Lều chõng*).

(27) Đến lúc anh em ta lên đường **thôi chứ nhỉ**? (Bảo Ninh, *Nỗi buồn chiến tranh*).

(28) Trước tiên cần lau chùi dọn dẹp cho sạch **đi đã chứ nhỉ**?

2. 句末语气词 "吧" 和 "chứ/hả/nhỉ" 的连用现象对比

从上面对于汉语和越南语语气词连用的先后顺序以及相关问题可以看出，汉越语语气词"吧" 和 "chứ/hả/nhỉ" 在连用方面上存在着许多共同点：

第一、汉越语是非问句中语气词 "吧" 和 "chứ/hả/nhỉ" 的连用，有两个语气词连用，也有三个语气词连用，两个语气词连用的情况比三个连用的多。例如：

（29） 你骗他**呢吧**？(王朔, 动物凶猛)

（30）能不能化我加入你们啊？你们应该已经知道我是很有用**的了吧**？(老舍, 新时代的旧悲剧)

(31) Có phải là giấc ngủ, hay là một con sóng từ thời ông đi rừng chặt gỗ xuôi sông Công về đóng đô? Hay là một cây đu tre ở đầu làng **thế nhỉ**? (Nguyễn Khắc Trường, *Mảnh đất lắm người nhiều ma*).

(32) Anh biết cô Ngọc **đấy chứ**? (Ngô Tất Tố, *Lều chõng*).

(33) Chú Ích **đấy hả**? Lại đào đá ong hử? được rồi, về đi tớ đến ngay.(Nguyễn Khắc Trường, *Mảnh đất lắm người nhiều ma*).

(34) Mẹ mày dạy mày **thế đấy chứ**? (Ngô Tất Tố, *Tắt đèn*).

上面的例子，例（29）中有两个语气词 "吧" 和 "呢" 连用，例（30）有三个语气词 "的、了、吧" 连用。例（31）、（32）、（33）中有两个语气词连用 "thế nhỉ、đấy chứ、đấy hả"，例（34）中有三个语气词连用 "thế đấy chứ"。

第二、从意义来看，汉越语是非问句语气词 "吧" 和 "chứ/hả/nhỉ" 连用后表示揣测意义，尽管连用组合中的语气词仍各自保留原有的语气意义。例如：

(35) a. Lần này là thật **chứ hả** anh Lộc?

b. Lần này là thật **chứ** anh Lộc?

c. Lần này là thật **hả** anh Lộc?

(36) a. 噢，他还没给你介绍我是谁**呢吧**？

b. 噢，他还没给你介绍我是谁**呢**？

c. 噢，他还没给你介绍我是谁**吧**？

从上述两个例句 (35)、(36) 可以看出，语气词"chứ"、"hả"、"呢"、"吧"在进入连用组合后仍保留其原有的语气意义，"chứ"、"hả"分别表示"半信半疑"和"加强疑问"等语气，"呢"和"吧"分别表示"夸张"和"半信半疑"等语气。不过，这些语气词连用后其原有的语气意义已有所减弱，具有融合化的倾向。

第三、汉越语语气词连用时都讲究层次问题。两个或三个语气词在与实体句子结合之前本身并没有直接组合的关系。语气词 "吧" 和

"chứ/hả/nhỉ" 连用，有的都属于全句，有的前一个语气词属于小句，后一个属于全句等。无论属于全句还是小句，连用时各个语气词都是不站在一个层面上的。例如：

（37）晚上经过地道，你会害怕**的吧**？

这个例子组合层次如下：

第一层：晚上经过地道，你会害怕+**的**

第二层：晚上经过地道，你会害怕**的+吧**

例（37）是两个语气词连用，第一层的语气词"的"表示确实如此的语气，第二层的语气词"吧"表示半信半疑的语气。

(38) Độ này quan lớn mạnh khoẻ **đấy chứ**?

这个例子组合层次如下:

第一层 : Độ này quan lớn mạnh khoẻ + **đấy**

第二层 : Độ này quan lớn mạnh khoẻ **đấy + chứ**

例（38）是两个语气词连用，第一层的语气词"đấy" 强调某种事情己经完成的语气，第二层的语气词"chứ"表示半信半疑的语气。

汉越语语气词 "吧" 和 "chứ/hả/nhỉ" 连用在分布上确实存在许多相同之处，但也有不少细微差别。汉越语气词 "吧" 和 "chứ/hả/nhỉ" 连用的不同之处主要有：

第一、 如上所述，汉语语气词 "吧" 连用时最多只有三个语气词连用。越南语中 "chứ/hả/nhỉ" 有两个，三个，甚至还有四个语气词连用的现象。例如：

（39）Muộn quá rồi, ăn cơm **đi thôi chứ nhỉ**?

在例（39）中有四个语气词连用 "đi thôi chứ nhỉ" 表示揣测的意义是由最后的两个语气词 "chứ nhỉ" 组成的。

第二、汉语语气词 "吧" 连用时，中间不能插入任何词语，越南语语气词 "chứ/hả/nhỉ" 则可以插入第二人称词语。根据不同的语气词，这类词在不同的连用组合中可以出现在连用组合中间，也可以出现在连用组合之后，不能出现在连用组合之前。例如：

(40) Hôm nay có khách ở trên về **chứ anh nhỉ**? (Nguyễn Khắc Trường, *Mảnh đất lắm người nhiều ma*).

(41) U chưa về **ấy hả chị Đào**? (Nguyễn Khắc Trường, *Mảnh đất lắm người nhiều ma*).

上面例（40）中第二人称词语 "anh" 可以插入语气词连用 "chứ nhỉ"的中间，例（41）中第二人称词语 "chị Đào" 可以出现在语气词连用 "ấy hả " 之后。

第三、 据观察，汉语语气词 "吧" 连用时，中间不能有停顿，这也不同于越南语。从语料可以发现，越南语语气词 "chứ/hả/nhỉ" 连用时中间可以有停顿，书写时表现为逗号 。例如:

(42) - Cháu Duy! Còn con mẹ Quỳnh **đây**, **hả**? (Ma Văn Kháng, *Côi cút giữa cảnh đời).*

(43) Trưa chiều cháu ăn cơm nóng **chứ**, bà **nhỉ**? (Ma Văn Kháng, *Côi cút giữa cảnh đời).*

例（42）中的语气词连用 "đây hả" 中间有停顿，连用组合中出现称呼听话人的词语也不影响连用组合的停顿，如例（43）中间 "chứ nhỉ" 可以插入称呼听话人的词语 "bà"。

四、结语

汉语语气词"吧"和越南语语气词 "chứ/hả/nhỉ" 用于是非问句句末，表示估计或揣测的语义，即对命题内容不很肯定的态度。不过，两者的用法不完全一致，汉越语语气词"吧" 和 "chứ/hả/nhỉ" 都用于是非问句句末，但汉语句子实体与第二人称词语之间可有停顿，句子实体与语气词 "吧" 之间没有停顿。越南语语气词 "chứ/hả/nhỉ" 与句子实体及第二人称词语之间的关系较为松散，它们之间的停顿可有可无。汉越语语气词"吧"和 "chứ/hả/nhỉ" 都有连用现象，但越南语有四个语气词连用、连用之后可以插入第二人称词语、连用组合之间可以有停顿 ，汉语没有这些用法。

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SO SÁNH TRỢ TỪ NGỮ KHÍ "吧" VÀ "CHỨ/HẢ/NHỈ"
TRONG CÂU NGHI VẤN BIỂU THỊ PHÁN ĐOÁN TIẾNG HÁN VÀ TIẾNG VIỆT

NGÔ THỊ TRÀ

Tóm tắt: Trợ từ ngữ khí "吧" trong câu hỏi có trợ từ nghi vấn dùng để biểu thị ngữ nghĩa phán đoán, mang ngữ khí nửa tin nửa ngờ và không khẳng định của người nói. "吧" trong câu hỏi dùng trợ từ nghi vấn tiếng Hán dịch sang tiếng Việt là "chứ/hả/nhỉ", nhưng đôi khi cách dùng của "吧" và "chứ/hả/nhỉ" không giống nhau. Do vậy, từ phương diện ngữ pháp, bài báo tiến hành phân tích câu hỏi có dùng trợ từ nghi vấn "吧" ở cuối câu trong tiếng Hán và đồng thời đối chiếu với hình thức tương đương trong tiếng Việt, từ đó tìm ra điểm giống nhau và khác nhau giữa hai ngôn ngữ.

Từ khóa: *trợ từ ngữ khí, "吧", "chứ/nhỉ/hả", ngữ pháp, so sánh*

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USING SIMULATION TECHNIQUES TO ENHANCE ENGLISH SPEAKING SKILLS FOR THIRD-YEAR ENGLISH-MAJOR CADETS AT MILITARY SCIENCE ACADEMY

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ABSTRACT

This research aimes at examining the effectiveness of simulation techniques in improving speaking skills for third-year English-major military cadets at MSA through the employment of an action research model with four steps: preliminary investigation, action plan development, action implementation and reflection. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected for the study based on the cadets' speaking performance in the pre-test and post-test, as well as their responses in the questionnaire and interviews. The data results indicate that using simulations could significantly enhance the cadets' speaking competence in terms of fluency, vocabulary and interactional skills. Additionally, most of the participants believed that they became more confident and motivated after being exposed to simulation-based learning. Some challenges faced by the cadets can also be identified during the treatment.

Keywords: *simulation techniques, speaking skills, speaking competence, interactional skills, cadets*

1. INTRODUCTION

Over the past few decades, the importance of English language training for the military has grown enormously due to the changing role of the military and changes in defense relations. English has become a military lingua franca and an operational language of military missions around the world. Being aware of these changes, Vietnam's People Army has attached great importance to English teaching and learning. Improving the quality of English language learning and teaching, therefore, has become a crucial issue in Vietnamese military universities and colleges. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), for long, has emerged as an effective approach in foreign language teaching. Instead of focusing on linguistic features, the stress has been shifted to teaching oral aspects of the language. In the light of CLT approach, there have been various teaching methods and techniques employed to enhance students' communicative skills, and using simulations is rendered as one of the most worthwhile techniques.

Simulations involve activities governed by scenario and objectives, and the participants should follow a set of procedures and stages to perform in the situation as if it is real (Kerr, 1977). Through the employment of simulations, students feel more confident and motivated as they can engage in real-life environment (Jones, 1982), students' anxiety levels are reduced which is essential to language development (Krashen, 1982); the learner confront and identify with the target culture (Oxford & Crookall, 1990) and teachers are allowed to monitor the participants progress unobtrusively (Davis, 1996).

At the Military Science Academy, it is observed that most cadets have faced difficulties in learning military English speaking skills, including lack of military terminology and motivation to practice English, as a result, their speaking competence is still limited (Hanh & Phuong, 2019). Therefore, the study was conducted to explore the effectiveness of simulation techniques in enhancing the cadets' speaking skills by addressing the following two research questions:

1. To what extent can simulations enhance English speaking skills of third-year English-major cadets at the MSA?

2. What are the MSA cadets' attitudes towards the employment of simulations in English speaking classes?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, some concepts related to speaking skills, including definitions and the importance of teaching English speaking skills will be presented. Besides, simulations-related aspects, including definitions, structure, benefits and drawbacks of using simulations in teaching speaking skills will be also introduced. Finally, some studies on the effectiveness of simulations in improving English speaking skills will be also reviewed.

2.1. Speaking skills

2.1.1. Definitions of speaking skills

The concept of speaking in language learning has been defined by various linguistic researchers. Bygate (1987, p.115) states that speaking skills, as interaction skills, is "the use of language for maintaining communication between participants" and "skills of deciding what to say, when to say it, and how to say it clearly". Developing this definition, Chaney and Burke (1998, p.13) add that speaking is not only "the process of building and sharing meanings through the use of verbal" but also "non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts". Despite looking at different aspects of speaking in their definitions, most scholars share the same idea that speaking is productive skills which involve not only the oral performance of linguistic competence, but also sociolinguistic competence, i.e. the speaker can "understand when, why, and in what ways to produce language" (Nunan, 1999, p. 216).

2.1.2. The importance of teaching speaking skills

Despite the fact that in order to be a successful foreign language speaker, all the four skills (reading, listening, writing, speaking) should be well-developed, the ability of expressing oneself is seen as the most important element of mastering a foreign language. Upon speaking, students are able to express themselves, to exchange information and to learn appropriate patterns of communication for different social and cultural contexts. Therefore, it is necessary for foreign language learners to be guided by teachers in acquiring speaking skills since with the educator's help, they are able to use the language properly.

However, speaking has been viewed as the most demanding of the four skills to be taught and learnt (Bailey & Savage, 1994, p. 7). Brown (2001) points out some particular features that make speaking challenging, such as contractions, vowel reductions and elision; the use of slangs and idioms; stress, rhythm and intonation and the need to interact with at least one speaker. As a result, a great number of students might develop shyness and lack of confidence in speaking. Therefore, serious attention should be paid to teaching speaking skills so as to help students overcome fear, frustration and obtain confidence, and ultimately help them communicate effectively and as naturally as possible.

2.2. Simulation as a teaching tactic

2.2.1. Definitions of simulation

Simulations were originally used as a learning technique in business and military training (Sam, 1990). Jones (1982, p. 5) refers a simulation as "a reality of function in a simulated and structured environment". Jones' definition shows three essential elements of a simulation, namely a reality of function, a simulated environment, and a structure. Additionally, Mack (2009, p.4) adds that a simulation is "a method of training or research that attempts to create a realistic experience in a controlled environment".

2.2.2. Structure of a simulation

As pointed out by Jones (1982), one of the three characteristics of a simulation is a structure. Simulations can vary in length but basically, they all have three major phases: Phase 1: Students receive instructions and linguistic input for the discussion; Phase 2: The simulation, and Phase 3: Follow-up and Evaluation.

Phase 1

At this phase, students are provided with information input so that they can know some basic information about the scenario they are going to discuss and what their tasks are. Besides, students can be also provided with some knowledge of vocabulary and grammar needed for the discussion, which can take the form of classroom or language laboratory practice.

Phase 2

Depending on the level of complexity of a situation, Phase 2 might consist of one or two smaller phases. For lower students, Phase 2 involves only discussion itself. However, for more advanced students engaging in more complex simulated-settings, Phase 2 may consist of the preparatory discussion in pairs or sub-groups and the main plenary discussion.

Phase 3

Phase 3 consists of the follow-up stage to the discussion and the evaluation of students' performance. The follow-up stage may involve written work or further oral work, in the form of written reports or recommendations or presentations. Meanwhile, the evaluation of a simulation can be very brief, consisting merely of a few words from the teacher or it can be a lengthy review of the errors made in discussion.

2.2.3. Benefits of using simulations in teaching speaking skills

Simulations have been widely used as an effective training technique in many fields. In the ELT context, particularly in teaching communicative skills, it is believed that employing simulations has produced the following major benefits.

Firstly, simulations provide a real-life communicative activities. Simulations can be seen as perfect activities that offer ample opportunities for learners to communicate in the target language. Jones (1982, p.9) asserts that simulations create an ideal environment for participants to communicate and communication in a good simulation can lead to more communication, ideas generate more ideas, talk leads to thought, and thought leads to more talk.

Secondly, simulations motivate student. Krashen (1982) claims that the chance of playing the role as themselves rather than the role of someone else gives students more freedom and confidence while performing the task. Besides, motivation may also come from the emotional satisfaction or the pleasure of power to make decisions and the enjoyment of interactive excitement.

Thirdly, simulations improve communication skills. By taking on the role, students must use language to communicate as effectively as possible in concrete situations (Littlewoods, 1981). Even if the communication breakdown somehow occurs, students will actively negotiate meanings to find ways to understand each other. As such, by engaging in simulations, students will acquire the properties that are necessary to communicate successfully.

Last, simulations accumulate cultural experience. As highly interactive activities, simulations provide students with plenty of chances to acquire how to behave in the target culture naturally. Students even learn more even if a communication breakdown occurs due to cultural experiences. By building up cultural experiences through simulations, learners will gain confidence for future cross-cultural interactions that they may have with native speakers as well as help to prevent misunderstanding (Kemp, 2003, p. 14).

2.3.4. Difficulties of using simulations in teaching speaking skills

Although simulations seem to be useful in language learning, especially in improving oral skills, drawbacks of this technique are inevitable. Jones (1982) identifies the following challenges when it comes to using simulations:

Firstly, the teacher might encounter difficulties in giving instructions. Giving instructions is essential for any simulation to work. If the instructions are not understood, the simulation will fail since once the simulation begins, the teacher, as a controller of the class, cannot interfere so that the activity can go smoothly.

Secondly, difficulties in monitoring simulation activities may occur. With so much physical and verbal activities going on, the teacher may find it challenging to monitor students' performance. Besides, there is a fear that students might have too much fun during the activity, and that no learning is taking place.

Thirdly, it is difficult for the teacher to select suitable simulations. Several factors need to be taken into consideration, such as learners' language competence, costs of purchasing or making simulations set and relevance of simulations to the students. Therefore, choosing a simulation can take the teacher a great deal of time.

Last, incorrect forms of language can be unexpectedly encouraged. When communicative effectiveness is highlighted in a simulation, students sometimes concentrate primarily on the fluency of their speech and the message they want to convey, they may make mistakes in terms of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation.

3. PREVIOUS STUDIES

A large number of research papers have been conducted to explore the effectiveness of simulations in improving English communicative skills, as well as to find out how students perceive this teaching technique.

Findings of many studies on the use of simulations in language classrooms show that simulation-based approach helps students to perfect their pronunciation (Davis, 1996; Pham Thi Thu, 2020), enhance their interaction skills (Davis, 1996; Le Kim Pha, 2014), as well as develop their decision-making skills (Davis, 1996), which not only prepare them for practical experience but also contribute to the improvement of their speaking skills. Also, simulations help students to apply concepts learned in the class into practice, motivate them to discuss their viewpoints more freely, increase their self-awareness, as well as respect the others' perspectives (Silvia, 2009). What is more, Pham Thi Thu (2020) adds that employing simulations could greatly improve students' speaking competence in terms of fluency and vocabulary. Not only effective in enhancing students' speaking proficiency, simulation-based learning can also help students to boost their confidence and motivation (Madsa, 2012). Indeed, when engaging in simulation activities, students find a great sense of fulfillment, satisfaction and creativity (Davis, 1996; Khuc Kim Lan, 2010). They also tend to switch less to their mother tongue (Vitasmoro, 2017).

On a whole, most of the findings have emphasized some positive effects of simulations on improving students' fluency, pronunciation, and interaction skills, as well as boosting their confidence and motivation. Nevertheless, few research on benefits of this technique has been conducted in the military educational setting.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research design

In an attempt to find out the solutions to the MSA cadets' English speaking problems through the use of simulations, the study adopted a classroom action research model proposed by Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) as this model provides simplified steps, which allow collaborative participation of both teachers and students to make some changes to the identified problems.

3.2. Research setting and participants

The participants of the study are 37 third-year cadets from two different classes in their second-term of the school year of 2020-2021 at the MSA. Based on the cadets' speaking scores at the first semester's final speaking exam of the school year of 2020-2021, the cadets' speaking proficiency is on average assessed at B2 level according to CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) adopted by the Council of Europe. The other participants of the study are 2 experienced teachers from the English Department, the MSA. They are responsible for grading the pre-test and post-test based on the Analytic Speaking Rubric (Weir, 1993) which is designed to assess students' speaking competence not only in fluency, pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar, but also in interactional skills. This rubric seems to fit the researcher's purpose since the cadets' ability of employing communicative strategies is the major speaking aspect that the researcher wants to examine after the treatment with the simulations.

As for speaking skills materials, the cadets use the course book *"Campaign English for the Military 3"* by Mello-Clark and Baker (2005) and an accompanied workbook. This course book is the third one in the series *"Campaign English for the Military"*, which is designed for upper-intermediate learners. The book consists of 12 units, covering topics related to major branches and services in the military. Four separated language skills are integrated in each unit.

3.3. Data collection instruments

3.3.1. Pre-test and Post-test

A pre-test and post-test were used as one of the data collection instruments of this study in order to measure the cadets' improvement in their speaking proficiency (if any). Both tests were modified according to two formats, namely Military English speaking test for third-year English-major cadets in the second semester verified by the English Department, MSA and ADFELPS speaking test, an internationally recognized test, designed to determine English speaking proficiency of military students. The tests have the same format with three sections: Task 1- Social Interaction, Task 2 – Role-play and Task 3: Topic discussion. The topics of Task 2 and Task 3 were covered in Units 1-12 of the course book *"Campaign English for the Military 3"* by Mello-Clark and Baker (2005). While the pre-test was administered before applying the simulations, the post-test was carried out after eight weeks of implementing the simulations with the two classes. The tests were administered by two experienced teachers from the English Department, MSA. They together graded the cadets' speaking performance and reached agreement on the cadets' scores.

3.3.2. Questionnaire

The questionnaire was administered to the participants after 8 simulations have been carried out. The questionnaire consists of 20 questions, which are divided into four parts, as follows: Part 1: The cadets' attitudes towards the benefits of using simulations in learning speaking skills; Part 2: The cadets' attitudes towards the difficulties in learning English speaking skills through simulations; Part 3: The cadets' self-evaluation of their improvement in English speaking skills after the simulation implementation; Part 4: The cadets' suggestions for teaching speaking skills through simulations.

All the items of the questionnaire are rated on a five-point Likert-scale for agreement from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

3.3.3. Interviews

The semi-structured interviews were conducted to obtain further information about the cadet's attitudes towards simulation techniques. Six cadets (three cadets from each class) who participated in both tests and the questionnaire were selected for the interviews. Based on her class observation during the simulation activities, the researcher selected the interviewees from each class as follows: one participant who appeared to be really engaged in simulations; one participant who did not seem to be much concentrative during simulation activities, and one participant seemed to encounter most difficulties during simulation activities. Four questions are designed to ask the interviewees about their speaking problems and their attitudes towards the application of simulations in English speaking classes, as well as encourage them to propose suggestions in order to improve the effectiveness of simulation techniques.

3.4. Research Procedure

Kemmis and McTaggart's Classroom Action Research Model (1988) was adapted to perform this study. The research procedures were implemented for eight weeks in the following stages: preliminary investigation, action plan, implementation, and reflection.

Conducting preliminary investigation

Based on the researcher's class observation and the pre-test that had been administered before the simulations began, the cadets' specific speaking issues were investigated. The researcher then made action plans to deal with these problems properly.

Developing an action plan

A thorough preparation for the work was carried out, including preparing teaching materials, lesson plans, and setting criteria for success. These criteria were created in advance as a basis to determine whether the simulation implementation was successful or not. Given the employment of simulations, the success criteria of action were based on three main factors: the cadets' speaking results in the post-test, the cadet's motivation and the class atmosphere. To be more specific, the action would be considered effective if the cadets showed their significant improvement in vocabulary and interactional strategies. Besides, the technique would be seen as efficient if the cadets could enjoy an engaging class atmosphere, and at least 60% of the cadets felt more confident and motivated after the treatment.

Implementing the action plan

With different speaking class schedules, 8 simulations were conducted in 8 weeks with one simulation per week for each class. Each simulation was conducted according to the lesson plan, which consists of the following stages:

(1) Presentation: The teacher introduces the situation and provides the cadets with language knowledge necessary for the simulation task.

(2) Practice: The cadets practice the language items to have a better preparation for the simulation task.

(3) Production: The simulation phase begins. The cadets take on their assigned roles and discuss in pairs or groups to map out solutions to the given problem.

During the simulations, the researcher served as the controller of the class and observed the whole aspects of the implementation, as well as offered the cadets some help where needed to facilitate the group discussion.

(4) Follow-up discussion and feedback: The cadets comment on their speaking performance and then the teacher gives them feedbacks by pointing out what they did well and what they failed to do. Based on the error observation, a plan for further remedial work will be taken.

Reflecting on the process

The reflecting process can occur during the researcher's observation on the cadets' attitudes towards the simulation-based teaching tactic. What is more, after all the simulations ended, a post-test was carried out to evaluate whether the cadets made any improvement in their speaking performance by comparing the results between the pre-test and post-test. The researcher then distributed a questionnaire and conducted the interviews with six cadets in order to obtain further information about their attitudes towards the employment of simulations in learning speaking skills.

Next, based on the criteria for a successful plan that the researcher devised earlier, the results were valued to see whether the next cycle was needed or not. If the criteria for success were not fulfilled, the decision to continue the next action research cycle would be made.

3.5. Data Analysis Procedure

Data from both tests, questionnaire and interviews were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively to obtain multi-dimensional information for the study.

As for pre-test and post-test results, Paired Sample T-tests on the software SPSS were run to compare the mean difference between the overall pre-test and post-test scores, as well as to examine the mean differences between sub-scores of each speaking aspect. The p-value of 0.05 ($sig < 0.05$) was used to determine the level of significance difference between the results.

Regarding the questionnaire, the data collected from close-ended items were analyzed statistically. Descriptive statistics was then given to provide an overall summary of the data, allowing the researcher to gain a better insight into the data set.

As regards the interviews, the data recorded by the researcher's sound recorder were transcribed and summarized in the written form, then thematically interpreted for patterns, including the cadets' attitudes towards the benefits and difficulties of using simulations in learning oral skills, as well as their suggestions to improving this teaching tactic.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Effects of using simulations in improving speaking skills for third-year English-major cadets at MSA

As shown in Table 1, the p-value of the overall scores between the pre-test and post-test is 0.000 ($<$ sig. 0.05). Therefore, it can be concluded that using simulations brought about significant improvement in the cadets' speaking proficiency, particularly in terms of vocabulary, fluency and interactional skills, with p-values of 0.000, 0.001 and 0.001 respectively. Grammar, meanwhile, was the speaking aspect that did not see much improvement after the treatment. (see table 1).

The results of this study are consistent with previous findings which claim that adopting simulation-based approach helps students improve speaking ability in terms of vocabulary, fluency and pronunciation (Vitasmoro, 2017; Elisa et al., 2018, Angelini & García-Carbonell, 2019; Pham Thi Thu, 2020) and enhance their interactional skills, as stated by Davis (1996) and Khuc Kim Lan (2010). What is more, by immersing into simulation activities, students can apply learned knowledge into practice, encouraging them to express viewpoints more freely (Silvia, 2009).

Table 1. Paired Two-samples T-test of Pre-test and Post-test sub-scores and overall scores

Mean		Paired Differences					t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Std. Devia-tion	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference					
				Lower	Upper				
Fluency	Pre-Test – Post-Test	-0.135	0.225	0.037	-0.210	-0.060	-3.651	36	0.001
Pronunciation	Pre-Test – Post-Test	-0.0541	0.1574	0.0259	-0.1065	-0.0016	-2.089	36	0.044
Vocabulary	Pre-Test – Post-Test	-0.1486	0.2317	0.0381	-0.2259	-0.0714	-3.903	36	0.000
Grammatical accuracy	Pre-Test – Post-Test	-0.0270	0.1644	0.0270	-0.0818	0.0278	-1.000	36	0.324
Interactional strategies	Pre-Test – Post-Test	-0.1486	0.2599	0.0427	-0.2353	-0.0620	-3.749	36	0.001
Overall	Pre-Test – Post-Test	-0.4459	0.4046	0.0665	-0.5808	-0.3111	-6.705	36	0.000

There might have been some reasons contributing to the positive findings of this study. First, before each simulation started, the cadets were provided sufficient language input such as vocabulary, grammar and functional expressions. Also, they were given significant amount of time to discuss the problem in the group before presenting the situation as the whole class, which facilitated their confidence and fluency. Another beneficial factor was that in simulation activities the cadets' opportunity to work in groups and the teacher's unobtrusive monitor reduced the learners' anxiety level, which helped them freely express their ideas without fearing to make mistakes. In contrast, grammar was the aspect that did not show significant enhancement in the post-test. This can be explained by the fact that in simulation tasks most of the cadets focused more on finding solutions to the given problem and expressing their ideas to their partners. When their ultimate aims were fluency and conveying the message, they could make quite a range of grammar mistakes.

4.2. Cadets' attitudes towards using simulations in learning speaking skills

Cadets' attitudes towards the benefits of using simulations in learning speaking skills

The questionnaire data show that the cadets responded positively to the employment of simulations in speaking classroom. Indeed, more than 90% of the participants agreed and strongly agreed that simulation activities are interactive and they made speaking lessons more engaging. Besides, all the respondents agreed that they liked being corrected by their classmates, which was beneficial to their language development. Another advantage to note was that the cadets could use the spoken grammar (ellipsis, repetition, reduced forms, etc.) correctly after being exposed to simulation activities with 83.8% saying "Agree". In addition, more or less two-thirds of the cadets thought that they became more confident in simulation activities as they could work in pairs and groups. They also felt less nervous and less hesitant when they tried to speak in front of the class (78.4%). Therefore, they believed that their presentation skills have been improved. What is more, the questionnaire results show that over 50% of the participants believed that their vocabulary has been improved and they knew how to apply learned words and phrases into practice properly, whereas almost half of the respondents (46%) were confident that thanks to simulation practice, they could communicate effectively in different military contexts.

The same attitudes towards the advantages of simulation-based learning in speaking classrooms were also reflected in the interviews. When asked about the benefits obtained through learning simulations, three out of six cadets believed that this learning tactic helped them enrich vocabulary, especially terminology, made them more confident as well as improved their presentation skills. Another benefit that three of six cadets recognized was that they found the interactions between group members very interesting, which made them feel really comfortable, and ultimately helped them connect with each other better.

In short, the questionnaire and interview results show that most of the participants showed positive attitudes towards the simulation-based learning approach. They claimed that using simulations for speaking lessons helped them feel more confident, develop their fluency, apply vocabulary into practice more properly, improve presentation skills, and most importantly, they could communicate in English more effectively. In fact, building confidence and motivating learners are benefits that are emphasized in the study of many researchers, including Davis (1996), Khuc Kim Lan (2010), Madsa (2012) and Vitasmoro (2017). The study results are also consistent with the findings of Tantiwong (2009) and Elisa et al. (2018), who claimed that using simulations helps students retain vocabulary, apply the knowledge they had acquired in class into the real context, and promote cooperation among the group members.

Cadets' attitudes towards the difficulties of using simulations in learning speaking skills

Despite pointing out considerable benefits, the results of questionnaire and interviews also show the difficulties that most of the cadets encountered during the treatment. All the questionnaire respondents agreed that some simulated situations were quite tough for them to generate ideas. Meanwhile, more than 70% of the respondents stated that they did not have enough opportunities to present their argument in front of the class. This is understandable as due to time-constraint, sharing ideas as the whole class in simulation tasks needs to be taken into careful consideration. In fact, this drawback was highlighted in the findings of Rachmadhini (2017) and Elisa et al. (2018), who asserted that limited time allocation is a barrier to a more successful simulation practice. Besides, other learning obstacles perceived by the participants were the teacher's inadequate and complicated instructions and the cadets' discomfort to express their ideas in the group, which were expressed by more or less 25% of the respondents. These findings are quite in line with the interview data, which reveal that challenging simulation topics and insufficient opportunities to present in front of the class were the main obstacles that the participants encountered. Furthermore, two out of six interviewees admitted that lacking subject-matter knowledge and unease among group members caused them considerable difficulties practicing speaking skills through simulation.

4.3. Cadets' suggestions for teaching speaking skills through simulations

As shown in Table 2, more than 80% of the respondents agreed and strongly agreed that simulation topics should be less challenging and simulation-based learning should be employed more frequently in the speaking class. Besides, approximately 70% of the participants recommended that the time for simulation activities should be increased.

Table 2. Cadets' suggestions for teaching speaking skills through simulations

Questionnaire items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
The topic of simulation activities should be less challenging.	0%	8.11%	8.11%	51.35%	32.43%
The time allocated for simulation tasks should be increased.	0%	13.51%	16.22%	56.76%	13.51%
Simulations should be utilized more often in English speaking lessons.	0%	0%	13.51%	70.27%	16.22%

These suggestions are consistent with the interview results, where three out of six cadets proposed that simulations should be continuously carried out in speaking lessons since they are really engaging and highly interactive. Additionally, three cadets suggested that more time for simulation activities was needed so that they had enough opportunities for all the members to present their ideas in front of the class, whereas one cadet recommended that the preparation time for simulation tasks should be shorter to stimulate the cadets' responsiveness. Furthermore, two other cadets suggested that the teacher should divide the group according to their level and let them to choose their working partners. As such, they would feel more comfortable and work more effectively in groups.

5. CONCLUSION

5.1. Recapitulation

This research was conducted to investigate the effectiveness of using simulations in improving speaking skills for third-year English-major cadets at the MSA, as well as to explore their attitudes towards this teaching technique. From the findings and discussions of the study, some conclusions have been withdrawn. First, regarding the efficacy of simulations, it can be concluded that the participants made significant improvement in oral proficiency, particularly in fluency, vocabulary and interactional strategies whereas the cadets' grammar did not witness significant improvement after the treatment. As for the cadets' attitudes toward the use of simulations in speaking classrooms, the results of the questionnaire and the interviews reveal that despite some arising difficulties, most of the cadets adopted positive attitudes towards employing simulations in learning oral skills.

5.2. Pedagogical implications of the study

Based on the findings of the study, some practical implications have been drawn in order to make the best use of the simulation-based technique in teaching speaking skills.

Firstly, teachers should be aware of the importance of preparation before carrying out any simulation. It is highly necessary for the teacher to provide students sufficient language input, particularly vocabulary and functional expressions to make sure that they can generate ideas with the linguistic knowledge given. Teachers can use various authentic materials in the preparation stage to help students gradually immerse into real-life situations rather than having students read about them.

Secondly, the topic for simulations should be interesting and useful enough to engage students into the lesson. However, it should not be too challenging since one topic may be engrossing for teachers, but for students, it can be a painstaking task. Topics should be selected based on the relevance, interests and experience of students.

Thirdly, it is essential for the teacher to pay serious attention to assigning groups. Her decision should be based on her knowledge of the students to decide if groups should be mixed-ability or banded. Sensibility must also be taken into account in the group formation process so that students could feel comfortable and freely express their ideas when working in a team.

Fourthly, the teacher's role and the student's role should be clearly identified. As the monitor of the class, some teachers tend to interfere during the class to facilitate learning while others are obliged to interfere because of the students' overwhelming need for step-by-step guidance. Nevertheless, he or she should not suggest ideas to participants to solve problems or make decisions because participants themselves are responsible for solving assigned problems and making decisions in the simulation. Therefore, a good explanation on simulation activities before starting the simulation practice is highly important.

Fifthly, more investment should be made by the school to upgrade teaching and learning facilities, such as video recorders and overhead projector transparency sheets, which are useful teaching aids for implementing simulations.

Finally, in order that simulation-based learning can bring about more fruitful effects in speaking classes, it is essential for both teachers and students to constantly enrich background knowledge, especially subject-matter knowledge. As such, the teacher can become not only a "guide on the side" but also "a sage on the stage" when necessary./.

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SỬ DỤNG PHƯƠNG PHÁP MÔ PHỎNG NHẰM CẢI THIỆN KỸ NĂNG NÓI TIẾNG ANH CHO HỌC VIÊN NĂM THỨ 3 CHUYÊN NGÀNH TIẾNG ANH TẠI HỌC VIỆN KHOA HỌC QUÂN SỰ

CAO THỊ LOAN; HOÀNG QUỐC KHÁNH

Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu này được thực hiện nhằm kiểm tra hiệu quả của phương pháp mô phỏng trong việc nâng cao kỹ năng nói tiếng Anh cho học viên năm thứ 3 chuyên ngành tiếng Anh tại Học viện Khoa học Quân sự thông qua việc sử dụng một mô hình nghiên cứu hành động gồm bốn bước: thu thập thông tin ban đầu về vấn đề cần hành động, phát triển kế hoạch hành động, thực hiện hành động và phản ánh. Số liệu định tính và định lượng đã được thu thập, bao gồm kết quả kiểm tra kĩ năng Nói của học viên trước và sau thực nghiệm cũng như các câu trả lời của học viên trong phiếu điều tra và phần phỏng vấn. Kết quả nghiên cứu cho thấy việc sử dụng phương pháp mô phỏng giúp học viên cải thiện đáng kể kỹ năng nói tiếng Anh, cụ thể về độ trôi chảy, từ vựng và kỹ năng tương tác. Ngoài ra, hầu hết học viên tham gia nghiên cứu đều tin rằng việc học nói tiếng Anh thông qua hoạt động mô phỏng giúp họ trở nên tự tin hơn và có động cơ học tập hơn. Những khó khăn mà học viên gặp phải trong quá trình áp dụng phương pháp mô phỏng cũng được chỉ ra trong nghiên cứu này.

Từ khóa: *phương pháp mô phỏng, kỹ năng nói, năng lực nói, kỹ năng tương tác, học viên*

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EXTENSIVE READING: A DEPENDABLE SOLUTION TO IMPROVE READING COMPREHENSION AT MILITARY SCIENCE ACADEMY

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ABSTRACT

The merits of extensive reading have been widely recognized and justified by a huge number of studies. Extensive Reading, also known as pleasurable reading is a language teaching approach in which learners are instructed to read numerous meaningful graded texts for pleasure consistently over a period of time. Therefore, this article aims to provide a theoretical framework of Extensive Reading and share the researcher's experience of carrying out Extensive Reading project. Data was collected in this article by reading and analyzing previous studies, literature on Extensive Reading and especially empirical experience obtained by the researcher. This article is expected to underpin the effectiveness of Extensive Reading and contributing to addressing reading problems facing cadets at Military Science Academy (MSA).

Keywords: *Extensive Reading, reading skills, reading comprehension, attitudes, reading problems*

1. INTRODUCTION

Great importance has been placed on reading skills in foreign language teaching and English as foreign language instruction. Due to the importance of reading skill for the students, it is necessary to teach students to read effectively. Hence, providing students with reading strategies is an effective way for them to master the skill optimally. As stated by Hoien and Lunderberg (2000), the students need to be taught how to use specific strategies to understand the text, when learning to read. There has been a change in reading instruction from teaching texts to teaching learners (Bernard and Thomas, 1990). In this sense, learners are supposed to be equipped with cognitive skills the enable them to comprehend text and its elements such as text attributes, rhetorical components, and knowledge. This approach has been applied in formal education system in many countries. Extensive Reading, on the other hand, receives little interest in formal application, despite its merits and effectiveness have been justified over the globe. Extensive Reading is an instructional approach that aims to immerse students into meaningful text, motivate them to read, build up their knowledge of vocabulary, hence improving their general second language competence. On the global scale, Extensive Reading has been widely applied in educational settings of various levels, and has brought about practical effectiveness, yet at Military Science Academy, this technique remains as a fairly new domain.

Regarding the reality of teaching reading skill at MSA and the importance of reading skill, this article attempts to introduce a reliable teaching approach, which is Extensive Reading. By means of literature review and experience sharing, the article is hoped to consolidate previous theory on Extensive Reading, suggest a new approach to teaching reading skills at MSA and present a basic framework for those who intend to employ this teaching approach.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Overview of reading comprehension

2.1.1. Essence of reading comprehension

Reading is a complicated cognitive activity cultivated to get the knowledge out of linguistic symbols. Reading is not just identifying written symbols but also interpreting those symbols into a cognitive form (Alex et al., 2003). Padma (2008, p. 5) claims that "reading is the process of using one's eyes and mind to understand the literal as well as the hidden meaning of what the writer was attempting to convey. According to Jack and Richard (2002), reading is considered as a perceiving lens reflecting a piece of written text in order to understand its contents. In fact, it is a cognitive activity and a communicative activity. When reading, readers are assumed to interact with the text. In addition to knowledge gained from texts, readers should develop critical thinking simultaneously. That is to say readers should cultivate critical thought about what they have read in order to gain new insights.

Under no circumstance should reading go with comprehension simply because the primary purpose of reading activity is to absorb what has been read. Celce-Murcia (2001) relates reading to general comprehension as the example requires that the reader to draw information from a text and combine it with information and expectations that a reader already has. Reading comprehension is the learner's capability to understand a written piece of text. Comprehension can be reflected in reading fluency which is a cognitive ability to recognise words at a such rate as required to comprehend the meaning of the words (Pressley, 2002). However, for more complex text, vocabulary knowledge is the significant indicator of reading comprehension development (Yovanoff et al., 2005).

2.1.2. Importance of reading comprehension in teaching English

Improving reading skills makes great contribution to the progress in language competence. The mastery of reading skills plays an irrefutably important role in the mastery of a language. Rivers (1981) regards reading as a plausible activity and a significant source of language knowledge. Sharing the same perspective, Chastain (1988) holds that from reading learners absorb large amounts of data. According to Patel and Pravee (2008), reading is the most useful and significant skill. It brings joys and levitates curiosity, and good reading keeps students regular in reading which provide them pleasure and knowledge. Reading stimulates students' learning process and helps them find some information that is required.

2.2. Extensive reading

2.2.1. Definitions of Extensive Reading

Extensive Reading has been defined in different ways by different researchers. Extensive Reading is a language teaching approach in which learners are required to read numerous meaningful texts for pleasure, and this activity should be consistently sustained over a period of time. This approach could be effectively applied to first language (L1) or second language (L2) learners. Bamford and Day (1997) give a definition of Extensive Reading in L2 acquisition in which learners read large quantities of books and other materials that match with their linguistic competence. While they are reading, the overall meaning of the text should be focused rather than that of individual words or grammar. Extensive Reading approach aims to arouse students' interest in reading in the L2 language. From Extensive Reading perspective, reading is not treated merely as a linguistic skill, but as an activity that one chooses to do for personal, social, or academic reasons; reading texts are not for just translation (Day and Bamford, 2000). Sharing the same view, Lituanas et al. (1999) state that Extensive Reading should focus on the content of reading rather than the language skills.

Other definitions emphasize the purpose of Extensive Reading. Richards and Schmidt (2002) define Extensive Reading as different activities of reading in large quantity to get knowledge from what is read. Renandya et al. (1999) specify that when reading extensively, learners are exposed to large quantity of materials of many genres in order to get information or for pleasure. According to Carell and Carson (1997, p. 49), Extensive Reading "generally involves rapid reading of large quantities of material or longer readings". They also emphasize that reading should be dedicated to general understanding, focusing generally on the meaning of what is read rather than on the language.

Being different from other reading approaches, Extensive Reading approach aims to immerse students to the dynamics of reading activity, exposing them to many aspects of life through numerous reading materials. That is to say reading is an independent activity and thus the students should be given the autonomy and freedom to choose the reading materials of their own interest and competence. This will then generate their motivation for reading and stimulate them to sustain the habit of reading (Davis, 1995).

In brief, Extensive Reading is a language teaching approach which seeks to generate students' motivation for reading. With the purpose of pleasure, Extensive Reading immerses students into a sheer number of reading texts which are already tailor-made to suit their linguistic level. Learners are also given freedom to read at their own pace, place and time of reading.

2.2.2. Characteristics of Extensive Reading

Day and Bamford (1997) specify characteristics of a successful Extensive Reading program as follows:

Students read huge volume of printed materials: Reading for the purpose of pleasure requires a huge volume of books available for students to select at their level. Hence, it is recommended to establish a class library of reading materials. Hence, the length of time spent on reading is the most crucial element in establishing students' reading habit.

Students should be provided with variety of reading materials: Not only the students' language level in a L2 classroom but also their interests vary, so books and reading materials provided to them should be diversified according to their preferences and purposes. By doing this, students are more likely to take interest in reading as well as take up reading habit.

Reading should be designated as an activity with the purpose of pleasure and information: This characteristic distinguishes Extensive Reading from reading for academic purposes which normally be accompanied with tasks and assignments during the lesson. Thus, Extensive Reading emphasizes the enjoyment and knowledge absorbed from reading materials which will then make up students' experience.

Reading itself is rewarding: Treated as an enjoyable activity, Extensive Reading should be accompanied with few or no follow-up exercises after reading. This is why Extensive Reading lesson is less burdened and stressful than other conventional reading lesson in which students are bombarded with loads of exercises and questions.

Books and reading materials provided should be commensurate with students' linguistic competence and vocabulary: In a L2 classroom, it is inevitable that students have differing levels. Day and Bamford (2002) say that for beginners, the presence of unfamiliar words may cause difficulty in gaining general understanding of a text. Intermediate students should not encounter more than five new words on a page.

Reading should be done on an individual and silent basis: Students are supposed to read on their own, set their own speed of reading, choose the time and place to read. They are also told not to use dictionary to look up for new words. Instead, they should ignore or guess.

Teachers serve as role models of good readers: Extensive Reading is an instructional language teaching approach, so teachers play an important role in explaining the procedure, motivating them to read, and helping them make the best of Extensive Reading's benefits. Teachers begin with introducing the Extensive Reading approach such as definition and its benefits. During the first lesson, teachers model the procedure, and exercise Extensive Reading in the classroom. Then, more freedom and independence will be given to the students to exercise Extensive Reading.

Teachers keep record of students' performance and reading materials: Keeping record is essential during Extensive Reading implementation. This is because students' progress acts as authentic evidence rather than just meaningless numbers or letters. Teachers should invent their own recordkeeping systems that allow the teachers to determine what students are reading, what cause difficulty to students. Such systems can tell teachers when to adjust Extensive Reading material.

2.2.3. Review of previous studies on Extensive Reading

Extensive reading has been widely all over the globe and has brought about positive results. Previous studies closely tended to stick to some of the benefits offered by Extensive Reading.

An in-depth investigation into the effects of extensive reading on 61 EFL undergraduates conducted by Yamashita (2013) found out that Extensive Reading had a strong effect on enhancing positive feelings toward ER and improving their linguistic skills as well as widening their background knowledge of various fields.

A large scale program targeted at non-English major students by Ching-Yi Tien (2015), from I-Shou University, Taiwan attempted to explore factors that may influence the students' attitudes toward extensive reading and concluded a noticeable shift in the students' attitudes from dislike at the beginning to general favour at the end of the program.

Positive effect on Vietnamese EFL learners' reading fluency was confirmed in a study by Tran (2018). The results of the study demonstrated that the treatment of Extensive Reading contributed to the participants' increase in their reading rate and their reading comprehension development.

The effectiveness of above Extensive Reading studies in terms of reading comprehension, reading fluency and other aspects all over the globe made the researcher confident that if this teaching approach is applied appropriately, it will generate promising outcomes. Indeed, the Extensive Reading project dedicated to examining the effect of Extensive Reading on second-year English-major cadets' reading comprehension at MSA showed that majority of the cadets held positive attitudes towards Extensive reading and there was a significant progress in the cadets' reading comprehension ability after eight-week implementation.

2.3. Benefits of extensive reading in the teaching and learning reading skills

Extensive Reading has been proven to be an effective approach by numerous researchers. Studies into the effectiveness of Extensive Reading and large-scale Extensive Reading projects implemented brings about positive results. Extensive Reading offers variety of benefits not only to learners but also educators. Since comprehension is the cognitive consequence of reading activity, showing the reader's ability to understand a meaningful text and relate to the knowledge gained earlier, Extensive Reading is beneficial to learners' comprehension ability. Thus, reading fluency, vocabulary skills and background knowledge are the precondition to and set stage for comprehension development. For teachers, Extensive Reading contributes to personal development. Following are the most prominent merits of Extensive Reading.

Enlarging vocabulary range: Due to the massive and regular exposure to English reading materials, students' vocabulary bank is increased significantly, vocabulary growth is also sustained. Reading materials increase the possibility of encountering a word, thus helping them to absorb a new word. Besides, if they read in an extensive manner, they are more likely to get exposed to with words in a variety of contexts. As a result, the ability of recognising words is improved.

Being more motivated to read: Books and reading materials are handed over to students according to their levels and especially their interests. The students are recommended to cease reading if the reading materials are beyond their level or not fascinating enough (Day and Bamford 2002). This not only customises their reading, but also gives the students autonomy and responsibility. Dickinson (1995, p. 170) affirms that enhancing students' self-control brings about considerable benefits like "increased intrinsic motivation and productivity, higher levels of proficiency, as well as the feeling of self-empowerment". By letting the students self-direct and be responsible for their reading, their motivation and self-esteem can be raised.

Improving overall language competence: In addition to progress in reading competence, studies reveal that students who read extensively also make improvement in overall language competence. Elley (1991) assumes that the positive effect from reading competence spreads to other language skills writing, speaking and consolidates the students' grasp of syntax. Research studies demonstrate that the students become better and more confident. They write better English, and their listening and speaking competence improve (Bamford and Day, 2004). A study by Cho and Krashen (1994) revealed that there was a significant increase in the adult ESL learners listening and speaking competence through reading extensively. Hence, Extensive Reading benefits the overall language ability, rather than just reading and writing skills.

Broadening background knowledge of various fields: It is undeniable fact that most students acquire quite modest knowledge of the life around them. Extensive Reading programs opens up the opportunity for them to discover the world. Due to the diverse reading topics, the students are immersed into different fields of life. In addition to linguistic knowledge such as grammatical patterns and vocabulary, they also gain new insights, hence enriching their knowledge of the world.

Personal development: Teachers are supposed to be constantly developing and growing in order to help students to do the same (Lutzker, 2007). In other words, teachers who demonstrate that they read extensively set good examples for their students. Furthermore, reading books beyond our narrow teaching domain can have a silent effect on their practice. The insights gained in each individual book are linked up with those in other books, creating connective networks of knowledge and shaping teachers' wider perspective in life in general and in their professional practice as well.

3. EXTENSIVE READING PROJECT AT MILITARY SCIENCE ACADEMY

3.1. Research context

The Extensive Reading project was carried out on a class of 34 second year English major cadets at Military Science Academy. Military Science Academy is a leading institution in the language training across military universities and colleges in the Army. Recently, the Academy has been investing heavily in language training facilities as well as instructors with a view to enhancing teaching and learning quality in the Academy. One of the key points set out in the resolution is to innovate teaching methodology in direction of student-centering. However, the syllabus dedicated to teaching reading skills for second year English major cadets at MSA is a bit outdated. *Concepts and Comments* (3ed) by Patricia and Linda published by Heinle ELT in 2005 has been used to teach for years. Although this text book was designed to develop reading skill and vocabulary, it is rather easy for majority of the cadets. Also, the cadets have little access to affluent and reliable reading materials which are justified to be commensurate with their levels. The reading lessons proceed in a formal way with the focus laid on fulfilling complicated cognitive questions and tasks rather than on considering reading as an enjoyable activity. This teaching approach seems to demotivate cadets of lower English. Moreover, statistics from the Training Department of MSA reveal that reading scores and reading comprehension ability amongst first year and second year cadets remain poor and varied.

In total, there were 34 English major cadets as the subjects of the study who received the treatment of Extensive Reading pedagogy within eight weeks. Male subjects outnumber their female counterparts. The numbers for both genders are 31 and 3, respectively. The majority of students are of equal age, at around 19 years old. Most of them have little experience in their life and come from different regions of the country, from countryside to urban areas. A special feature of cadets is that they are subject to strict management. As second year learners, the cadets' English level is estimated to reach B1 according to Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. This means that they can use intermediate English.

3.2. Research design

In order to measure the effectiveness of Extensive Reading, mixed method was employed in this research. Mixed methods is a research approach that combines or mixes both qualitative and quantitative data in a study to create a dependable account to the problem identified earlier. Quantitative data was collected from three tests administered at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the study. Qualitative data was collected from questionnaire, class observation and the interviews.

3.3. Procedure of implementing research

The study was carried out in accordance with action research model and the adaptation of the guide to implement Extensive Reading project introduced by the Extensive Reading Foundation ERF (2011). Action research model is a procedure in which an educational practice is examined systematically and carefully (Watts, 1985). Action research is guided by specific movements that make up action research cycle. Kemmis and Mc Taggart (1998) propose a model of action research cycle involving five steps of inquiry namely identifying problem, planning, implementing, observing and reflecting.

Identifying problem

The situation of teaching and learning reading skills at Military Science Academy showed pedagogical problems. Outmoded course book, poor reading comprehension ability among second year English major cadets and wide disparity in their reading scores.

Planning and establishing a library for Extensive Reading project

Prior to the implementation of Extensive Reading program, it is essential to map out clear objectives and vision, and calculate the quantity of books and reading materials needed for the Extensive Reading project, depending on the duration of the project and the number of involving cadets. The following equation could be taken into consideration.

Number of classes	X	Number of students per class	X	Number of books per student	=	Number of books needed

Extensive Reading offers variety of benefits, so basing on the scope of study, the teachers are advised to focus on certain aspects like reading fluency, attitudes towards reading skill, motivation to read, vocabulary growth and increase in the world's knowledge.

As many books as possible that are graded into differing levels were selected and the books should be authentic and collected from reliable sources. Books could be kept at the library, bookcases, carts, book boxes or bags. Books and reading materials were then catalogued into different genres and levels from easy to difficult. During the study at MSA, most of graded readers came from various authentic sources such as Oxford Bookworm, McMillan readers and Penguin readers. The researcher also gathered other reading materials such as English magazines, newspapers, fairy tales and stories. In fact, these materials attracted considerable interest from military cadets, though they were not graded. This preference could be explained by the special learning and working environment of the cadets that requires good knowledge of politics and the military. Books were then catalogued, based on topics such as fashion and beauty, cuisine, military, politics, foreign affair, travel, crafting, business, personal growth, fairy tales and fictional stories. Instead of reading, cadets could opt to listen to books, because most of the books are integrated with audio version.

Introducing and implementing Extensive Reading program

At first, Extensive Reading was introduced and explained to the class. This step was to brief the cadets on Extensive Reading pedagogy and what they were going to do in the coming weeks. The researcher selected an easy book and asked the whole class to read part of the book at moderate speed. While reading, the researcher asked simple questions regarding the content of the book such as *Who are the characters? Which character(s) or part of the story are you impressed with? Where does the story take place? What is happening?* The class kept reading the books till the end of the book when the purpose of Extensive Reading was reiterated and cadets were asked to increase reading speed if needed. The next stage is self-selected reading. The cadets chose books of their own preference at their levels and started reading in the classroom. After having read certain part of the book, they discussed their chosen books with their partners in groups. When the book is finished, they read outside the classroom for a pre-decided amount of time. Several easy activities such as summarizing or drawing lessons were required to do Regular review of the book they chose to read should be done.

In my study, Extensive Reading lesson proceeded in this way; however, one of the keys to the success of my project was that I particularly paid attention to monitor the cadets and keep track of their performance. Thus, I designed out-of-class reading form and check-out form. After finishing a book, each cadet was required to complete the former featuring post-reading activities and feedbacks to the book, and used this to discuss with his partners in group, while the latter showed how many books each cadet read through the study and was completed throughout the study. Thanks to cadets' feedback to the book, I was able to spot cadets' problem when they read. Some cadets chose too difficult books to read, which ended up with reluctance and demotivation. Hence, they were advised to select easier materials to read.

Observing the action

Classroom observation is interpreted as a method of recording and gauging specific data about activities done by students within a classroom (Centra, 1993). During his implementation of Extensive Reading, the researcher made a careful observation of students' practice and took note of students' in-class performance, how well the students involved into the lessons, as well as their attitudes toward Extensive Reading.

Reflecting the action

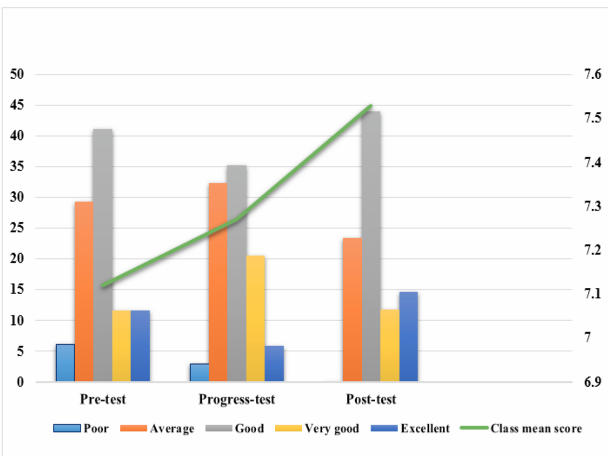
Reflection is a systematic reviewing process for the teacher which allows him to make links from one experience to the next. Schön (1991) coined the terms reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action in his work. Reflection-in-action means reflection during the course of the event or incident while reflection-on-action is practiced after the event finishes. During the research, both types of reflection were done during and at the end of the lessons.

3.4. Findings and discussion

Improvement in reading comprehension

The improvement in reading comprehension was justified by the test scores gained by cadets.

Chart 1. Grade distribution of three tests and class mean score



In general, the whole class witnessed impressive progress in the mean score and a positive shift in the grade distribution. At the beginning of the Extensive Reading pedagogy, the score of the whole class was an average of 7.12. After four weeks of treatment, the figure increased to 7.27. At the end of the treatment, the class mean score climbed to impressively 7.53 after eight weeks of treatment.

In terms of grade distribution, it can be seen that after the first four weeks, the effect of extensive seems to be insignificant despite minor increase in the class mean score. There were minor changes in the average, good and excellent grade groups. Good and excellent grade groups slightly decreased their shares by around 5% to 35.3% and 5.9%, respectively. Meanwhile, the percentage of cadets who attained average grades marginally rose to 33.4%. More students got very good grades, increasing its percentage twofold to just over 20%. Another noticeable change lied in poor graders, decreasing its proportion by half to nearly 3%.

At the end of the treatment, the effect of Extensive Reading approach was confirmed to a large extent. The most outstanding change was that no cadet got poor grades, and there were considerable increases in the good and excellent grade group. The figures for both groups was up to around 44% and 15% respectively.

Positive attitudes towards Extensive Reading

Results from the questionnaire and post-treatment interviews showed that vast majority of the cadets had positive attitude towards Extensive Reading. Specifically, results of the questionnaire shows that majority of cadets reacted positively to the employment of Extensive Reading (ER), which can be seen in almost all categories in the questionnaire. ER received positive responses from roughly 80% of the class. The same proportion said that they would continue to read extensively the treatment ceased. Large percentage of cadets confirmed the pleasure, motivation, relaxation and confidence offered by Extensive Reading. For example, almost 60% of all cadets expressed strong support for the idea that ER helped them relax, and nearly 30% agreed on this benefit. Likewise, nearly three quarters of the class agreed that they became confident in reading. However, over half of the cadets felt negative about the sense of accomplishment after they finished a chosen book.

Furthermore, results from the interviews with five cadets whose post-treatment scores range from low to high confirmed their positive reaction to Extensive Reading. All of responses to the interview questions showed that cadets generally supported this approach. The interviewees also specified what they liked most about Extensive Reading, and different appeals were given. In particular, the answer given by one interviewee indicated a shift in attitudes from disinterest to interest in reading. The other respondents also gave reasons why they were keen on this method. These reasons were less stress and improvement in speaking skill, sense of discovery, autonomy in choosing materials to read, large quantity of books to read and new insights.

Cadets' positive attitudes towards Extensive Reading were shaped by their elaborations on the growth in vocabulary, background knowledge and reading fluency. In terms of vocabulary acquisition. Accordingly, vocabulary size was claimed to be enlarged in various ways such as learning more new words and learning more meaning of old words. Background knowledge was also believed to be broadened through various kinds of information especially those that are related to their military career such as crafting, cuisine, politics or foreign affair. Regarding fluency, all of the interviewees stated that they were able to read faster and comprehend main idea of the text faster.

4. CONCLUSION

4.1. Recapitulation

The situation of teaching reading at Military Science Academy shows a number of drawbacks that negatively affect cadets' learning, especially reading skills. Meanwhile, Extensive Reading has been proven to be effective around the globe, yet this teaching method is not widely used to enhance reading comprehension at MSA. Therefore, this paper is aimed to present the theoretical framework of Extensive Reading as a dependable solution to improve reading comprehension. The paper highlights basic notion of Extensive Reading which is also known as pleasure reading, and which is characterized by students' massive and consistent immersion into reading materials. In order to have a broad overview of Extensive Reading, the researcher attempted to elaborate on key relevant terms and concepts as well as the procedure to implement an Extensive Reading project that is drawn from his empirical research.

4.2. Pedagogical implications

The article presents an innovative reading instruction method called Extensive Reading and serves as a reference for those who are interested in this approach. In order to maximize the effectiveness of Extensive Reading, teachers who intend to implement Extensive project should take following points into consideration.

First, teachers who may be interested in and intend to implement this approach should be gasp the essence of Extensive Reading, and when carrying out the project, they should stick to the features of Extensive Reading to maximize the effectiveness.

Second, reading at pleasure time and for pleasure purpose gives the learners ultimate leeway, autonomy and motivation. Therefore, teachers should diversify as many reading materials as possible. Though graded readers should be used consistently, teachers may add other reliable sources such as English magazines, newspapers, fairy tales or stories.

Finally, record keeping is of importance. This is to identify any problem facing the students. Teachers should design appropriate form for the students to complete after finishing each book. Besides, in-person interview can be considered when the students have difficulty reading.

Extensive Reading is promised to bring fresh air to teaching methodology, changing current formal reading lesson into an enjoyable activity while ensuring a boost in language proficiency.

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PHƯƠNG PHÁP DẠY ĐỌC MỞ RỘNG: GIẢI PHÁP HIỆU QUẢ TRONG VIỆC NÂNG CAO KỸ NĂNG ĐỌC HIỂU TẠI HỌC VIỆN KHOA HỌC QUÂN SỰ

NGUYỄN ĐÌNH VIỆT

Tóm tắt: Hiệu quả của phương pháp dạy đọc mở rộng đã được công nhận rộng rãi và được chứng minh bởi nhiều nghiên cứu. Đọc mở rộng, còn được gọi là đọc trong thời gian rảnh rỗi là một phương pháp giảng dạy ngôn ngữ, trong đó người học được tiếp cận với nhiều tài liệu đọc được phân loại theo trình độ phù hợp người học và được duy trì trong một khoảng thời gian nhất định. Do đó, bài viết này trình bày khung lý thuyết về Đọc mở rộng và chia sẻ kinh nghiệm của nhà nghiên cứu khi thực hiện dự án Đọc mở rộng. Dữ liệu được thu thập trong bài báo này bằng cách đọc và phân tích các nghiên cứu trước đây, tài liệu về Đọc mở rộng và đặc biệt là kinh nghiệm thực tế mà nhà nghiên cứu thu được. Bài báo này được kỳ vọng sẽ củng cố lý thuyết về phương pháp dạy Đọc mở rộng và góp phần giải quyết vấn đề đọc hiểu mà các học viên tại Học viện Khoa học Quân sự đang gặp phải.

Từ khóa: *đọc mở rộng, các kỹ năng đọc, đọc hiểu, thái độ, khó khăn trong quá trình đọc*

Ngày nhận bài: 11/5/2021; ngày sửa chữa: 30/5/2021; ngày duyệt đăng: 26/11/2021

USING MIND MAPS TO IMPROVE THE VOCABULARY OF NON-ENGLISH MAJOR STUDENTS AT A UNIVERSITY IN QUANG NINH

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ABSTRACT

This paper is concerned with the importance of teaching and learning vocabulary as well as difficulties in learning vocabulary. The paper offers mind maps as a technique to solve the problems. This paper also aims to prove that most of the students under investigation irrespective of their language proficiency showed their eagerness to learn vocabulary with this technique.

Keywords: *vocabulary teaching, vocabulary learning, mind maps, non-English major students*

1. INTRODUCTION

To learn a language well, it is important to have a wide range of vocabulary. It cannot be denied that vocabulary plays a significant role in learning a language, especially foreign languages as Pyles and Algeo (1970, p. 96) stated, "when most of us think about language, we think first about words. It is true that the vocabulary is the focus of language. It is in words that sounds and meanings inter – lock to allow us to communicate with one another, and it is words that we arrange together to make sentences, conversations and discourse of all kinds." It is also emphasized by Wilkins (1972, p. 11) "without grammar, very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed".

Vocabulary plays a crucial part in teaching and learning language. However, teaching and learning vocabulary effectively is not an easy task. At this university, the difficulties result from unsuitable class size for a language class (ranging from 45 to 55 students). Besides, their English proficiency is differential and many of them do not have appropriate vocabulary learning strategies and self-learning habits. Moreover, their learning styles are also different. Some students are kinesthetic ones, linguistic ones, others are auditory ones, many of them are spatial ones and some are intrapersonal or interpersonal ones. Additionally, a lot of things must be taught in a lesson so teachers tend to use translation technique when teaching vocabulary instead of other interesting techniques, which negatively influences the students' interest in learning vocabulary.

Realizing the importance of vocabulary, mind mapping is chosen as a technique to enhance the vocabulary acquisition of non-English major students at the university grounded on the assumptions that mind maps both interest the students and suit most of their learning styles and they also bring us various benefits. Russell (1995) believes that mind maps have many applications such as helping organize information into a form that is easily assimilated by the brain and easily remembered. He also states that mind maps are valuable in any planning and organizing, whether it is of books, reports, lectures, meetings, study, daily tasks, or future activities. Buzan (1993) considers mind maps as a representation of cognition and comprehension in the learner, and as an excellent way to help learners express themselves both verbally and visually. Indeed, when using mind maps learners may use graphic representation which helps them in the brainstorming process. McGriff (2000, p. 9) presents that "Mind maps are an excellent way to help learners organize knowledge, to empower themselves to better comprehend the key concepts, and principles in lectures, readings, or other instructional materials". He also insists that relating images to concepts is a creative task which requires thinking instead of memorizing.

2. VOCABULARY IN LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

2.1. Vocabulary

Vocabulary is defined in different ways depending on the criteria that each linguist considers the most important factors in terms of linguistics, semantics, lexicology, etc. Vocabulary can be categorized into *productive* vocabulary and *receptive* vocabulary by methodologists of the Communicative Language Teaching; *notional* words and *functional* words in terms of semantics or different parts of speech such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.

Pyles and Algeo (1970) believe that when most of us think about language, we think first about words. It is true that the vocabulary is the focus of language. It is in words that sounds and meanings inter – lock to allow us to communicate with one another, and it is words that we arrange together to make sentences, conversations and discourse of all kinds. Rupley, Logan & Nichols (1998) also consider vocabulary as the glue that holds stories, ideas and content together…making comprehension accessible for children. As a result, learners who have a wide range of vocabulary can understand new ideas and concepts more quickly than ones with a limited vocabulary.

In the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, vocabulary is a set of lexemes, including single words, compound words and idioms. According to Penny Ur, (1996, p. 60) vocabulary is simply defined as "the words we teach in the foreign language. However, a new item of vocabulary may be more than a single word". He also states that a useful convention is to cover all such cases by talking about vocabulary items rather than words. McCarthy (1990) also shares the same interest that multi-word units including idioms and phrasal verbs should clearly be treated as single lexical items since their meaning are partly identified by their fixedness. Nation (2001) states that knowing a word means knowing at least its form, its meaning and its basic usage.

It can be concluded that vocabulary are words that a language possesses, including a single word, two- or three- word items expressing a single idea and multi-word idioms. Michael Lewis (1993) points out vocabulary may be individual words, or full sentences – institutionalized utterances – that convey for social or pragmatic meaning within a given community. Kennedy and Bolitho (1984) emphasize that words do not exist in isolation so they should be taught in context. Gairns and Redman (1986) also share the same interest that the meaning of a word can only be understood and learnt in terms of relationship with other words in the language.

2.2. The importance of vocabulary in language learning and teaching

In the book on vocabulary written by McCarthy (1990, p. 2), he states "It is the experience of most language teachers that the single, biggest component of any language course is vocabulary. No matter how well the students learn grammar, no matter how successfully sounds of second language are mastered, without words to express the wide range of meaning, communication in second language just cannot happen in any meaningful way". The importance of vocabulary is agreed and added by Pyles and Algeo "when we first think about language, we think first about words. It is words that we arrange together to make sentences, conversation and discourse of all kinds". Harmer (1991) also presents that if language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh.

A small child can communicate without learning about grammar and it is true that vocabulary help us understand or make others understand.

In reality, with a wide range of vocabulary and little grammar, a language learner can help himself understood and understand the language easily. On the contrary, he can find it difficult to communicate or to understand the language if his vocabulary is limited with much knowledge of grammar. Obviously, vocabulary is the decisive element in language communication.

3. PRINCIPLES OF VOCABULARY TEACHING

3.1. Criteria for selecting and teaching vocabulary

As mentioned above, vocabulary plays the most essential part in learning a foreign language. However, what should be taught must be taken into consideration because what is useful in one situation may be useless in another and vice versa. Therefore, the criteria given below depend on the particular teaching situation.

Harmer (1991) and Gairns and Redman (1986) suggest some criteria to select vocabulary to teach as follows: range, coverage, frequency, needs, learn ability. Besides, Harmer (1991) thinks that to know the word involves knowing its meaning as well as usage, form and grammar.

In short, when teaching new words, the teacher should select the words and provide his learners with their meanings, forms, grammatical structures and usages relatively as the words are useful only when they know how to use them.

3.2. Techniques used to teach vocabulary

Teaching vocabulary involves both presentation of new words and practice and consolidation and different techniques can be used appropriately with each type.

3.2.1. Techniques in vocabulary presenting

The purpose of teaching vocabulary is making learners use the words correctly and turning the words into theirs. The most commonly used techniques as follows:

According to Gairns and Redman (1986), visual techniques or non-verbal techniques encompass mind maps, flashcards, pictures, photographs, blackboard drawing, wall charts, realia (object themselves) and gestures or mime. These techniques attract learners to get involved in the lesson so they are extensively used for teaching concrete words.

Verbal techniques and translation include the use of illustrative situation (oral or written), definition, explanation, context, synonyms, antonyms, gradable items and examples of type in the target languages or source languages. These techniques should be used to teach abstract words. However, once translation is used too much, it may make learners lazier so they may not have the motivation to understand the words usage in different contexts deeply.

3.2.2. Practice and consolidation techniques

Techniques for practicing and consolidating are mostly games which encourage, entertain, teach, and promote fluency. According to Haycraft (1987), there is a large variety of word games that are useful for practicing and revising vocabulary after it has been introduced because games provide a situation in which communication is essential and therefore will become stimulating and interesting way to help students acquire the target language without even realizing it. Some other techniques suggested to help students practice and consolidate new words are matching, synonyms/antonyms, filling in gaps in sentences, completing the phrase/ sentences, correcting spelling mistakes, labeling a picture, matching/completing the definition or playing games such as crosswords, puzzles, category games, etc.

4. USING MINDMAPS TO TEACH VOCABULARY FOR NON-ENGLISH MAJOR STUDENTS AT THE UNIVERSITY

4.1. The teaching and learning context of non-English major students at the university

English is compulsory for the non-English major students at this university. According to the Decision 1400/QĐ-TTg dated September 30th 2008, non-English majors at colleges and universities must get level 3 (B1) in the 6-level language proficiency framework for Vietnam to be graduated. To fulfill this, "Objective Pet" by Louise Hashemi and Barbara Thomas is selected as the main coursebook.

The students are from 18 to 22 and most of them have been learning English for 7 to 10 years, however, a large number of them find English difficult. Due to the fact that some students are good at English but in contrast, most students are bad at it and even scared of it, finding an appropriate way of presenting vocabulary should be taken into consideration. (see Figure 1)

As we can see, mind maps bring a lot of advantages. The good points are also stated by DePorter and Hernacki (2008, p. 172) "as the flexibility, concentration, comprehension increase and enjoyment, etc." With these advantages, mind maps can be considered as an amazing tool to help students improve their vocabulary. During the lessons, learners can take notes by using key words, colors, images to understand the lessons and learn vocabulary more thoroughly. Moreover, because of the ability of activating existing knowledge, mind maps make learners brainstorm the topic from a central idea to many other related ideas. With this activity, learners can learn not only one word but many other words related.

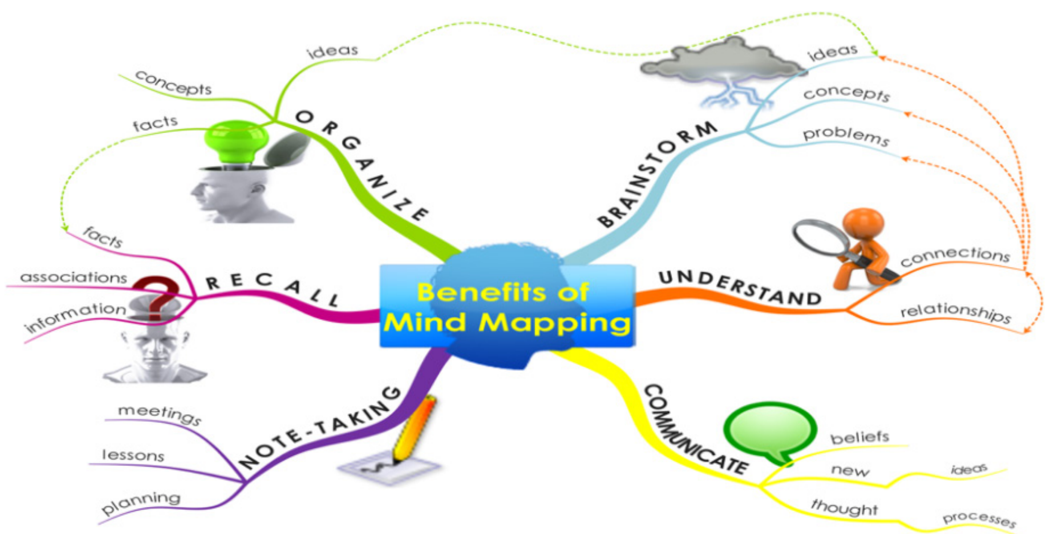

Figure 1. Benefits of mind maps
(source: https://visual.ly/community/Infographics/other/benefits-mind-mapping)

Due to these reasons, I would like to apply this model to teaching vocabulary in my lessons to my students – the first-year non-English major students at my university – with the coursebook *"Pet Objective"* to see how it is used to bring more positive effects to my students' vocabulary improvement.

4.2. How to use mind maps to teach vocabulary in the coursebook "Objective Pet"

4.2.1. Introduction of the coursebook "Objective Pet"

"Objective Pet" by Louise Hashemi and Barbara Thomas is used as the coursebook for the non-English major students at the University. Published by Cambridge University Press, it consists of 30 units, 30 Exam folders and 5 revisions.

This book is a topic-based one which includes language components and language skills. Its basic structures of English are developed through a variety of different contexts with different skills, which helps students develop their vocabulary and ability to communicate effectively. Each unit has a theme with the main structure focus, which is recycled and developed through the unit. Each unit consists of 4 skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and vocabulary and language focus. At the end of each unit is an Exam folder with two different skills which orientates the format of the test for students. After every six units, there is a revision section which helps students consolidate what they have learned in these units.

4.2.2. Eight chosen vocabulary parts in the coursebook "Objective Pet"

All the chosen topics are the ones that are familiar with the students. However, familiar topics bring both advantages as well as disadvantages. For instance, if the students know the topics well they can think of the words related to these topics easily so they are eager to learn, but they may also get bored easily. Therefore, to make them all feel interested in these topics the teachers should find the appropriate. Moreover, these topics are sometimes difficult to teach because the students' background is not the same. To make all of the students interested in the lessons, mind maps work out because with this kind of presenting the words they can summarize all the words related to the given topic as well as the chance to learn new words. Mind maps as a good way of solving the problems because the students even though know the words them still have to put the words into the right categories so they have to make their brains work.

Eight chosen vocabulary parts in the coursebook *"Objective Pet"* are chosen to teach using mind maps as one of the activities. Each part is taught in 10 minutes at the beginning to lead in the new lessons or at the end to consolidate the old lessons.

<u>Vocabulary Part 1:</u> Sports and hobbies (Unit 1. A question of sport – Page 10)

The topic of the lesson is about sports so the main purpose of the lesson is to give the students words related to sports. Moreover, to make the words useful, the students have to find out words/phrases related to the words such as the equipment and verbs used with these sports.

<u>Vocabulary Part 2:</u> Jobs (Unit 3. What's your job? – Page 22)

In this unit, students are asked to list all the jobs and words related to them. Then, they have to find out the names of jobs based on the definitions or explanations. After that, they talk about the jobs they would like to do.

<u>Vocabulary Part 3:</u> Entertainment (Unit 4. Let's go out – Page 28)

The topic of this unit is about entertainment, students have to list as many types of entertainment as possible and the words related to them. Then, they are asked to listen to the pieces of music and guess what kinds of entertainment are talking about. Students talk about the jobs they like and give reasons for their choices.

Vocabulary Part 3: Countries and nationalities (Unit 11. Facts and figures – Page 72)

A mind map of "countries" is given and students have to fill in. After that, they worked in groups to find out the nationalities for these countries. With the vocabulary learned in this unit, students can distinguish the difference between the words about countries and nationalities and how to use them effectively.

Vocabulary Part 4: Books (Unit 12. A good read – Page 78)

Students know some types of books and words related to these types. They are also be able to talk about their favourite types of books and the reasons. Then, they talk about their favourite books.

Vocabulary Part 5: Accommodation (Unit 13. A place of my own – Page 86)

The topic is about accommodation so students list all the rooms of a house and the furniture in each room. Then students can talk about their ideal house.

Vocabulary Part 6: Films (Unit 18. Shooting a film – Page 116)

Students name some people who involve in shooting a film and words related to these people. Then, they talk about their favourite films or part of film making.

Vocabulary Part 7: Families (Unit 19. Happy families – Page 124)

Students know the relationship between people of a family based on the family tree. Then they practice describing their families in pairs and draw their partners' family trees.

Vocabulary Part 8: Musical instruments (Unit 20. So you want to be a pop star? – Page 130)

The topic is music and students learn some words about musical instruments and adjectives and adverbs used with this topic. They are able to talk about their favourite kinds of music using mentioned adjectives and adverbs.

4.2.3. An example of class procedures

In Unit 1. A question of sport – Page 10, to lead in the lesson, the students were asked some questions such as "Can you play any sports?". After guessing the topic, the students were given a mind map of "Sports". To make the students excited and eager to get involved, I divided the class into 3 groups. The students worked in groups, each group had to complete the map in five minutes finding some sports and then the equipment related to each sport.

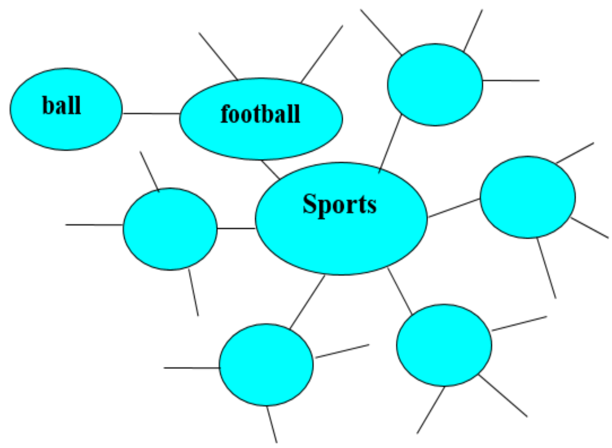

Figure 2. A mind map on "Sports"

To check if all the students know these words, I asked students these questions "What's a helmet?", "What's a racket?". Then students work in pairs, ask and answer about the other things.

After finishing this task, the students were asked to work in groups of 3 or 4. One student talked about a sport without saying the name of the sport but the activities and equipment used to play this sport and the other students guess what the sport was.

5. CONCLUSION

In this paper, I have been concerned with the importance of vocabulary in learning a foreign language and mind maps are chosen as a way of presenting vocabulary for the non-English major students at a university in Quang Ninh. Most of the students under investigation irrespective of their language proficiency showed their eagerness to learn vocabulary with this technique. Mind maps helped the students brainstorm a new topic and activate the prior knowledge. Besides, it was a tool to facilitate students to summarize the lessons effectively. Last but not least, the students could apply mind maps to take notes during the lesson.

From the reality of teaching and learning using this technique, I recommend that mind maps should be used more popularly to teach vocabulary for the non-English major students at the university in order to get positive effects on students' vocabulary learning. The very first reason was the beneficial effects of the technique to the students' learning and remembering vocabulary, which were proved through the findings of the study. Another reason was the enjoyment that the technique of using mind maps can bring to the students./.

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SỬ DỤNG BẢN ĐỒ TƯ DUY NHẰM NÂNG CAO VỐN TỪ VỰNG CỦA SINH VIÊN KHÔNG CHUYÊN NGỮ TẠI MỘT TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC Ở QUẢNG NINH

VŨ THANH HÒA

Tóm tắt: Bài báo này nghiên cứu tầm quan trọng của từ vựng trong dạy và học cũng như khó khăn khi học từ vựng. Bài báo giới thiệu bản đồ tư duy như là kỹ thuật để giải quyết những vấn đề đó. Bài báo cũng khẳng định rằng, hầu hết các sinh viên tham gia khảo sát cho dù năng lực ngoại ngữ thế nào, cũng đều hứng thú khi học từ vựng với kỹ thuật này.

Từ khóa: *dạy từ vựng, học từ vựng, bản đồ tư duy, sinh viên không chuyên tiếng Anh*

Ngày nhận bài: 30/3/2021; ngày sửa chữa: 23/4/2021; ngày duyệt đăng: 26/11/2021

DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED BY EFL STUDENTS IN GIVING AN ACADEMIC ORAL PRESENTATION: A CASE STUDY AT HANOI LAW UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

Delivering an oral presentation is considered one of the most important skills needed for students at tertiary education. However, it is never an easy task. Thus, this study has been conducted with the aim of investigating the difficulties encountered by EFL students in academic oral presentations. Participants were 50 students from Legal English major at Hanoi Law University. A five-point Likert Scale questionnaire was used and divided into two main sections: overall difficulties and specific difficulties related to students' psychology, linguistic competence, and oral presentation skills; the audience including the teacher and peer listeners. In addition, a structured interview to solicit students' opinions was carried out. Results showed that students' biggest difficulties are lack of presentation skills and linguistic competence. From these findings, some implications have been made in order to help improve students' oral presentations.

Keywords: *difficulties, EFL students, academic oral presentation*

1. INTRODUCTION

An oral presentation, according to Levin and Topping (2006), is planned and practiced speech that is not memorized or read from notes but is introduced by a presenter to an audience. This is an activity which engages students in a project to explore about a topic and later share the findings in the class.

According to Alshare and Hindi (2004) a student's presentation is an important element in delivering positive learning experiences. It can be used to encourage students to be more active in learning process. Many students' presentations are used by teachers to assess students' understanding, knowledge and progress in modules, and at important stages on academic and vocational courses. Presentations also help students to prepare for employment in organizations that place an increasing value on effective presentation skills.

Most of higher education institutions are assigning oral presentation in courses. Oral presentations are also a common requirement in many courses. However, in fact, EFL students encounter significant problems in acquiring and mastering this skill. Most of them are just reading rather than presenting something to the audience. Therefore, the researcher is interested in conducting the research with the aim of investigating EFL students' difficulties in giving an academic oral presentation in English. To achieve this, three research questions are raised as follows:

What are students' overall perceptions of the difficulties in giving an academic oral presentation?

What specific problems do students encounter regarding their psychology, linguistic competence and presentation skills?

How does the audience (including the teacher and peer listeners) impact students' oral presentations?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. An overview of academic oral presentations

Academic oral presentation is an activity through which the presenters communicate with the audience at college or university and it is conducted in courses that are taught in the university sections and academics (Ayman Hassan Abu El Enein, 2011). In an EFL context, there are six types of speaking namely imitation, responsive, intensive speaking, transactional dialogue, interpersonal dialogue, extensive speaking (Brown, 2007 as cited in Derakshan, Khalili, and Behesti, 2016). Oral presentation is an extensive speaking activity in which students have to perform individually or in groups to give a speech and/or presentation.

Three essential ingredients of a presentation include the audience, the presenter and the presentation itself. Each of these three ingredients is vital to a successful presentation. No matter how well-constructed the presentation is, if it is badly delivered it will fail; no matter how well-delivered the presentation is, if it does not make sense then it will fail. Most importantly of all, even if the presentation is perfect and the presenter inspired and charismatic, if the audience is not interested or engaged, then the presentation will certainly fail (Siddons, 2008). In other words, a successful presentation must be well-organized, well-presented and audience-focused.

2.2. Previous studies on difficulties faced by students in giving an oral presentation

A great number of studies have been conducted to investigate the reasons behind students' low performance in oral presentations. These factors can be grouped under three categories as follows.

Psychological hindrance: Presenter's personal traits such as shyness, fear of facing an audience, self-confidence, and physical appearance have been proved to affect their presenting performance. Elliot and Chong (2004) surveyed the opinions of first-year university students in Australia and found that one third of the sample had a high or very high level of presentation anxiety while two thirds of the students believed that their level of anxiety affected their performance. Chuang (2010) investigated the sources of anxiety of speaking English and anxiety-driven situations. Results showed undergraduate students felt anxious even if prepared in advance, felt their peers spoke better English than they did, felt uncomfortable and shy when they had to speak in front of others, and were afraid that the teacher would pay attention to their English mistakes. Not only undergraduate but also graduate students were reported being anxious during oral presentations. For example, in a study by Zappa-Hollman (2007), while engaging in an academic oral presentation, non-native graduate students in Canada were found to be shy and afraid to present in front of a large audience.

The audience: In an EFL class, the audience includes the teacher and peer listeners whose behaviors such as negative evaluations, hard questions, humiliating feedback can influence the presenters' work. In a study conducted by Wolfe (2008) audience reactions were reported as an unpleasant experience in oral presentations. In group presentations, the fact that group members do not share the work equally annoyed presenters as well. Noticeably, fear of public speaking, which might be the result of the culture of learning, was rated as the worst fear for many students. Lee (2009) found out that Korean graduate students had passive personalities as a result of a silent and passive learning culture. Difficulties reported were the inability to contact the professor's eyes and their classmates' reactions, which caused graduate students to panic and forget their material. In another study, Radzuan and Kaur (2011) found that undergraduate students' fear came from the harsh and frightening evaluation committee including difficult questions, criticism, and interruptions of their presentations.

Lack of presentation skills: In most studies, students' weak presenting skills such as researching, planning, organizing, practicing, and presenting were reported to hinder their performance. In a study to explore the factors that influence students' oral presentations, Leichsenring (2010) reported that EFL undergraduate Japanese students worried about making mistakes, which resulted in their memorization of content, and reported problems with planning and preparing a presentation. Similarly, in Chuang (2011)'s study, students reported a preference for reading from notes, a lack of audience or teacher feedback to guide them in their presentations, the inability to choose their own topics, poor vocabulary, and inadequate presentation skills. Finally, Abu Al-Enein (2011) investigated the main difficulties encountered by university English majors during oral presentations from students' and instructors' perspectives. The common difficulties found were students' lack of motivation to give presentations, lack of confidence in their abilities, anxiety and fear, lack of eye contact with the audience, focusing on accuracy more than fluency, incorrect pronunciation, lack of proper vocabulary, weak speaking skills, inability to use technology, poor time management, and interlingua mistakes while presenting.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Participants

The participants of the study consisted of 50 English-major students from K44, Legal English major, Department of Foreign Languages, Hanoi Law University. At the time this research was conducted, they had finished courses in General English (Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing) before studying Legal English 1, where they were required to make an oral presentation as a form of continuous assessment. Among 50 participants, 72% are female while 28% are male students, which is a typical pattern for social majors. When being asked to describe their language proficiency level, 20% of the students rates themselves at A1-A2 level; 64% at B1-B2 level and 16% at C1 level.

3.2. Data-collection instruments

3.2.1. Students' Questionnaire

A questionnaire with a five-point Likert-type Scale (1=never, 2=rarely, 3= sometimes, 4=often, and 5=frequently) was developed by the researcher after an extensive review of the literature on oral presentations. It consisted of three sections: the first section described the demographic information of the sample, the second section consisted of one item aiming to depict the participants' common difficulties in giving an academic oral presentation, the last section was set to discover participants' difficulties related to their psychology, linguistic competence, presentation skills and other factors such as peer learners and the teacher.

3.2.2. Students' Interview

A structured interview consisting of 6 questions was set to elicit the difficulties students face during academic oral presentation to clarify students' responses from the questionnaire. Eight participants were randomly invited to take part in the interview. The interview asked participants to explain difficulties encountered during oral presentations and exemplify with their own unpleasant presentation experience.

3.3. Data Analysis

3.3.1. Students' Questionnaire

Descriptive statistics, including frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations were employed to measure students' perceptions of the difficulties they face during oral presentations from three perspectives: students' psychology, presentation skills, and linguistic competence; the audience including the teacher and peer listeners. For ease of statistical analysis, participants' perceived difficulties were grouped under five main categories corresponding to the frequency of encountering: 1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Often, and 5 = Frequently. The data were then entered into SPSS for analysis to produce mean scores and interpreted as follows:

1.00-1.80: Strongly disagree/ I never encounter this.
1.81-2.60: Disagree/ I rarely encounter this.
2.61-3.40: Undecided/ I sometimes encounter this.
3.41-4.20: Agree/ I often encounter this.
4.21-5.00: Strongly agree/ I frequently encounter this.

3.3.2. Students' Interview

Tapes were transcribed and the data were analyzed manually. The researcher examined the data by looking for repeated themes, grouped those together, and then chose appropriate headings for the categorized data.

4. RESEARCH RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Research question 1: What are students' overall perceptions of the difficulties in giving an academic oral presentation?

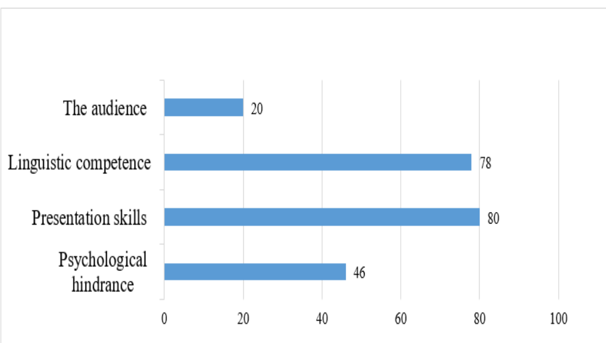

Figure 1. Students' Descriptions of Problems Encountered in Giving an Academic Oral Presentation

Figure 1 presents the difficulties encountered by students in giving an academic oral presentation. As can be seen, the majority of the participants chose 'presentation skills' and 'language proficiency' as the most challenging aspects (at 80% and 78% respectively). While the audience does not seem to be an obstacle, nearly half of the students (46%) consider psychological hindrance as a problem in oral presentations.

The interview asked for other factors that might affect the presenters. The responses revealed some other difficulties not mentioned in the questionnaire related to the preparation stage before the presentation day.

Our group did not prepare well, so our points are off the topic (Student 2)

The quality of a presentation depends on the available material. Before the presentation, we have to spend so much time searching for ideas and information. The time for doing presentations is much lengthy than our expectations (Student 8)

4.2. Research question 2: What specific problems do students encounter regarding their psychology, linguistic competence and presentation skills?

4.2.1. Students' difficulties related to their psychology

Table 1. Students' difficulties related to psychology

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Devi
1. I don't like oral presentations.	50	1.00	5.00	2.40	1.03
2. I am worried and embarrassed before presentation day.	50	1.00	5.00	3.60	1.27
3. I am not confident to present in English.	50	1.00	5.00	3.30	1.23
4. During presentations, I forget what to say.	50	1.00	5.00	3.18	1.11
5. I am shy to speak in front of an audience.	50	1.00	5.00	2.92	1.35
7. I am afraid of making mistakes during presentations.	50	1.00	5.00	3.52	1.19

The specific problems related to students' psychology are illustrated in Table 1. As could be seen from the table, the two most common psychological problems are 'worried and embarrassed' (M = 3.60) and 'afraid of making mistakes' (M = 3.52). Other negative emotions including 'not confident to present in English' and 'shy to speak in front of an audience' are encountered at a lesser frequency, with the mean ranging around 3.00. As a result of these, students sometimes 'forget what to say' (M = 3.18). These results are supported by most studies reporting students feeling anxious, uncomfortable and shy before an oral presentation (Elliot & Chong, 2004; Chuang, 2010; Zappa-Hollman, 2007).

The only item that most students disagree is 'I don't like oral presentations', which implies that although students experience some psychological hindrance, they still have a favorable attitude towards giving an oral presentation. This is inconsistent with Zappa-Hollman's study (2007) in which students reported oral presentation as "daunting".

The responses collected from the structured interview are consistent with the responses from the questionnaire. When being asked about specific psychological problems, students share some common feelings such as:

I am afraid of standing in a crowd (Student 1)

I am afraid of making grammar mistakes and forgetting vocabulary (Student 3)

I am not confident to speak to a big audience (Student 5)

I am just uncomfortable before the audience (Student 6)

I am so nervous that I often forget what I have prepared (Student 8).

4.2.2. Students' difficulties related to their linguistic competence

Table 2. Learners' difficulties related to their linguistic competence

Items	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Devi
1. Vocabulary	50	1.00	5.00	3.40	1.27
2. Thinking in Vietnamese and translating into English	50	1.00	5.00	3.30	1.32
3. Pronunciation	50	1.00	5.00	3.34	1.11
4. Sentence structures and grammar	50	1.00	5.00	3.24	1.07
5. Speaking fluently	50	1.00	5.00	3.70	1.11
6. Speaking accurately	50	1.00	5.00	3.48	1.07

It can be seen from Table 2 that the mean scores of all items in this group fall within the range of 3.24 to 3.76, suggesting that linguistic competence posed a significant problem for English majors in their academic oral presentations. The factors considered to be the most troublesome for students were 'speaking fluently' (M = 3.70) and 'speaking accurately' (M = 3.48).

Eighty-eight percent of those survey find it hard to speak fluently (item 5), which is supported by the answers to item 2, for which students think in Vietnamese and translate into English, a task that eventually affects their oral fluency. Other factors such as 'vocabulary', 'pronunciation' and 'grammar' sometimes hinder students in their presentations and leads to students' difficulties in speaking accurately, a problem experienced by eighty percent of the participants.

The data received from the interview revealed specific matters troubling students in their presentations. Most of the difficulties focus on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation that affect students' accuracy and fluency.

I have limited ability of memorizing new words. I often present word-by-word and cannot speak fluently (Student 2)

My grammar is not good and I often forget new words (Student 3)

I often make grammar mistakes and have limited vocabulary (Student 4)

I usually pronounce words incorrectly and make grammar mistakes (Student 6)

There are so many words that I cannot memorize and understand (Student 7)

When I speak too fast, it is not fluent (Student 8).

Other language-based challenges mentioned by students in the interview are "*language for presentations*" (Student 3), "*the ability to express myself*" (Student 6).

4.2.3. Students' difficulties related to their presentation skills:

Table 3. Learners' difficulties related to presentational skills

I have difficulties ...	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Devi
1. presenting without my notes	50	1.00	5.00	2.78	1.23
2. finishing the presentation within the given time	50	1.00	5.00	2.70	.97
3. using computer programs, applications, software to assist my presentation	50	1.00	4.00	1.96	.98
4. delivering an oral presentation in English	50	1.00	4.00	2.10	.93
5. starting, developing or finishing my presentation	50	1.00	4.00	2.16	.99
6. emphasizing on the main or key points	50	1.00	5.00	2.60	1.27
7. comparing or contrasting the information.	50	1.00	5.00	2.38	1.14

Students' difficulties related to their presentation skills can be categorized into two groups of 'more popular' and 'less popular' ones. More popular presenting problems have the mean score range within 2.70 – 2.78 including 'presenting without my notes' and 'finishing the presentation within the given time'. From the survey, 56% of the students said they have to read from notes during oral presentations (from sometimes to frequently). This is in line with previous research in which participants were found reading from notes (Chuang, 2011). Interestingly, Zappa-Hollman (2007) found that non-native speakers of English were used to reading aloud from their notes during their oral presentation. Regarding time management, 64% of the participants stated having problems with finishing their talk within the time frame. This was further reported as a difficulty by Abu El Enein (2011) in his study, in which time management is a problem for participants.

Other presentation difficulties are experienced by students at a lower frequency. When it comes to technology, most participants (70%) responded that they never or rarely face problems with using computer programs, applications, software to assist their talk. In fact, from the author's experience as a teacher, most students have good technological skills. Most students (68%) also believe that they know how to do an oral presentation (statement 4), which is further supported by responses to statement 5, 6 and 7.

Regarding presentation challenges due to presentation skills, students' responses are in line with the statistics from the questionnaire. Many students said they have to depend on the notes while presenting.

I always hold the notes and read from them. I cannot develop my own sentences without referring to the notes. (Student 4)

I have to rely on the notes during my presentation. (Student 7)

Besides that, there are some skill-based difficulties reported by students that are not stated in the questionnaires, such as: "*presenting naturally*" (Student 1), "*contacting the classmates during my talk*" (Student 4), "*using the body language*" (Student 5).

4.3. Research question 3: How does the audience (including the teacher and peer listeners) impact students' oral presentations?

Table 4. Learners' difficulties related to the teacher

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Devi
1. The teacher doesn't give positive feedback after my presentations.	50	1.00	5.00	1.88	1.25
2. The teacher doesn't fairly assess group presenters.	50	1.00	5.00	1.86	1.08
3. The teacher interrupts me and raises questions during my presentation.	50	1.00	5.00	2.22	1.11
4. The teacher doesn't pay attention to me.	50	1.00	4.00	1.74	.89
5. The teacher shows unsatisfactory attitude.	50	1.00	5.00	2.06	1.13
6. The teacher is doing her own private affairs while I am presenting.	50	1.00	5.00	1.88	1.18

Unlike the previous categories, 'the teacher' appears to be less troublesome for students in delivering a presentation. The responses of the participants ranged within 1.74 – 2.22, which means they never or rarely encounter problems related to their teacher's behavior or attitude both during and after their presentation. This is inconsistent with Radzuan and Kaur's study (2011) in which students reported the evaluation panel's attacking them with difficult questions and criticism and interrupting them to make comments.

Table 5. Learners' difficulties related to peer listeners

Are you affected when...	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Devi
1. the audience laughs at your mistakes?	50	1.00	5.00	2.92	1.22
2. the audience talks or comes in late?	50	1.00	5.00	2.60	1.22
3. the audience doesn't care about your presentation?	50	1.00	5.00	2.88	1.15
4. the audience raises hard questions?	50	1.00	5.00	3.00	1.27
5. the audience comments on your knowledge and skills?	50	1.00	5.00	2.50	1.26
6. the audience doesn't compliment or give positive feedback	50	1.00	5.00	2.64	1.15
7. your group members don't encourage or support you during the presentation	50	1.00	5.00	1.96	1.14
8. your group members don't cooperate well	50	1.00	5.00	2.20	1.24

As can be seen from Table 5, students' presentations are more likely to be influenced by their peer listeners than their teacher. Certain unsupportive behaviors displayed by peers such as laughing, showing no care, showing no positive feedback sometimes affect the presenters. Noticeably, most students (62%) agree that the difficult questions raised by peer listeners inhibit them the most. Other peers' neutral actions such as talking, coming late or giving comments seem not to cause great difficulties to presenters. Interestingly, students reported satisfaction with their group members who cooperate, encourage and support them during the presentation.

5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Conclusion

Overall, the data from the survey and interview consistently concludes that the most common difficulties faced by English-major students in oral presentations at HLU are lack of linguistics competence and presentation skills. Psychological hindrance is also a considerable issue in students' presentations. Bad preparation is added by students as another source of their difficulties.

Regarding specific obstacles in these mentioned groups, two biggest psychological hindrances are students' worries and embarrassment before the presentation and their fear of making mistakes during their performance. In addition, students have troubles with their grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation which hinder their speaking accuracy. Many of them still think in their native language and translate into English or find it hard to express themselves, which badly affect their fluency. Lastly, difficulties arisen by presentation skills include students' heavy reliance in prepared notes and time management skills, as well as other matters added such as presentation manners, contacting the audience and body language use.

Interestingly, contrary to previous studies on the negative impact of the audience on the presenter's performance (Wolfe, 2008; Lee, 2009; Radzuan & Kaur, 2011), the data from the current study shows that students at HLU do not meet serious difficulties in presenting due to their teacher's attitude and behavior. However, they tend to be fairly affected by their classmates' unsupportive behaviors.

5.2. Recommendations

These results indicate the need for teachers to provide a more suitable environment for students to conduct their presentations, including encouragement and support. Students should be motivated by both their teacher and peer learners so that they can overcome psychological problems. Peer assessment with specified marking criteria can be used to make the peer listeners more responsible and attentive during oral presentations. Students should have the chance to practice presenting in small groups first and to a big audience latter frequently and throughout the semester. This regular practice would definitely reduce their embarrassment and fear of speaking as well as improve their presentation skills. In addition, to equip learners with tips and techniques to present successfully, a mandatory course in oral presentation skill should be included in the curriculum. More optional conversation courses should be established in the department to help students develop oral skills. Outside class hours, students should be encouraged to broaden their background knowledge and enhance language skills regularly. Clubs, events or oral contests can be organized by the Legal English Department that create opportunities for students to practice their presentation skills.

The limitation of this study is that the researcher focused only on English-major students' difficulties in academic oral presentations, so the results may not be applicable to other majors or at different education levels. The data were collected from the perceptions of the students, so there should be further study from other perspectives./.

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KHÓ KHĂN CỦA SINH VIÊN KHI THUYẾT TRÌNH TIẾNG ANH: NGHIÊN CỨU ĐIỂN HÌNH TẠI TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC LUẬT HÀ NỘI

NGUYỄN THU TRANG

Tóm tắt: Thuyết trình là một trong những kỹ năng quan trọng đối với sinh viên ở bậc đại học. Tuy nhiên, đây không phải là một nhiệm vụ học tập đơn giản. Nghiên cứu này được thực hiện nhằm tìm hiểu những khó khăn mà sinh viên gặp phải khi thuyết trình bằng tiếng Anh. Đối tượng nghiên cứu gồm 50 sinh viên chuyên ngành Tiếng Anh pháp lý của trường Đại học Luật Hà Nội. Tác giả sử dụng bảng câu hỏi khảo sát được xây dựng dựa trên thang đo Likert năm bậc, bao gồm hai phần chính: những khó khăn chung và những khó khăn cụ thể liên quan đến tâm lý, khả năng sử dụng ngôn ngữ, kỹ năng thuyết trình của sinh viên; và khó khăn từ phía người nghe bao gồm giảng viên và bạn học. Bên cạnh đó, tác giả cũng phỏng vấn theo các câu hỏi định sẵn nhằm củng cố thêm cho bảng hỏi về quan điểm của sinh viên. Kết quả của nghiên cứu cho thấy, những trở ngại lớn nhất đối với sinh viên là thiếu kỹ năng thuyết trình và khả năng sử dụng ngôn ngữ. Từ kết quả trên, tác giả đưa ra một số đề xuất về phương pháp sư phạm của giảng viên nhằm góp phần hoàn thiện các bài thuyết trình của sinh viên.

Từ khóa: *khó khăn, sinh viên học tiếng Anh, thuyết trình*

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ПЕРЕДАЧА РУССКОГО СЛОВА "КОГДА" С ИЗЪЯСНИТЕЛЬНОЙ СЕМАНТИКОЙ НА ВЬЕТНАМСКИЙ ЯЗЫК

Translation of explanatory meaning of conjunction *когда* into Vietnamese

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ABSTRACT

It is well-known that conjunction когда is used with great frequency in Russian complex sentences. Besides the temporal meaning of the word когда, there are other meanings such as conditional meaning and explanatory meaning. This paper studies the meaning of когда in famous Russian literature works and their translations, focusing on analyzing its explanatory meaning of condition in complex sentences, especially translation of explanatory meaning of conjunction когда into Vietnamese.

Keywords: *conjunction, complex sentences, explanatory meaning*

1. ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Союзом называется служебная часть речи, употребляющаяся для связи членов предложения, частей сложного предложения и отдельных предложений связного текста. Союзы не только служат формальным средством соединения синтаксических единиц, но и являются одним из средств выражения смысловых отношений между ними. А союзное слово - это относительное местоимение или наречие, которые соединяет главную и придаточную часть в составе сложноподчиненного предложения. Слово ***когда*** относится к активному словарному запасу. Функциональные омонимы слова ***когда*** выполняют функции союза и союзного слова. С данным словом связан широкий круг значений. Однако, в рамках этой статьи мы рассматриваем изъяснительную семантику слова ***когда*** и средства передачи ее на вьетнамский язык.

2. СЛОВО *КОГДА* С ИЗЪЯСНИТЕЛЬНОЙ СЕМАНТИКОЙ В РУССКОМ СЛОЖНОПОДЧИНЕННОМ ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИИ

Сложноподчиненные предложения с изъяснительной придаточной частью - это сложные предложения, в которых придаточная часть служит обязательным рапространителем одного из членов главной части и раскрывает конкретное содержание этого члена. Например:

Грустно ***видеть, когда*** юноша теряет лучшие свои надежды и мечты... (М.Ю. Лермонтов).

В качестве поясняемых слов главной части, к которым относится изъяснительная часть, обычно выступают:

- глаголы со значением говорения, мысли, знания, восприятия и чувства: *говорить, сообщать, обещать, думать, понять, знать, мечтать, видеть, любить, надеяться* и др.;

- глаголы бытия, существования: *бывать, случаться;*

- предикативные оценочные слова: *хорошо, плохо, ценно* и др.;

- существительные, образованные от названных глаголов и имеющие такие же значения, как и эти глаголы: *мысль, предложение, желание* и др.;

- ряд устойчивых сочетаний: *заключаться в чем-л., состоять в чем-л., сводиться к чему-л.* и др.;

- краткие прилагательные и причастия: *рад, доволен, убежден* и др.;

- деепричастия: *отмечая, зная, понимая, сообщив, узнав* и др.

Изъяснительная придаточная часть отвечает на вопросы падежей, которые зависят от члена главной части.

Изъяснительная придаточная часть связывается с главной с помощью:

а) союзов: *что, чтобы, будто (будто бы, как будто), как (как бы не, ли* (из вопросительной частицы *ли*) и др.;

б) союзных слов: ***когда***, *кто, что, какой, сколько, где, куда, откуда, почему, зачем* и др.

Изъяснительная придаточная часть обычно помещается после главной части (реже в середине), но всегда после слов, к которым она относится.

Изъяснительная придаточная часть чаще всего поясняет глагол в главной части. Это объясняется тем, что “Основной синтаксической позицией изъяснительных предложений является позиция при глаголе. Слова других частей речи участвуют в формировании изъяснительных отношений благодаря своим словообразовательным связям с глаголом или через синонимические отношения с глагольными образованиями” (Русская грамматика, 1980, с. 472).

Изъяснительная придаточная часть играет роль дополнения к одному из членов главной части. Она подчиняется чаще всего глаголу, который без дополнения обнаруживает явную неполноту значения (Гвоздев, 1968, с. 246).

Описанию сложноподчиненных предложений с изъяснительной придаточной частью посвящено большое количество научных работ. Однако, в данных работах изъяснительная придаточная часть с союзным словом ***когда***, которая поясняет предикативные оценочные слова, существительные, краткие прилагательные в главной части. Единичные примеры, в которых изъяснительная часть с союзным словом ***когда*** поясняет предикативные слова, краткие прилагательные, существительные в главной части, мы нашли только в академической грамматике:

- *Ты привыкла видеть меня девочкой, и тебе* ***странно, когда*** *у меня серьезное лицо* (А. Чехов).

- *Каждый раз Даша возвращалась домой взволнованная и была* ***рада, когда*** *дома - гости* (А.Н. Толстой).

- ***Неприятнее всего, когда*** *в такую погоду сидишь один* (Н. Гоголь).

- *Поэт* ***смущен, когда*** *дивишься ты Богатому его воображени*ю (А. Фет).

Авторы этой работы считают, что данные предложения имеют периферийные изъяснительные значения (Русская грамматика, 1980, с. 481).

В собранном нами материале не отмечены случаи, когда изъяснительная придаточная часть с союзным словом ***когда*** поясняет краткие прилагательные, предикативные слова и имена существительные в главной части. Наблюдаются здесь только сложные предложения, в которых изъяснительная часть с союзным словом ***когда*** поясняет глаголы в главной части. Например:

- На третий день он подошел к начальнику и ***спросил, когда*** *будет плавка* (В.Ф. Попов, *Сталь и шлак*).

- ***Люблю****, друзья,* ***когда*** *за речкой гаснет день* (М.Ю. Лермонтов, *Герой нашего времени*).

- Я ***ненавижу, когда*** *меня спрашивают про мои года* (Ф.М. Достоевский, *Бедные люди*).

- Ольга ***пугалась, когда*** *отец с мужем начинали петушиться* (Ю.В. Трифонов, *Нетерпение*).

- Я терпеливо ***жду, когда*** *ты кончишь, Поля, - с отрезвляющим спокойствием заговорила Варя* (Леонид Леонов, *Русский лес*).

В рассматриваемых предложениях союзное слово ***когда*** вносит дополнительный оттенок временного значения. Отличие этих предложений от предложений с союзами особенно отчетливо обнаруживается тогда, когда можно сравнивать те и другие: предложение *"Я* ***написал, когда*** *должна быть представлена работа"* выдвигает вопрос о сроке представления работы, а предложение *"Я* ***написал, что*** *работа должна быть представлена"* говорит о необходимости ее представления, не затрагивая вопроса о сроке (Гвоздев, 1968, с. 252).

3. ПЕРЕДАЧА СЛОВА *КОГДА* С ИЗЪЯСНИТЕЛЬНОЙ СЕМАНТИКОЙ НА ВЬЕТНАМСКИЙ ЯЗЫК

Придаточная изъяснительная часть с союзом ***когда*** распространяет то слово в главной, которое нуждается в разъяснении и выраженное такими глаголами, как ***любить, нравиться, заметить, ждать, увидеть, удивиться, сказать, помнить***... В нашем наблюдении союз ***когда***, как правило, переводится с помощью следующих способов:

3.1. Дословный перевод

Дословный перевод является частотным при переводе союза ***когда*** с изъяснительной семантикой на вьетнамский язык. Рассмотрим следующие примеры:

А я думал, что дед наш просто так жалеет каждое дерево. Он очень не ***любит, когда*** *дядя Орозкул дарит на бревна сосны…* (Чингиз Айтматов, *Белый параход*).	*Con cho rằng đúng là ông thương từng cái cây trong rừng. Ông rất không* ***bằng lòng khi*** *bác Orozkul đem những súc gỗ thông cho người ta...* (Chingiz Aitmatov, *Con tầu trắng,* Phạm Mạnh Hùng dịch).
Я ***заметил, когда*** *человек влюблен и у него долги, то предметом разговоров становится его моральный облик* (Сергей Довлатов, *Креповые финские носки*).	*Tôi* ***nghiệm ra*** *rằng* ***khi*** *một người đang yêu mà lại còn mắc nợ nữa thì thế nào tư cách đạo đức của anh ta cũng sẽ trở thành đối tượng của các cuộc đàm tiếu* (Sergay Dovlatov, *Tất xù Phần Lan,* Nguyễn Doãn Hùng dịch).
Дождавшись, когда *хозяева и подмастерья ушли к заутрене, он достал из хозяйского шкапа пузырек с чернилами, ручку с заржавленным пером и, разложив перед собой измятый лист бумаги, стал писать* (Антон Чехов, *Ванька*).	***Đợi đến lúc*** *ông bà chủ nhà và mấy người thợ phụ đi lễ nhà thờ sáng sớm, cậu bé lấy từ trong tủ của ông chủ một lọ mực nhỏ, cây bút với chiếc ngòi đã gỉ, để một tờ giấy nhầu nát ra trước mặt rồi bắt đầu viết* (Anton Sekhov, *Vanka,* Phan Hồng Giang dịch).
Огурец сам ***скажет, когда*** *его солить пора* (Максим Горький, *Детство*).	*Dưa chuột tự nó* ***sẽ bảo*** *cho các bà* ***lúc nào*** *có thể muối được* (Macxim Gorki, *Thời thơ ấu*, Trần Khuyến - Cẩm Tiêu dịch).

Мальчик шел по тропинке следом. Он ***удивился, когда*** *вдруг впереди Орозкул исчез* (Чингиз Айтматов, *Белый пароход*).

Thằng bé đi sau trên con đường mòn. Nó ***ngạc nhiên khi*** *Orozkul đi ở phía trước bỗng biến đâu mất* (Chingiz Aitmatov, *Con tầu trắng,* Phạm Mạnh Hùng dịch).

А ***помнишь, когда*** *стало темнеть?* (А.А. Фадеев, Молодая гвардия).

Cậu có ***nhớ cái lúc*** *trời sẩm tối không?* (A.A. Fadeev, *Đội cận vệ thanh niên,* Bùi Hiền - Nguyễn Văn Sỹ dịch).

Приведенные примеры показывают, что союз ***когда*** переводится в основном на вьетнамский язык такими словами, как ***khi, đến lúc, lúc nào, cái lúc***…

3.2. Смысловое развитие

Опираясь на контекст, переводчики могут выбирать способ “смысловое развитие” для передачи значения союза ***когда*** на вьетнамский язык. Приведем следующие примеры:

Хуже *нет,* ***когда*** *за обедом люди молчат и думают о чем-то своем, недобром и дозрительном* (Чингиз Айтматов, *Белый пароход*).

Không còn gì ***tệ hơn là*** *trong bữa ăn người ta cứ im lặng và ngẫm ngợi điều gì riêng tư, dữ dội và đáng ngờ* (Chingiz Aitmatov, *Con tầu trắng,* Phạm Mạnh Hùng dịch).

Оно и ***лучше, когда*** *полюбовно разойдемся* (Михаил Шолохов, *Поднятая целина*).

Tốt hơn *hết* ***là*** *chúng ta chia tay nhau một cách thân ái* (Mikhail Solokhov, *Đất vỡ hoang,* Vũ Trấn Thủ dịch).

Мы с ним не ***помним, когда*** *и спали.* (А.А. Фадеев, *Молодая гвардия*).

Anh ***không nhớ là*** *chúng anh có ngủ được tí nào không* (A.A. Fadeev, *Đội cận vệ thanh niên,* Bùi Hiền - Nguyễn Văn Sỹ dịch).

Здесь союз ***когда*** с изъяснительной семантикой в сложном предложении передается в основном вьетнамским словом ***là***.

3.3. Конкретизация

С помощью способа *“конкретизация”* переводчики чаще заменяют союз ***когда*** словом или словосочетанием с определенным временным значением. Ниже иллюстрируется следующими примерами:

Ничего не делаю. Я ***жду,*** *когда затрубят трубы, и - зарево…* (Алексей Толстой, *Хождение по мукам*).

Tôi chẳng làm gì hết. Tôi ***đợi ngày*** *tiếng kèn đồng sẽ vang lên, và chân trời sẽ cháy rừng rực* (Alekxay Tolstoy, *Con đường đau khổ,* Cao Xuân Hạo dịch).

Я смотрел на него, зная, что мать умерла, ***ожидая, когда*** *он поймет это* (Максим Горький, *Детство*).

Tôi nhìn ông tôi; biết chắc là mẹ tôi đã chết, tôi cứ ***chờ*** *xem* ***đến bao giờ*** *ông tôi mới biết điều đó* (Macxim Gorki, *Thời thơ ấu,* Trần Khuyến - Cẩm Tiêu dịch).

Жди, когда *господь твоего сердца коснется, дело твое тебе укажет, на тропу твою приведет, - понял?* (Максим Горький, *Детство*).

Cháu ***hãy chờ cho đến khi nào*** *Chúa đụng đến tâm hồn cháu, bảo cháu làm gì, chỉ cho cháu con đường của cháu. Cháu hiểu chưa?* (Macxim Gorki, *Thời thơ ấu,* Trần Khuyến - Cẩm Tiêu dịch).

Изредка, на неприметной фразе, он умолкал, опираясь кулаками в стол и как бы выискивая возможных оппонентов в затихших рядах, но какая-то сближающая искренность возрастала по мере углубления в тему, и никто не ***заметил, когда*** *и как лекция превратилась в обыкновенный разговор старого лесника с будущими товарищами по ремеслу* (Леонид Леонов, *Русский лес).*

Nhưng giáo sư càng đi sâu vào đề tài thì bầu không khí thành thực làm cho người ta gần gũi nhau mỗi lúc một tác động mạnh đến cử tọa và không ai ***nhận thấy từ lúc nào*** *và bằng cách nào, bài giảng đã biến thành cuộc nói chuyện bình thường giữa người nhân viên lâm nghiệp kỳ cựu với các bạn đồng nghiệp tương lai* (Leonit Leonov, *Rừng Nga,* Phạm Mạnh Hùng dịch).

*Я верю, - если мы будем мужественны, мы **доживем – когда** можно будет любить не мучаясь…* (Алексей Толстой, *Хождение по мукам*).

*Em tin rằng nếu chúng mình can đảm, chúng mình **sẽ sống đến cái ngày mà** tình yêu không còn đem lại đau thương cho con người nữa..* (Alekxay Tolstoy, *Con đường đau khổ,* Cao Xuân Hạo dịch).

*Больше половины офицерского и солдатского состава было выбито, пополнений они не получали, и все **ждали только** одного: когда их, полуживых от усталости и обносившихся, отведут в тыл* (Алексей Толстой, *Хождение по мукам*).

*Hơn một nửa trung đoàn sĩ quan và binh lính đã bị thương vong, mà vẫn không được bổ sung quân số, và ai nấy chỉ còn **mong** sao chóng **đến cái ngày mà,** chết dở vì kiệt sức, áo quần rách tả tơi, họ sẽ được chuyển về hậu phương* (Alekxay Tolstoy, *Con đường đau khổ,* Cao Xuân Hạo dịch).

Как видно, слово ***когда*** в данных примерах переводится на вьетнамский язык такими словами и словосочетаниями, как ***ngày, đến cái ngày mà, đến bao giờ, cho đến khi nào, từ lúc nào.***

3.4. Опущения

Приему *"опущения"* характерен отказ от передачи в тексте перевода семантически избыточных языковых единиц. Значения таких единиц обычно могут быть легко восстановлены в контексте. При передаче на вьетнамский язык сложноподчиненных предложений со словом ***когда***, переводчики чаще не переводят дословно слова ***когда***. Рассмотрим следующие примеры:

*"Папка родвенький! Я знал! Я знал, что ты меня найдешь! Все равно найдешь! Я так долго **ждал, когда** ты меня найдешь!"* (Михаил Шолохов, *Судьба человек*).

*"Bố yêu của con ơi! Con biết mà! Con biết thế nào bố cũng tìm thấy con mà! Thế nào cũng tìm thấy mà! Con **chờ mãi** mong được gặp bố!"* (Mikhail Solokhov, *Số phận con người,* Nguyễn Duy Bình dịch).

*Мне **не нравилось, когда** меня именовали - "самородком" и "сыном народа"* (Максим Горький, *Мои университеты*).

*Tôi **không thích** người ta gọi tôi là "thiên tài", là "người con của nhân dân"* (Macxim Gorki, *Những trường đại học của tôi,* Trần Khuyến - Cẩm Tiêu dịch).

*- А я **люблю, когда** темно, - призналась Мирра. - Когда темно - не страшно* (Борис Васильев, *В списках не значился*).

*Tôi lại **thích** bóng tối, - Mira thú nhận* (Boris Vaxiliev, *Tên anh chưa có trong danh sách,* Đức Mẫn - Đức Thuần - Xuân Du dịch).

*Да вы что думаете? - кричал Разумихин, еще более возвышая голос, - вы думаете, я за то, что они врут? Вздор! Я **люблю, когда** врут!* (Ф. Достоевский, *Преступление и наказание*).

*Thế bà nghĩ sao? - Razumikhin cất cao giọng gào to hơn nữa, - bà tưởng tôi khùng lên vì chúng nó tán láo à? Không phải. Tôi lại **thích** cho chúng nó tán nữa ấy!* (F. Doxtoevxki, *Tội ác và hình phạt,* Cao Xuân Hạo - Cao Xuân Phố dịch).

*Он по-хорошему **улыбнулся, когда** вспомнил утрешнее* (Виль Липатов, *И это все о нем*).

*Anh **mỉm cười** thú vị nhớ đến câu chuyện ban sáng* (Vili Lipatov, *Câu chuyện về anh là thế,* Lê Khánh Trường dịch).

Таким образом, для передачи слова ***когда*** с изъяснительной семантикой в сложном предложении используются такие основные способы, как дословный перевод, смысловое развитие, конкретизация и опущения. Среди эквивалентов омокомплекса ***когда*** во вьетнамском яыке, самым популярным (частотным) эквивалентом является словом ***khi***.

4. ЗАКЛЮЧЕНИЕ

В русском сложноподчиненном предложении чаще всего можно встречать слово ***когда*** в качестве как союза, так и союзного слова. Помимо выражения временных отношений слово ***когда*** передает изъяснительное значение в сложноподчиненном предложении. В рамках данной статьи мы рассматриваем слово ***когда*** с изъяснительной семантикой и выясняем способы передачи его значения на вьетнамский язык. Выводы, сделанные в статье могут быть использованы для дальнейшего исследования проблем, касающихся функциональных омонимов других слов./.

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CHUYỂN DỊCH Ý NGHĨA TƯỜNG GIẢI CỦA TỪ "КОГДА" SANG TIẾNG VIỆT

NGUYỄN THẾ HÙNG, VŨ XUÂN TRƯỜNG

Tóm tắt: Trong tiếng Nga từ когда được sử dụng rộng rãi. Các từ đồng âm chức năng của từ когда đóng vai trò là liên từ và từ liên từ. Liên từ *когда* thường được bắt gặp trong câu phức tiếng Nga, được sử dụng phần lớn là biểu thị mối quan hệ về thời gian. Tuy nhiên, từ *когда* còn mang ý nghĩa tường giải. Trong khuôn khổ bài báo này chúng tôi nghiên cứu từ *когда* với ngữ nghĩa tường giải trong các tác phẩm văn học Xô Viết và các bản dịch tiếng Việt, đặc biệt chúng tôi tập trung đến các phương thức chuyển dịch ý nghĩa tường giải của từ когда sang tiếng Việt.

Từ khóa: *liên từ, câu phức, ngữ nghĩa tường giải*

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TRANSLATION STRATEGIES IN POLITICAL REMARKS: THE CASE OF THE ENGLISH TRANSLATION OF THE TWO REMARKS BY NATIONAL DEFENCE MINISTER NGO XUAN LICH AT THE SHANGRI-LA DIALOGUE

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ABSTRACT

Translation of political remarks has an important role to play in the context of Vietnam's increase in diplomatic relations and military cooperation with other countries in the region and beyond. As a result, there exists a demand for studies on the ways to translate and interpret political remarks with a view to improving the quality of their translation. It is for this reason that this paper seeks to investigate translation strategies that can be used to translate political remarks. The data source of this paper is the English translation of the keynote addresses of National Defence Minister Ngo Xuan Lich at the 17th and 18th Shangri-La Dialogue. The remarks are translated from Vietnamese as the source language (SL) into English as the target language (TL). This research applies the framework of translation strategies proposed by Newmark (1988). The frequencies of the employed strategies are measured by statistical data, and then illustrated in tables. The findings reveal that the most favoured translation strategy used in the English translation of the two remarks is semantic translation followed by communicative translation, while other strategies account for a modest portion of the whole translation. This truly reflects the characteristics of remarks in general and political remarks in particular.

Keywords: *translation, translation strategies, political remarks, source language (SL), target language (TL), Shangri-La Dialoge*

1. INTRODUCTION

Recent years have witnessed an increase in defence cooperation between Vietnam People's Army (VPA) and its partners in the Asia-Pacific region and beyond. A series of conferences, summits have been held for involved parties to share their viewpoints on defence and security issues. This gives rise to need of translating remarks into corresponding languages. There is, however, an absence of study on the way how these remarks are translated. In other words, translation strategies used in the translation of these remarks should be examined to provide an insight into the task of these translations, both theoretically and practically. In this paper, translation strategies proposed by Peter Newmark (1988) are employed to investigate the two remarks by National Defence Minister Ngo Xuan Lich at the Shangri-La Dialogues. Hopefully, the findings of this research will enrich theoretical framework of translation strategies, serving as a supplement to the existing materials on translation. Furthermore, they are expected to facilitate the teaching of military translation and interpretation to the fourth-year English major cadets at Military Science Academy whose educational focus is placed on military aspect.

With these research aims, the current paper attempts to work out answers to the following research questions:

Question 1: What translation strategies are adopted in the Vietnamese-English translation of the remarks by National Defence Minister Ngo Xuan Lich at Shangri-La Dialogue in 2018, 2019?

Question 2: What is the frequency of each translation strategy? What is the most favoured translation strategy by the translator(s)?

Question 3: How are these translation strategies used to manipulate the source text and convey its meaning?

2. TRANSLATING POLITICAL REMARKS

2.1. Political remarks

Concepts of political remarks vary according to different approaches to politics in general. Newmark (1996) argues that political remark is considered one of the most important ways used by politicians during campaigns, and adds that translation of political language is an abstraction of an abstraction. Meanwhile, Charteris-Black (2014) states that a political remark is a coherent stream of spoken language usually prepared for delivery by a speaker to audiences for a purpose on a political occasion. It can also be added that political remark differs from other types of remark in terms of the delivers. To be more specific, a remark can be considered a political remark if the one who delivers it has a political position.

Eric Geiger (2016) identifies 4 characteristics of a typical remark of politics which effectively convey messages to the audiences. They can be named as trust, truth, timing, and passion. First, *trust* is the credibility of the speakers whose delivery of political remarks would be heard. The more an audiences trust the speaker, the bigger the impact the message has. Second, *truth* is the accuracy of the information mentioned in political remarks. An effective remark is filled with truth and substance rather than flash and style. Third, *timing* is one of the factors determining the success of a political remark which is expected to fit the moment and the context. It is not separated from on-going reality. Lastly, *passion* plays an important role in conveying messages of a political remark to the audiences.

According to Mumhamad (2020), political remarks cover a wide range of issues, from economy, politics, foreign policies to socio-cultural domains, which determine the structure of these political remarks. Regarding this aspect, Hence, Charteris-Black (2014) argues that a political remark usually consists of at least five parts, including prologue, narrative, proof, refutation and epilogue.

Meanwhile, Mulyana (2000) cited by Mumhamad (2020) classifies political remarks into eleven types, namely remark of introduction, remark of commemoration, remark of dedication, remark of campaign, remark of eulogy, remark of presentation and remark of acceptance, remark of welcome, remark of inauguration, keynote address, lunch/dinner remark, and remark of nomination. He also divides political remark into five parts including addresses and greetings, opening/introduction, body, closing and thanking.

In this research, the two remarks under investigation are classified as keynote addresses in the Shangri-La Dialogue. Apart from the aboved-mentioned parts of a typical remark of politics above, including addresses and greetings, opening/introduction, body, closing and thanking, the ones delivered by General Ngo Xuan Lich are added with the follow-up Question and Answer (Q& A) which are not examined in this research.

2.2. Translation strategies of political remarks

According to Catford (1995), translation is the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language . Accordingly, translators determine which methods and techniques should be used in a particular context of source language. For instance, steps taken in translating a poem from Vietnamese into English are different from those in translating a political remark. This view is echoed by Eugene

Nida and Charles Taber (1982) who state that "translating consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message".

It could be concluded that translation strategy is far from being precisely defined as noted by Chesterman (1997) that not only is the term strategy used to describe different concepts but also various terms used to express the same meaning. From different points of view, scholars and translators propose different translation strategies. Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) come up with seven strategies of translation, which are classified into two groups including direct and oblique translation.

Table 2.1. Model of translation strategies (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995)

Direct translation strategies	Borrowing
	Calque
	Literal translation
Oblique translation strategies	Transposition
	Modulation
	Equivalence
	Adaptation

In addition, Baker (1992) lists eight strategies that professional translators use to cope with the problematic issues in translation tasks, including translation by a more general word, translation by a more neutral/less expressive word, translation by cultural substitution, translation using a loan word or loan word plus explanation, translation by paraphrase using a related word, translation by paraphrase using unrelated words, translation by omission, translation by illustration.

In Vietnam, Tien (2007) agrees that there are two primary English-Vietnamese translation strategies that achieve the most balanced communication effects, namely semantic translation and communicative translation. In his research, the pros and cons of the two translation strategies above are identified and illustrated with various examples.

Furthermore, Newmark (1988) puts forward a wide variety of translation strategies, such as word-for-word translation, literal translation, faithful translation, semantic translation, adaptation, free translation, idiomatic translation and communicative translation. They are presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2. Translation strategies suggested by Peter Newmark (1988)

SL emphasis	**TL emphasis**
Word-for-word translation	Adaptation
Literal translation	Free translation
Faithful translation	Idiomatic translation
Semantic translation	Communicative translation

In summary, it can be seen from translation strategies suggested by Vinay and Darbelet, Peter Newmark that they have their own advantages and disadvantages in translating political remarks. Many strategies share common patterns with or overlap the others. The latter tends to act as a supplement to the former, narrowing down the gap between the SL and the TL. In comparison to other classifications of translation strategies, those proposed by Peter Newmark (1988) are inclined to practical use. That is, Newmark makes detailed descriptions of the similarities and differences of each type of strategies and their areas of application, including remarks. That is the reason why the author employs the framework on translation strategies proposed by Peter Newmark (1988) to examine their popularity and significance in the translation of the two remarks by National Defence Minister Ngo Xuan Lich at the 17^{th} and 18^{th} Shangri-La Dialogues in 2018 and 2019 respectively. As a result, the author gives short explanations for each of strategies with illustrative examples.

First, *word-for-word translation*: The SL word order is preserved, and the words are translated singly by their most common meanings, out of context. The primary use of word-for-word translation is either to understand the mechanics of the SL or to construe a difficult text as a pre-translation process. This method is used to understand the mechanics of SL and to attempt to analyze preliminarily draft of translation process. For example:

Example 1:

ST	TT
Vận dụng sáng tạo và phát triển tư tưởng"người trước, súng sau" (Sách Trắng Quốc phòng Việt Nam 2019, tr. 38)	*Creatively and innovatively applying the principle of "men before arms".* (the English version of the 2019 Vietnam National Defence White Paper, p. 36)

In the example above, the motto "*người trước, súng sau*" is translated into *"men before arms"* without changing the order of individual words.

Second, *literal translation*: The SL grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents, but the lexical words are again translated singly, out of context. Word-for-word translation and literal translation have something in common, which is that the lexical words in SL of both methods are translated singly and out of context. Whereas, the main difference between them is that in word-for-word translation, all words are translated singly by their original grammatical structures of the SL language while in literal translation, SL grammatical constructions are converted into their closest equivalents in the TL.

Example 2:

ST	TT
Từ một đội quân "đầu trần chân đất", từ những đội Dân quân tự vệ, Quân đội nhân dân Việt Nam đã không ngừng lớn mạnh. (Sách Trắng Quốc phòng Việt Nam 2019, tr. 73)	*From a "bare head and bare feet" army and paramilitary teams, the VPA has constantly grown.* (the English version of the 2019 Vietnam National Defence White Paper, p. 74)

In Vietnamese, the phrase *"đầu trần chân đất"* could be figuratively understood as *"ill-equipped"*, but there is no such equivalence in English. The translator literally reproduces the phrase without considering its shade of meaning in TT, causing confusion among readers. The sentence above should be translated as *"From a "bareheaded and barefoot" (that means very ill-equipped) army and paramilitary teams, the VPA has constantly grown.*

Third, *faithful translation*: Producing the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the TL grammatical structures. It "transfers" cultural words and preserves the degree of grammatical and lexical "abnormality" (deviation from SL norms) in the translation. For example:

Example 3:

ST	TT
việc "xây dựng Quân đội nhân dân hùng mạnh, tiến dần từng bước lên chính quy, hiện đại" được đẩy mạnh. (Sách Trắng Quốc phòng Việt Nam 2019, tr. 74)	*"the building of a strong VPA, step by step advancing toward regularity and modernity" was promoted.* (the English version of the 2019 Vietnam National Defence White Paper, p. 74)

As can be seen in the example above, the translator attempts to transfer original culture-bound words like *"Quân đội nhân dân"* and preserve the grammatical and lexical patterns in the ST. This, on the one hand, ensures the reliability and integrity of meanings in SL. However, translated words and phrases sound unfamiliar to readers or hearers of TL.

Fourth, *semantic translation*: Only applied in as far as it must take more account of the aesthetic value of the SL text, compromising on "meaning" where appropriate so that no assonance, word-play or repetition jar appear in the finished version. For example:

Example 4:

ST	TT
On this visit, my heart has been touched by the kindness for which the Vietnamese people are known. (https://obamawhitehouse.archives.gov/the-press-office/2016/05/24/remarks-president-obama-address-people-vietnam)	*Trong chuyến thăm này, sự thân thiện của các bạn đã chạm tới trái tim của chúng tôi.* (https://vnexpress.net/bai-phat-bieu-cua-obama-truoc-2-000-nguoi-o-ha-noi-3408492.html)

In the example above, the translator uses active voice in TT instead of passive voice in ST because it is more readable to the Vietnamese people. Moreover, there is a compromise when the translator decides to omit the expression *"are known"* in ST.

Fifth, *adaptation*: The freest form of translation, and is used mainly for plays (comedies) and poetry. The themes, characters, plots are usually preserved. The SL culture is converted to the TL culture, and the text is rewritten in a way that pays close attention to cultural elements. For example:

Example 5:

ST	TT
Sông núi nước Nam vua Nam ở Rành rành định phận tại sách trời	*"the Southern emperor rules the Southern land. Our destiny is writ in Heaven's Book."* (https://obamawhitehouse.archives.gov/the-press-office/2016/05/24/remarks-president-obama-address-people-vietnam)

Sixth, *free translation*: Produces the TL text without the style, form, or content of the original language. Basically, it is a paraphrase much longer than the SL, so-called "intra-lingual translation", which is often prolix and pretentious, and not translation at all. It may or may not closely follow the form or organization of the SL. For example:

Example 6:

ST	TT
At this bend in the river, Hanoi has endured for more than a thousand years. (https://obamawhitehouse.archives.gov/the-press-office/2016/05/24/remarks-president-obama-address-people-vietnam)	*Hà Nội đã đứng vững trên dòng sông Hồng hơn một nghìn năm.* (https://vnexpress.net/bai-phat-bieu-cua-obama-truoc-2-000-nguoi-o-ha-noi-3408492.html)

In the ST, there is no mention of the name's river (Hong), while it exists in the translated version. Also, the translator changes the grammatical structure of the sentence in a way that readers can get its meaning with ease.

Seventh, *idiomatic translation*: Reproduces the 'message' of the original but tends to distort nuances of meaning by preferring colloquialisms and idioms where these do not exist in the ST. Examples of this kind of translation range from slogan, prose to poetry, etc. For example:

Example 7:

ST	TT
Năm qua, tình cảm ấy càng được nhân lên khi các quốc gia thành viên ASEAN cùng chung tay gắn kết và chủ động thích ứng trước những thử thách, khó khăn mà khu vực Đông Nam Á và thế giới đang phải đối mặt. (Phát biểu của Tổng Bí thư Nguyễn Phú Trọng tại Lễ khai mạc Hội nghị cấp cao ASEAN lần thứ 37)	*This year, such familial bonds have only become stronger as ASEAN Member States stand hand-in-hand in cohesiveness and responsiveness to cope with the challenges facing Southeast Asia and the world at large.* (https://asean.org/remarks-h-e-mr-nguyen-phu-trong-general-secretary-president-socialist-republic-viet-nam-opening-ceremony-37th-asean-summit/)

The phrase "*chung tay gắn kết*" is translated as "*stand hand-in hand*", and "thế giới đang phải đối mặt" as "*the world at large*". It can be seen that both "*hand-in-hand*" and "*at large*" are English idiomatic expressions (TT) which are not mentioned in the Vietnamese version (ST).

Eighth, *communicative translation*: Conveying the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership. Generally, a communicative translation is likely to be smoother, simpler, more direct and more conventional. For example:

Example 8:

ST	TT
I also come here with a deep respect for Vietnam's ancient heritage. (https://obamawhitehouse.archives.gov/the-press-office/2016/05/24/remarks-president-obama-address-people-vietnam)	*Tôi trân trọng quá khứ lịch sử rất huy hoàng của Việt Nam.* (https://vnexpress.net/bai-phat-bieu-cua-obama-truoc-2-000-nguoi-o-ha-noi-3408492.html)

As can be seen in the example above, the sentence in TT is somewhat shorter than that of ST as a result of the omission of few words. The former is focused on the message rather than the sentence structure.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research methods

This research adopts a qualitative method with a comparative conceptual method (William and

Chesterman, 2002) in which the analysis is carried out by comparing between the ST and the TT and analyzing the reasons behind the translations. The research will be conducted with the following steps. Firstly, the research topic was identified by reviewing previous studies. Next, data for the research was collected from the two remarks in 2018, 2019, including both Vietnamese versions and English provisional script. Then, collected data was analyzed carefully to work out answers to the three research questions.in the following step, the authors pointed out limitations of the research. Finally, the implications of the findings from the research were presented.

3.2. Corpus of the research

The research is conducted on a corpus built on the following data source:

Two remarks by National Defence Minister Ngo Xuan Lich at Shangri-la Dialogue in 2018, 2019 in Vietnamese, namely *"Định hình trật tự an ninh đang thay đổi tại châu Á"* and *"Ngăn ngừa xung đột tại những khu vực đang tranh chấp"*. Regarding the first remark, it is delivered at the time when the region witnessed positive signals of reconciliation and cooperation, especially those linked to the situation on the Korean Peninsula. The Minister stresses the importance of concerted efforts made by countries in the region and other powers. In such spirit, he delivers the message that independence, self-determination, cooperative promotion and international law adherence are the foundation for security, peace and development. The duration of the remark is 15 minutes or so with 53 sentences in total. Meanwhile, the second one is delivered amid heated disputes over territorial reclamation in the East Sea with 65 sentences totally.

Two translated version of remarks by National Defence Minister Ngo Xuan Lich at Shangri-la Dialogue in 2018, 2019 in English, namely "*Shaping Asia's evolving security order*" and "*Preventing Conflict in Contested Domains*". Normally, the task of document preparation and translation is assigned to the Department of Foreign Relations under the Ministry of National Defence. In preparation for the delivery of the Minister, the remarks are translated and sent to the organizers beforehand. Therefore, the reliability of the two translated versions in English could be ensured.

3.3. The procedures of data collection and analysis

3.3.1. Data collection

First of all, the PDF version of the two remarks by National Defence Minister Ngo Xuan Lich at the 17^{th} and 18^{th} Shangri-La Dialogue in Vietnamese and the two translated versions in English were downloaded. After that, the source text and target text were carefully and critically read to get the primary contents of each of the remarks, and their messages as well.

The following step was to apply Newmark (1988)'s framework into examining the ST and TT to determine the type of employed translation strategies at sentence level. The frequency of their use in the two translation was measured by times and percentage. The next step was to consult translation experts about the determination of the employed strategies in order to secure the accuracy of the data. Finally, all identified strategies were presented in tables demonstrating their frequency.

3.3.2. Data analysis

When the data collection process had been completed, the set of collected data was analyzed through the following steps:

Step 1: Coding

In this step, an in-depth analysis of collected data was made to find out all translation strategies applied by the translator(s). The two remarks and their translated versions were labeled and coded in a way that facilitated the identification and analyses. Specifically, the original remarks by the Minister at the 17^{th} and 18^{th} Shangri-La Dialogue were labelled VRI and VRII respectively. Meanwhile, their translated versions were named ERI and ERII in turn. The content of each remark was numbered in an ascending order, starting at

1 from the first sentences to the last ones (except for the greetings and thanking). For example, if a sentence was numbered VRI3, it was the third sentence of the Vietnamese remark at the 17th Shangri-La Dialogue. In case more than one strategy was used in the translation of a sentence in ST, the strategy applied in the translation of the larger part would be counted.

Step 2: Grouping

The coded data then were grouped into different categories in terms of eight translation strategies proposed by Peter Newmark. In this step, the quantitative analysis method was employed as the researcher counted the identified strategies to figure out their frequencies. The data were transferred into numerical statistics and presented in tables and charts.

Step 3: Analyzing

Finally, the researcher applied qualitative analysis method again to analyze the choice of the translator regarding translation strategies, considering the advantages and disadvantages of each strategy described in the theoretical framework. Then, the researcher provided an explanation for the way these identified translation strategies are adopted to examine the source text and preserve its meaning in target text.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Newmark's translation strategies applied in the translations of the two remarks

As mentioned earlier, this study examines translation strategies proposed by Newmark (1988), which include word-for-word translation, literal translation, faithful translation, semantic translation, adaptation, free translation, idiomatic translation and communicative translation. The findings of the study reveal that there are just five out of eight strategies are used in an ascending order of frequency, which is illustrated in tables.

Table 4.1. Translation strategies used in the remark by National Defence Minister Ngo Xuan Lich at the 17th Shangri-La Dialogue

Translation strategy	Frequency (times)	Percentage (%)
Word-for-word translation	0	0
Literal translation	1	1.8
Faithful translation	3	6.4
Semantic translation	40	72
Adaptation	0	0
Free translation	0	0
Idiomatic translation	1	1.8
Communicative translation	10	18
Total	**55**	**100**

As can be clearly seen in Table 4.1, semantic translation is the most favoured translation strategy employed in the translation of the remark by National Defence Minister Ngo Xuan Lich at the 17th Shangri-La Dialogue with 40 times of employment by the translator(s), equal to 72 percent. It is followed by communicative translation, which are used 10 times, accounting for more or less than 18 percent. Meanwhile, faithful translation goes in the third place with its frequency and percentage standing at 3 times and 6.4 percent respectively. both Both idiomatic translation and literal translation are used once in the translation of the remark.

Table 4.2. Translation strategies used in the remark by National Defence Minister Ngo Xuan Lich at the 18th Shangri-La Dialogue

Translation strategy	Frequency (times)	Percentage (%)
Word-for-word translation	0	0
Literal translation	0	0
Faithful translation	4	6.6
Semantic translation	41	68
Adaptation	0	0
Free translation	0	0
Idiomatic translation	3	5.2
Communicative translation	12	20
Total	**60**	**100**

Regarding the remark by National Defence Minister Ngo Xuan at the 18th Shangri-La Dialogue, it can be seen in Table 4.2 and that the frequencies and percentage of translation strategies share the same patterns with those of Table 5.1 and. More specifically, semantic translation is ranked first, making up the largest part with around 68 percent, equal to 41 times of employment. Besides, idiomatic translation is the least popular translation strategy with a modest portion of 5.2 percent, or 3 times, and communicative translation remains the runner-up in terms of frequency (12 times) and portion (20.6 percent). In the meantime, the frequency of faithful translation is slightly higher than that of idiomatic translation, standing at 4 times, equal to 6.6 percent.

4.2. The most dominantly employed translation strategies in the translation of the two remarks by National Defence Minister Ngo Xuan Lich

4.2.1. Semantic translation

Newmark (1988) argues that in semantic translation, one must "take more account of the aesthetic value (that is, the beautiful and natural sounds of ST". It is more flexible than faithful translation and allows for the translator's creativity. In the two remarks under investigation, semantic translation is the the most preferred translation strategy, accounting for more or less than 60 percent of the whole text. Some examples are given to illustrate semantic translation in particular cases as follows:

Example 9:

ST	TT
Trải qua 16 lần tổ chức, Đối thoại Shangri-La đã ngày càng khẳng định vai trò quan trọng trong việc tăng cường hiểu biết lẫn nhau, hợp tác vì hòa bình, an ninh, ổn định và phồn vinh của khu vực. (VRI1)	*After 16 years the Shangri-La Dialogue has proven its role and position with practical cooperation in promoting dialogue, mutual understanding and cooperation for regional peace, stability and prosperity.* (ERI1)

In the example above, structure of ST and TT is maintained while the message in the translation stays unchanged with no modification is made by translators. In this case, it could be said that there is a compromise between the gain of accuracy and the preservation of target language features. In addition, when ST and TT was analyzed at micro level, including words and phrases, inaccuracy is by no means spotted, as shown below.

Example 10:

ST	TT
Được thiết lập năm 2010 tại Hà Nội, ADMM+ là cơ chế hợp tác quốc phòng quan trọng hàng đầu giữa ASEAN và các nước đối tác. (VRII48)	*Established in 2010 in Hanoi, the ADMM-Plus is primarily an important mechanism of defence and cooperation between ASEAN and its external partner countries.* (ERII48)

In this example, it could be seen that the structure of ST and TT remains almost the same. Translators do not make any change in parts of speech or the voice of the sentence. Furthermore, the message in ST is retained in the translation into TT.

Example 11:

ST	TT
Tuy nhiên, việc kiến tạo hòa bình-hợp tác ở bán đảo Triều Tiên – và không chỉ ở Triều Tiên, vẫn còn là một con đường dài đầy khó khăn trắc trở. (VRI15)	*However, the peace and cooperation process in the Korean Peninsula and beyond still remains a stretched and bumpy road. (ERI11)*

This example provides a description of the translators'employment of semantic translation to translate metaphors, which are quite popular in political remarks. The phrase "một con đường dài đầy khó khăn trắc trở" is translated into "a stretched and bumpy road". This way of translation helps in retaining the aesthetic of the TT as well as the stylistic talk of the speaker. If this metaphor is literally translated in TT, then the uniqueness will not exist.

The dominance of semantic translation is attributed to the requirement of conveying the exact meaning of ST to the audiences while retaining the aesthetic of ST at the same time. This ensures the balance between understanding and the language structure (Elena Yuschenko, 2019). Obviously, sematic translation could satisfy this demand much better compared to other strategies. Another factor leading to the translators' preference for semantic translation is the availability of equivalents in ST (Vietnamese) and TT (English) with respect to issues of defence, security and diplomacy. This makes it easier for translators to choose a number of terms, phrases without consuming a great deal of time. The application of semantic translation also helps minimize misunderstanding among audiences, especially those directly involved in the presented topics since high attention is likely to be paid to the accuracy during the translation of the two remarks. This, without doubt, contributes to the overall success of Vietnam's participation in such a big event as the Shangri-La Dialogue. However, it is again this approach that makes the remarks sound unnatural from time to time.

4.2.2. Communicative translation

While semantic translation's focus is placed on the preservation of structure, meaning and the process of thinking, communicative translation pays attention to the readability and message of the TT. Several examples of such preference are shown below.

Example 12:

ST	TT
Biển Đông là một trong những khu vực chứa đựng đầy đủ các lĩnh vực cạnh tranh cả về kinh tế, quân sự, ngoại giao..., tiềm ẩn nguy cơ xung đột. (VRII32)	*The East Sea-also known as the South China Sea-is an area that habours a wide range of disputes and strategic competition, from economy to military and diplomacy, and there are certain latent risks of conflict.* (ERII32)

In the example above, the term "Biển Đông" is neither singly translated *"The East Sea"* as called in Vietnam nor *"the South China Sea"* as an international norm. Instead, the translators combine both of them with "the East Sea" being put first and "the South China Sea" added as an explanation of a paraphrase. This is in line with Vietnam's consistent policy on territorial integrity. In this case, the choice of communicative translation helps convey the message in ST to the audiences in the Dialogue in a natural way.

Example 13:

ST	TT
Vậy muốn có được tầm nhìn tương lai đó, chúng ta cần sự hợp tác như thế nào? (VRI19)	*How do we cooperate to achieve that future vision?* (ERI16)

It can be seen in the example above that the translators make modification to the structure of the ST. The word "how", which can be replaced by "in what way", "by what methods", is put first to establish a question. This means the approaches to be taken are more central to the plan than expected results. Applying communicative translation, not only do the translators convey the complete message of the ST, but they produce a translated version readable in TT.

Communicative translation applied in the translation of the two reviewed remarks presents an effective strategy to deliver the message to the audiences in each plenary session. This strategy makes the talks of the Minister more informative and to the point. That is to say, Minister's messages are directly expressed in a way that sound natural and readable to the hearers/readers without "beating around bush" as stated by Brian Harris (1992) that text can be used in an extended sense to cover even short spoken utterances. Nevertheless, when it comes to the presentation of statistics or procedure, or even speakers' intentional tactic of "buying time", communicate translation does not work well.

4.2.3. Faithful translation

As defined by Newmark (1988), faithful translation produces the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the TL grammatical structures. Hence, the translation in many cases seems to be alien to TL readers/hearers. Regarding the two remarks under investigation, translators resort to faithful translation at times as shown in the following examples:

Example 14:

ST	TT
những thách thức an ninh truyền thống, phi truyền thống, trong đó có tranh chấp chủ quyền lãnh thổ, khủng bố... đã được dự báo, đang hiện hữu một cách rất rõ ràng, đặt khu vực châu Á-Thái Bình Dương đầy tiềm năng và hứa hẹn trước những nguy cơ có thực và cận kề. (VRI5,6)	*the traditional and non-traditional security challenges, including territorial disputes and terrorism which were forecast and now are very much existent, are placing the potential and promising Asia-Pacific in front of genuine and immediate risk.* (ERI5)

In this example, the translators try to convey accurate message from ST to TT by sticking to the meanings of individuals words and phrases. The shade of meaning, however, is ignored to some extent. It appears that the translators have difficulty finding equivalents in TT. For instance, the phrases *"đang hiện hữu một cách rất rõ ràng"* is translated *as "now are very much existent"*, while "trước những nguy cơ có thực và cận kề." is translated as "in front of genuine and immediate risk". Although it is not grammatically wrong to use such phrases, they seem strange, or even they do not make sense regarding the context. It would be better to replace the phrase *"now are very much existent",* with *"apparent",* and *"in front of genuine and immediate risk"* with *"in face of genuine and immediate risk"*.

Example 15:

ST	TT
Việc các bên liên quan ngồi lại với nhau, giải quyết bất đồng, tranh chấp bằng biện pháp hòa bình, thông qua đối thoại; thay vì đối đầu, đe dọa sử dụng vũ lực hoặc hành động đơn phương là con đường tốt nhất, có thể giải quyết được nhiều vấn đề trên cơ sở lợi ích chung, tôn trọng luật pháp quốc tế *và cơ chế khu vực..* (VRI16)	*The fact that all concerned parties agree to sit down and resolve disagreement and disputes by peaceful means of dialogue instead of confrontation, threatening the use of force or acting unilaterally, is really the best solution to resolve multiple issues on the basis of common interest, respecting international law and regional institutions.* (ERI12)

In this example, the word "Việc" in the ST is translated as *"The fact"* in the TT. Although this way of translation conveys the exact meaning of the original text, it fails to produce a cohesive sentence since the words *"the fact that"* do not fit well with *"is really the best solution"* as the subject of the sentence. Hence, it would be better if the words *"the fact that"* are omitted. Likewise, the phrase *"threatening the use of force or acting unilaterally"* is faithfully translated from the ST *"đe dọa sử dụng vũ lực hoặc hành động đơn phương"* without considering the agreement between the subject and the verb. A suggested translation of the phrase "đe dọa sử dụng vũ lực hoặc hành động đơn phương" is *"violence threat or unilateral action"*.

Faithful translation could be used to reproduce the exact meaning of the ST into TT. It does help in case words, phrases, data are translated separately. This advantage, however, turns to be disadvantage when translating such a cohesive and coherent as the two remarks delivered by Minister of National Defence Ngo Xuan Lich at the Shangri-La Dialogue. Translated sentences applying faithful translation strategy like the ones analyzed in the examples above seem "alien" to TL readers/hearers. It is not uncommon that translators regard faithful translation as "life savior" when having difficulty in selecting equivalents in TT. Of course, this approach is by no mean highly evaluated. Hence, the less frequent the employment of faithful translation is, the more coherent and natural the translations of the two remarks get.

4.2.4. Idiomatic translation

As discussed earlier, the translator employ idiomatic translation strategy to reproduces the 'message' of the original but tends to distort nuances of meaning by preferring colloquialisms and idioms where these do not exist in the ST. In the translation of two remarks by National Defence Minister Ngo Xuan Lich, the translator rarely resorts to idiomatic translation, which is proven in the following example:

Example 16:

ST	TT
Trên cơ sở đó mà thu hẹp bất đồng, từng bước giải quyết mâu thuẫn, tranh chấp, không để xảy ra xung đột. (VRII44)	*Such basis paves the way for narrowing differences, step by step settling disputes and, above all, not allowing conflict to happen.* (ERII43)

In the example above, the translator uses the idiom *"paves the way"* which is absent in TT. According to Cambridge Dictionary, *"paves the way"* means creating a situation in which something can happen. Hence, this idiom serves as a supplement to the subject *"such basis"* to convey the message.

Example 17:

ST	TT
Còn hành xử theo lối chính trị cường quyền, áp đặt. (VRII9)	*The mentality of "might is right".* (ERII9)

Examining this example, we can see that the translator employs idiomatic translation strategy by using the idiom *"might is right"* that is not present in ST.

Idioms are a kind of figurative language that can be used to add dynamism and character to the discourse. They can express a complex, abstract idea in a simple way. The employment of idioms to translate non-idiomatic phrases/sentences in ST is defined as idiomatic translation. The benefit of this use is to make the TT sound more natural to readers/hearers in TL. However, it should be borne in our minds that the overuse of idioms could undermine the formality of ST which is vital to such important remarks as those delivered at the Shangri-Dialogue. In the case of the translation of the two remarks by National Defence Minister Ngo Xuan Lich, idiomatic translation is used in a balanced and appropriate way that increases both the readability and naturality of the TT.

4.2.5. Literal translation

As discussed in the previous section, the SL grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents, but the lexical words are again translated singly, out of context. Word-for-word translation and literal translation have something in common, which is that the lexical words in SL of both methods are translated singly and out of context. Whereas, the main difference between them is that in word-for-word translation, all words are translated singly by their original grammatical structures of the SL language while in literal translation, SL grammatical constructions are converted into their closest equivalents in the TL. The following sentence in the remark is taken as a good example for the employment of literal translation.

Example 18:

ST	TT
Thực tế đã khẳng định một ASEAN đoàn kết, thống nhất có lợi cho tất cả các nước thành viên và các nước đối tác trong quản lý xung đột, đảm bảo an ninh, ổn định khu vực trên cơ sở lợi ích chung và lợi ích của mỗi quốc gia, phù hợp với luật pháp quốc tế. (VRI30)	*The unified and solid ASEAN has proven to be beneficial for all member states and partners in conflict management, preserving the security and stability of the region on the basis of both common interest and national interest in accordance with international law. (ERI27)*

In this sentence, many words are translated separately without sufficient attention to the collocation and context. For instance, the words "*có lợi cho tất cả các nước thành viên"* is translated as "*beneficial for all member states"*. In fact, grammatically this should be *"beneficial to all member states"*. Another example of literal translation is the translation of the phrase "*lợi ích chung và lợi ích của mỗi quốc gia"* as "*both common interest and national interest*". This translation may confuse readers or hearers in TL as to what common interest and national interest are. A suggestion for translating this phrase could be either *"shared interests and private interests"* or *"regional interests and national interests"*.

Literal translation is the way words and phrases in ST are translated singly, and put in isolation, out of con text. Hence, this is by no mean a good strategy to translate such a cohesive, complex text as political remarks. Instead, it would be more suitable for the translation of short terms, phrases which hardly rely on the context to determine their meanings. In the case of the two remarks in review, the employment of literal translation is not common, not to say once in a blue moon. The use of literal translation does not change the meaning of ST as a whole, but does cause occasional unnaturality and vagueness.

In addition, the two remarks are mostly composed of complex and compound sentences, which explains why word-for-word translation strategy is not employed. The case is true for free translation as the degree of accuracy of provided information or intended messages are of utmost importance when it comes to political remarks, especially those on defence diplomacy like the ones in review. Meanwhile, adaptation is more appropriate for the translation of verse, poem and the like which are not mentioned in both remarks. That is why adaptation is ignored during the translation of the two reviewed remarks.

In summary, semantic translation, communicative translation and faithful translation are in the descending order of preference by translators in the translation of the two remarks by Minister of National Defence Ngo Xuan Lich at the 17th and 18th Shangri-La Dialogue. Overall, the translators are thought to have weighed up the pros and cons of each of strategies, and this results in wise choice of strategies during the translation.

5. CONCLUSION

Applying qualitative research method, the research is conducted to examine the employment of translation strategies in the translation of the two reviewed remarks according to Newmark's framework. The findings reveal that semantic translation, communicative translation and faithful translation is applicable to both remarks. While semantic translation is the most frequently used strategy, communication translation and faithful translation take the second and the third place.

Despite the author's tremendous efforts to conduct the research in a careful manner, limitations are inevitable due to a number of reasons.

Firstly, the complex nature of political remarks makes it hard for the author to explicitly identify the employed translation strategies at times. There are common overlaps among different frameworks of translation strategies by different researchers, which is quite challenging to tell them apart. In addition, references related to political remarks are nowhere as available as other topics. This creates a hurdle for the author to select references suitable for the study. In some cases, the author, to a certain extent, has to carry out the research from scratch. This undoubtedly leads to occasional generalization and unreliability.

Secondly, the translation of the two remarks are typically the concerted work by groups of translators whose identities and addresses are neither available nor accessible in most cases. This prevents the author from contacting with the translators for further discussion on the employment of translation strategies. To make the problem worse, the spread of COVID-19 pandemic makes the collection of document and experts' advices more difficult than ever.

Considering the potential implications of the research, its findings may benefit the following areas:

They serve as references for other researches regarding political remarks, especially those on defence diplomacy. This is a fertile ground for further researches to be implemented. Moreover, these findings are expected to benefit those who are interested in the know-how of translation strategies.

Moreover, the findings of the study would be advantageous to educational institutions at which to-be translators and interpreters study. For instance, these findings may be supplementary to the existing translation curriculum introduced in the classes at Military Science Academy. Lecturers of Translation Division under the Department of English may find it useful when teaching translation theory to the third-year cadets majoring in English. Notably, that the study examines the employment of translation strategies in the translation of political remarks makes the findings applicable to both written translation and interpretation./.

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NHỮNG CHIẾN LƯỢC DỊCH ÁP DỤNG TRONG CÁC BÀI DIỄN VĂN CHÍNH TRỊ: XÉT BẢN DỊCH TIẾNG ANH CỦA CÁC BÀI PHÁT BIỂU CỦA BỘ TRƯỞNG BỘ QUỐC PHÒNG NGÔ XUÂN LỊCH TẠI ĐỐI THOẠI QUỐC PHÒNG SHANGRI-LA

ĐOÀN VĂN DŨNG

Tóm tắt: Công tác dịch các bài phát biểu đóng vai trò quan trọng trong bối cảnh Việt Nam ngày càng hội nhập sâu rộng về mặt ngoại giao và hợp tác quân sự với các quốc gia trong khu vực và thế giới. Điều này đặt ra nhu cầu cần có các nghiên cứu về chiến lược dịch phù hợp nhằm nâng cao chất lượng bản dịch. Đây là lý do nghiên cứu này được tiến hành trên hai bài phát biểu của Bộ trưởng Ngô Xuân Lịch tại Đối thoại Quốc phòng Shangri-La lần thứ 17, 18 đã được dịch ra tiếng Anh. Tác giả áp dụng khung lý thuyết về chiến lược dịch đề xuất bởi nhà nghiên cứu dịch thuật nổi tiếng Peter Newmark năm 1988. Tần suất sử dụng của các chiến lược dịch sẽ được tính toán và thể hiện bằng các số liệu thống kê. Kết quả đã chỉ ra rằng chiến lược dịch được ưa dùng nhất là dịch ngữ nghĩa, đứng thứ hai là dịch giao tiếp. Các chiến lược dịch khác chỉ được sử dụng tương đối hạn chế. Kết quả này đã phản ánh chân thực bản chất của các bài diễn văn nói chung và diễn văn chính trị nói riêng.

Từ khóa: *Dịch thuật, các chiến lược dịch, diễn văn chính trị, ngôn ngữ nguồn, ngôn ngữ đích, Đối thoại quốc phòng Shangri-La*

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СПОСОБЫ ПЕРЕВОДА ПРИЧИННЫХ ПРЕДЛОГОВ “ИЗ, ИЗ-ЗА, ОТ” В СОЧЕТАНИИ С СУЩЕСТВИТЕЛЬНЫМИ В РУССКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ НА ВЬЕТНАМСКИЙ ЯЗЫК

Ways of translating Russian causal prepositions “*от, из, из-за*” in combination with nouns into Vietnamese

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ABSTRACT

Prepositions are words that show the relationship between words in a phrase or sentence. In Russian, causal prepositions are used with high frequency and have different meanings when combined with noun phrases. In this article, we will focus on the semantic features and the use of the causal preposition “от, из, из-за”, compare with each other, and present some typical methods to convey the meaning of these prepositions when combined with nouns from Russian into Vietnamese.

Keywords: *prepositions, convey the meaning, semantic features*

1. ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Обучение курсантам грамматике русского языка вообще и употреблению предлогов в частности, осуществляемое в соответствии с коммуникативно-деятельностным походом, нацелено на формирование навыков и умений, обеспечивающих возможность участия в речевом общении. Знакомство с единицами грамматической системы, их значениями, формами происходит в тесной связи с функционированием в речи. Такой подход в представлении материала получил название активной, или коммуникативной, грамматики.

Предлоги вообще и причинные предлоги в частности представляют собой объект пристального внимания современных лингвистов. Лингвисты считают предлог служебной частью речи, обозначающей отношения между объектом и субъектом, выражающей синтаксическую зависимость имен существительных, местоимений, числительных от других слов в словосочетаниях и предложениях. Хотя в русском языке предлоги составляют небольшое количество, но большинство из них многозначно, сферы их употребления широки и неоднородны, особенно для причинных предлогов. В ходе обучения переводу в Академии военных наук (АВН), мы отметили, что число значений у причинных предлогов весьма велико, а связи между значениями разнообразны и курсанты столкивались со многими трудностями в выборе какого-то способа для передачи их значений в сочетании с существительными в разных падежах с русского языка на вьетнамский язык.

В статье резюмируются причинные предлоги “из, из-за, от” и типичные способы перевода их на вьетнамский язык.

2. ОБЩИЕ СВЕДЕНИЯ О ПРИЧИННЫХ ПРЕДЛОГАХ

Среди частей речи предлог занимает очень важное место в синтаксическом оформлении высказывания. Касаясь понятия предлога, в действительности в русском языке существуют неоднородные мнения, в которых особо акцентируются те или иные значения и функции предлога. В словаре С. И. Ожегова определяют: “Предлог – это неизменяемая часть речи, слово, выражающее отношения между грамматически зависящими друг от друга словами внутри предложения” (Ожегова, 1983, с. 513). Относясь понятию предлога, Л. Я. Маловицкий и А. К. Федоров определяют, что предлоги – это служебные слова, которые в сочетании с именем в косвенном падеже выражают зависимость данного имени от других слов в предложении или словосочетании, передают различные отношения между зависимым именем и другими словами в предложении или словосочетании (Маловицкий, Федоров, 1978, т.6, с. 256).

Как предлоги, причинные предлоги в современном русском языке неодинаковы по своему морфологическому характеру. Количество причинных предлогов быстро расчет за счет главным образом наречий, имен существительных и деепричастий. Вместе с образованием новых типов причинных предлогов меняется и общий морфологический облик этой грамматической категории.

Причинные отношения передаются разнообразными предлогами: непроизводными (например, “от, с, из, из-за, за, по, под, ради”) и производными (например, “благодаря, в результате, в силу, вследствие, в связи с, по причине”).

Например:

- *Девушка раскрыла рот, такой свежий, с такими ровными белыми зубами, что Кузьма Кузьмич затопотал* ***от удовольствия.*** *(*А. Н. Толстой*, Хождение по мукам*)

- *Женской прислуги он не держал* ***из страха****, чтобы о нем не думали дурно, а держал повара Афанасия, старика лет шестидесяти, нетрезвого и полоумного, который когда-то служил в денщиках и умел кое-как стряпать.* (А. П. Чехов, *Человек в футляре*.)

2.1. Причинный предлог “из”

В русском языке предлог “из” употребляется с родительным падежом и выражает несколько значений. Этот предлог выражает чувства, психическое состояние, побуждение, вызывающие осознанное действие. В таких словосочетаниях в качестве зависимого слова обычно выступает имя существительное с отвлеченным значением. Существительные, сочетающиеся с предлогом “из” по семантике можно условно разделить на следующие группы:

а) существительные, выражающие чувства, психическое состояние, переживания какого-либо лица: из любви, из зависти, из ревности, из ненависти, из боязни, из неприязни, из сострадания, из сожаления, из сочувствия, из милости, из преданности, из страха, из опасения, из осторожности, из трусости, из жалости и т.п. Например:

- *Ежели бы ты жалел, что у тебя лишний работник пропал, - как я смотрю на него, а то ты* ***из любви*** *к нему его хочешь лечить.* (Л. Н. Толстой, *Война и мир.)*

б) существительные, выражающие свойства характера, которые побуждают действовать или бездействовать: из любопытства, из гордости, из любознательности, из лени, из равнодушия, из скромности, из тщеславия, из самолюбия, из упрямства, из честолюбия и т.п. Например:

- *И чего вы так беспокоитесь? Неужто* ***из самолюбия****, что вас женщина первая бросила, а не вы ее?* (Ф. Достоевский, *Белые ночи*).

в) существительные, обозначающие морально-этические побуждения к действию: из благодарности, из вежливости, из деликатности, из приличия, из солидарности, из уважения, из учтивости, из дружбы и т.п. Например:

- *Михаил Семенович* ***из уважения*** *к ней сам, лично, покрасил звезды светящейся краской. (*А. С. Воронин, *Деревянные пятачки*).

г) существительные, обозначающие склонность, интерес к чему-либо, желание, стремление, убеждение, какой-либо инстинкт: из желания, из интереса, из потребности, из соображений, из склонности, из стремления, из чувства долга, из расчета и т.п.

Например: - Делал он это, думается, опять же ***из инстинкта*** самосохранения. (А. В. Богомолов, *Момент истины*.).

2.2. Причинный предлог "из-за"

Предлог "из-за" - первообразный сложный предлог-сращение. Предлог "из-за" вводит указание на объективную причину какого-л. события. Эта причина может быть внутренней или внешней. По семантике существительные, сочетающиеся с предлогом "из-за" можно условно разделить на следующие типы:

а) существительные, обозначающие предмет, лицо, которые служат поводом к какому-л. действию: поссориться из-за денег, из-за прописки; работать из-за куска хлеба.

б) существительные, обозначающие причину или на виновника какого-л. действия: отсутствовать из-за болезни; вернуться домой из-за дождя; из-за тебя опоздал к поезду.

в) существительные, выражающие объективную причину, вызывающую нежелательное действие или неосуществление действия: из-за тебя; из-за шума.

Предлог *из-за* может употребляться с конкретными существительными и названиями для указания на причину, препятствующую осуществлению чего-либо, иными словами а негативную причину. Например:

- ***Из-за вас*** *я сижу в этой дыре и не могу двинуться.* (К. А.Федин, *Первые радости*).

Следует отметить, что существительные в конструкции с предлогом "из-за" могут обозначать как лицо, по вине которого не состоялось действие или произошло нежелательное событие, так и предмет, явление. Например:

- Из-за Наташи *мы опоздали на концерт.* (К. А.Федин*, Первые радости*).

2.3. Причинный предлог "от"

Как данные предлоги предлог "от" вводят указание на внутреннюю и на внешнюю причину. Существительные, сочетающиеся с предлогом "от" по семантике можно условно разделить на следующие типы:

а) существительные, обозначающие причину непроизвольного изменения состояния, признака лица (психические переживания и физические ощущения): покраснеть от мороза, от напряженного внимания... Например:

- *Она не решилась за обедом сделать вопрос и* ***от беспокойства*** *за обедом ничего не ела и вертелась на стуле, не слушая замечаний своей гувернантки.(*Л.Н. Толстой, *Война и мир*.)

б) существительные, обозначающие причину предмета, связанную с влиянием внутренних состояний или явлений природы, внешних сил: от радости, от жара и боли…

Например: *Девушка раскрыла рот, такой свежий, с такими ровными белыми зубами, что*

Кузьма Кузьмич затопотал ***от удовольствия*** (А. Н. Толстой, *Хмурное утро*).

в) существительные, обозначающие непосредственную причину смерти: умер от ран, умер от кринжа, смерт от гадости…

Например: *Солдат умер* ***от потери*** *крови.* (Б. В. Можаева**,** *Атология самиздата*).

В случае, когда причиной является свойство или состояние самого субъекта, предлог “от” максимально противопоставлен предлогу “из”. Различные свойства и состояния в разной степени допускают подобные реакции. Чем больше элемент стихийности, неконтролируемости какого-либо чувства, состояния или положения, тем больше оснований для употребления предлог “от”; *например, (плакать)* ***от огорчения*** и т. п. По той же причине предлог “от свободно сочетается с названиями таких природных свойств, как глупость, медлительность, доброта и т. п. Наоборот, чем больше доля рациональной оценки в возникновении какого-л. состояния, чем в большей степени оно контролируется, тем меньше оснований для употребления предлога “от”.

2.4. Сходства и различия причинных предлогов “из, из-за, от”

Казуальные предлоги могут вступать в отношения синонимии между собой. Предлоги “из, из-за, от” обладают определенными синонимическими отношениями. Причинная синонимия различается по следующим смысловым признакам:

1) Коренится ли причина в свойствах или состояниях какого-то человека или нет (предлог “из”, с обычно содержит такое указание, для остальных синонимов этот признак несуществен);

2) Является ли данная причина мотивом, побуждающим человека действовать определенным образом “из”;

3) Является ли следствие незапланированным и скорее нежелательным “из-за”;

4) Насколько тесно связаны причина и следствие (предлоги “от”, “из”, предполагают непосредственную связь, “из-за”)...

5) Как оценивается следствие (“из-за” часто связывается с нежелательными последствиями). Конструкции с предлогами “из-за”-“от”, “из”-“от”, весьма близки по значению и выступают как синонимичные. Однако каждый из предлогов имеет свои оттенки значений, может сочетаться с определенными лексическими единицами, и не всегда конструкции с этими предлогами взаимозаменяемы. При выражении причины стимула к действию конструкции с предлогом “по” соотносимы по смыслу с конструкциями с предлогом “из”. Критерием для того, чтобы отличить один предлог от другого служит сознательность. Например:

- *работать из любви к делу:* сознательное действие;
- *помогать из жалости:* сознательное действие;
- *плакать от горя:* несознательное действие;
- *мокрый от дождя:* несознательное состояние.

Глаголы (*работать, помогать, плакать*) или состояние (*мокрый*) играют важную роль в определении предлога (“от” или “из”). Но это не обязательно значит, что один глагол или одно состояние всегда однозначно требует один соответствующий тип предлога. Иначе говоря, существуют ситуации, где могут использоваться оба варианта (“от” или “из”), хотя остается разница в оттенках. Например:

- *Он убил друга из ревности.*
- *Он убил друга от ревности.*

Предлог “от” предполагает, что само данное свойство или состояние неподконтрольно воле и разуму субъекта и что оно вызывает непроизвольную реакцию. С предлогом "от" соотносится и предлог "из-за" но если предлог "из-за" употребляется при выражении прямой и косвенной причины чего-либо: *яблони погибли из-за тебя*; непроизвольного состояния и качества и непроизвольного действия: *он упал из-за тебя*; то предлог "от" возможен при обозначении лишь прямой, непосредственной причины определенного состояния или качества, возникновение которого независимо от воли человека.

В обоих случаях нет разницы в смысле того, что он убил друга и что причиной, которая побудила его сделать так, была ревность. Но первое выражение с предлогом *из* подразумевает его умысел, или намерение. Может быть, он планировал убийство заранее и очень тщательно и в конце выполнил цель по плану. С другой стороны, второе выражение намекает на возможность случайного события. Возможно, что он не помнил себя от гнева и убил друга в состоянии аффекта. Кстати говоря, стоит обратить внимание на то, что здесь тоже используется предлог "от" (*от гнева*). По этому необходимо обращать внимание на контекст и на оттенки, потому что глагол или состояние не обязательно действуют как решающий фактор.

3. СПОСОБЫ ПЕРЕДАЧИ ПРИЧИННЫХ ПРЕДЛОГОВ "ОТ, ИЗ, ИЗ-ЗА" НА ВЬЕТНАМСКИЙ ЯЗЫК

Причинность - это одна из многообразных форм связи и взаимообусловленности явлений, раскрывающая такое отношение между ними, при котором одно явление порождает другое. В языкознании причинность рассматривается, с одной стороны, как понятийная категория, представляющая собой отражение свойств и отношений реальной действительности, а с другой имеющая опору на язык.

Каждый язык обладает своей спецификой выражения каузальных отношений. Современный русский язык располагает многочисленными и многообразными способами выражения причинных. В рамках статьи были представлены некоторые типичные способы для передачи причинных предлогов "от, из, из-за" в русском языке на вьетнамский язык. В ходе исследования материалов и примеров из художественных произведений мы отметили, что во многих случаях единственный способ может одновременно использоваться для передачи некоторых значений данных предлогов, как дословный, семантический, контекстуальный перевод.

3.1. Дословный перевод

Это перевод, в котором порядок слов на языке оригинала сохраняется и слова переводятся только в широком значении, не принимая во внимание контекст. Дословный перевод, при правильной передаче мысли переводимого текста, стремится к максимально близкому воспроизведению синтаксической конструкции и лексического состава подлинника. В тех случаях, когда синтаксическая структура переводимого предложения может быть и в переводе выражена аналогичными средствами, дословный перевод может рассматриваться как окончательный вариант перевода без дальнейшей литературной обработки. Однако такое совпадение синтаксических средств в двух языках встречается сравнительно редко, чаще всего при дословном переводе возникает то или иное нарушение синтаксических норм языка перевода. Несмотря на то, что дословный перевод часто нарушает синтаксические нормы русского языка, он может применяться при беглом, черновом переводе текста.

Большинство причинных предлогов "от, из, из-за" переведено в сочетании с существительными на вьетнамский язык ***"vì, do, bởi + семантическое значение слова или словосочетания"***. Например:

- Хочу предложить вам, - тут женщина из-за пазухи вытащила несколько ярких и мокрых ***от снега*** *журналов, - взять несколько журналов в пользу детей Германии. По полтиннику штука.* (М.А. Булгаков, *Собачье сердце*.)

→ Tôi muốn mời ông, - nói đến đó cô ta rút từ trong ngực áo ra mấy tờ tạp chí sặc sỡ và ướt nhèm ***vì tuyết****, mời ông lấy cho mấy tờ tạp chí ủng hộ trẻ con nước Đức. Năm mươi kôpếch một tờ.* (Bulgacốp M.A., *Trái tim chó*. Đoàn Tử Huyến dịch.)

В данном предложении причинный предлог “***от***” дословно переведен на вьетнамский язык как “***vì***”; слово “***снег***” в словаре имеет значения на вьетнамском языке как *“****tuyết****”*. В этом случае причинный предлог “***от****”* в сочетании с существительным в родительном падеже “**от снега***”* дословно переведен на вьетнамском языке как “***vì tuyết****”* в ПЯ при сохранении порядка словосочетания, имеющего причинного значения в предложении и его содержание остается таким же, как и в исходном тексте. Приведем некрторые примеры, в процессе переводе которых используется такой способ.

- Позвольте мне запереть дверь на черный ход и забрать ключ, - заговорил Борменталь, прячась за дверь в стене и прикрывая ладонью лицо - это временно, не ***из недоверия*** *к вам. Но кто-нибудь придет, а вы не выдержите и откроете, а нам нельзя мешать. Мы заняты.* (М.А. Булгаков, *Собачье сердце*.)

→ Cho phép tôi đóng cửa sau lại và cầm theo chìa khóa, - đứng ẩn sau cánh cửa trong bóng tối và lấy bàn tay che mặt, Bormental nói. - Đây chỉ là tạm thời, không phải ***bởi không tin*** *các chị đâu. Nhưng lỡ có ai đến, các chị không đừng được, lại mở cửa ra, mà chúng tôi đang bận, không thể để ai đến quấy rầy.* (Bulgacốp M.A., *Trái tim chó*. Đoàn Tử Huyến dịch.)

- Неужели вы думаете, что ***из-за денег*** *произвожу их? Ведь я же все-таки ученый.* (М.А. Булгаков, *Собачье сердце*.)

→ Chẳng lẽ anh nghĩ tôi làm việc đó ***do tiền bạc****? Tôi dù sao cũng là một nhà bác học chứ. (*Bulgacốp M.A., *Trái tim chó*. Đoàn Tử Huyến dịch.)

- Прибавьте к этому раздражение ***от голода****,* ***от тесной квартиры****,* ***от рубища****,* ***от яркого сознания*** *красоты своего социального положения, а вместе с тем положения, сестры и матери. Пуще же всего тщеславие, гордость и тщеславие, а впрочем, бог его знает, может, и при хороших наклонностях...* (Ф. М. Достоевский, *Преступление и наказание*.)

Thêm vào đấy là một tâm trạng bị kích động ***vì đói****,* ***vì ở chật****,* ***mặc rách****,* ***vì nhận thức rõ rệt*** *cái địa vị xã hội quá đẹp đẽ của mình, lại thêm tình cảnh của mẹ và em nữa. Chủ yếu là vì sĩ diện, vì tự hào và sĩ diện; vả chăng có trời biết được người ta có thể vẫn có những xu hướng tốt mà vẫn vậy.* (Dostoevsky F. M., *Tội ác và hình phạt*. Cao Xuân Hạo dịch).

На материале 100 выбранных примеров, имеющих существительные с причинными предлогами “из, из-за, от” в родительном падеже мы отметили, что при переводе на вьетнамский язык 80% данных предлогов были переданы как “***vì***”

За сценой конмандира встретил бледный ***от возмущения*** *администратор*. (К. Г. Паустовский, 1961, *Музыка Верди*. Ленинград: Наука).

→ Ở hậu trường, người phụ trách nhà hát, mặt tái đi ***vì tức giận****, đón chỉ huy trưởng*) (Pautốpxki K.G., *Âm nhạc Verdi*. Kim Ân, Mộng Quỳnh dịch).

Наш театр работает по-ударному. Мы не можем ***из-за настроения*** *актеров срывать спектакли.* (К. Г. Паустовский, *Музыка Верди*).

→ Nhà hát chúng tôi làm việc theo kiểu tiên tiến, không thể ***vì tâm trạng*** *diễn viên mà đình vở diễn được*. (Pautốpxki K.G., *Âm nhạc Verdi*. Kim Ân, Mộng Quỳnh dịch).

3.2. Описательный перевод

Способ перевода, использующийся в тех случаях, когда не существует никакой другой возможности передачи языковой единицы вследствие отсутствия эквивалентов и аналогов в переводящем языке. Описательный перевод заключается в передаче значения иностранного слова при помощи более-менее распространенного объяснения.

В описательном переводе причинные предлоги переведены в сочетании с существительными в родительном падеже на вьетнамский язык ***"vì, do или неприсутствующие причинные предлоги + семантическое конкретизированное значение слова или словосочетания"***. Например:

*- Курятин хмурится, глядит в рот и среди пожелтевших **от времени и табака** зубов усматривает один зуб, украшенный зияющим дуплом.* (А. П. Чехов, *Хирургия*).

*→ Kuriatin chau mày nhăn mặt nhìn vào miệng ông già, và giữa đám răng vàng khè **vì chủ nhân của chúng vừa có tuổi lại vừa hút thuốc lá**, viên y sĩ nhìn thấy một chiếc răng có lỗ sâu.* (Chekhov A. P., *Phẫu thuật*. Phan Hồng Giang, Cao Xuân Hạo dịch).

Причинный предлог "***от***" дословно переведен на вьетнамский язык как "***vì***", существительный "***время***" как "***thời gian***" и существительный "***табак***" - "***thuốc lá, thuốc hút nói chung***". Когда причинный предлог "***от***" в сочетании с существительными в родительном падеже "***времени и табака***" дословно переведен на вьетнамский язык как "***vì thời gian và thuốc lá***".

В данном примере переводчик уже добавил информацию "***chủ nhân của chúng, có tuổi hút***", слово "***время***" в ИЯ было передано как "***tuổi***" в ПЯ. Цель переводчика - выяснять значение причинного предлога и словосочетании в исходном предложении, а также максимально понятно и четко передать содержание исходного предложения. Поэтому в описательном переводе это словосочетание переведено как "***vì chủ nhân của chúng vừa có tuổi lại vừa hút thuốc lá***". Приведем некоторые примеры, в процессе переводе которых используется такой способ.

*- Сооня! одно слово! Можно ли так мучить меня и себя **из-за фантазии**? – говорил Николай, взяв ее за руку.* (Л.Н. Толстой. *Война и мир*).

*→ So-o-onya? Nghe anh nói tí nào! Sao em cứ làm khổ anh và làm khổ cả mình nữa **vì những chuyện vớ vẩn không đâu ấy thế?*** (Tolstoy L., *Chiến tranh và hòa bình*, Cao Xuân Hạo, Nhữ Thành, Hoàng Thiếu Sơn, Thường Xuyên dịch.)

*- Всё в доме строго делилось: один день обед готовила бабушка **из провизии**, купленной на ее деньги, на другой день провизию и хлеб покупал дед, и всегда в его дни обеды бывали хуже.* (Л.Н. Толстой, *Война и мир*)

*Tất cả mọi thứ trong nhà đều chia hẳn ra: hôm nay bà xuất tiền ra **mua thức ăn**, hôm sau ông mua và cứ đến lượt ông là bữa ăn kém hơn.* (Tolstoy L., *Chiến tranh và hòa bình*. Cao Xuân Hạo, Nhữ Thành, Hoàng Thiếu Sơn, Thường Xuyên dịch.)

3.3. Контекстуальный перевод

Контекстуальный перевод - способ, который сходен по своему по причине с уподобляющим переводом и противопоставлен словарному, поскольку переводимое слово при использовании этого способа может иметь соответствия, отличающиеся от приведенных в словаре. В данном случае основной ориентировкой переводчика служит контекст, поэтому сам способ заключается в замене словарного соответствия при переводе контекстуальным, логически связанным с ним. Например:

*- Лошади с шершавой, смерзшейся **от пота** шерстью остановились около крыльца.* (М. Шолохов, *Поднятая целина*.)

*- Mấy con ngựa, lông cứng ráp **vì mồ hôi đóng băng**, dừng lại cạnh thềm*. (Sholokhov M., *Đất vỡ hoang*. Vũ Trần Thủ dịch).

Причинный предлог "***от***" во вьетнамском языке означает "***vì***", а существительное "***пот***" - "***mồ hôi***". Дословный перевод не является неправильным, но не может наиболее ярко передать содержание текста. Эта фраза переведена на вьетнамский язык как "***vì mồ hôi***". Но только в этом контексте причинный предлог "***от***" в сочетании с существительным “***от***” переведен как “***vì mồ hôi đóng băng***”. Благодаря этому переводу читатель может почувствовать, что зимой погода очень суровая. Конский волос стал жестким, потому что пот на волосах лошади замерз. Приведем некоторые примеры, в процессе перевода которых используется такой способ.

- Продавец, снисходительно посмеиваясь над его речью и неказистым видом-все те же расхоженные кирзовые сапоги, холщовые штаны, сшитые старухой, потрепанный пиджачок, побуревшая ***от дождей и солнца*** *войлочная шляпа, - отвечал Момуну.* (Ч. Т. Айтматов, *Белый пароход*).

→ Người bán hàng cất tiếng cười giễu cợt những lời lẽ trịnh trọng và hình dạng xấu xí của ông già - vẫn đôi ủng giả da đã quá tàng ấy, chiếc quần vải thô ấy do bà lão may cho, chiếc áo vét-tongo sờn rách, cái mũ dạ ***vì dãi dầu mưa nắng*** *đã ngả màu nâu.* (Aitmatov C., *Con tàu trắng.* Phạm Mạnh Hùng dịch).

- Нет, ***от этого*** *можно с ума. (*Л. Н. Толстой, *Война и мир*).

→ Cả thế giới *đã mất trí rồi.* (Tolstoy L., *Chiến tranh và hòa bình*. Cao Xuân Hạo, Nhữ Thành, Hoàng Thiếu Sơn, Thường Xuyên dịch).

- Видеть и слышать, как лгут, - проговорил Иван Иваныч, поворачиваясь на другой бок, - и тебя же называют дураком за то, что ты терпишь эту ложь; сносить обиды, унижения, не сметь открыто заявить, что ты на стороне честных, свободных людей, и самому лгать, улыбаться, и всё это ***из-за куска хлеба****,* ***из-за теплого угла****,* ***из-за какого-нибудь чинишка****, которому грош цена, - нет, больше жить так невозможно!* (А. П. Чехов, *Смерть чиновника*).

→ Nhìn thấy và nghe thấy mọi người nói dối, - Ivan Ivanứts vừa nói vừa trở mình, - và để cho thiên hạ bảo anh là ngu xuẩn chỉ vì anh đã nghe lời dối trá ấy, nhẫn nhục chịu đựng những sự lăng mạ, khinh miệt, không dám nói thẳng rằng anh đứng về phía những người trung thực, yêu tự do; và chính anh cũng nói dối, cũng nhăn nhở cười, ***chỉ cốt kiếm được miếng ăn****,* ***chỉ cốt được ấm vào thân****,* ***chỉ vì một chức tước hèn mọn nào đó*** *chỉ đáng giá mấy đồng xu - không, không thể sống như thế mãi được!* (Chekhov A. P., *Cái chết của một viên chức*. Phan Hồng Giang, Cao Xuân Hạo dịch).

4. ЗАКЛЮЧЕНИЕ

Хотя предлоги являются служебными словами, но в составе предложений играют настолько важную роль, что без них не обходится любая более-менее сложная синтаксическая конструкция. Семантика и функции вьетнамских и русских языковых знаков не совпадают. В результате этого невозможно установить прямую эквивалентность, в частности, между словарными средствами выражения причинности и причинными конструкциями двух языков. Большинство причинных предлогов “из, из-за, от” переведено на вьетнамский язык с помощью предлогов “*vì, do, chỉ vì, bởi vì*”. А в зависимости от конкретного контекста в предложении данные предлоги иногда были опущены в переведенных тесктах. В ходе перевода необходимо учитывать лингвистические характеристики и культурные черты в конкретном контексте для выбора соответствующих способов перевода./.

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PHƯƠNG THỨC CHUYỂN DỊCH GIỚI TỪ CHỈ NGUYÊN NHÂN “ИЗ, ИЗ-ЗА, ОТ” KHI KẾT HỢP VỚI DANH TỪ TRONG TIẾNG NGA SANG TIẾNG VIỆT

TRẦN THỊ THANH TRÀ

Tóm tắt: Giới từ là từ loại chỉ sự liên quan giữa các từ trong cụm từ hoặc trong câu. Giới từ thể hiện các mối quan hệ trên diện rộng giữa các dạng cách của danh từ và các thực từ khác trong thành phần của tập hợp từ. Trong tiếng Nga, giới từ chỉ nguyên nhân được sử dụng với tần suất cao và mang nhiều ý nghĩa khác nhau khi kết hợp với các cụm danh từ. Trong bài viết này, chúng tôi tập trung vào việc xem xét các đặc điểm ngữ nghĩa cũng như việc sử dụng giới từ chỉ nguyên nhân “из, из-за, от”, so sánh ý nghĩa của các giới từ khi kết hợp với danh từ cách hai, phân tích một số ví dụ đã chuyển dịch và giới thiệu một số phương thức điển hình để truyền tải ý nghĩa những giới từ này khi kết hợp với các danh từ từ tiếng Nga sang tiếng Việt.

Từ khóa: *giới từ chỉ nguyên nhân, ngữ nghĩa, phương thức dịch, danh từ, truyền tải*

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EAST TIMOR'S SECURITY CHALLENGES

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ABSTRACT

East Timor officially became an independent country in 2002 after a long struggle since 1975. Since then, the country has achieved initial achievements in the course of national building. However, East Timor still faces many challenges including national security internally and externally. At home, the challenge is how to resolve the competition between factions and different political movements to maintain stability for national development. Externally, how to rebuild relationships with countries like Indonesia and Australia after ups and downs ... In the face of that situation, the East Timor government has taken important steps to address these security challenges. The paper presents the security issues East Timor faces and how the country sees and addresses these obstacles.

Keywords: *security, challenges, threats, East Timor*

1. INTRODUCTION

Timor Leste, a new country in South East Asia has enjoyed its independence since 2000. Even though progress has been made, the country is still facing many challenges in the course of national building and one of them is security. Many agree that engaging with "security" requires considering what security and for whom. The conventional sovereignty-security nexus focuses on the defence capabilities of the state in protecting its territory and population from aggression by other states. It can be said that this conventional approach to "national security" is viewed by dominant political elites as integral to the independence of the Timorese state. This sovereignty-security conception is shaped by Timor-Leste's historical experiences with colonialism under Portugal and Indonesia, and the collusion of Western and ASEAN states in permitting illegal occupation. Timor-Leste's leaders have presented an image of the international environment as insecure and competitive in some contexts. Therefore, Timor-Leste should devote more resources to building military capacities to guarantee its sovereignty. Still, like many states, defence self-reliance is almost an unattainable goal. The article identifies how Timor-Leste perceives its security challenges and the steps it has taken to address them.

2. TIMOR LESTE'S SECURITY CHALLENGES

Timor-Leste's biggest security challenges emerge from domestic security challenges. Similar to other fragile post-colonial states, a range of different issues emerged in Timor-Leste following its independence, including social divisions, elite rivalries, poverty and unemployment, economic underdevelopment, youth unemployment, a weak justice system, and unstable political institutions (Dolven, Margesson & Vaughn, 2012). The dismissal of 591 army servicemen by the government in 2006 catalyzed a political crisis such as the deep social, political, and economic challenges that contributed to the escalating tensions in Timor-Leste (Simonsen, 2009). One of the initial challenges for the new East Timorese state was legitimizing and consolidating democratic political structures because customary forms of governance retained their currency in local communities. Further, Timor-Leste's key security sectors, the FALINTIL-Defence Forces of Timor-Leste (F-FDTL) and the National Police Force, "were marked by internal rifts stemming from historical, regional and personal differences" (Simonsen, 2009). These issues threatened the capacities of Timor-Leste's fragile political institutions to provide internal security during the first years of its statehood. Internal security threats include clashes between community groups, assaults, and the presence of resistance groups, such as the Maubere Revolutionary Council, that challenge the legitimacy of the Timorese state and conduct violent operations against security forces.

It can be argued that states and intergovernmental agencies actively assisted in the creation of the political institutions necessary for internal sovereign capabilities. Since 1999, Timor-Leste has been the subject of five United Nations (UN) missions and two peacekeeping interventions that have sought to consolidate Timorese state institutions and building capacity in security sectors. From 2006-12, an international peacekeeping force and the United Nations Integrated Mission in Timor-Leste (UNMIT) assisted Timor-Leste in regaining and consolidating internal order and building capacity in security institutions such as the police and military. Despite this international support, the Parliamentary Majority Alliance (AMP) coalition, which formed the government following Timor-Leste's 2007 parliamentary elections, began emphasizing the conventional sovereign-security concept in both its rhetoric and military build-up. One of Timor-Leste's aims has been to reduce the foreign military presence (Sahin, 2012). While it is necessary to establish social and political order, international assistance undermined the ability of elites to exercise "real" independence as the state was no longer in control of primary security institutions. After the election of the AMP government, Timor-Leste shifted its attention to external defence and sought to bolster defence capacities in line with traditional observations about security and "real" independence. The political rhetoric has reinforced the importance of territorial defence capacities as a core component of sovereignty, and Timor-Leste's leadership has sought to guarantee and protect Timor-Leste's newly attained political status.

While leaders argue that Timor-Leste needs to protect its sovereignty to develop "real" independence, attack from another state is highly improbable. Security in Timor-Leste has been undermined by organizational gulfs between the police and the military (Sahin & Feaver 2012). After the 2006 crisis, international peacekeepers assisted Timor-Leste in Security Sector Reform (SSR) to build capacity in security institutions (ABC News, 2019). As Simonsen notes, the fundamental question of whether Timor-Leste requires an army was not addressed in the discussions on SSR (Simonsen, 2009). The creation of Timor-Leste's armed forces was a result of domestic policy not the United Nations Transitional Administration. While some states may be able to survive without permanent standing armies, leaders Taur Matan Ruak and José Ramos-Horta have argued that this is not the case for Timor-Leste due to the "challenges that this country faces internally and externally" (Simonsen, 2009). Ideational factors motivate Timor-Leste's security policy, insofar as defence is viewed as a constitutive component of independent statehood. The domestic political context also motivates security policies as leaders draw upon popular narratives of historical struggle and national valour to justify the strengthening of Timor-Leste's military.

3. BUILDING A MILITARY

During the independence movement, leaders envisaged an independent Timor-Leste without a standing army, following the lead of other states such as Costa Rica (National Council of the Maubere Resistance, 2021). Ramos-Horta presented the idea that Timor-Leste would rely on a "Treaty of Neutrality" guaranteed by the United Nations Security Council (UNSC). Not having a standing army would free up funds for social policies: "at least 40 percent of our resources will be allocated to our best resources – our people – through massive investment in health, education and food production" (Ramos-Horta, 1997). A Timorese state would also work towards the total demilitarization of East Asia and the Pacific, establishing a "Zone of Peace" around the island of Timor (Wainwright & Dupont, 2002). Following the 1999 referendum, the decision by leaders to only have a national gendarmerie was abandoned as Operation Clean Sweep precipitated fears that pro-autonomy militia presented security threats that a police force alone would not ameliorate. There was also the issue of what the resistance veterans would do after independence. It was thought that possessing a military would defuse dangers presented by disaffected soldiers from the resistance movement's military arm, FALINTIL.

In 2000, the UNTAET and Timorese leaders requested the King's College London to write a defence study to support the development of a Timorese military (ADF, 2005). The resultant report provided Timor-Leste with three options: (1) Compose a "national guard" force of 3,000–5,000 military by integrating FALINTIL combatants and conscripts, with a small air and naval arm; (2) Compose a force of 1,500 core troops in addition to 1,500 annual conscript drafts, with no air or naval arm; (3) Compose a force of 1,500 core troops and another 1,500 volunteer reservists, with initially no air or naval arm. The first model represented the most expensive choice. The report suggested that this was unrealistic relative to Timor-Leste's economic situation, and would inflate the risk of external threats to Timor-Leste's security and sovereignty. The most economically viable option was the third model. FALINTIL's leadership, on the other hand, wanted a defence force of 5,000 (King's College London, 2000, p. 13). Option three was adopted by the Transitional Cabinet of East Timor (ETTA) in September 2000, and the Falintil-Force de Defesa de Timor Leste (F-FDTL) was established on 31 January 2001, becoming the smallest defence force in Southeast Asia (Ball, 2002). The first 650 troops in the light infantry force were ex-resistance veterans. According to Feijo, Timor-Leste's armed resistance movement antecedents of the F-FTDL provided "revolutionary legitimacy" to the military (Feijó, 2015)

Initially, external threats included the pro-Indonesia militia, the movement of goods and weapons across borders, and "non-traditional" threats including organized crime and violations of maritime security (Sukma, 2002) During the FRETILIN government (2002–7), Timor-Leste's "two-pronged" approach to international relations was adopted to promote Timor-Leste's external security and was awkwardly skewed towards placating Indonesia while shoring up support from Western states, especially Australia. Many leaders continued to view Indonesia as a threat immediately following independence, and the violence surrounding the 1999 consultation reminded the East Timorese of their "vulnerable position" (Smith, 2005, p. 15). Timor-Leste's leaders understood that a "volatile" Indonesia could also have added to Timor-Leste's economic, social, and political challenges. Timor-Leste's policy of appeasement reflects a "pragmatic realist" approach to foreign policy as it acknowledges both Indonesia's previous actions in Timor-Leste and its growing might in the twenty-first century.

4. A NEW APPROACH TO EXTERNAL SECURITY IN EAST TIMOR

By the 2007 elections, the political climate in Timor-Leste had mostly stabilized and the first FRETILIN government was replaced by the AMP coalition headed by former President, Xanana Gusmão. This government's appearance determined to progress the state on many fronts; the IV Constitutional Programme, produced in September 2007, articulated a range of different governmental priorities mainly related to economic and political development and social cohesion (RDTL, 2018). The AMP government established a Ministry of Defence and Security, headed by Prime Minister

Xanana Gusmão. On 11 February 2008, internal security was again challenged by assassination attempts on Ramos-Horta and Gusmão by a rebel group of assassins led by Alfredo Reinado.

In September 2008, a Timor-Leste National Security Policy Workshop was held in which representatives of Timor-Leste parliament, government, civil society, and security forces discussed national interests and priorities (Mottram, 2010). The workshop found that while Timor-Leste security challenges were mostly domestic, external challenges, such as violations of territorial and maritime borders, were also identified. The workshop emphasized bilateral and multilateral security cooperation as a pathway to dealing with external threats. In 2009, the International Crisis Group criticized Timor-Leste's government for taking "few serious steps" to address SSR and noted Timorese dissatisfaction with UN officials. Following this conference, a new security focus emerged relating to external security and the survival of the East Timorese state, and in 2009 the government produced a Draft Law on National Security. The 28/2011 Government Resolution adopted a new model for the F-FDTL based on the Force 2020 study to prevent and respond to new threats such as terrorism and to support the integrated national security system outlined in the National Security Act (2/2010). The resolution confirmed F-FDTL's position as a national priority.

The Draft Law began with the statement: "in the sovereign Democratic Republic of Timor-Leste, the State has the right and the duty to defend its essential elements; its territory, sovereignty, and political power". This corresponds with Timor-Leste's Constitution, which provides a vision of how Timor-Leste's political leaders perceived the constitutive components of sovereignty. Section 6 (Objectives of the State) of the Constitution states: the fundamental objectives of the State shall be: a) to defend and guarantee the sovereignty of the country; b) to guarantee and promote fundamental rights and freedoms of the citizens and the respect for the principles of the democratic States based on the rule of the law; c) to defend and guarantee political democracy and participation of the people in the resolution of national problems (Pinto, 2009).

The Constitution reflects the concerns of drafters for protecting Timor-Leste's hard-won rights to self-determination and sovereign independence. Defending the territorial integrity of the state is described as a central objective of sovereign states, corresponding to the absolute external sovereignty concept. In defining national security, Section 1 Article 2 of the Draft Law states: The State defends and ensures the independence and sovereignty of political power, the unity and integrity of the national territory and the freedom and safety of communities according to the Constitution, this law and other legislation that is in force, through an integrated and coordinated array of State-led activities that make up National Defence, Internal Security, and Civil Protection.

The purpose of the national security law was to implement a programme of SSR by integrating and coordinating the activities of the military (FALINTIL-FDTL) and police force (PNTL) concerning national defence, internal security, and civil protection. Due to the complex nature of internal and external threats in the twenty-first century, Timor-Leste sought to reform its security sector by blurring the roles of the police and military in international and domestic spheres to negotiate the increasingly unclear divisions between internal and domestic threats.

On 11 June 2010, two 1960s Class Jaco Patrol Boats were purchased from China by the AMP government, who outplayed US$28 million over five installments from 2008-10, adding to the two patrol boats donated by Portugal in 2001. As Timor-Leste's 2009 State Budget totaled US$680.8 million, the money allocated to purchasing the patrol boats is relatively substantial, particularly given the various economic challenges facing Timor-Leste as the poorest state in the Southeast Asian region (Gusmão, 2010). The two vessels were part of the National Defence Policy that the AMP government had been developing over several years. According to Defence Minister Julio Tomas Pinto, "[t]he purpose of purchasing the vessels is firstly to provide resources to the F-FDTL, the Naval Component, and other bodies. Secondly, it seeks to enable control of the Timor Sea along with neighbouring countries, especially on the South Coast. Politically it seems positive for Timor-Leste to buy these two vessels." (Murdoch, 2010). Gusmão justified the spending by arguing that "the independence of a state entails possessing the necessary means to secure the territorial integrity and ongoing functioning of the institutions, and therefore, this also entails having the capacity to defend the people's natural wealth". The patrol boats were perceived as a means of securing "real" independence by bolstering external defence capacities in an attempt to reduce reliance upon other states such as Australia.

The purchase of these vessels drew criticism from neighbouring states, especially Australia which was not consulted in the process. At the handover ceremony of the two patrol boats, Gusmão responded by stating "we cannot consider ourselves a sovereign country if every time we are to make a fundamental decision, we have to consult our neighbours, friends and partner countries" (Gusmão, 2010). This statement reflects Timor-Leste desire to reduce reliance on Australia and Indonesia for external and internal security, and reinforced the image of a traditional state, with sovereignty entailing the capacity to defend the territory from external threats. A radio broadcast in Australia suggested that the Timor-Leste AMP government perceived China's involvement as a "counter-balance to dependence, particularly on Australia". Murdoch suggested that the Chinese boats were a "slap in the face for Australian diplomacy" and strained relations between the AMP coalition and the Australian government (Murdoch, 2010).

Survival and protection of sovereign status became an integral component of Timor-Leste's national security policy. In a lecture on defence and security in 2010, Prime Minister Xanana Gusmão declared: the same way that democratic and developed countries have been worrying about their defence and security for hundreds of years, investing in those areas, Timor-Leste cannot hesitate to invest in its defence of security so that it may protect the sovereignty of the country. Gusmão maintained that "in terms of security and defence, Timor-Leste, which is located both in Southeast Asia and in the greater Pacific region, is not immune to regional strategic maneuverings" (Gusmão, 2010). Timor Leste is, like any state, vulnerable to threats, including non-state threats such as terrorism, piracy, organized crime, illegal immigration, weapons trade, and so forth. While the purchase of the boats in 2010 was primarily motivated by illegal fishing, Timor-Leste's leadership was also concerned with national defence and survival through developing its military capabilities.

Gusmão argued that Timor-Leste could no longer rely so heavily upon Australia and Indonesia for security and offered a justification for moving towards friendlier relations with other states. He declared: Timor-Leste has to avoid falling into political naivety, thinking our constitution, on its own, can guarantee our national independence, territorial integrity, and sovereignty over its resources. This declaration reveals several important thoughts on Timor-Leste's security and defence policy: first, that Indonesia and Australia have colluded in the past against Timor-Leste's interests and could do so again; second, that sovereignty is not guaranteed, even if it has been developed and supported by the international community; and third, that functional independence relies upon the capacities of Timor-Leste to be realistic (i.e. not "naïve") concerning its external security. The 2011 Strategic Development Plan (SDP) similarly contended that "the national 'spirit of defence' would be to prevent a climate of complacency that may be detrimental to our national strategic interests". This links "real" independence with the capacity to ensure territorial integrity and defence of the sovereign state.

Timor-Leste's security and defence policy is motivated by the protection of its territory and population from another invasion, reflecting a sense of insecurity grounded in past experiences with foreign rule and occupation. Gusmão stated: one should never cast aside the possibility of armed conflicts, whatever their nature should be. Our history has shown us, as well as all the other wars that have been fought and that are still being fought, that wars can be caused for a great many reasons, including to take control over natural resources of other countries. The "realist" perspective underpinning the development of Timor Leste's National Security Policy is contestable. Timor-Leste's political history includes a collision between Australia and Indonesia in opposing Timor-Leste's right to self-determination; however, its right to self-determination, and subsequent attainment of sovereignty, was ultimately permitted and supported by the international community through various state-building and peace-building activities. On 15 November 2010, Lindsay Murdoch reported in The Sydney Morning Herald that Timor-Leste would acquire two patrol boats from South Korea and aimed to purchase an additional nine smaller patrol boats to add to its fleet.104 These boats, delivered in June 2011, would be primarily responsible for intercepting asylum seeker boats (Dodd, 2011). According to Murdoch, this symbolized Timor-Leste's movement away from Australia's "sphere of military influence". East Timorese leaders criticized the Australian government for not supporting their efforts to build their navy. Timor-Leste Secretary of State for Defence, Julio Tomas Pinto, suggested the Australian government was reluctant to support a Timorese navy with boats and accused it of hindering Timor-Leste's efforts to tackle people smuggling by putting too many conditions on its eligibility for the "Pacific Patrol Boat Program" (Australia's maritime cooperation scheme in the South Pacific). He suggested that Australia's reluctance to assist Timor-Leste in developing its naval capacity was reflected in its unwillingness to provide patrol boats, unlike China (Pinto, 2013). However, in April 2008, the Australian Defence Department did send a maritime needs analysis team to Timor-Leste to examine maritime security cooperation, including the possibility that Timor-Leste could participate in the Pacific Patrol Boats Program. The offer to join the programme was rejected by Timor-Leste because the communication systems would run through Australia.

China, it seems, "got in first" (Pinto, 2013). Pinto argued that China supported Timor-Leste "without conditions", unlike other states such as Australia and the United States. The AMP government shifted its foreign security policy away from the two-pronged approach that had been pursued by the first FRETILIN government. The patrol boats, therefore, symbolized an effort by Timor-Leste to strengthen its independence by building defence capacities and reducing its heavy reliance upon Australia. Consistent with its diversified approach to foreign policy, Dili's patrol boats purchase allowed it to show Canberra that it has "other choices when it comes to defence partners" (Murdoch, 2010). Even though Australia and Timor-Leste's bilateral relations have been challenged by a long-running dispute over Timor Sea resources, Australia remains a key security partner for Timor-Leste. In June 2014, a new $1.88 billion Pacific Patrol Boat Program was announced by Australia's foreign and defence ministers (Pasandideh, 2014). Timor-Leste was invited to participate in the Australian Pacific Maritime Security Program, and the Australian government offered Timor-Leste two new patrol boats, including sustainment, training for naval personnel, and advisory support (Commonwealth of Australia, 2016). The purchase of patrol boats from China was viewed by some defence experts as undermining Australia's maritime security interests. It is in Australia's interests to support small maritime states in the region such as Timor-Leste in patrolling their waters. Defence experts also viewed it in Timor-Leste's interests to join the programme because the boats are the only ones capable of protecting the EEZs of island states such as Timor-Leste (McCann, 2013). Timor-Leste ultimately joined the Pacific Patrol Boat Program, and in November 2017 it was announced that the company Austal would build two boats for Timor-Leste. Timorese security NGO Fundasaun Mahein wrote that this was a significant improvement on the "ineffective" vessels provided by South Korea and China that were unable to operate in the rough Timor Seas, leaving the National Police of Timor-Leste to rely upon a boat owned by an environmental NGO to arrest shark poachers. (Bergin, 2014).

In November 2016, Timor-Leste's government approved the Ministry of Defence Strategic Concept for Defence and National Security, defence and security white paper covering the future decade (Mahein, 2017). It confirmed the central mission of the defence forces to protect against threat and aggression, and drew on the history of Timor-Leste's struggle, although also focused on the importance of foreign policy and internal security for Timor-Leste's sovereignty (RDTL, 2016). In 2015, US$33.4 million was budgeted to defence, the second-highest spending since 2006 (US$37.7 million was allocated in 2012) (Government of Australia, 2016). This constituted approximately 2.5 percent of the government spending, a 6.1 percent real increase on the 2014 defence budget and the highest percentage since 2010. In contrast, Singapore (a small state model for Timor-Leste in international relations) spends significantly more on defence capabilities to act as a deterrent as a result of vulnerability. A defence budget of around 5 percent has enabled the acquisition of most modern defence equipment "beyond the capacity of its close neighbours" (Leifer, 2000). This spending, however, corresponded with significant economic development. Increases in military spending appear unnecessary given the relatively low-level external security threats that it faces, particularly in contrast to internal challenges. Despite the increases, Timor-Leste has not significantly advanced its ambitious procurement plans outlined in Force 2020, highlighting the mismatch between aspirations and capabilities. Timor-Leste's armed forces could only offer minor resistance in the face of external attack regardless of increases in military spending.

5. SECURITY BEYOND THE STATE

Timor-Leste's strategic interests as a small state demand defence cooperation with other states. On 21 March 2012, at the second Jakarta International Defence Dialogue, Gusmão contended that "nowadays interdependence is critical. We are here with the assumption that states should work together and protect the interests, both national and global." (Gusmão, 2013). This followed the signing of a memorandum with Indonesia in August 2011 which covered training and military support. The defence ministers of Australia, Indonesia, and Timor-Leste have also held trilateral meetings. These defence cooperation schemes highlighted Timor-Leste's willingness to engage with its neighbours on security – despite the history between the states - when it suited its perceived interests. However, the SDP makes it clear that it pursues cooperation because it does "not want to become militarily dependent" on other states (Dodd, 2011). The Force 2020 report presents a realist vision of the limitations of diplomacy when it argued that "it is unrealistic to consider it possible to overcome foreign controversies without the use of Armed Forces. The new strategic environment and developments confirm that diplomacy without force is nothing more than an exercise in abstract and inconsequential rhetoric." Defence and naval power were presented as important for supporting Timorese foreign policy and diplomacy and defence of national interests.

Force 2020 expressed a desire to take part in joint exercises and operations at regional and global levels. The report also makes it clear that within the context of defence interdependence and collective security mechanisms, Timor-Leste was determined to move away from a dependent, "subordinate" position in collective defence mechanisms and would "fight to take a partner's role". The capacity to engage in defence cooperation and global peace missions relies upon resources, such as professional personnel and interoperable capacities. The key for Timor-Leste's perspective was to develop an independent approach to defence and security within the context of interdependence, whereby Timor-Leste would be an equal partner that could conduct combined military activities with increased interoperability with Indonesia and Australia.

This is again linked back to Timor-Leste's history and the potential threat that it could be subject to colonialism in the future: In the case of Timor-Leste, if the country loses the capacity to defend itself and to participate equitably in collective defence efforts, it will consequently cease to have a voice in international organisations. Moreover, when a sudden conflict emerges in which Timor-Leste cannot remain neutral or participate with forces, its national sovereignty and independence will be put at risk. This situation will reduce Timor-Leste to the condition of a "colony" of the nation-State providing its defence (Dodd, 2011). Timor-Leste's main security partners are Australia, the United States, Japan and Portugal. Australia has provided its assistance for Timor-Leste through the Defence Cooperation Program since early 2001, which involves offering military training, advice, and support (and is separate from the Australian Defence Force commitments in UN missions). In May 2008, Timor-Leste signed a military cooperation agreement with seven other Portuguese-speaking countries. Brazil and Portugal agreed to assist with the military training of F-FDTL personnel. A joint Australia–Timor-Leste bilateral agreement was signed in September 2013 to consolidate security cooperation. The US Navy also conducts training exercises with Timor-Leste's defence force. The sixth unity government views the departure of the International Stabilization Force and the United Nations Mission in 2012 as a sign that Timor-Leste has "learned from its weaknesses" in internal security and has achieved "an atmosphere of social and political peace" (RDTL, 2015). The sixth government maintained its focus on modernizing and professionalizing the F-FDTL for it to defend the nation, "support internal security and contribute to efforts seeking to tackle threats against regional and global peace and stability". The perceived success of Timor-Leste's post-2006 peacebuilding period has compelled successive governments to participate more actively in securing international peace and stability by sharing its "accomplishments" in international dialogues and aspiring to provide peacekeepers (RDTL, 2015).

Defence cooperation is viewed as supporting Timor-Leste's broader foreign policy agenda as it strengthens "trust" between states. Underpinning this is a constructivist notion that dialogue and diplomacy work to alleviate traditional security dilemmas that arise from arms procurements and military modernization is one of the emergent threats shaping geopolitical security and order in the Asia-Pacific region. Like many states, Timor-Leste has developed a two-pronged strategy in response to this contemporary regional threat by building trust through dialogue and cooperation whilst simultaneously contributing to this dynamic by building up and modernizing its military.

Timor-Leste's contribution to international peacebuilding and peacekeeping reflects the aspirational foreign policy, and is shaped by a desire to be perceived as a leader among fragile states within the international community. Force 2020 emphasized not just Timor-Leste's capacity to defend its territory and population but to also contribute to global and regional security. It aspired for Timor-Leste to contribute during peacetime to peacekeeping missions as a "powerful instrument of support to the State's foreign policy" (Wilson, 2009). The SDP presented an ambitious aim for the PNTL and the F-FDTL to possess the capability to be fully utilized by the United Nations in its peacekeeping activities. Making contributions to peacekeeping is not necessarily unique among fragile and/or post-conflict states. The OECD Peacekeeping Database demonstrates that many fragile states provide peacekeepers to other fragile states, including Burundi, Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo, and Sierra Leone. For fragile states such as Timor-Leste, peacekeeping can also provide a valuable income stream. One avenue is through the Melanesian Spearhead Group (MSG) which has ambitions to establish a regional peacekeeping force. According to Sousa-Santos, Timor-Leste's cooperation with the MSG and the Pacific Islands states more generally could be advantageous to mitigating traditional and non-traditional security threats in the region as it has "nascent special force capabilities and growing UN peacekeeping experience, as well as large, and well-trained and equipped policing and paramilitary units" (Wilson, 2009). Additionally, Timor-Leste has experience dealing with the development-security nexus that can be shared with other fragile and conflict-affected states in the region.

Timor-Leste's defensive strategic posture is supported by alliances, diplomacy, and participation in defence forums. This posture, however, "does not renounce the use of forces to guarantee… independence", indicating Timor-Leste's readiness to defend national interests when more peaceful options fail. (Wilson, 2009). This indicates a realist vision of external security threats as Timor-Leste's independence requires the state to be capable of defending territory from foreign forces despite the low likelihood of external military threats or being invaded by another state. Yet, ideational motivations also underpin Timor-Leste's pursuit of absolute external sovereignty through military strengthening despite the improbability of external threats. Realistically, Timor-Leste armed forces could only offer minor resistance in the face of external attack regardless of increased military spending. The SDP declared that the East Timorese state would support its national security agenda by ensuring that the F-FDTL can both defend the nation and contribute to tackling "threats to regional and global peace and stability", reflecting a perception that national security is a "vital investment" in Timor-Leste's future (Rice & Patrick, 2008).

6. CONCLUSION

Since becoming a sovereign state, Timor-Leste has sought to exert an independent and autonomous foreign policy, including establishing a defence policy that views the key national interest as protecting Timor-Leste's sovereignty and territory from external threats. The internal security challenges are the dominant threats to Timor-Leste's "real" independence, such as political instability, economic underdevelopment, and the fragility of policing and military institutions that have resulted in international intervention. Timor-Leste's history demonstrates that international intervention is more likely to occur due to internal disorder prompted by social, economic, and political challenges. It is clear that "[a] strengthening of legitimacy is what is needed to enable Timor-Leste to facilitate 'development' in various substantive areas. Such development in the context of legitimacy would provide a basis for achieving 'security on a long-term basis." (Seabra, 2014). Successive East Timorese governments have sought to make it "as difficult as possible for an external power … to invade" by establishing a standing army (Jolliffe, 2008). While both the FRETILIN and AMP coalition governments emphasize these external threats, consolidating military capacity has been a prominent feature of East Timor's foreign policy agenda since 2005. The military build-ups in the country indicate East Timor's desire to ensure conventional sovereignty by enhancing its capacities to guarantee its sovereignty, reflecting ideational motivations and a sustained distrust of foreign actors. At present, military threats against East Timor from foreign sources are the least probable. While East Timor was denied independence for twenty-four years, the international community was crucial in permitting and supporting its legal and domestic sovereignty through recognition of its sovereign rights and the international state-building and peacekeeping missions./.

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THÁCH THỨC AN NINH ĐỐI VỚI ĐÔNG TIMOR

LÊ CÔNG PHÁT, VŨ MINH DƯƠNG

Tóm tắt: Đông Timor chính thức trở thành quốc gia độc lập năm 2002 sau một chặng đường dài đấu tranh từ năm 1975. Kể từ đó đến nay, quốc gia Đông Timor đã đạt được những thành quả bước đầu trong xây dựng đất nước. Tuy nhiên, Đông Timor vẫn đứng trước rất nhiều thách thức trong đó có vấn đề an ninh quốc gia cả trong và ngoài. Ở trong nước, vấn đề thách thức đặt ra là làm sao giải quyết sự cạnh tranh giữa các phe phái, phong trào chính trị khác nhau để duy trì ổn định và xây dựng đất nước. Về đối ngoại làm thế nào để xây dựng lại mối quan hệ với các nước như Indonesia và Austrialia. Trước tình hình đó, chính quyền Đông Timor đã có những bước đi quan trọng để giải quyết những thách thức an ninh này. Bài báo trình bày những thách thức an ninh Đông Timor phải đối mặt và cách thức nước này nhìn nhận và xử lý những vấn đề này.

Từ khóa: *an ninh, thách thức, mối đe doạ, Đông Timor*

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U.S - CHINA STRATEGIC RIVALRY IN SEVERAL MAJOR DOMAINS UNDER THE TRUMP ADMINISTRATION

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ABSTRACT

The US-China relationship is one of the focal points of the world and is of great significance in shaping the landscape of international relations in the 21st century. After becoming the General Secretary of the Communist Party of China in 2012, Xi Jinping came up with the "Chinese Dream" strategy to increase China's power and position on a global scale. Meanwhile, the US has also continuously promoted the Asia pivot strategy to play an active role and maintain the U.S constant presence in the multinational institutions of the region since President Barack Obama. In general, the relationship between these 2 countries is the balance of both cooperation and competition in restraining efforts to keep stability. However, China's assertiveness then has caused this relationship to turn increasingly to fiercely confrontation and competition in all key domains. Especially, in recent years under President Donald Trump's tenure, the US-China rivalry seems to have peaked in the context of a volatile world.

Keywords: *US-China, strategic competition, interests, restrain, strengthen*

1. INTRODUCTION

The US-China relationship is generally a mixture of cooperation and competition depending on each historical period, but now the competition is taking the mainstream. Indeed, after the terrorist incident occurred in New York on September 11, 2001, China expressed its support for Washington's war on terror. In response to this, the US also supported China to join the WTO in the same year and establish a new order in China's export-oriented economy. This is an important premise for China's rapid economic development.

However, this economic growth has enabled China to expand its influence regionally and globally; whereas threaten the US position and role. Moreover, China has risen faster than any other major power in modern history that led to the US facing a rising power for the first time and striking a complex balance of competition and co-operation with China itself (Campbell, 2016, p. 316). Under President B. Obama, Washington implemented the "Pivot to Asia" strategy – as known as the "Asia Rebalance" to restrain China. Therefore, from this period, strategic competition in US-China relations has been clearly shaped (Blackwill, 2017). More importantly, this confrontation has become more and more fierce under President Donald Trump and is specifically shown in a number of major domains such as politics, economics and security.

2. BACKGROUND

Rivalry between the United States and China has become a paradigm of international relations over the years. In general, the US-China strategic competition is in an unstable regional and international environment. Around the world, the emergence of the Islamic State, the fierce war in Syria, the Brexit issue, the escalating tensions in the East Sea/South China Sea disputes, DPRK's intensifying nuclear weapons testing, increasing tendency of nationalism and isolationism, the COVID-19 epidemic made the international situation more complicated and unpredictable. In addition, while protracted conflicts in the Middle East and Africa have not found a radical solution, many new hotspots are likely to flare up, including the Asia-Pacific region. Although peace, cooperation and development are still the key trends, but multilateralism, regional and global mechanisms still face many obstacles. Moreover, over the past decade, the Asia-Pacific landscape has been shaped by the relationship between the two great powers of the US and China. Along with that, the strategic friction, influential competition among countries in the region continues to be tense, even fierce confrontation in issues of close interests.

It can be seen that the US pivot to the Asia-Pacific since the end of 2011 is aimed at restraining China, thereby maintaining the US leading position in this region. To support the pivot strategy, the US has actively promoted multilateral forums without Chinese participation, engaged in maritime disputes in the East Sea/South China Sea and East China Sea, and deployed a defense system in ROK. However, despite still playing a leading role in the world, US power has been reduced due to its economic stagnation and the Obama administration's indecision. Furthermore, the US power was dispersed at the same time for many fronts to solve problems and to fight against opposing forces on a global scale, thereby creating an unfavorable international environment for the US. Domestically, Obama's administration lost the confidence of the people, leading to Democrats losing control of the bicameral parliament into the hands of the Republicans, so the US pivot strategy has not achieved the desired results (Lyon, 2015).

Responding to the US strategy, after taking power in 2012, Chinese President Xi Jinping abandoned Deng Xiaoping's strategy of "hiding our capacities and biding our time" (keep a low profile), promoting the "Chinese Dream" (China renaissance) to make China a global power. With assertive steps backed by abundant economic resources, taking advantage of the beneficial international context and US quagmire, China has significantly increased its global power by intensifying a role in some international institutions (IMF, G20 Summit), even leading (BRICS, AIIB), or investing and sponsoring very large capital projects on a global scale. In particular, the BRI has positioned China as the global geopolitical and geo-economics center, and this has forced the US to contend for leadership at least in the region, even globally (Deepak, 2014).

After Trump took office as President, the change in US-China relations caused the regional security environment to turn into a state like the former Cold War. With the power has changed fundamentally and the correlation with the US has also changed a lot, China has established and strengthened many major international mechanisms to counterbalance the mechanisms and frameworks that the US has built. While the scope of the strategic dispute between the two countries is throughout the Indo-Pacific region, the focus of both disputes is Asia. The US remarkable moves are to consolidate relations with key allies; promote cooperation with new partners; establish and expand alliances and multilateral strategic cooperation; and strengthen the military presence, and promote the expansion of joint exercise frameworks in the region. At the same period, China has made strong progress of challenging the US unique position of superpower, using "soft power" (economic and commercial interests) to gather forces and increase political and security ties to countries in the region. Moreover, through many strategies such as BRI, "the Asia Security Initiative", "Community of common destiny", China has changed the security environment, set up a security structure under the "flying geese" model, step by step pushed the US out and controlled the entire Indo-Pacific region (Đỗ Lê Chi, 2020, p. 25).

3. US-CHINA STRATEGIC RIVALRY UNDER THE TRUMP ADMINISTRATION

3.1. The political competition

When coming to power, President Donald Trump criticized his predecessors' policies toward China (The White House, 2020, p. 1), that makes the US now face an equal opponent after a long time maintaining a great distance from the rest of the world. For the US, China has risen not only to contribute to democracy, peace and commonwealth of the world, but also make the most of free trade to consolidate, increase its influence and compete for the position of the world's leader with the US, especially the "Made in China 2025" plan and "the Belt and Road Initiative" (Minh Trung, 2016). Therefore, the Donald Trump administration has implemented a tougher and more pragmatic diplomacy that focuses strongly on protecting the US interests from Beijing. The American political system currently considers China as a strategic rivalry and attempts to limit the benefits that China can get from the liberal international order (Fulton, 2018, p. 175). These views are mentioned in important US documents such as the National Security Strategy, the National Defense Strategy or the Indo-Pacific Strategy Report. Most Republicans and Democrats are not sympathetic towards China. According to the statistics of Pew Research Center, up to 70% of Republicans and 59% of Democrats consider China's rise in economic and military power to threaten the US (Silver, Devlin & Huang, 2019).

On the Chinese side, Beijing advocates constructing a "new type of great power relations" with the US. President Xi Jinping, in his opening address to 19th National Congress of the Chinese Communist Party in October 2017, also stated that China's international profile had been raised to an unprecedented level. Besides, China must take advantage of the "period of opportunity" that is still opened to its ambitions to assert itself and be recognized as a great power (Niquet, 2018, p. 79). China, based on its economic strength, seeks to bring many countries into its orbit of influence through economic aids. It also actively invested in development projects and programs in many countries around the world via bilateral cooperation agreements and linkage mechanisms and initiatives such as the Regional Comprehensive Economic Partnership and the Asian Infrastructure Investment Bank. Furthermore, China also initiated and promoted the Belt and Road Initiative to expand its sphere of influence and comprehensively compete both on land and at sea with the US. In that way, Beijing induced countries, even including the US allies and partners (such as Japan, South Korea, Thailand, India, Australia, the Philippines, etc.) to join these initiatives and strategies.

After initially controlling the COVID-19 epidemic, China has stepped up health diplomacy and anti-epidemic diplomacy, providing "international public goods", supporting other countries such as aiding the medical masks, breathing apparatuses for countries in Southeast Asian and South Asia, some European countries as well. Besides, China is also willing to share experiences of COVID-19 epidemic prevention and control with other countries to counter the US accusation that the origin of the epidemic was China. In addition, China also makes efforts to use domestic and foreign media to promote its world leading position in the fight against COVID-19 and reduce the role of the US.

3.2. The economic competition

Since the presidential election, Donald Trump has vowed to fully tackle the US trade deficit and criticized his predecessors for making this issue uncontrollable. China, which the US has the biggest trade deficit, has been considered by President Donald Trump as taking advantage of its trade relationship with the US to engage in unfair trade practices. This is considered unacceptable to a superpower like the US. It is noteworthy that the US trade deficit with China has continuously increased since Beijing joined the WTO.

In 2017, the US trade deficit increased over 4.5 times, from $83 billion in 2001 up to $375 billion in 2017, reached an average of $18.3 billion per year (equivalent to 9.9%). This has led to a loss of 3.4 million US jobs (Scott & Mokhiber, 2018). In 2018, the US trade deficit (including trade in goods and services) amounted to $621 billion, or 3% of GDP, up 12.5% from 2017, which is the highest level within 10 years from 2008 (Bryan, 2019). If only goods trade, the US trade deficit with the rest of the world in 2018 was $891.3 billion, of which, the trade deficit of the US with China is $419.2 billion, accounting for 50% of total US trade deficit with the world. Due to the different stance in resolving the trade deficit between the US and China, the bilateral relationship was strongly tense and was the trigger of the US-China trade war. The US-China trade conflict officially broke out from July 2018 when the US tax measures on China imported products came into effect to prevent Chinese unfair and non-transparent commercial practices. The year 2019 is said to be the culmination of the US-China trade war when Washington has reduced tariffs with billions of dollars of Chinese goods. The merchandise trade deficit with China fell 17.6% to $345.6 billion. By early 2020, the US has imposed a high tax of $550 billion on Chinese goods, nearly three times higher than the $185 billion that the China responded (Wong & Koty, 2020).

Notably, the US focuses on imposing strong tariffs on Chinese high-tech products, which is the main field causing the US trade deficit with China. Technology has been one of the major pillars of the Chinese economy during the first two decades of the 21st century. But now the country also faces a big challenge, which is heavily dependent on imports of semiconductor from abroad. Although China has invested heavily in the development of the domestic semiconductor industry, there are still many limitations in processing speed as well as graphics. Therefore, importing semiconductor from abroad is unavoidable (Woetzel, et al., 2019, p.90). It has outlined a plan to increase the percentage of domestically produced semiconductor to meet the production demand of high-tech products up to 70% by 2025, however, China's semiconductor manufacturing industry only meets about 16% of production demand by 2019 (Naderi, 2019).

In addition, China also applies measures to retaliate against US tariffs. After the US announced the list of tax imposition, China strongly protested and imposed back tax on goods imported from the US at the same time. However, China's tariff measures are mostly a response to the US acts of escalating tensions. Besides, this country also applies other non-trade measures to minimize the negative impact of the US tax imposition. *Firstly*, China uses the exchange rate policy. With the active devaluation of the yuan, the price of Chinese goods on the world market is more competitive and promotes export activities of Chinese domestic enterprises. Simultaneous, as one of the biggest creditors of the US, China also uses a threat to sell off US government bonds that China is holding to push up US long-term lending rates, negatively affecting the US government (Lê Quốc Phương, 2018). *Secondly*, China uses a judicial measure to sue the US through WTO. After the US imposed tax of 25% on steel and 10% on aluminum imported from most countries around the world from March 23, 2018, including China, Beijing has complained to the WTO on April 5, 2018 accusing the US of violating the principle of non-discrimination, violating the WTO's tariff reduction commitments and taking advantage of protectionism under the guise of national security (Baschuk, 2019). *Thirdly*, China released its "unreliable entity list" in retaliation against the US "entity list"; used the media to incite a boycott of the US goods and the US enterprises operating in China. *Fourthly*, China uses administrative measures to cause difficulties for US companies in China such as: prolonging the licensing process or revoking business licenses, import and export licenses of US enterprises, applying discriminatory administrative regulations aimed at US businesses.

3.3. The security competition

Although the competition in the security field is not a new issue in the US-China relationship, the competitive nature in the overall bilateral relationship are changing significantly. The US – China security conflicts have existed for many years, such as the Taiwan issue, the relationship between the US and its allies, China's military modernization, the proliferation of nuclear weapons or South China Sea/East Sea issue. In the past, the US and China may seek solutions to manage the differences in security interests, but the current situation has changed. These differences are becoming more acute. The new emerging security concerns and the rapid changes in strategic calculations has complicated US-China security relations.

In recent years, both the US and China have increased investment in the military to gain advantage in strategic competition. The National Defense Authorization Act in 2019, which President Donald Trump publicly signed on August 13, 2018, defines China as a main strategic rival of the US military in the future (115th Congress Public Law 232, 2018, p.426). The US increasingly invested and changed its military's organizational structure to maintain its superiority and deter China. Specifically, the US investment budget for military operations has steadily increased over the years, which reached $618.7 billion in 2017, $700 billion in 2018, and $716 billion in 2019, including the costs of overseas operations and nuclear weapons program (Duy Sơn, 2018a). In 2020, the US defense budget continuously increased by $738 billion, which was equivalent to the total military expenditure of the countries in the world (Teller Report, 2019). In addition, the US has restructured and changed the functions of some forces in the direction of seeing China as a primary combat target. On May 30, 2018, the United States Pacific Command (USPACOM) was renamed the United States Indo-Pacific Command (USINDOPACOM) to ensure the connectivity between the Indian and Pacific Oceans. Moreover, the Commandant of the United States Marine Corps David Berger announced in March 2020 that he would shift the priority of the anti-terrorism mission to preventing China from occupying a number of islands in the East Sea/South China Sea and the East China Sea (Newsham, 2020).

Meanwhile, China's military expenditure has also steadily increased in recent years. It mainly aimed at strengthening Chinese Air Force, Naval Force, and Cyberwarfare capabilities – which are the most likely to conflict in the future. Furthermore, China announced on March 5, 2018 that its defense budget in 2018 reached $174.5 billion, up 8.1% - the highest increase in three years since 2016 (Duy Sơn, 2018b). That showed the Beijing's ambition does not only stop at defense. China also focuses on developing their air force and navy, gradually shifting from the overwhelming "near seas" to the more challenging "far seas", developing defense technology with modern equipment like the 3rd generation main battle tanks, the 4th generation fighter jets, the nuclear submarines and the aircraft carrier Liaoning.

However, it can be seen that the Donald Trump administration no longer remains neutral and stands apart from disputes in the East Sea/ South China Sea as it did during President Barack Obama's tenure. Specifically, not only did the US strengthen the relations with its traditional allies and other regional countries in order to restrain China but also cooperated with its partners outside the region (such as Japan, Australia, India, Great Britain, France, etc.). This security cooperation is to increase the intensity and level of patrol activities within the 12-nautical mile sea area of islands and rocks which Beijing illegally occupied and accreted in the East Sea/South China Sea. Besides, the US enlisted regional security organizations, structures and forums (like ASEAN, ADMM +, ARF, etc.) to make tough statements about China's actions. Moreover, at the Shangri-La Dialogue held in Singapore on June 2, 2018, the US Secretary of Defense James Mattis has accused China of intimidation and coercion because of its military build-up and deployment of high-end weapons in the disputed waters of South China Sea (Chandra, 2018). In addition, the Trump administration actively exploited the Taiwan issue – which related to the China's "core interests" – as a tool to counter and contain China. Indeed, President Donald Trump has taken actions to support and strengthen relations with Taiwan such as selling weapons packages worth $1.4 billion to Taiwan, signing the Taiwan Travel Act which allows the senior officials of the US and Taiwan to come back and forth. Therefore, China reacted harshly in order to warn and threaten the US. Li Kexin, the minister at the Chinese Embassy in Washington, said in 2017: "The day that a U.S. Navy vessel arrives in Kaohsiung is the day that our People's Liberation Army unites Taiwan with military force" (Pickrell, 2018).

While the US consolidates the relations with its allies and partners in the region, China also strengthens mutual interests with other countries, builds new forms of security cooperation through the strategic partnerships. At present China has established about 70 "strategy partnerships" or "cooperation partnerships" in different forms, including with ASEAN, South Korea, Cambodia, Thailand, and even including with many American allies, such as Britain, France, Germany and Italy. Through these partnerships, China is trying to undermine the US allies and partners network in the Asia-Pacific region. Not only that, China also proposes and promotes to build the "Community of Shared Destiny for Humanity" (Xinhua, 2020). All of these are aimed at minimizing and neutralizing the security and economic networks created by the US to encircle and contain China.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND PROSPECTS

During the second half of Donald Trump's first term, the US continuously launched anti-Beijing moves in all areas, from economics and technology to national security. Washington, for example, threatened to delist Chinese companies in the US market, banned the two most popular Chinese apps WeChat and TikTok, punished Chief Executive of Hong Kong Carrie Lam and shut down Chinese consulate in Houston. Of course, some of these moves are essentially in response to Beijing pre-existing actions such as passing a wide-ranging new security law for Hong Kong or forcing the US companies to transfer technology when doing business in China (Bradsher, 2020). Besides, the US social networks and apps are also not allowed to operate freely on Chinese territory. Furthermore, Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs Wang Yi also asked the US to stop interfering in China's internal affairs, and to stop limiting China's legitimate rights and interests.

On the other hand, the tough stance towards Beijing increasingly receives broader support from the Democrats themselves. The most obvious example is the recent approval of the US Senate to pass a bill that requires Chinese companies to comply with US audit regulations or to be delisted on the US exchange. Over the past decades, it can be seen that the two super powers overcome fundamental differences in the political system, not only for peaceful coexistence but also as a fulcrum for the global economy. Both of them also cooperate together on many important issues, including climate change prevention, and disease prevention and control. But that era seems to be over. Now both major opposition parties in the US agree that Washington should take a tougher policy toward Beijing.

To sum up, US-China conflicts are tending to return, from the trade war, the ideological confrontation to the disagreement over the governance model. The association which the US and China established long time ago has ceased. Because Beijing's reform and opening up trend, which shifted from prosperity and development in the current order to create a new one, has changed. In addition, China's policies in the East Sea/South China Sea, East China Sea and Taiwan have also made relations with the US more difficult. The US moves towards China in the past time have taken place in a rushed, methodical and systematic manner. This could be the prelude to the US process of reorienting all of its policy positions towards China and reshaping all US relations with China.

Until the US presidential election in November, US-China tensions will last longer, even escalate to dangerous levels if the two sides do not attempt to take cooling measures. On the international level, the "free fall" in US-China relations is the most worrying issue for the rest of the world - which depends heavily on the stability between these two super powers.

In the current context, Chinese leaders will likely choose to restrain by themselves and wait for the US presidential election to end. China maybe hope that if candidate Joe Biden is elected, the new government will be friendlier to Beijing because Biden is nonetheless a traditional politician and used to hold many leadership positions in the US government apparatus. However, there is still the possibility of the new presidential administration continuing to take steps of escalating tensions, such as expelling diplomatic staff or ordering the Chinese embassy to be closed. In other words, both presidential candidates are competing to become who will fight China more fiercely than the other.

Besides, it is difficult to predict, Mr. Trump will moderate or explode more drastically once he is cornered. It is entirely possible that he completely severed ties with Beijing or even sparked a military conflict before the November election. Consequently, at least for the foreseeable future, it can be said that if President Trump is tough while Beijing is determined not to give in or submit to the pressure from Washington, the US-China relationship is unlikely to return to a quiet period as like before Trump took office./.

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CẠNH TRANH CHIẾN LƯỢC MỸ - TRUNG TRÊN MỘT SỐ LĨNH VỰC CHÍNH DƯỚI THỜI CHÍNH QUYỀN TỔNG THỐNG TRUMP

TRẦN NGỌC HƯNG, NGÔ THỊ ANH THƠ

Tóm tắt: Quan hệ Mỹ-Trung là một trong những tâm điểm của cả thế giới và có ý nghĩa rất lớn trong việc định hình cục diện quan hệ quốc tế thế kỷ XXI. Năm 2012 sau khi trở thành Tổng Bí thư của Đảng Cộng sản Trung Quốc, Tập Cận Bình đã đề ra chiến lược "Giấc mơ Trung Hoa" nhằm tăng cường quyền lực và nâng cao vị thế của Trung Quốc trên phạm vi toàn cầu. Trong khi đó, từ thời Tổng thống Barack Obama, Mỹ cũng không ngừng thúc đẩy chiến lược "Xoay trục sang Châu Á" nhằm đóng một vai trò tích cực và duy trì sự hiện diện thường xuyên của Mỹ trong các tổ chức đa quốc gia của khu vực. Về tổng thể, quan hệ hai nước là sự cân bằng vừa hợp tác vừa cạnh tranh trong nỗ lực kiềm chế để giữ ổn định. Tuy nhiên, sự quyết đoán của Trung Quốc đã khiến quan hệ giữa 2 cường quốc này ngày càng có xu hướng chuyển sang đối đầu và cạnh tranh quyết liệt trên tất cả các lĩnh vực trọng yếu. Đặc biệt trong những năm gần đây, dưới nhiệm kỳ của Tổng thống Donald Trump, sự cạnh tranh này dường như đã đạt đến đỉnh cao trong bối cảnh thế giới có nhiều bất ổn.

Từ khóa: *Mỹ - Trung, cạnh tranh chiến lược, lợi ích, kiềm chế, tăng cường*

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鲁迅、巴金、老舍文学作品中人物命名理据

The foundations of naming characters in literary works by Lu Xun, Ba Jin, Lao She

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ABSTRACT

Characters play a key role in a literary work. Each character has a specific name and they represent different walks of life. Names of characters in literary works are different from those of people in everyday life. Character names may not consist fully of a family name and a first name, and characters are unlikely to be given the same name in a literary work. Choosing names for characters may have many foundations, and it can express the author's intention of conveying ideas and content in a literary work. In the article, some research methods and techniques such as statistics, description, and analysis, are employed to clarify the foundations of giving names to characters in some literary works by renowned Chinese writers, namely Lu Xun, Ba Jin, Lao She.

Keywords: *Lu Xun, Ba Jin, Lao She, characters, the foundation of naming characters*

一、引言

中国具有光辉灿烂的文学宝库，每个作品都拥有一定数量的人物，而且每个人物从外表到内心世界、动作行为等都不一样，而且都能代表着社会上的某一个阶层并留在读者心中不同的印象。人物作为文学作品的骨干成分。无论篇幅大小，一个作品中的每个人物都享有一个名称，绝不会出现过重名现象。文学作品中的人物名称与实际生活上的人的名称有所不同，实际生活上的人一般都有姓有名，而且重名现象日益加多。但是文学作品中的人物名称一般都是用以指称一个人物的代名词，不一定都要有足够的姓与名的组成因素。在创作过程中，作家们都要付出极大的精力去塑造人物形象，而且名称则是一个人物形象必不可少的组成部分。有时候只要看名称，读者就可以初步形容出人物的某些方面的特点。人物的命名理据丰富多样，体现出作者在传递作品思想内容上的用意。

然而，到目前为止，在我们越南，关于文学作品中的人物名特点研究尚未得到应有的重视。笔者在自己2018年答辩成功的题为《鲁迅、巴金、老舍文学作品中人物命名特点研究——与南高、阮公欢、吴必素文学作品中人物命名对比》博士学位论文及几篇相关的文章基础上，进一步研究，并采取统计法、描写法和分析法对鲁迅、巴金、老舍三位中国著名作家文学作品中的人物进行命名理据考察与分析，阐明其特点。

二、相关理论依据

（一）命名概说

1. 命名的定义

按照《现代汉语规范词典》的解释，命名是动词，指的是“给与名称” （李葆嘉、唐志超，2001，第778页）。马鸣春经研究有关命名及命名学多年指出：“名命作为名词或名词

性短语，命名是世界上千事万物的指称符号，即名称或名字。作为动词，命名指人或事物名称的形成过程。”（马鸣春，1999，第1页）。由此可见，命名既是动词又是名词。作为指称的单位，命名可能是名词，也可能是名词性短语。这一点对我们所选的文学作品中的人物命名研究有很大的启发。

根据马鸣春在《命名学导论》一书中所提出的命名相关理论，我们进一步作出概括化和总结，提炼成命名属性和命名所受制约及影响因素的相关问题作为此项研究的一个重要理论依据。

2. 命名的属性

命名具有以下属性：（1）指称属性。作为事物的指称符号，命名具有指代性、区别性、描写性等三个特点。因此，命名既与所指对象有一定的联系，又有一定的区别。就凭借这种联系使人们只要提到这个命名，就会联想到对象的所有特点。（2）社会属性。这是指针对命名与社会的关系而言。这一特性呈现在命名的产生、使用及演变的整个过程。命名的社会属性体现在可交际性、时空性两个特点上。（3）结构属性。命名的实体本质，决定了它具有确定的结构属性。命名与其他实体不一样，它是一种语言实体。其结构属性体现在语音属性、语法属性、语义属性和逻辑属性等四个方面。（4）文化属性。命名是人类文化的“发祥地”和“结晶体”。其形成与发展都深受文化因素的影响和制约。命名的文化属性体现在民族与地域色彩的差异性、科学与艺术化程度的差异性两个方面。（据马鸣春，1999，第2至第7页）。

3. 命名所受的制约及影响因素

命名会受到众多因素的影响，可归纳为主观因素和客观因素两方面。主观因素包括民族思维的方式和民族心理特点。中国是个农业大国，又经历过了2300多年的封建社会，民族心理深受封建礼教的影响，表现在等级心理、奋发向上心理、自我约束心理、认同心理、从众心理、禁忌心理、追求福寿昌盛心理、重视宗族家庭心理、审美追求心理等。

从客观因素上看，命名往往会受到众多因素的影响，具体为命名对象因素、使用者特点及要求因素、经济及自然因素、民俗习惯因素、民族特点因素、地域因素、时代因素、社会群体因素和宗教因素、科技发展因素、外来民族文化因素、历史事件及神话传说因素、民族语言因素等。可见，不同国家、不同民族的文学作品中的人物命名会有不同的表现。

（二）文学作品中的人物概念

按照《现代汉语规范词典》的解释，文学是 “以语言文字为手段，形象地反映客观现实的一种艺术，包括小说、诗歌、散文等”。（李葆嘉、唐志超，2001，第1180页） 而人物是“文艺作品中描绘的人的形象”。（李葆嘉、唐志超，2001，第953页）。

关于文学作品中的人物，具有文学专家水平的人给予的解释与一般的词典的解释相比，更为详细而又富有专业意义。《文学词典 – 新版》解释如下：“Nhân vật văn học là một đơn vị nghệ thuật, nó mang tính ước lệ, không thể bị đồng nhất với con người có thật, ngay cả khi tác giả xây dựng nhân vật với những nét rất gần với nguyên mẫu có thật. Nhân vật văn học là sự thể hiện quan điểm nghệ thuật của nhà văn về con người, nó có thể được xây dựng chỉ dựa trên cơ sở quan niệm ấy. Ý nghĩa của nhân vật văn học chỉ có được trong hệ thống một tác phẩm cụ thể”（文学作品的人物是一个艺术单位，它带有规约性，不会与实际生活的具体人相等同。即使是作家所塑造的人物特别接近于实际生活的原型人也如此。文学作品的人物是作家对人的艺术观念的体现，可能会在这一观念的基础上塑造而成。文学作品的人物意义只能在具体的作品人物系统中体现出来（Đỗ Đức Hiểu: 杜德晓, 2004，第1254至1255页）。

在中国现代文学史上，可以说鲁迅、巴金、老舍是三位最著名的作家。他们作品中的人物世界特别丰富，人物命名手法也是别具一格的。

三、 鲁迅、巴金、老舍文学作品中的人物命名理据特点

(一)对鲁迅、巴金、老舍作品人物命名理据的考察及结果

为了获得可靠的实际依据，我们对鲁迅、巴金、老舍等中国著名作家的115个作品中的682个人物名称进行考察。考察项目共分以下20个不同的命名理据：（1）姓，（2）名，（3）姓名，（4）数字，（5）带有小/大/老之名，（6）家族关系，（7）带有职业/地位/学位之名，（8）外表的特殊，（9）性格的特殊，（10）拉丁字母，（11）动物名，（12）植物名，（13）天干地支，（14）五行，（15）三纲五常、封建社会美德，（16）印欧外来语的名字，（17）对未来生活的希望，（18）性别，（19）历史、神话人物，（20）半懂不懂的名字。由此可见，鲁迅、巴金、老舍作品中的人物命名理据是丰富多样的。考察结果具体如下：

（1）以姓为人物名的共有46/682，占6.74% 。如鲁迅《药》中的华老栓、巴金《第四病房》中的苏女士；（2）以人名为人物名的共有49/682，占7.18% 。如巴金《家》中的觉慧、觉民、等；（3）以姓名为人物名的共有224/682，占 32.84%。如鲁迅《阿Q正传》的赵司晨、《离婚》中的汪得贵等；巴金《雾》中的张若兰；老舍《茶馆》中的王淑芬、康大力、《赵子曰》中的赵子曰、王灵石、莫大年等；（4）带有数字之名共有60/682，占8.79%。如老舍《茶馆》中的常四爷、鲁迅《离婚》中的庄木三、八三、七大人等；（5）带有小/大/老之名的共有41/682，占6.01%。如鲁迅《药》中的小栓、老栓；《社戏》中的小叫天等；（6）以家族关系为命名理据的共有88/682，占 12.90%。如《药》中的康大叔等；（7）带有职业/地位/学位之名的共有34/682，占4.98%。如鲁迅《阿Q正传》中的秀才；《药》中的管牢阿义等；（8）以外表的特殊性为名的共有18/682，占2.63%。如鲁迅《药》中的驼背五少爷、红眼睛阿义、《长明灯》中的癞头疮、巴金《砂丁》中的秃头和尚等；（9）以性格的特殊性为人物名字的共有10/682，占1.46%。如 《长明灯》中的疯子；（10）带有拉丁字母的名字共有2/682，占0.29%。这类仅出现在鲁迅作品中，如《阿Q正传》中的阿Q、小D等；（11）以动物名为名的共有15/682，占2.19%。如老舍《骆驼祥子》中的骆驼祥子、虎妞、巴金《家》中的鸣凤等；（12）以植物之名为名的共有5/682，占0.73%。如巴金《家》中的梅小姐、老舍《鼓书艺人》中的秀莲等；（13）带有干支的名字共有8/682，占1.17%。这类仅出现在鲁迅和老舍作品中，如老舍《大悲寺外》中的丁庚、《五九》中的张丙、鲁迅《奔月》中的女辛、女乙、女庚等；（14）带有五行的名字共有2/682，占0.29%。这类仅出现在鲁迅作品中，如《故乡 》中的水生；（15）带有三纲五常封建美德的名字，共有9/682，占 1.31%。如巴金《家》、《春》、《秋》中的冯乐山、《死去的太阳》中的吴养清、王学礼、老舍《四世同堂》中的小顺儿、《柳树井》中的高德旺、《眼镜》中的宋修身等；（16）印欧外来语的名字共有5/682，占0.73%。这类仅出现在鲁迅和巴金作品中，如鲁迅《鸭的喜剧》中的爱罗先珂、巴金《复仇》中的勒沙洛斯、《抹布》中的阿而巴尼亚；（17）以对未来生活的希望为命名理据的名字，共有54/682，占7.91%。如鲁迅《狂人日记》中的赵贵翁、巴金《砂丁》中的吴洪发、《电》中的李佩珠、老舍《茶馆》中的王利发等；（18）以性别为命名理据的共有4/682，占0.58%。这类仅出现在鲁迅和老舍作品中，如鲁迅《奔月》里的女辛；(19) 以历史、神话人物为命名理据的名字，共有7/682，占1.02%。这类仅出现在鲁迅和巴金作品中，如鲁迅《明天》中的何小仙；(20)半懂不懂的名字仅为1/682, 占0.14%，那就是鲁迅《孔乙己》中的孔乙己。

考察结果列在下表：

鲁迅、巴金、老舍的作品人物命名理据考察结果列表

序	考察内容	鲁迅	巴金	老舍	合计
1	以姓为命名理据	16 10.32%	12 8.33%	18 4.69%	46 6.74%
2	以名为命名理据	10 6.45%	17 11.80%	22 5.74%	49 7.18%
3	以姓名为命名理据	10 6.45%	53 36.80%	161 42.03%	224 32.84%

4	带有数字之名	29 18.70%	3 2.08%	28 7.31%	60 8.79%
5	带有小/大/老之名	7 4.51%	3 2.08%	31 8.09%	41 6.01%
6	以家族关系为命名理据	20 12.90%	16 11.11%	52 13.57%	88 12.90%
7	带有职业、地位、学位之名	7 4.51%	4 2.77%	23 6.00%	34 4.98%
8	外表的特殊性	15 9.67%	2 1.38%	1 0.26%	18 2.63%
9	性格的特殊性	4 2.58%	2 1.38%	4 1.04%	10 1.46%
10	带有拉丁字母的名字	2 1.29%	0	0	2 0.29%
11	以动物名为名	4 2.58%	2 1.38%	9 2.34%	15 2.19%
12	以植物之名为名	2 1.29%	2 1.38%	1 0.26%	5 0.73%
13	带有干支的名字	3 1.93%	0	5 1.30%	8 1.17%
14	带有五行的名字	2 1.29%	0	0	2 0.29%
15	三纲五常封建美德的名字	1 0.64%	6 4.16%	2 0.52%	9 1.31%
16	印欧外来语的名字	1 0.64%	4 2.77%	0	5 0.73%
17	以对未来生活的希望为命名	12 7.74%	16 11.11%	26 6.78%	54 7.91%
18	以性别为命名理据	3 1.93%	0	1 0.26%	4 0.58%
19	以历史、神话人物为命名	5 3.22%	2 1.38%	0	7 1.02%
20	以半懂不懂的词语为名	1 0.64%	0	0	1 0.14%
	合计	155	144	383	682

（二）鲁迅、巴金、老舍的文学作品人物命名理据及特点

根据以上考察结果，我们可以看到鲁迅作品中人物命名理据最多，共有20个，而老舍作品中的人物命名理据为16个，巴金的为15个。相比之下，鲁迅作品中的人物世界最为丰富，其覆盖面及人物性格表现也更为多样。

从整体上看，这三位作家的人物以姓名为命名理据所占比例最大，共有32.84%。其中，老舍与巴金作品中以姓名为命名理据的人物所占比例超越过鲁迅作品的人物。此外，还出现较多的以姓或名作为构成人物名称组合之成分的现象。其次是以家族关系为命名理据，共有12.90%。其余所占比例较少，最少的是无意思的名字仅为0.14%，而带有拉丁字母和五行单位的名字，每一类仅为0.29%。可见，在给人物命名时，各位作家特别注重人物的姓名及其家庭关系。这点完全符合于中国人社会交往中有关人名的传统文化习俗。

作品中的人物名字与社会上行政关系所用的名字有所不同。这里有几种情况：或者以姓为人物名，但是一般没有姓单独成为其名的现象，而要与亲属称谓相结合，比如，鲁迅《药》中的康大叔，《阿Q正传》中的赵太爷等；或者与"老"、"小"相结合，比如，老舍《离婚》中的"老李"、鲁迅《高老夫子》中的"老钵"等；或者与其他成分相结合成为人物之名，如："丁举人"、"赵白眼"等；或者用名，比如鲁迅《故乡》中的闰土、水生。然而一般情况也像以姓为人物名一样，要与其他某个成分相结合，如鲁迅《祝福》中的"阿毛"、《社戏》中的"小叫天"、"老六一"、《在酒楼上》中的"阿顺"、"阿昭"等；或者用全名，如老舍《二马》中的"李子荣"、《赵子曰》中的"赵子曰"、"李景纯"等。

从语义上看，有的以动物名为名，比如，老舍《骆驼祥子》中的"虎妞"、巴金《家》中的"鸣凤"等；有的以植物名为名，比如鲁迅《社戏》中的桂生、巴金《家》中的"梅表姐"等；有的以外貌和性格特征为名，比如鲁迅《药》中的"驼背五少爷"、"花白胡子"、《长明灯》中的三角脸、方头等；有的名字带有表示家中出生顺序的数字，如鲁迅《祝福》中的鲁四爷、《药》中的夏四奶；有的是以姓名或姓或名加职业或社会地位或学位为名的，比如"丁举人"、"赵秀才"等；也有的以天干地支之名为名，比如鲁迅《奔月》中的女辛、女乙、女庚等。以五行为名的，比如，鲁迅《故乡》中的"闰土"、"

水生”等。每一类所占比例不相同。这点反映了汉民族对姓名的文化特征。其余命名理据都能够反映人物身上所受的民族传统及时代因素的影响。可以说，作品中人物的名称则是民族文化及社会时代变迁的一面镜子。

鲁迅、巴金、老舍等作家的作品中的人物每个都有自己的身份、性别、外貌、处境、性格特征以及社会上人们眼中的特别形象。所有这一切都在一定的程度上反映在人物名字上面。从中，读者可以看到作品中人类社会的缩影以及在特定的社会中，人们的思想观念和社会潮流。从而体会到人物名字及其命运的关系。这就是文学欣赏尤其是人物形象分析的一个重要因素。

据考察结果，人物名的命名理据多达20，然而，这些命名理据大多都是以有两个以上的因素组合而成人物名的组合。这些因素按照一定顺序组成名词性短语，作为特指作品中人物的符号。因此，研究人物名的命名理据就要探讨其组合方式。在此，我们将其分为单一理据人物名和复合理据人物名两类。从语法结构上看复合理据人物名可见，有的是同位关系的，如巴金《家》、《春》、《秋》中的三老爷克明、四老爷克安、五老爷克定等。其中，三老爷就是克明，四老爷就是克安，五老爷就是克定。有的是定中关系的，如巴金《砂丁》中的秃头和尚、老舍《茶馆》中的常四爷等。其中，“和尚”和“四爷”是中心语而“秃头”和“常”是定语，在“四爷”中，“爷”又是中心语，“四”是定语。有的姓名之间的成分构成主谓式结构。比如，巴金《灭亡》中的“张为群”。“张为群”从三个构成因素中可以不难看到，“张”是主语，“为群”是谓语，而“为”可当作动词，“群”可当作宾语。再如老舍《茶馆》中的“秦仲义”、巴金《电》中的李佩珠、《雨》中的周如水等。有的是并列式名字，例如老舍《大悲寺外》中的丁庚。“丁庚”中的“丁”和“庚”都是十干中的两干，两者是并列关系，构成作品中的一个名字。有的是述宾或述补结构的名字，例如巴金《家》中的觉新、觉民、觉慧、觉群、觉英、觉世等。也有的是状中结构，例如巴金《家》、《春》、《秋》中的高升。“高升”二字之间构成状中式结构的人物名字。由此可见，构成人物的名字有的是词，有的是词组，甚至有的是语句和句子。这些无论是词、词组还是小句都有一个共同的功能，那就是起到命名的作用。

在文学作品中，人物名比实际生活上的人名覆盖面更广，命名方式更为灵活，不仅限于姓名圈之内，而且还以其他因更多的素作为命名理据。其结构也是灵活多样的。我们可以进一步将其归纳为如下9个小类：（1）名字/配名+名，如巴金《家》中的鸣凤、觉民、觉新、觉慧等。（2）姓名全名，如巴金《灭亡》中的张为群、《雾》中的周如水、张若兰等。（3）阿/小+姓/名，如老舍《四世同堂》中的小顺儿、《热包子》里的小邱；鲁迅《祝福》中的阿毛、《在酒楼上》的阿昭等。（4）老+姓，如：鲁迅《高老夫子》中的老钵、老舍《离婚》中的老李等。（5）姓/名+亲属称谓，如鲁迅《药》中的康大叔、下四奶奶、老舍《骆驼祥子》中的高妈；《离婚》中的张大哥等。（6）姓+通称，如鲁迅《端午节》里的方太太；巴金《家》中的琴小姐、朱先生等。（7）别称/绰号，如鲁迅《孔乙己》中的孔乙己、《阿Q正传》中的阿Q等。（8）姓+数字+亲属称谓，如鲁迅《祝福》中的鲁四爷、老舍《茶馆》中的松二爷、常四爷等。（9）带有个人特征的复合名字，如鲁迅《药》中的驼背五少爷、花白胡子老爷、红眼睛阿义等。

实际上，中国人习惯称姓。除非对小孩子或长辈对晚辈或年轻人之间才会用名，而往往将“小”、“阿”等加在名字之前；将“老”、“小”加在姓之前。晚辈对长辈或者成年人平辈之间互相尊重还将亲属称谓或职衔、职业词、职称职务词或“先生”、“女士”等通称加在姓或姓名之后，成为称谓性符号将人与人之间区分开来。

无论作品规模多大，人物世界多复杂，人物数量多寡都没有发生过完全重复的名字。这就是文学作品中的人物命名的一大特点，也是作家在创作中的难点，以便求得作品中的每一个人物都能代表着社会上的一部分人，同时也是塑造典型人物的一个重要因素。人物名字在很多情况下都与称谓语，尤其是亲属称谓语相结合成为人名的组合，这一点就像社会上人们

进行交往时提到某个人的情况一样。马鸣春说过："在艺术作品中，人物本来是确定的，甲就是甲，乙就是乙。在面前的，就不在远处，远处的，也不在面前等等。但是，将人名跟称谓词配合运用，常常就可以使人物产生种种幻化；虚的可变实，实的可变虚；远又可以变近，近又可以变远；甲可以变成乙。"（马鸣春，1999，第54页）。

四、结语

鲁迅、巴金、老舍等中国著名作者家文学作品中的人物命名理据都十分丰富。根据作品所反映的社会生活空间之大小可以看到人物世界的规模。每个人物代表一个社会阶层，扮演着一个或更多的社会角色。他们之间有一定的社会关系，并以不同的名称区分开来。人物的名字就是作品中人物之间彼此区别的一种社会标记。中国社会特别看重等级。因此，人物名字也带有社会等级之义。文学作品中的人物命名并不是偶然的事，而是一种艺术手段，也是传达作品思想内容的符号之一。人物名称是作家给起的，用于作品中人物之间交流时所用的，所以在一个作品中绝对没有出现重名的现象。考察结果表明，人物名有时是全名，有时是姓或名，有时是绰号、外号，有时可以加上亲属称谓或者其他相关的构成因素，共有20个命名理据，而每位作家所运用的命名理据及方式有所不同。其中，鲁迅所用的理据最多。各种理解的运用有的是单一的，但是更多的是复合的，即一个人物的名称拥有两个或两个以上的因素构成并按照一定的结构去安排。五花八门的命名理据使文学作品中的人物名称也是丰富多样的。人物名称能够有助于人物世界的塑造，且在一定的程度上满足作品中关于人物信息传递的需要，体现作家的创作用意及才华。文学作品中的人物名称尤其是命名理据是值得深入钻研的语言与文化的有趣课题。

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CƠ SỞ ĐỊNH DANH NHÂN VẬT TRONG TÁC PHẨM VĂN HỌC CỦA LỖ TẤN, BA KIM, LÃO XÁ

PHẠM HỮU KHƯƠNG

Tóm tắt: Nhân vật là thành phần nòng cốt trong tác phẩm văn học. Mỗi nhân vật đều có một tên gọi và có thể đại diện cho một tầng lớp xã hội. Tên nhân vật trong tác phẩm văn học có những điểm khác với tên người trong đời sống thực tế. Nhìn chung, chúng đều là những từ chỉ riêng cho từng nhân vật, không nhất thiết phải có đầy đủ các nhân tố họ và tên hợp thành, cũng không có hiện tượng trùng tên. Cơ sở định danh nhân vật phong phú đa dạng, thể hiện dụng ý của tác giả trong việc truyền tải tư tưởng nội dung tác phẩm. Trong bài viết này, chúng tôi sử dụng phương pháp thống kê, miêu tả và phân tích, tiến hành khảo sát và phân tích, làm nổi rõ đặc điểm cơ sở định danh nhân vật trong tác phẩm của các nhà văn nổi tiếng của Trung Quốc như Lỗ Tấn, Ba Kim, Lão Xá.

Từ khóa: *Lỗ Tấn, Ba Kim, Lão Xá, nhân vật, cơ sở định danh*

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НЕКОТОРЫЕ ОШИБКИ В ПРОЦЕССЕ ИЗУЧЕНИЯ ПИСЬМЕННОГО ПЕРЕВОДА КУРСАНТОВ ФАКУЛЬТЕТА РУССКОГО ЯЗЫКА АКАДЕМИИ ВОЕННЫХ НАУК И МЕРЫ ИХ ПРЕОДОЛЕНИЯ

Learning and practicing translation made by the cadets of Russian at Military Science Academy: Common errors and some suggested solutions

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ABSTRACT

Translation is a difficult module in the undergraduate program at the Military Science Academy. During the learning process, cadets commit inevitable errors in handling different linguistic elements specific to Russian and Vietnamese. Therefore, the article identifies common errors in the process of learning and practicing translation made by the cadets of the Department of Russian Language, points out the causes and proposes solutions supported by various types of practice activities. The article also aims at presents some views on translation as well as translation evaluation criteria as a basis for the identification of the errors. The article is of great practical value for both teachers and learners, contributing to improving the quality of teaching and learning translation at the Department of Russian Language, Military Science Academy.

Keywords: *error, translation definition, translation evaluation criteria*

1. ВВЕДНИЕ

Перевод - это один из самых важных предметов в процессе обучения и изучения русского языка как иностранного, один из важных приоритетов в цели, требовании подготовки военных кадров Академии Военных Наук. Переведенный текст с иностранного языка на родной язык и наоборот выражает овладение таким языком и так же умелое использование родного языка. Переводить с русского языка на вьетнамский язык и с вьетнамского языка на русский язык - это трудное дело, так как между Вьетнамом и Россией существуется большая культурная разница. Русский язык принадлежит к флективным языкам. Это многосложный язык, слова в предложении всегда изменяются по грамматической функции, порядок слов в предложении довольно свободный. Вьетнамский язык принадлежит к сильно изолирующим языкам. Это однозвуковой язык, слова в предложении не изменяются по грамматической функции, порядок слов в предложении очень принципиальный.

В настоящее время обучение и изучение перевода, вообще, письменного перевода, в частности, проводится с трудностями. Понятно, что курсанты факультета русского языка третьего и четвёртого курса нередко делают ошибки в процессе изучения письменного перевода с русского языка на вьетнамский язык и наоборот. И поэтому поиск основных ошибок у курсантов факультета русского языка в процессе изучения письменного перевода, одновремено, выдвижение меры их преодоления - важное и нужное дело.

2. ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКИЕ ОСНОВЫ

2.1. Общее понятие о переводе

Настоящая работа посвящена проблемам поиска некоторых основных ошибок в процессе изучения письменного перевода и их мер преодоления. Однако, перед тем, как исследовать эти вопросы, необходимо рассмотреть, что такое перевод.

При этом следует иметь в виду, что термин "перевод" неоднозначен. Он имеет по меньшей мере два значения: 1. деятельность переводчика; 2. результат этой деятельности. Если при определении второго из этих значений многие исследователи (Комиссаров, 1990; Львовская, 1985; Нечаева, 1994; Миньяр-Белоручев, 1980…) сходятся в том, что переводом является устный или письменный выходной (переводной) текст, более или менее дословно передающий на другом языке содержание входного текста (оригинал), то, с точки зрения деятельности перевода, значительно отличающиеся одно от другого. Однако их можно ввести к трём типам, которые выделяются в зависимости от того, каким сторонам переводческого процесса исследователь уделяет особое внимание.

Определение первого типа можно условно назвать "субъектитутивными". В них в качестве основного признака переводческой деятельности выделяются те действия над речевым произведением, порождённым при помощи одной языковой системы, которые производит переводчик, используя другую систему. Примером может послужить определение термина "перевод", предложенное А. В. Федоровом: "*Понятие перевода можно опрелелить следующим образом: замена текстового материала на одном языке эквивалентным текстовым материалом на другом языке*" (Федоров, 1983, с. 91).

Определение второго типа можно условно назвать "интерпретационными". Их авторы уделяют большее внимание тому, что коль скоро переводчик (если не вести речь о машинном переводе) является личностью, обладающей определённым языковым и экстралингвистическим опытом, то и перевод в значительной степени зависит от его личностных особенностей, являясь в значительной степени интерпретацией исходного текста. В качестве примера такого определения можно привести формулировку, данную З.Д. Львовской: "*Межъязыковой перевод, или собственно перевод – интерпретация вербальных знаков посредством какого-либо иного языка*" (Львовская, 1985, с. 362).

Определение третьего типа назовём "коммуникативными", так как в них процесс перевода определяется не только с точки зрения его исполнителя, но и с точки зрения получателя, для которого этот перевод выполняется. Так, Р. К. Миньяр-Белоручев даёт следующее определение перевода: *"Вид речевой деятельности, удваивающий компоненты коммуникации, целью которого является передача сообщения в тех случаях, когда коды, которыми пользуется источник и получатель, не совпадают*" (Миньяр-Белоручев, 1980, с. 95). Важность коммуникативного подхода к определению перевода становится понятна, если учесть тот факт, что особенности получателя информации (адресата) играют не меньшую роль, чем свойства её отправителя (адресанта).

Одним словом, перевод – это взаимосвязанное использование рецептивного и продуктивного видов речевой деятельности, осуществляемое в репродуктивных целях для замены интепретируемого текстового материала эквивалентным текстовым материалом на другом языке при дублировании уже совершенной или ещё совершаемой коммуникативной деятельности.

2.2. Норма оценки учебных письменных переводов

Норма перевода – это совокупность требований, предъявляемых к качеству перевода, которое определяется степенью его соответствия переводческой норме и характером невольных или сознательных отклонений от этой нормы. Подход того или иного исследователя к проблеме оценки качества перевода в основе своей зависит от взглядов этого исследователя на то, что представляет собой процесс перевода в целом и что является объектом сопоставления при переводе. Одной из самых популярных концепций эквивалентности в отечественном переводоведении до сих пор является теория пяти уровней В. Н. Комиссарова, в соответствии с которой первый (базовый) уровень предполагает эквивалентность цели коммуникации, а последний пятый - полную семантическую и структурную близость двух текстов (Комиссаров, 1990, с. 51-93). Л.К. Латышев использует адекватность как комплексное понятие, включающее в себя эквивалентность коммуникативного эффекта (регулятивного воздействия) двух текстов и определенную степень семантикоструктурного подобия перевода исходному тексту (Латышев, 2000, с. 25-27). Кроме этого, существуются ещё другие представления о норме оценки переводимого текста: норма эквивалентности перевода – необходимость возможно большей общности содержания оригинала и перевода; жанрово-стилистическая норма – требование соответствия перевода доминантной функции и стилистическим особенностям типа текста, к которому принадлежит перевод; прагматическая норма – требование обеспечения прагматической ценности перевода; конвенциональная норма - требование максимальной близости перевода к оригиналу;... В рамках процесса обучения и изучения письменного перевода в вузе, по-нашему мнению, нормами оценки учебных письменных текстов курсантов являются адекватность, эквивалентность и точность.

Адекватным учебным письменном переводом называется перевод, который обеспечивает прагматические задачи переводческого акта на максимально возможном для достижения этой цели уровне эквивалентности, соблюдая жанрово-стилистические требования к текстам данного типа и соответствуя общественно-признанной конвенциональной норме перевода.

Эквивалентным учебным письменном переводом называется перевод, воспроизводящий содержание иноязычного оригиналанаодномизуровнейэквивалентности. Под содержанием оригинала имеется в виду вся передаваемая информация, включая как предметно-логическое (денотативное), так и коннотативное значение языковых единиц, составляющих переводимый текст, а также прагматический потенциал текста.

Точным учебным письменном переводом называется перевод, в котором эквивалентно воспроизведена лишь предметно-логическая часть содержания оригинала при возможных отклонениях от жанрово-стилистической нормы и узуальных правил употребления переводимого языка. Точный учебный письменный перевод может быть признан адекватным, если задача перевода сводится к передаче фактической информации об окружающем мире. Эквивалентный перевод всегда должен быть точным, а точный перевод по определению лишь частично эквивалентен.

Например:

- Мы были остановлены караульными. (А.С. Пушкин, *Капитанская дочка)*

Chúng tôi bị quân canh chặn lại. (*Người con gái viên đại úy.* Cao Xuân Hạo dịch)

- *Я выслушал его молча и был доволен одним: имя Марьи Ивановны не было произнесено грустным злодеем.* (А. С. Пушкин, *Капитанская дочка*).

Tôi im lặng ngồi nghe hắn nói. Chỉ có một điều làm tôi hài lòng là tên Ma-ri-a I-va-nô-vna không hề bị tên đốn mạt ấy nhắc đến. (*Người con gái viên đại úy.* Cao Xuân Hạo dịch).

- *Размышления мои прерваны были Савельичем, вошедщим ко мне с чашкою чая.* (А. С. Пушкин, *Капитанская дочка*).

Tôi đang suy nghĩ miên man như vậy thì Xa-ve-líc bước vào, tay bưng một chén trà. (*Người con gái viên đại úy.* Cao Xuân Hạo dịch).

Использование предлагаемой системы норм оценки учебных письменных переводов имеет также большое значение и для преподавателей, так как предоставляет богатый методико-дидактический материал, позволяющий дать оценку степени сформированности переводческих навыков у курсантов и, соответственно, скорркектировать учебный процесс для достижения максимальной эффективности занятий.

Отлично – перевод соответствует содержанию оригинала: он эквивалентен и адекватен. В нем отсутствуют ошибки, обусловленные непониманием смыслов исходного текста, учтены особенности стилистики оригинала. Текст переведен полностью.

Хорошо – перевод соответствует содержанию оригинала, однако присутствуют ошибки, связанные с непониманием предметной ситуации; присутствуют стилистические ошибки. Текст переведен полностью.

Удовлетворительно – перевод в целом соответствует содержанию оригинала, однако присутствуют лексические, грамматические и стилистические ошибки, непонимание предметной ситуации в целом. Выполнено более 60% перевода предложенного текста.

Неудовлетворительно – перевод не соответствует содержанию оригинала. Переведенный текст не эквивалентен оригиналу, в нем присутствуют лексические, грамматические и стилистические ошибки, обусловленные незнанием лексики, грамматики, стилистики родного и изучаемого языков. Выполнено менее 60% предложенного текста.

3. НЕКОТОРЫЕ ОШИБКИ В УЧЕБНОМ ПИСЬМЕННОМ ПЕРЕВОДЕ И МЕРЫ ИХ ПРЕОДОЛЕНИЯ

Перевод – явление многоаспектное, и может подразумевать работу с текстами разных стилей и жанров. В связи с этим существуют ошибки в учебном письменном переводе. В этой работе, нам не можно говорить о понятии и типологии ошибок, не можно строить классификацию лексических, либо грамматических ошибок в переводе. Классификации ошибок могут быть ориентированы на оценку перевода (как и выше сказаны), а могут предполагать анализ не столько результата перевода, сколько процесса перевода и отражать возможные причины появления ошибок. В рамках настоящей работы, мы попытаемся осветить существующие в науке представления о том, что называется ошибкой в переводе и представить наиболее значимые и практичные, на наш взгляд, меры преодоления в процессе изучения письменного перевода курсантов.

Ошибка обычно определяется как неправильность, непреднамеренное отклонение от нормативного, стандартного, правильного, отступление от правил, нарушение требований. Следовательно, для того чтобы понять, что такое переводческая ошибка (ошибка в переводе) необходимо ответить на вопрос о том, что такое правильное в переводе, решение каких задач должен обеспечивать безошибочный перевод. Перевод в самом общем виде определяют как передачу содержания текста на одном языке средствами другого языка. *Это определение сфокусировано на одном из основных требований к переводу – передавать содержание оригинала. Нарушение этого требования, бесспорно, воспринимается как ошибка.* Таким образом, понимают ошибку как необоснованное отступление от нормативного требования эквивалентности (т.е. содержательного соответствия перевода оригиналу), как меру несоответствия перевода оригиналу, меру дезинформирующего воздействия на читателя.

Во многих ВУЗах, занимающихся подготовкой переводчиков, используется следующая классификация ошибок, основанная на работах Л.К. Латышева: ошибки в трансляции, искажения, неточности, неясности, ошибки в адаптации, лексическая ошибка, грамматическая ошибка, стилистическая ошибка, орфографическая ошибка, пунктуационная ошибка. В этой работы, из-за ограничения ёмкости, нами ясняется только некоторые частные ошибки курсантов в процессе изучения письменного перевода.

3.1. Лексико-семантические ошибки и меры их преодоления

Можно сказать, что лексико-семантическая ошибка является типичной ошибкой в процессе перевода. Лексико-семантическая ошибка - ошибка, связанная с неправильным использованием основного или контекстуального значения слова, а также нарушение норм сочетаемости слов в переведеном языке. В ходе перевода, курсанты часто делают эти ошибки, потому что они не обращают внимание на значения слов и способы их словообразования. Чаще всего курсанты делают ошибки в использовании синонимов, реалий, многозначных слов… Эти ошибки приводят к неправильному пониманию содержания подлинника и, конечно, к неправильному переводу.

3.1.1. Ошибки в использовании реалий

Реалия – это все вещи и предметы, типичные для одного народа, но полностью отсутствующие в культуре других народов. При передаче реалий возникают три основных трудности:

- Во-первых, это отсуствие в переводящем языке соответствия (эквивалента, аналога) из-за отсутствия у носителей языка, обозначаемого реалии объекта.

- Во-вторых, необходимо учесть, что наряду с предметным значением реалии передают и колорит культуры, её национальную окраску.

- В-третьих: знание о культуре, о страноведении, об обществе… у курсантов ещё ограничено.

Например:

- Трое ***ландштурмистов*** *шли ему наперерез.* (М. Шолохов, *Тихий Дон*).

Как переводит слово ***ладштурмист***? Незнание реалий в сочетании с буквальным переводом порождает жутких монстров. Владение языком со словарем не дает возможности решить задач, который стоит при переводе даже простейшего текста, не говоря о высокохудожественном. Это значительная трудность в переводе. В этом случае, у писателя Нгуэн Тхуй Ынг хороший вариант (хорошее решение), используя транскрипцю:

Ba tên ***Lan-stuốc-mơ*** *chạy ra chặn đường lão.* (*Sông Đông êm đềm.* Nguyễn Thụy Ứng dịch).

И так, в процессе перевода, встречаясь с реалями, курсантам трудно переводить их. Чтобы преодолеть эти трудности, курсанты могут использовать один из таких способов: транскрипции (так и выденный пример), транскрипции с пояснительным словом, калькирования или описания.

Например:

Способ транскрипции с пояснительным словом:

- *Вот певец взял в руки* ***пандур***. (Р. Гамзатов, *Мой Дагестан*).

Một ca sĩ cầm lấy ***cây đàn Pan-dur***. (*Đa-ghe-xtan của tôi*. Phan Hồng Giang dịch).

- ***Атамана*** *посадим. Своего! Казака!* (А.С. Пушкин, *Капитанская дочка*).

Chúng ta sẽ chọn lấy một ***vị a-ta-man***. (*Người con gái viên đại úy*. Cao Xuân Hạo dịch).

Способ калькирования:

- *Казаки после тайных переговоров с командованием 15-ой Инзенской дивизии решили сняться с фронта и беспрепятственно пропустить через территорию* ***Верхнедонского округа*** *Красные войска*. (М. Шолохов, *Тихий Дон*).

Sau những cuộc đàm phán bí mật với ban chỉ huy sư đoàn 15 In-den-xkaia, bọn Cô-dắc đã quyết định rút khỏ mặt trận và để Hồng quân tiến qua địa phận ***khu Đông Thượng*** *mà không gây trở ngại gì cho họ*. (*Sông Đông êm đềm*. Nguyễn Thụy Ứng dịch).

Способ описания:

- *Волосы были обстрижены в кружок, на нём был оборванный армяк и* ***татарские шаровары***. (А.С. Пушкин, *Капитанская дочка*)

Tóc hắn húi thành một vòng tròn quanh đầu theo kiểu của người Cô-dắc, hắn mặc một cái áo dạ thô đã sờn rách và một cái ***quần thụng kiểu Ta-rta***. (*Người con gái viên đại úy*. Cao Xuân Hạo dịch).

3.1.2. Ошибки в использовании синонимов

Синонимы – это слова, по-разному звучащие, но одинаковые или очень близкие по смыслу.

Напрмер: Лексико-семантическая группа слов со значением *"tập trung đông người, thảo luận về một vấn đề nào đó"*, во вьетнамском языке соответствует многочисленным словам в русском языке.

Слова	Значения	Примеры
Съезд	- Đại hội đại biểu toàn quốc, thường có bầu Ban Chấp hành của từng khóa, nhiệm kỳ.	- Навстречу IX-ому съезду КПВ - съезд писателей - съезд журналистов
Конфе-ренция	- Đại hội, hội nghị ở phạm vi thấp hơn cấp toàn quốc như ở các cơ quan Trung ương, cấp bộ, các tỉnh, thành phố. - Hội nghị quốc tế, khu vực, vùng, lãnh thổ	- конференция КПВ города Ханоя. - международная/ региональная конференция по прекращению испытаний ядерных оружий - конференция на уровне министров
Конгресс	- Hội nghị quốc tế , khu vực (thường là về các vấn đề chuyên môn, chuyên ngành khoa học)	- конгресс преподавателей русского языка и литературы. - конгресс деятелей культуры
Симпо-зиум	- Hội nghị chuyên đề	- симпозиум по лингвистрановедению
Совеща-ние (саммит)	- Hội nghị nguyên thủ các nước, các nhà lãnh đạo cấp cao. - Cuộc hội ý, hội kiến	- совещание на высшем уровне/ на верхах, саммит тысячелетия. - На экстренном самите в Остакине принято решение о полной эвакуации людей из зоны возможного обрушения телебашни.
Заседа-ние	Phiên họp	- секционное заседание - утреннее заседание - вечернее заседание
Сессия	Kỳ họp	- сессия Национального собрания Вьетнама десятого созыва
Пленум	Hội nghị (toàn thể) Ban Chấp hành Trung ương	- превращение в жизнь решение второго пленума ЦК КПВ
Слёт	Đại hội biểu dương thành tích	- слёт передовиков - слёт героев и ударников - слёт ударников патриотического соревнования
Фести-валь	Đại hội, liên hoan	- всемирный фестиваль молодёжи и студентов - фестиваль новогодних газет
Форум	Diễn đàn	- форум инвесторов

Каждое слово имеет своё выражение. Эти слова не могут заменять друг другом. При переводе с вьетнамского языка на русский язык выбор того или иного варианта зависит от конкретного контекста. Это трудный выбор, потому что курсанты иногда не полностью понимают значение и выражение синонимов. Иногда при переводе этого и того варианта ещё зависит от аналогичного понятия и лексической сочетаемости русского языка.

Например:

Đại hội cháu ngoan Bác Hồ: Слёт пионеров – внуков Дядушки Хо

Đại hội thể dục thể thao: Игры, Спартакиада

Đại hội thể thao Châu Á lần thứ 14: 14-ые Азиатские игры (14-ая Азиада)

Đại hội thể thao toàn quốc: Вся Вьетнамская Спартакиада

Đại hội thể thao Đông Nam Á lần thứ 22: 22-ые Игры ЮВА

И так, каждое русское слово, в свою очередь, приобретает свой оттенок значения и сферу употребления. Поэтому когда курсанты не хорошо знают об этом, они ошибаются. Чтобы преодолеть эту ошибку, курсант должен обогащать запас слов родного и русского языков, научиться использовать слова в разных ситуациях, упражнениями укреплять навык словообразования.

Кроме синонимов, в ходе перевода, курсанты ещё часто делают ошибки в использовании многозначных слов, паронимии, новых слов, устаревших слов, слов иноязычного происхожнения, разговорных и просторечных слов, ... Чтобы избежать этих ошибок при переводе, прежде всего, курсант должен применять свои знания и логичное мышление, чтобы угадать значение слов; а потом может использовать словарь для проверки. Выбирая слова, курсанты должны обращать внимание на их значение, его использование в конкретных контекстах, стилистическую окраску, сочетаемость с другими словами. Так как нарушение хоть одного из этих норм может привести к переводческой ошибке.

3.2. Стилистические ошибки и меры их преодоления

Стилистическая ошибка – использование слова, конструкции или стилистического средства, не соответствующих по своим функционально-языковым свойствам той жанрово-стилистической разновидности текстов, к которой принадлежит перевод. При рассмотрении стилистических ошибок необходимо понимать, прежде всего, что такое стиль. В русском языке, как и в других языках, есть деление ряда функциональных стилей и их разновидностей, тесно связанных с той или иной сферой человеческой деятельности. Функциональные стили могут быть разбиты на две группы, связанные с особыми типами речи. Первая группа, в которую входят стили научный, публицистический, официально-деловой и литературнохудожественный, характеризуется монологической речью; для второй группы, образуемой разнообразными видами разговорного стиля, типичной формой является диалогическая речь. Первая группа это книжный стиль, вторая стиль разговорный. Эти стили отличаются друг от друга устойчивыми и закономерными особенностями в отборе и употреблении языкового материала. В размере этой научной работы, мы рассмотрим стилистические ошибки только в книжном стиле.

Стилистические системы имеют свой национальный характер. Стилистические приёмы разных языков в основном одни и те же, однако их функционирование в речи различно. Одни и те же приёмы имеют разную степень употребительности, выполняют разные функции и имеют разный удельный вес в стилистической системе каждого языка, чем и объясняется необходимость трансформаций. Стилистические замены так же возможны и необходимы, как и замены грамматические и лексические. При осуществлении лексических и грамматических трансформаций учащиеся руководствуются принципом передачи лексического и грамматического значения слова или формы. При передаче стилистического значения учащиеся должны руководствоваться тем же принципом воссоздать в переводе тот же эффект, то есть вызывать у читателя аналогичную реакцию, хотя часто ему приходится достигать этого, прибегая к совершенно иным языковым средствам. Кроме этого, у каждого стиля свои специфики, типичные характеры. Всё это легко вызывает у учащихся ошибочность.

3.3.1. Публицистический стиль

Специфика публицистических текстов заключается в их сугубо пропагандисткой установке. При соблюдении всех прочих условий точности, недохочивый перевод публицистического текста… это не точный перевод. Термины, встречающиеся в публицистическом материале, относятся в первую очередь к области политической номенклатуры (названия учреждений, партий, должностей организций и т. д.) экономики и международных отношений. Что касается объёма предложения, то он, как правило, соответствует требованию не затруднять восприятие читателя; таким образом, злоупотребление особо длинных и развернутых сложноподчинённых конструкций здесь обычно не наблюдается. Однако, в некоторых случаях, учащиеся ошибаются в переводе публицистических текстов. Причины этого заключаются в том, что учащиеся слишком много зависят от порядка слов в подлинике, и поэтому иногда перевод становится смешным.

Например:

На встрече Саддама Сухейна с губернаторами 18 провинций страны "обсуждались меры противодействия американской агрессии" ("Красная звезда" No. 38/ 2003г.)

Существует такой смешной переводческий вариант: *"Trong cuộc gặp gỡ của Xat-đam Hun-đxen với tỉnh trưởng 18 tỉnh trong nước đã được thảo luận các biện pháp chống lại sự xâm lược của Mỹ"*. Хотя читатель понимает содержание информации но всё-таки, вьетнамцы не так говорят или пишут. В этом случае можно переводить так: *"Các biện pháp chống lại cuộc xâm lược của Mỹ đã được đưa ra thảo luận trong cuộc họp giữa Tổng thống Xat-đam Hun-đxen với 18 tỉnh trưởng"*.

Чтобы преодолеть эти ошибки, учащиеся должны стараться донести до читателя содержание публицистических текстов в наиболее ясной, чёткой, привычной форме. Это трудное дело, оно зависит от манеры выразить свои мысли. Для этого, учащиеся должны читать газеты и журналы, научиться написанному стилю и, одновременно, много писать для повышения способности мышления и навыка писания.

3.3.2. Научный и официальноделовой стиль

Типичной спецификой научного стиля является популярно использование терминов, предложения в тексте связываются логично друг с другом по смыслу. Термины, как правило, во сколько-нибудь специальном тексте частотны и играют в нём важную смысловую роль. Но так же, как и обычные слова, они могут быть многозначны, выступая и в области техники или науки, как названия разных вещей и понятий в зависимости от контекста. Например: термин *"операция"* часто используется в таких областях: в медицине *(cuộc phẫu thuật, thủ thuật),* в военном *(chiến dịch, trận tác chiến),* в экономике *(nghiệp vụ, hoạt động kinh doanh),* в технике *(thao tác)*. При переводе научного и научнотехнического текста в подавляющем большинстве случаев пользуются терминами уже готовыми, уже существующими в переводимом языке в соответствующей отрасли научной литературы. Запас специальных научных (или научнотехнических) слов в данной области не может быть, конечно, заменен умелым использованием словарей, хотя и оно является необходимым. Основной предпосылкой правильного перевода является знание предмета, о котором идёт речь. К сожалению, знание учащихся обо всех областях, особенно в научнотехнической области ещё ограничено, и поэтому учащиеся будут делать ошибки, если встречаются с новыми терминами, терминами узкой специальности; если у них нет соответствия в языке, на который делается перевод; если они не отражены в словарях.

Например: *Этим значением положено было начало Посольскому приказу как особому учреждению. (Диломатия в новое время).*

Как переводится *"Посольский приказ"?* Большинство учащихся переводит на вьетнамский язык так: *"Lệnh đại sứ"* или *"Lệnh đại sứ quán"*... Это не точно. В этом случае, историческкий термин *"Посольский приказ"* переводится так: *"Việc bổ nhiệm này đồng thời cũng đặt nền móng xây dựng* ***Sứ vụ lệnh (Posolskij Prikaz)*** *với tư cách là cơ quan chuyên trách". (Lịch sử ngoại giao cận đại).*

Чтобы избегать этой ошибки, учащиеся должны узнать корневые связи слова, анализировать возможные значения термина в контексте, хотя, конечно, не могут заменить реальное знание тех вещей и явлений, о которых говорится в подлиннике. Речь, таким образом, может идти о расшифровке содержания узкого отрезка текста на основе его формы, но разумеется, и на основе общего содержания более широкого контекста. Однако, в известных случаях путём умозаключений на основе вещественных значений корня данного слова в связи со всем контекстом можно прийти к верному решению, найти нужное слово. Правильное понимание иноязычного термина означает и возможность правильного выбора слова для его перевода. Для этого, учащиеся должны регулярно читать книги, выступления на научных конференциях, научные статьи, дипломные работы,… чтобы накоплять термины по своим специальностям, научить использования их в своей специальности.

3.3.3. Литературно-художественный стиль

Типичное свойство литературно-художественных произведений заключается в следе автора: эпоха, в которой автор живёт и создаёт свои произведения. У каждого автора свой стиль. Индивидуальный стиль писателя использует определенные речевые стили общенародного языка.

Наряду с образностью, художественную литературу от других произведений книжного слова отличает особое свойство, которое можно назвать его смысловой ёмкостью. Это свойство проявляется в способности писателя сказать больше, чем говорить прямой смысл слов в их совокупности, заставить работать и смысли, и чувство, и воображение читателя.

Ещё одна характерная черта художественной литературы – это ярко выраженная национальная окраска содержания и формы, что вполне естественно для литературы, как для отражения действительности в образах, обусловленных ею же.

Важна далее и печать того времени, когда создано произведение - тесная связь между исторической обстановкой и отражающими её образами произведения. По отношению к всем этим особенностям, характерным для художественной литературы, и выявляется, наконец, индцвидуальная манера автора.

Высшесказанные специфики значительно затрудняют понимание и перевод учащихся на родной язык и наоборот учащихся. Даже, профессиональному переводчику трудно выразить все идеи и мысли подлиники. Знание и способность учащихся в литературной области ещё ограничено. В процессе обучения переводу, учащиеся редко переводят литературные произведения, а только переводят тексты о других областях, как о дипломатической, о экономикой, о культурной, о военной, о научной... областях. Поэтому смысл и приёмы перевода, которые привычны для учащихся, не могут применяться в переводе литературно-художественных произведений. Это приводит к тому, что учащиеся переводят литературные произведения очень буквально, механистически, потеряют эстетическую эффективность подлиники.

Например: *Мнение моё было принято чиновниками с явною неблагосклонностью.* (А. С. Пушкин, *Капитанская дочка*).

Есть такой вариант перевода: *"Ý kiến của tôi đã được thông qua bởi các quan chức với sự không bằng lòng rõ rệt".*

И так, хотя читатель уже понимает содержание предложения, но этот вариант не достигает эстетической эффективности, не по литературному стилю. Если переводить вольно, то это предложение переводится так: *"Bọn viên chức sau khi nghe ý kiến của tôi tỏ ý khó chịu rõ rệt"* (*Người con gái viên đại úy.* Cao Xuân Hạo dịch) и в таком случае оно полностью понятно читателям.

Преодолеть эти ошибки - это трудное дело. Оно требует от переводящих художественную способность. Чтобы достигать эстетической эффективности переводящий должны уметь чувствовать оригинал. Для этого курсанты должны регулярно укреплять и расширять родной язык, много читать произведений известных переводчиков в этой литературной области, уметь сравнить и научить выражению. Тогда курсанты могут доволно, чётко и интересно переводить литературно-художественные произведения.

Чтобы совершенствовать навыки перевода курсанты могут использовать такую систему упражнений. В переводческих упражнениях отрабатываются навыки перевода, при этом преподаватели стремятся вызвать у курсантов сознательное отношение к выбору адъекватных средств и приёмов в процессе перевода. Упражнения – это сознательное, многократное, всё более усложняющееся повторение определённых приёмов и действий с целью выработки и совершенствования навыков перевода. Этот метод обучения играет особенно важную роль для развития у курсантов двух главных переводческих навыков – запоминания и переключения.

Переводческие упражнения включают в себе предтекстовые, притекстовые и послетекстовые упражнения. Предтекстовые упражнения готовят учащихся к пониманию основного содержания текста. К этому виду упражнений относятся упражнения в выборе нужного эквивалента, в лексико-семантической сочетаемости, в трансформации предложений и др., то есть в предтекстовых упражнениях не только отрабатывается лексика к тексту, но и приёмы перевода.

После выполнения предтекстовых упражнений учащиеся уже могут самостоятельно перевести слова и словосочетания из поурочного словаря, так как все они включены в предтекстовые упражнения и были переведены в контексте. Потом учащиеся начинают работать над текстом. После работы над текстом, учащиеся могут выполнять послетекстовые упражнения, чтобы укрепить текстовый материал. Послетекстовые упражнения бывают такие: закончить предложения из текста несколькими вариантами, объяснить на родном языке различие между понятиями, данными в тексте, сокращение информации абзацев текста и передача её на родной язык. Эти упражнения помогают учащимся развивать навыки информационной обработки текстов.

4. ЗАКЛЮЧЕНИЕ

Как известно, что перевод - это один из важных, но трудных предметов для учащихся. Цель нашей работы заключается в том, чтобы найти типичные ошибки в процессе обучения и изучения письменного перевода и представлять некоторые меры их преодоления, одновремено, сформулировать базы для развития и совершенствования навыков и умений письменного перевода. В этой работе мы уже демонстрировали ошибки в процессе изучения письменного перевода учащихся и меры их преодоления, чтобы помочь учащимся избежать этих ошибок. Вопрос, изучаемый нами, может быть, раскрыт не полностью. Мы надеемся, что эта работа поможет учащимся преодолеть свои переводческие ошибки. Мы так же надеемся, что наша работа в какой-то мере полезна и преподавателям в выборе соответствующих мер в обучении и оценке письменного перевода на факультете русского языка Академии Военных Наук./.

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MỘT SỐ LỖI THƯỜNG GẶP TRONG QUÁ TRÌNH HỌC THỰC HÀNH DỊCH VIẾT CỦA HỌC VIÊN KHOA NGA – HỌC VIỆN KHOA HỌC QUÂN SỰ VÀ CÁC BIỆN PHÁP KHẮC PHỤC

ĐOÀN HỮU DŨNG, LÊ THỊ ĐÀO

Tóm tắt: Dịch là một học phần khó trong chương trình đào tạo cử nhân ngoại ngữ tại Học viện Khoa học Quân sự. Trong quá trình học, học viên không tránh khỏi việc mắc lỗi khi xử lý các yếu tố ngôn ngữ khác biệt mang tính đặc thù của tiếng Nga và tiếng Việt. Chính vì vậy, bài báo liệt kê một số lỗi thường gặp trong quá trình học thực hành dịch của học viên Khoa tiếng Nga, chỉ ra nguyên nhân và đề xuất giải pháp thông qua một số dạng bài tập để khắc phục những cách xử lý chưa chuẩn đó. Trước khi tiến hành liệt kê các lỗi, bài báo cũng chỉ ra một số quan điểm về dịch, tiêu chí đánh giá một bản dịch để làm cơ sở đối chiếu những lỗi mà người học thường mắc phải. Bài báo có giá trị thực tiễn đối với cả người dạy lẫn người học, góp phần nâng cao chất lượng dạy và học môn thực hành dịch tại Khoa tiếng Nga, Học viện Khoa học Quân sự.

Từ khóa: *lỗi, khái niệm dịch, tiêu chí đánh giá bài dịch*

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THƯ NGỎ

Kính gửi Quý độc giả!

Tạp chí Khoa học Ngoại ngữ Quân sự của Học viện Khoa học Quân sự hoạt động theo Giấy phép hoạt động báo chí in số 200/GP-BTTTT ngày 19/4/2016 của Bộ trưởng Bộ Thông tin và Truyền thông, đã được Bộ Khoa học và Công nghệ cấp Mã số chuẩn quốc tế ISSN 2525-2232 ngày 28/6/2016.

Tạp chí Khoa học Ngoại ngữ Quân sự là một trong những Tạp chí thuộc danh mục tạp chí khoa học được tính điểm của Hội đồng Giáo sư Nhà nước từ năm 2017:

- Hội đồng Giáo sư ngành Ngôn ngữ: 0,25 điểm

- Hội đồng Giáo sư ngành Khoa học Quân sự: 0,5 điểm

Từ năm 2022, tạp xuất bản định kỳ 1 quý/1 số (vào các tháng 3, 6, 9, 12 trong năm), gồm các chuyên mục: Lý luận chuyên ngành, Phương pháp giảng dạy, Quan hệ quốc tế, Trao đổi,... Các bài viết sẽ được Ban Biên tập gửi đến các chuyên gia đánh giá theo quy trình phản biện kín, chuyên nghiệp, khách quan, đảm bảo chất lượng khoa học cao. Hiện tại, tác giả không phải trả bất kỳ khoản phí nào khi gửi bài.

Với mục tiêu tạo điều kiện cho các nhà khoa học trong và ngoài nhà trường đăng tải các hoạt động khoa học, chuyển giao công nghệ, các bài viết tổng quan khoa học, các ý kiến trao đổi về học thuật có giá trị khoa học và thực tiễn trên các lĩnh vực nghiên cứu chuyên ngành và các lĩnh vực liên quan khác chưa được công bố ở trong nước và quốc tế; đồng thời, nhằm từng bước nâng cao chất lượng và uy tín để trở thành một Tạp chí khoa học đạt chuẩn quốc tế trong thời gian tới, Tạp chí Khoa học Ngoại ngữ Quân sự trân trọng thông báo và kính mời các nhà khoa học, các Giáo sư, Phó Giáo sư, Tiến sĩ, Nghiên cứu sinh, các nhà giáo và sinh viên viết và gửi bài đến tòa soạn theo thể lệ gửi bài như sau:

1. Bài viết gửi đăng là kết quả nghiên cứu của tác giả có giá trị khoa học và thực tiễn trong các lĩnh vực nghiên cứu ngôn ngữ, ngoại ngữ, văn hóa các nước... Bài viết chưa được công bố trên bất kỳ ấn phẩm, tạp chí nào và không được gửi cùng lúc tới các tạp chí khác.

2. Bài viết định dạng thống nhất bằng font chữ Times New Roman; cỡ chữ 14; khổ giấy A4; lề trên 2,5 cm, lề dưới: 2 cm, lề trái: 3,5 cm, lề phải: 1,5 cm; cách dòng single; cách đoạn spacing before 6pt.

3. Nội dung bài viết cô đọng, súc tích, theo cấu trúc của bài báo khoa học. Bài viết dài khoảng 8-15 trang, đảm bảo đủ các phần: tên bài viết, tóm tắt, từ khóa, mở đầu, nội dung nghiên cứu, kết luận, tài liệu tham khảo và chú thích (nếu có). Quy chuẩn các thành phần nội dung bài viết:

3.1. Tên bài viết (title): Phản ánh trực tiếp nội dung của bài viết, có độ dài từ 10 đến 20 từ, bằng tiếng Việt và tiếng Anh. Tên bài viết được viết chữ thường, đậm, canh giữa trang.

3.2. Tóm tắt bài viết (Abstract): Có độ dài từ 150 đến 200 từ, bao gồm các thành phần quan trọng xác định nội dung bài viết: mục đích, đối tượng, phương pháp nghiên cứu và kết luận chính của tác giả, phản ánh đầy đủ các kết quả và ý cơ bản của bài báo. Phần tóm tắt bằng tiếng Việt và tiếng Anh.

3.3. Từ khóa (Keywords): Có từ 3 đến 5 từ khóa được sắp xếp theo theo thứ tự Alphabet. Đây là những từ được cho là quan trọng đối với nội dung nghiên cứu đặc trưng cho chủ đề của bài viết. Từ khóa gồm 2 phần tiếng Việt và tiếng Anh.

3.4. Đặt vấn đề: Phần này giới thiệu sơ bộ tổng quan lĩnh vực chung mà nghiên cứu này là một bộ phận; tính cần thiết và cấp bách của chủ đề nghiên cứu; các vấn đề mà nghiên cứu sẽ giải quyết; những đóng góp của đề tài nghiên cứu về lý luận và thực tiễn mà đề tài dự kiến đạt được...

3.5. Nội dung nghiên cứu đã thực hiện: Giải quyết vấn đề nghiên cứu bằng những lập luận chặt chẽ, có cơ sở khoa học. Các số liệu, kết quả thu được phải biện luận rõ ràng, chính xác, chỉ rõ nguồn trích dẫn. Các hình, ảnh, bảng, biểu cần được đánh số thứ tự, trình bày rõ ràng.

3.6. Quy định đánh số đề mục: Trong phần nội dung chính của bài viết, các đề mục lớn phải là chữ đậm, canh trái và được đánh số liên tục theo chữ số Ả-rập. Các tiểu mục cấp 1 là chữ in hoa, đậm *(ví dụ:* **1.***)*. Các tiểu mục cấp 2 là chữ in thường, đậm *(ví dụ:* **2.1.***)*. Các tiểu mục cấp 3 là chữ in nghiêng, đậm *(ví dụ:* ***2.1.1.****)*.

3.7. Quy định trình bày bảng biểu, hình vẽ, ký hiệu, công thức

Các bảng biểu và hình vẽ trong bài viết phải được đánh số riêng biệt và theo thứ tự liên tục bằng chữ số Ả-rập, số thứ tự được đặt sau từ "Bảng" hoặc "Hình" *(ví dụ: Bảng 1., Hình 1.)*. Mỗi bảng biểu và hình vẽ cần phải có tên tương ứng mô tả chính xác nội dung. Tên hình vẽ, ảnh và đồ thị đặt ở giữa trang phía dưới hình; tên bảng biểu đặt giữa trang phía trên bảng. Các hình vẽ phải được nhóm lại (grouping) và định dạng rõ ràng, sắc nét.

Trong nội dung bài viết, khi tham chiếu đến bảng biểu hay hình vẽ, tác giả cần chỉ rõ bảng biểu hay hình vẽ cụ thể nào. Không sử dụng các cụm từ tham chiếu không rõ ràng như *"hình trên"* hay *"bảng dưới đây"*.

Các ký hiệu, công thức phải rõ ràng, chính xác, có tên và chú thích đầy đủ, có đánh số thứ tự và chỉ rõ vị trí trong nội dung bài viết; số của công thức ở phía bên phải.

3.8. Kết luận: Phần này đưa ra kết luận ngắn gọn về kết quả của nghiên cứu và nêu các đề xuất.

3.9. Chú thích: Đặt trước phần "Tài liệu tham khảo", được bắt đầu bằng tiêu đề "Chú thích". Mỗi chú thích được đánh số theo thứ tự tăng dần (1,2,3) và phải tương ứng với số đánh chú thích trong nội dung bài viết. Các chú thích phải ngắn gọn, chỉ bao hàm các thông tin bổ sung thật cần thiết.

3.10. Tài liệu tham khảo (References): Trình bày theo chuẩn APA. (Bài viết cần trích dẫn ít nhất 01 bài đã đăng trên tạp chí KHNNQS).

4. Ban Biên tập chỉ nhận những bài đã được định dạng rõ ràng, hình vẽ rõ nét, quy cách đúng theo quy định. Ban Biên tập không trả lại bản thảo.

5. Tác giả bài viết hoàn toàn chịu trách nhiệm trước pháp luật về nội dung bài viết, xuất xứ tài liệu trích dẫn.

6. Thông tin về tác giả: Họ và tên, cơ quan, địa chỉ, số điện thoại, email của tác giả.

7. Địa chỉ liên hệ và gửi bài viết:

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http://hvkhqs.edu.vn/vi/nhom-tin-tap-chi-khoa-hoc-ngoai-ngu-quan-su_tapchi-tckhnnqs.aspx