

Using quantitative research approaches to place students in Japanese university English language classes

Kristy King Takagi

University of Fukui, Japan

kjktakagi@hotmail.com

Abstract

In university English language programs in Japan, students are often tested soon after admission to the university in order to determine their level of English proficiency, so that they can be placed into classes at advanced, intermediate, and basic levels, a result that is generally seen as advantageous for both students and teachers. However, how these test scores are to be used to create placement lists is not always given extensive consideration, especially from a statistical perspective. For example, programs might simply combine test scores or use them in another relatively simple way, probably in part because the specialties of program administrators and teachers tend to be in areas such as linguistics and language, rather than quantitative research methods. In this paper, I will first explain the placement testing situation in Japan and briefly discuss tests frequently used, and then explain how placement committees might improve their placement process by using one of a number of ideas and approaches from quantitative research methods, such as z scores, T scores, factor analysis, and Rasch analysis, to create English class placement lists of students.

Key words

Quantitative research approaches, English language class placement testing

Introduction

Whereas university entrance examinations in Japan have been the object of study (and much criticism) for many years, placement tests in Japan, and elsewhere around the world, have received little attention. According to Wall, Clapham, and Alderson (1994) there has been little research on the “nature” of placement tests, and much more study is needed on appropriate ways to validate these commonly used tests (p. 321). Culligan and Gorsuch (1999) also said that there has been “surprisingly little research” on commercial tests for EFL (English as a Foreign Language) use in Japan, as well as few accounts of how tests can be developed for in-house use (p. 8).

When English language placement test use in Japanese universities was examined in the few studies that are available, various problems were found. Wistner and Sakai (2008) said that validity evidence for placement test use was not being gathered, tests had not been examined adequately for reliability, and students were often placed in classes on the basis of such unexamined test scores. As a result, they said that chances can often be high that students are “arbitrarily placed” in English classes in Japanese universities, and that the proficiency levels can be quite diverse in one class (p. 1054). These mixed-level classes cause obvious difficulties for teachers, but Wistner and Sakai also noted that incorrect class placement can “adversely affect” students (p. 1054). Besides these problems, Shimizu (2000) said that “there is no established precedence or theoretical foundation for test development nor a guideline for statistical analysis that each school should follow” (p. 243). Although statistical analysis of tests includes much more, the focus of this paper will be statistical analysis that can be performed on test scores in order to place students into English classes, in particular, creation of *z* scores and *T* scores, factor analysis, and Rasch analysis. Before these statistical methods are discussed, a brief description of tests used in Japanese university English programs will be presented.

Tests used for English language class placement testing in Japan

Despite clear advantages to English class placement, some university programs in Japan do not place students by proficiency level in their English classes. According to Shimizu (2000), who surveyed teachers at 200 Japanese universities, one reason cited for not using placement testing was concern that students at the basic level of study would suffer psychologically from being placed in that class level; however, most objections seemed to focus on problems with logistics and with the increased work load that would accompany testing. Even so, it appears that English class placement testing is being increasingly used in Japan. Shimizu cited results of another researcher’s 1983 survey in which approximately 4% of those who responded said that their universities conducted English class placement testing, while approximately 32% of those who responded to Shimizu’s 2000 survey did so.

When Japanese university English programs do administer placement tests to sort students into classes at different levels of proficiency, they use either a standardized test or a test developed in house. A variety of standardized tests are used, such as TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language), TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication), MEPT (the Michigan English Placement Test), OPT (the Oxford Placement Test), SLEP (the Secondary Level English Proficiency Test), QPT (the Quick Placement Test), the CEFR interview (Common European Framework of Reference for

Languages), CELT (Comprehensive English Language Test), STEP or *Eiken* tests (the Test in Practical English Proficiency), JACET (Japanese Association of College English Teachers) tests, tests related to course textbooks, and others.

None of the standardized tests studied was wholly endorsed. As Wistner, Sakai, and Abe (2009) pointed out, TOEFL is the most researched test in applied linguistics; however, it is usually not considered to be appropriate for placement testing. As Brown and Hudson (1998) noted, its focus is too wide and general; results are generally not precise enough for placing students into classes in a particular program, nor are results directly related to the courses taught there. In addition, TOEFL results do not include individual item information, therefore precluding the item analysis that is necessary to determine whether the test is appropriate in a program or not. Similar concerns apply to the TOEIC, as well. Though there are no reports concerning how well either test has worked as a placement test in Japanese universities, it is reasonable to assume that they have not worked well. As for MEPT, Wistner, Sakai, and Abe (2009) found that the test subscores were low in reliability and did not effectively divide students into two groups; in similar fashion, Brooke, Aden, Al-Kuwari, Christopher, Ibrahim, Johnson, and Souyah (2012) concluded that the MEPT reading passages were too short to allow proper evaluation of a variety of reading skills. As for the OPT, Wistner et al. (2009) found that the test was problematic in that the reliability of the listening subtest was low. Brooke et al. (2012) also criticized the listening section and deemed it invalid for their program, as it did not correlate with other English measures. The SLEP was judged by Culligan and Gorsuch (1999) to be invalid for their program due to measurement error, failure to discriminate between high and low scorers, and lack of a speaking section. The QPT also did not discriminate well between high and low scorers, and more than half of the test items were too difficult or too easy for the students (Westrick, 2005). Finally, the CEFR, despite its growing popularity, has also been criticized as well, particularly in terms of its theoretical underpinnings (Alderson, 2007; Hulstijn, 2009).

In short, the little research that is available regarding standardized tests used for English class placement in Japanese universities reveals that none of the tests studied is an ideal fit to any program. Wistner and Sakai (2008) simply concluded that standardized tests “do not work well” for placement in English programs in Japanese universities (p.1047). Instead of standardized tests, they advocated creating in-house tests. Many other researchers concur, but, as Culligan and Gorsuch (1999) cautioned, developing in-house tests requires testing expertise and teamwork, is an “arduous” process that requires ongoing evaluation and revision, and can have disappointing results (p. 9). In fact, Wistner and Sakai (2008) found that their own in-house test performed poorly. It was too easy for students, had high error estimates, and did not

divide students into two groups. Despite their own obvious testing expertise, the test they created was not successful.

Clearly, the type of placement test to be used in a university English program in Japan is one issue that needs further study. According to Shimizu (2000), in her survey of universities across Japan, many teachers hope for some sort of standardized, national placement test, and are also concerned about the administrative burden that placement testing can bring to already overworked teachers.

Indeed, placement testing entails many tasks and requires expertise, as well. Test evaluation, revision, and validation require knowledge of classical test theory and item response theory, particularly Rasch Analysis. Though in-depth discussion of these areas or any other statistical matter is beyond the scope of this short paper, I will generally discuss the advantages of using z scores, T scores, factor analysis, and Rasch analysis to analyze student test scores, and then place students into proficiency levels for class placement.

After students sit the English class placement test, placement team members will have test scores in hand. If only one test score is to be used, creating the placement list is not terribly difficult. Raw scores can simply be arranged in order and students can be separated into classes on the basis of these scores. Administrators of some programs simply go down the list of scores and mark off the list into relatively equal class groupings. If the placement team wanted to divide the group of students in a more meaningful way, such as into advanced, intermediate, and basic classes, one method they could use would employ the mean, or average score, and the standard deviation. Students whose scores were one standard deviation above the mean or higher could be designated as advanced; intermediate students would have scores in the middle, and the basic group would have scores one standard deviation below the mean or lower. For example, if students took a 100-point placement test, and the mean was 60, and standard deviation 20, placement scores for the advanced, intermediate, and basic groups would be: 80 and above; 41 to 79; and 40 and below, respectively. If the numbers of students in the advanced and basic groups were very small, this division using one unit of standard deviation might not be practical; however, some use of standard deviation would make the class labels more meaningful. There are a number of decisions that must be made, but working with only one test score is relatively straightforward.

If a placement test included two or more scores, the placement team would have more decisions to make and more tasks to complete. If the team wanted to use or weight the two scores equally, but the scores were not on the same scale, they could not simply add the scores. For example, if the total possible score of one test was 30

points, and the possible score for the second test was 100 points, the team would need to create standardized scores for each. Afterwards, the two standardized scores could be averaged. Brown (1996) said that language teachers often find standardized scores “somewhat mysterious” (p. 133); however, they are not difficult to comprehend. A standardized score makes clear how far a student’s score is away from the mean, in units of standard deviation. The *z* score and the *T* score are two types of standardized scores which placement testing teams can make use of. To determine the *z* score, one must subtract the mean from the student’s score, and then divide that number by the standard deviation (p. 133). For example, using the test scores above (of a 100-point test with a mean of 60 and standard deviation of 20), the *z* score for a student who scored 80 would be $80-60/20$, or +1.0. If a second student scored 60, that student’s *z* score would be $60-60/20$, or 0. (That is, the mean of *z* scores is 0.) Finally, if a student scored, 40, his *z* score would be $40-60/20$, or -1.0. Because many people are not comfortable thinking about scores in such terms, testing officials often use a standardized score called a *T* score. *T* scores are calculated by multiplying the *z* score by 10, and then adding 50 (p. 135). Therefore, a student with a *z* score of +1.0 has a *T* score of 60; a student with a *z* score of 0 has a *T* score of 50; and a student with a *z* score of -1.0 has a *T* score of 40. Though standardized, these *T* scores look like actual scores and are more easily understood by people who have limited experience with testing. Therefore, after the placement team creates *T* scores by using both the raw and *z* scores, they can create class placement lists based on the *T* scores, and then more easily communicate the results.

Another interesting method for using a number of different scores to create student placement lists for English classes at Japanese universities was suggested by Everitt and Hothorn (2011)—principal components analysis, or PCA. They explained that “applying principal components to the observed examination results and using the students’ scores on the first principal components” would “provide a measure of examination success that maximally discriminates between them (p. 62). Although PCA requires a somewhat higher level of statistical expertise than that required to create and use *z* or *T* scores, teachers and administrators who complete a bit of study and practice could successfully use it. As Field (2005) explained, PCA is a less complex form of factor analysis, and in his guide, explains how to complete such an analysis using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). Another useful guide that explains this analysis in a straightforward and clear manner is the well-known guide to using SPSS with Windows and Macintosh, by Green and Salkind (2011).

Finally, Rasch analysis provides yet another interesting and valuable method for creating English class placement lists from test scores; it also offers a wealth of important information for placement testing teams. In their well-known text,

Applying the Rasch Model: Fundamental Measurement in the Human Sciences, Bond and Fox (2007) provide an in-depth introduction to Rasch analysis. In addition, a number of researchers have used Rasch analysis to study placement tests, and their work can inform the efforts of placement testing teams. For example, Gorsuch and Culligan (2000) explained how they used Rasch analysis in making English class placement decisions. They explained that Rasch analysis is especially useful for placement since it simultaneously provides estimates of student ability and test item difficulty, and it creates a model that, though based on the original data, is “thought to hold for all students who take the test in the future” (p. 318). Besides student ability and item difficulty measures, this analysis also provides information about group separation, bias against particular test takers, reliability, fit, and much more. In terms of creating placement lists, the testing team could simply use ability estimates derived from the analysis to arrange students in order. Or they could investigate cut scores, as well, as Gorsuch and Culligan did. In their case, they matched Rasch ability estimates to cut scores established from raw scores, and then compared the two approaches, and the relative distribution of students for each method. By studying cut scores further, placement teams could learn more about the cut scores that would be most appropriate for their own students and English classes.

Conclusion

In conclusion, there is little research available on English placement tests in Japan and around the world, but what little there is suggests that the contention of Wall, Clapham, and Alderson (1994) remains true; there is still insufficient research on the “nature and validation” of placement tests (p. 321). Part of the research that is needed is related to the process discussed in this paper: how to choose the best English placement tests, and then properly analyze student test scores, in order to correctly evaluate students’ proficiency levels, and then place them in the most appropriate English language classes. Although this part of the statistical analysis may appear small, the work involved would allow placement teams the opportunity to study test validity as they ask for feedback from teachers and students regarding the appropriateness of placement decisions; compare test scores with other similar measures; and carefully study items and sections of the placement test. As placement teams work through this more basic part of the placement process in an informed, patient, and persistent manner, knowledge of both the nature and validation of placement tests will gradually but surely grow.

References

- ALDERSON, J. C. (2007). The CEFR and the need for more research. *The Modern Language Journal*, 91(4), 659-663.
- BOND, T. G., & FOX, C. M. (2007). *Applying the Rasch model: Fundamental measurement in the human sciences*. Mahwah, N. J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- BROOKE, K., ADEN, M., AL-KUWARI, N., CHRISTOPHER, V., IBRAHIM, M., JOHNSON, B., & SOUYAH, O. (2012). Placement testing in an EFL context. *TESOL Arabia Perspectives*, 19(2), 13-20.
- BROWN, J. D. (1989). Improving ESL placement tests using two perspectives. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23(1), 65-83.
- BROWN, J. D. (1996a). English language entrance examinations in Japan: Problems and solutions. *Proceedings of the JALT 1995 conference*, Nagoya, Japan, 272-283.
- BROWN, J. D. (1996b). *Testing in language programs*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.
- BROWN, J. D., & HUDSON, T. (1998). The alternatives in language assessment. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(4), 653-675.
- CULLIGAN, B., & GORSUCH, G. (1999). Using a commercially produced proficiency test in a one-year EFL curriculum in Japan for placement purposes. *JALT Journal*, 21(1), 7-28.
- EVERITT, B. & HOTHORN, T. (2011). *An introduction to applied multivariate analysis with R*. New York: Springer.
- FIELD, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (2nd ed.). London: Sage.
- FULCHER, G. (1997). An English language placement test: Issues in reliability and validity. *Language Testing*, 14(2), 113-138.
- GORSUCH, G. J. & CULLIGAN, B. (2000). Using item response theory to refine placement decisions. *JALT Journal*, 22(2), 315-325.
- GREEN, S. B. & SALKIND, N. J. (2011). *Using SPSS for Windows and Macintosh: Analyzing and understanding data*. Upper Saddle River, N. J.: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- HULSTIJN, J. H. (2007). The shaky ground beneath the CEFR: Quantitative and qualitative dimensions of language proficiency. *The Modern Language Journal*, 91(4), 663-667.
- MURPHEY, T. (2001). Nonmeritorious features of the entrance exam system in Japan. *The Language Teacher*, 25(10), 1-4.
- SHIMIZU, Y. (2000). Survey research on the use of placement tests at four-year universities in Japan. Retrieved June 6, 2015, at http://www.ritsumei.ac.jp/acd/re/k-rsc/lcs/kiyou/14-1/RitsIILCS_14.1pp.231-243SHIMIZU.pdf

- WALL, D., CLAPHAM, C., & ALDERSON, J. C. (1994). Evaluating a placement test. *Language Testing*, 11(3), 321-344.
- WESTRICK, P. A. (2005). Score reliability and placement testing. *JALT Journal*, 27(1), 71-93.
- WISTNER, B., & SAKAI, H. (2008). Rasch analyses of English language placement tests. In Bradford Watts, K., Muller, T. & Swanson, M. (Eds.), *JALT2007 conference proceedings* (pp.1045-1055). Tokyo: Japan Association for Language Learning.
- WISTNER, B., SAKAI, H., & ABE, M. (2009). An analysis of the Oxford Placement Test and the Michigan English Placement Test as L2 proficiency tests. Retrieved June 8, 2015 from <https://www.hosei.ac.jp/bungaku/museum/html/kiyo/58/articles/Wistner.pdf>

Contact

Kristy King Takagi
University of Fukui
3-9-1 Bunkyo
Fukui City
Fukui 910-8507
Japan
kjktakagi@hotmail.com

What are the possibilities of using Chinese literacy learning to help Chinese American students maintain their racial and cultural identity?

YihYeh Pan

Sanno University, Japan

pan@mi.sanno.ac.jp

Abstract

The Chinese language schools in major cities across the U.S. play a role similar to the bilingual programs offered in American primary schools. While teaching at a Chinese language school, through my interaction with Chinese parents and students, I learned that their common experience is that no matter how diligently Chinese immigrants study and act within the mainstream culture, they are still perceived “differently” in many ways in American society. Preserving minority languages and cultures can be challenging in a predominantly monolingual society. This paper discusses the importance of putting children in bilingual learning environments and how Chinese teachers can use their teaching role to support Chinese students not only in maintaining cultural identity but also in recognizing their racial identity in U.S. society.

Key words: Chinese American, racial identity, cultural identify, language

Introduction

I once worked as a part-time teacher in a Chinese language school. My students were American-born Chinese (Chinese Americans). Chinese American children have difficulty in maintaining their native language if they and their families are not interested in learning the language. Students in my class had different levels of Chinese comprehension, as well as varying levels of interest in the Chinese language. While teaching Chinese, I related my personal experience of learning a second language to my students. I started to learn English when I was six years old. Although in Taiwan I did not have the opportunity to speak English every day, I paid attention to things that were in the English language. English is not my native language, but I have no doubt that I have been greatly affected by it.

As a Chinese teacher, I not only taught my students how to recognize Chinese characters, but I also had an obligation to help them maintain their cultural identity. Through my interaction with Chinese parents and students, I learned that no matter how much Chinese immigrants study and act within the mainstream culture, they are still perceived “differently” in many ways. In their view, this difference is strongly

connected to their racial identity in the U.S. social context. Thus, learning the Chinese language is an effective way for these students to maintain their cultural identity, and Chinese schools have become an important community support for these parents.

Background of the Chinese language school

According to the 2013 U.S. census, about 16 million Asian Americans lived in the U.S., and 3.7 million people were Chinese (U.S. Census, 2013). Most Chinese immigrants reside in large cities, such as New York, San Francisco, and Los Angeles. Whether in big cities or small towns, Chinese immigrants usually establish networks and share their experiences with each other. In large metropolitan areas, the part of the city known as Chinatown is a symbol of Chinese culture and language. Most Chinese language schools are managed and operated by Chinese communities. In Chinese language schools, teachers not only teach the Chinese language but also teach or supervise extra-curricular activities, such as kung-fu, Chinese painting skills, and Chinese dancing. The materials used for the class lessons are generally supported and provided by the Chinese and Taiwanese governments. Some of the larger Chinese language schools also help Chinese American students cope with cultural differences in and homework from two different kinds of school systems (Wong, 1982; Tsai, 1986). Because the Chinese language is not a required subject in American schools, Chinese communities organize private Chinese schools to provide adequate Chinese language teaching. The funding for these schools is provided by Chinese parents and outside supporters. Children attend Chinese lessons every Sunday or after school. Therefore, the Chinese school plays a role similar to other primary schools in the United States.

The Chinese language school where I worked was established in 1978 as a non-profit organization. Since 1987, the school has enrolled more than 2,000 children. The lessons are conducted in both traditional and Zhuyin Chinese at one of the universities. The ages of the children enrolled in the school varies, as does the level of their Chinese language skills. The funding for the Chinese language school comes from parents and other supporters within the Chinese community. Of the eight classes, five are taught in Chinese only and three are taught in both Chinese and English. The school opens every Sunday from 1:30 p.m. to 4:00 p.m. Instructors teach Chinese language lessons in speaking, writing, and listening from 1:30 p.m. to 3:00 p.m.; after 3:00 p.m. students attend extracurricular activities, such as kung-fu, Chinese painting, and traditional Chinese dancing. The Chinese school is like a small Chinese community. For example, students, parents, and teachers celebrate the Chinese Spring Festival at Chinese language school each year. Every Sunday, parents

and grandparents help teachers attend the children and sometimes provide meals. At the end of each semester, students present their term projects by performing Chinese operas, creating drawings, and singing at the final conference meeting. This Chinese school is where Chinese migrant families feel comfortable practicing their home culture.

Maintaining the native tongue

Implementing bilingual programs has been a controversial issue in the United States; bilingual programs and education are frequently sources of contention within U.S. education debates (Cummins, 1998). The Chinese school plays a role similar to that of bilingual programs in American schools. In immigrants' families, the languages they speak at home are usually considered low prestige compared to the one taught at school (Zentella, 1997). Standard English is considered a "must-learn" language and holds a position that is superior to other languages in the United States. In addition, standard English is usually perceived as a vehicle for success in society.

However, when immigrant children receive their formal education in school, their native language and cultural identity might clash with the mainstream. To help children adapt to the new culture and hold on to their native language, studies have indicated that having children learn their native tongue both at school and at home ultimately helps them learn the other language (Cummins, 1998; Wong-Fillmore, 1991). In West Australia, Barratt-Pugh and Rohl (2001) investigated how bilingual education can enhance students' learning interests and academic achievement. In the study, a bilingual program was established to develop children's English language and literacy, while at the same time maintaining their native language, Khmer – an official Cambodian language. Students who were interviewed in this study had very positive feelings toward learning both languages. The Cambodian children who spoke Khmer felt comfortable interacting with their elders and family members. Also, they were able to develop a strong cultural identity through learning and speaking their native language in a predominantly monolingual country.

Cultural identity development

Even though bilingual researchers have reported many positive outcomes of maintaining the native language, many older Chinese American students do not want to continue their Chinese language education because of other priorities. For Chinese American children, learning two languages is sometimes a struggle, especially when they grow older and leave home for college. Although parents have high expectations for their children's learning their native language, children themselves might perceive Chinese language schools as unnecessary to their education and

future (Cheng & Kuo, 2000). For this reason, many Chinese-Americans might abandon their native language to assimilate into the mainstream culture.

Melting pot is a term used by the dominant group to explain different groups of people who have come to the United States and melted their cultures with each other's to become one culture, the American culture. There is no doubt that the American society proposes multiculturalism to immigrants. However, behind the scenes, assimilating into mainstream culture is usually the only way for minority people to achieve acceptance. When minority cultures are not appreciated and valued by the mainstream, the *differences* can be seen as a problem (Motani, 2002). Because of this pressure to assimilate, Chinese parents worry that their children cannot communicate with family elders due to their limited proficiency in the Chinese language. In this way, the struggle to maintain the culture and language heritage can become a major concern for Chinese families.

Bui and Stimpfl (2000) conducted a study using the Marcia identity status theory to identify the variations in ethnic identity within an immigrant population. They investigated how Vietnamese students adjust their life and cultural differences between school and home. The study revealed that students believe speaking Vietnamese and being bilingual is an important part of their culture. Language is considered a key attribute in an ethnic group that helps members develop their social and cultural identity. The cultural elements practiced at home and in the community can constitute an important basis for second-generation Asian Americans' ethnic identities (Min & Kim, 2000). Motani (2002) suggested that educators and non-dominant cultural groups should understand that certain kinds of education, such as attending Korean schools and becoming involved in community activities, can be effective in enhancing and restoring one's cultural identity and helping one develop assertive bicultural identity. Languages, cultural identities, and communities intertwine, and these three elements guide minority students throughout their educational journey.

Race matters

For migrant families, maintaining the home language often occupies a crucial position in the social construction process of their ethnicity, and the ability to use the ethnic language to communicate with other group members serves as a symbol of ethnic status (Cheng & Kuo, 2000). Nevertheless, race and racism toward language use should not and cannot be dismissed from the context, especially for people of color. In the United States, for non-dominant groups such as Latinos, Asians and blacks, the linguistic stigma is reinforced by physical differences (Attinasi, 1997).

Cambodian children in Western Australia share the same concerns as Chinese children in America. They struggle to find a balance between being involved in a bilingual program and not wanting to be seen as different from the mainstream group (Barratt-Pugh & Rohl, 2000). Developing a sense of belonging in their own community and at the same assimilating into the mainstream is challenging for many Cambodian children. At school, students who speak languages other than English tend to suffer devaluation from peers and teachers (Attinasi, 1997). Furthermore, Schmid (2001) states that many second-generation immigrants are expected to be better off than their parents and elders. To gain full acceptance in society and school, they not only drop their native language but they are also unwilling to maintain their cultural identity. Chinese Americans may view being able to speak Chinese as a hindrance to obtaining a higher social position.

Many Chinese Americans have internalized the notion of being forever foreign. The Chinese school should not only teach the Chinese language, but it should also inspire students toward critical thinking in relation to language learning. "The power of language is the power to define, to decide the nature of lived experience" (Ruiz, 1997, p. 320). By learning the Chinese language, Chinese American students can use this power of self-definition to raise racial consciousness and recognize the power relations among other minority groups. Being *yourself* and knowing where you are from is crucial across all Asian immigrant families.

Conclusion

Anzaldúa (1999) said, "If you want to really hurt me, talk badly about my language. Ethnic identity is twin skin to linguistic identity—I am my language" (p. 81). In a predominately monolingual society, it is always a struggle to preserve minority languages and cultures. Chinese language teachers should fully acknowledge their racial and cultural position so as to pass on the cultural traditions and language to youths. Our culture is always deeply rooted not only in our language but also in our skin. In addition, both the cultural and racial issues that Chinese Americans face today should be addressed at Chinese language school. In my view, Chinese teachers should not merely teach language lessons. Along with parents and other members of the Chinese community, they should also take responsibility to promote critical thinking skills in Chinese literacy learning.

References

- ANZALDUA, G. (1999). *Borderlands/La Frontera (Second Edition)*. San Francisco: Consortium Book Sales & Distribution.
- ATTINASI, J. (1997). Racism, language variety, and urban minorities: Issues in bilingualism and bidialectalism. In Darder, A., Torres, R. & Butierrez, H. (Eds.), *Latinos and Education: A critical reader* (pp. 279-301). New York: Routledge.
- BARRATT-PUGH, C. & ROHL, M. (2001). Learning in two languages: a bilingual program In Western Australia. *The Reading Teacher*, 54, 664-676.
- BUI, N. H. & STIMPFL, J. (2002). Who are these people anyway? Variations in Ethnic identity within an immigrant population. In Ghymn, E. M. (Ed.), *Asian American Studies* (pp.113-133). New York: Peter Lang.
- CHENG, S. & KUO, W. H. (2000). Family socialization of ethnic identity among Chinese American pre-adolescents. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies*, 31, 463-484.
- CRAWFORD, J. (1999). *Bilingual education: history politics theory and practices*. New Jersey: Crane Publisher, Co.
- CUMMIS, J. (1990). Empowering minority students: A framework for intervention. In Minami, M. & Kennedy, B. P. (Eds.), *Language issues in literacy and bilingual/multicultural education* (pp. 372-389). Cambridge, MA: Harvard Educational Review.
- CUMMINS, J. (1991). The development of bilingual proficiency from home to school: a longitudinal study of Portuguese-Speaking children. *Journal of Education*, 73(2), 85-98
- CUMMINS, J. (1998). Bilingual Education in the United States: power, pedagogy, and possibility. *The Review of Education/Pedagogy/Cultural Studies*, 20, 255-270.
- FERDMAN, B. (1990). Literacy and Cultural Identity. In Minami, M. & Kennedy, B. P. (Eds.). *Language issues in literacy and bilingual/multicultural education* (pp. 347-371). Cambridge, MA: Harvard Educational Review.
- KIM, C. J. (2001). Playing the racial trump card: Asian Americans in cotemporary U.S. politics. *Ameriasia Journal* 26(3), 35-65.
- LOTT, J. (1998). *Asian Americans: from racial category to multiple identities*. Walnut Creek, CA: Altamira Press.
- MACEDO, D. (1997). English Only: The tongue-tying of America. In Darder, A., Torres, R. & Butierrez, H. (Eds.), *Latinos and Education: A critical reader* (pp. 269-278). New York: Routledge.
- MIN, P. G. & KIM, R. (1999). *Struggle from Ethnic identity*. Walnut Creek, CA: Altamira Press.

- MONTANI, Y. (2002). Towards a more just educational policy for minorities in Japan: the case of Korean ethnic school. *Comparative Education*, 38(2), 225-237.
- OGBU, J. & SIMONS, H. (1998). Voluntary and involuntary minorities: A cultural-ecological theory of school performance with some implications for education. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly*, 29(2), 155-188.
- RUIZ, R. (1997). The empowerment of language-minority students. In Darder, A., Torres, R. & Butierrez, H. (Eds.). *Latinos and Education: A critical reader* (pp. 319-328). New York: Routledge.
- SANCHEZ, S. (1999). Issues of language and culture impacting the early care of young Latino children. [Electronic version]. *NCCIS Publication*, 1-5.
- SCHIMD, C. L. (2001). Educational achievement, language-minority students, and the new second generation. *Sociology of Education*, 71-87.
- TANNO, D. & GONZALEZ, A. (1998). Sites of identity in communication and culture. In Tanno, D. & Gonzalez, A. (Eds.), *Communication and identity across cultures* (pp. 3-7). London: Sage Publications.
- TSAI, S. H. (1986). *The Chinese experience in America*. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Press.
- TUAN, M. (1998). Racialized ethnics compared to white ethnics. In Tuan, M., *Forever foreigners or honorary whites?* (pp. 21- 47). New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.
- U.S. Census (2013). Retrieved on October 1, 2013, from <http://www.census.gov/>.
- WONG-FILLMORE, L. (1991). A questions for early-childhood programs: English first or family first? *Education Week*, p. 36.
- WONG, B. P. (1982). *Chinatown*. New York: CBS College Publishing.
- WU, F. (2002). *Yellow: Race in America beyond black and White*. New York: Basic Books.
- ZENTELLA, A. C. (1997). Returned migration, language, and identity: Puerto Rican bilinguals in dos worlds/two mundos. In Darder, A., Torres, R. & Butierrez, H. (Eds.), *Latinos and Education: A critical reader* (pp. 302-3188). New York: Routledge.
- ZIA, H. (2000). *Asian American dream*. New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux.

Contact

YihYeh Pan

Sanno University

Japan

pan@mi.sanno.ac.jp

Get empowered by C.R.E.A.M.

Maria Zaheer¹ & Amina Shaikh²

¹ Prince Sultan University, Saudi Arabia

Marszaheer@hotmail.com

Amina Altaf Shaikh

² Qassim University, Saudi Arabia

gulamina@gmail.com

Abstract

No matter whatever manner you learn it is possible to develop your study skills. Cottrell (2003, p. 55) in this regard recommends the C-R-E-A-M strategy and she was the one who first coined the acronym C.R.E.A.M. She recommends five strategies which seek to empower students with essential learning skills: **C-Creative**: Have the confidence to use individual strategies and styles, by applying imagination to learning. **R-Reflective**: Be able to sit with one's own experience, analyze and evaluate one's own performance, and draw lessons from it. **E-Effective**: Organize space, time, priorities, state of mind and resources (including Information Technology, IT), to the maximum benefit. **A-Active**: Be personally involved and by doing things, physically and mentally, in order to make sense of what you learn. **M-Motivated**: Be aware of one's own desired outcomes; keep oneself on track using short and long-term goals. Cottrell (2003) further explains that each individual strategy in the C.R.E.A.M. framework is in a dependent relationship with each other. For instance, being active fosters learning motivation and interest. Being interested and motivated requires reflection and making sense of your experience. I as an ESL instructor have attempted an action research to motivate my students' learning in the Reading/ Writing and Reading Circle 010 courses through the employment of Cottrell's CREAM framework. For the enhancement of teaching and learning, it is implied that teachers can make use of the C.R.E.A.M. strategy by designing meaningful activities to motivate their students to learn.

Key words: study skills, learning strategise, C.R.E.A.M., motivation, reflective learning

Introduction

Today's modern world has narrowed the communicational gap and the vehicular connection is use of a language that is not native. This phenomenon has given birth to prerequisite that is learning a second language (L2). The accessible resources influx to 21st century 'digital natives' (Prensky, 2001) has become as a challenge for the teachers who are teaching in the field of English as Foreign language (EFL). Learners' over reliance on open resources has complicated deliverance of teaching style. Students' expectation from their teachers is beyond lectures, the need to rejuvenate teaching flairs has become inevitable.

Pedagogical approaches towards language classrooms has radically changed from a teacher centred to a student centred one. The language teaching pendulum has swung away from grammar translation to the direct method, and then to alternative methods (Richards & Rogers, 2003). Kumaravadivelu (2001) idiosyncratically referred to the belief that any language teaching program "must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular socio cultural milieu" (p. 538). Intrinsic motivation is an essential aspect of teaching and learning for instructors who strive to cultivate the learning environment by injecting motivation through innovative and creative teaching strategies." Intrinsic motivation refers to the reason why we perform certain activities for inherent satisfaction or pleasure; you might say performing one of these activities in reinforcing in-and-of itself"(Brown, 2007). Furthermore, teachers tend to complain about students weak concentration span, however they fail to recognize that this new generation is equipped with digital interfaces that are like an appendage to them. The integration of innovative ideas and a touch of creative ignite motivation effortlessly. Ergo, there might be certain socio cultural factors that stifle a teacher's intervention to a prescribed style of lesson. However, openness to explore, learn more, striving for new knowledge and leaving room to soak up from whatever one can get hold off are the people who reach to the heights of their career. Moreover, "expand the 'band width' of experiences from which you derive benefit. Becoming an all-round learner, increases your versatility and helps you learn from a wide variety of different experiences - some formal, some informal, some planned and some spontaneous."(Honey, P). Inquisitive approach towards teaching and learning enthusiasm delivers prosperous results.

Rationale

This critical rationale will outline approaches to teach an EFL Intermediate level/B1 group, as well as the processes of designing the course and sample materials. Any problems and how they would be tackle will also be explored. Many

writers, such as, Hutchinson & Waters (1987), Jordan (1997) and Nunan (1988) in their *Learner-Centred Curriculum*, stress the importance of needs analysis as the determiner of learning goals. Taking into account these concepts put forward the course content was tailor-made contributing to a positive learning experience for these young learners from non-native backgrounds. Three of the materials highlighted used in this course were created based on the contextual needs analysis.

Group profile

The 50 Preparatory Year Programme (PYP) learners' ages ranged from 18 to 21; in a Private university (Prince Sultan University, Saudi Arabia). Their present situation upon analysis was that these learners had spiky profiles or mixed abilities between pre intermediate to intermediate, lacked in their discourse and genre abilities to use English. The key aspect that was widely noticed was the motivation and enthusiasm.

Context and mean analysis

The course was semester based in nature and time-span for each session was 120 minutes 4 times a week. The classes were held on campus, in a well-equipped room to facilitate the teaching and learning process. As their teacher I had the freedom to produce my own materials to suit my teaching methodology, to achieve the course learning outcomes to the optimal level. The employment of C.R.E.A.M learning strategy was seen as most appropriate strategy for these learners. Many traditional paradigms suggest that students of this era are de motivated and quickly get empowered by boredom. To eradicate this phenomenon they should be extrinsically goaded into educational activities, because "motivation is such a key factor that appears to be more important in learning than intelligence" (Newble et al., p. 2).

Need analysis

As Burnaby (1989, p. 20) noted, "The curriculum content and learning experiences to take place in class should be negotiated between learners, teacher, and coordinator at the beginning of the project and renegotiated regularly during the project". At the beginning of the course needs assessment (diagnostic tests) were used to determine and to glean upon their present language proficiency level. This led to a starting point for identifying and understanding the needs of these learners as Johns (1991) cited in Sanghori states that, "to provide validity and relevancy for all subsequent course design activities, needs analysis should be the first step" (ibid). While Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998) claim that, "the needs were seen as discrete language items of grammar and vocabulary," (ibid) Long (2005), as cited in Graves suggests that, "findings of the analysis serve as the input into the design of the syllabus" (2008, p. 162). The results were later shared with the learners to form an

agreement, trust and understanding. As Davies states, “talk about the findings with the learners’ then act on the information” (2006, p. 5).

The findings accumulated from the samples of the authentic written materials provided useful insights to decide for the teaching approach for this course. Functional/situational syllabus was selected with a learner-centred approach, as it enhances the learners language usage with motivation for authentic communicative purposes, “To achieve this, the syllabus must be used in a more dynamic way in order to enable methodological considerations, such as interest, enjoyment, learner involvement, to influence the content of the entire course design” (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p. 92).

Aims

The learners’ most important reason for attending the course was to improve their Reading and Writing skills. Mainly, this course aimed to introduce contextualized language in relation to the specific situations faced by the learners on daily basis. The inventory of contents was outlined in a chronicle order with topics linked to one another from easier to harder topics. Hammer, J. states, “some structural or lexical items are easier for students to learn than others. Thus we teach easier things first and then increase the level of difficulty as the students’ language level rises” (2005, p. 296). In many situations, deliverance of a course is teacher led pouring in information about skills and language or eliciting activities. However, to yield the most optimal learning outcome, and to allow the learners to realise their full potentials in learning English successfully, the teacher should only be as a facilitator and encouraged the students to map out the type of activities they wanted to do. “A comprehensive discussion of the teacher’s role in learner-centered approach is contained” (Tudor, 1993 cited in Jordon 1997, p. 122). In this case Cottrell’s C.R.E.A.M. learning strategy was regarded as the best method to teach this particular group. It is an attempt to liberate the teachers from being restricted in their choices of teaching pedagogy. With the deliberate intention of intrinsic motivation the students of Preparatory year Programme (PYP) were extrinsically goaded into educational activities to spark the desire of motivation and arousal of interest among the learners.

Authentic materials

Tomlinson (2003) uses the term ‘materials’ to ‘include anything which can be used to facilitate the learning of a language. They can be linguistic, visual, auditory or kinaesthetic and can provide experience of the language in use and can help learners make discovery about the language for themselves. Hutchinson reminds us that

“...the selection of materials probably represents the single most important decision that the language teachers has to make” (1987, p. 37).

In the material developing phase Robinson suggests in-house produced materials are more specific for unique learning situation, and "have greater face validity in terms of the language dealt with and the contexts it is presented in" (1991, p. 56-58) and more suitable methodology for the intended learners. According to the discourse and genre analysis related to this group of learners most of the materials were matched to the specific language. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 96) state, there are three possible ways of applying materials: using existing materials, writing materials and adapting materials. The authentic materials used for the teaching and learning in this employment of C.R.E.A.M were either self-developed or adapted from the internet. Crystal & Davy claim, “the text book language is poor representation of the real thing, ‘far away from that real’, informal kind of English which is used very much more than any other during a normal speaking lifetime” (1975 cited in Gilmore 2007, p. 98-99).

Nunan defines “A rule of thumb for authenticity here is any material which has been specifically produced for the purposes of language teaching” (1989 cited in Yuan Yuan & Lingzhu 2010, p. 2). Based on this definition the three authentic materials created to teach this course met the characteristics highlighted by Nunan. Role plays, “At a macro structural discourse level we go beyond linguistic elements to knowledge of organizational features that are characteristic of particular genres, and of interactional strategies... are sensitive to the relationship between language forms and the communicative situations within which they are used...” (Troike, 2006, p. 160). Communicative activities have real purposes: to find information and to break down barriers. Research on second language acquisition (SLA) suggests that more learning takes place when students are engaged in relevant tasks within a dynamic learning environment rather than in traditional teacher-led classes (Moss & Ross-Feldman, 2003). Cottrell (2008, p. 55) suggests five strategies which seek to empower students with essential learning skills:

C - Creative: Have the confidence to use individual strategies and styles, by applying imagination to learning.

R - Reflective: Be able to sit with one’s own experience, analyse and evaluate one’s own performance, and draw lessons from it.

E - Effective: Organize space, time, priorities, state of mind and resources (including Information Technology, IT), to the maximum benefit.

A - Active: Be personally involved and by doing things, physically and mentally, in order to make sense of what you learn.

M - Motivated: Be aware of one's own desired outcomes; keep oneself on track using short and long-term goals.

Communicative activities which can help turn the English classroom into an active and enjoyable place. Extensive Reading/Reading Circle were introduced by a famous book called *Who Moved My Cheese*, by Spencer Johnson, MD. The moral of the story is to let go of the past, get over things you cannot change, move forward, and realize that there is no reason to fear the unknown because the unknown may be better than anything you could have imagined! It's really all about change and how change has unlimited potential depending on how you deal with it. The gist of C.R.E.A.M was in cooperated in several activities over the semester such as an educational event which was a book inspired poster competition named 'A walk for inspiration' initiated by Ms. Maria Zaheer where a total of 78 students in 5 sections of PYP participated. They were asked to make an inspirational poster related to how they may embrace change in their lives. The criteria of judgment were based on the originality and theme related quotes. The winners and participants were awarded with certificates. The main aim of this activity was 'Language Experience Approach' (Allen, 1960); this comprehension strategy is now been recognized and more widely used for the past thirty years. This strategy uses the students' existing language and prior experiences to develop reading, writing and listening skills.

The language experience approach to teaching and learning builds learners' literacy skills as their personal experiences and spoken language/written language is linked. A language experience story can be effective for class community building. The students were asked to write a short story which could be a personal life experience, a fairy tale of their own version, or totally a new creative story. The C.R.E.A.M. strategy was fully made use of; the students were extrinsically motivated with a prize and certificates, plus the publication of the winner's stories in the university magazine. Furthermore, their authentic materials also provide reading material for beginning level learners to exceed their literacy skills. Follow-up activities can include using the class generated text to teach explicit literacy skills through activities that require learners to select words from the story for vocabulary, spelling, or sound-symbol correspondence activities. The text can also be used to review a grammar point, such as sequence of tenses, word order, or pronoun referents.

Conclusion

By making EAP teaching learner-centered, the students in this course were able to perceive positive learning experiences even though they exhibited passive learning behaviors in the first few classes. Most experts view learner-centered learning as a

major paradigm shift in teaching (Nunan, 1988; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evan & St. John, 1998). In such an environment, the focus is shifted to the constructive role of the learner, which differentiates it from a teacher-centered model in which knowledge is transmitted from teacher to learner. When learners take some responsibility for their own learning and are invited to negotiate some aspects of the course design, the subject matter and course content has relevance for the learner as they feel motivated to become more involved in their learning and often seem to participate more actively in class. Teachers can look forward to enhancing their students' English literacy development as an aid to developing success in their learning.

References

- Bray on line English help, ebookfcwriting, accssed on www.brays-ingles.com
- COTTRELL, S. (2008). *The study skills handbook*. 3rd edition. Palgrave Macmillan
- GRAVES, K. (2008). State-of-the-Art Article: The language curriculum: A social contextual perspective. *Language Teaching*, 42(2), 147-181.
- HINKEL, E. (2004). *Teaching academic ESL writing: Practical techniques in vocabulary and grammar*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- HINKEL, E. (2006). Current perspectives on teaching the four skills. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), 109-131.
- HUTCHINSON, T. & WATERS, A. (1987). *English for Specific Purposes: A learning centred approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- JORDAN, R. R. (1997). *English for Academic Purposes: A guide and recourse book for teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- NEWBLE, D. & CANNON, R. (1989). *A handbook for teachers in university: A guide to improve teaching methods*. London: Kogan Page Ltd.
- NUNAN, D. (1988). *Syllabus Design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- NUNAN, D. (1989). *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- REECE, I. & WALKER, S. (2003). *Teaching, Training And Learning. A Practical Guide*. 5th edition. Business Education Publishers.
- RICHARDS, C. J. (1996). Teacher's Maxims in Language Teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(2), 281-96.
- SAVILLE-TROIKE, M. (2006). *Introducing second language acquisition*. Cambridge, New York: Cambridge University Press.
- SONGHORI, M. (2007). Introduction to Needs Analysis. *English for Specific Purposes world*, Issue 4, www.esp-world.info.

- TATSUKI, D. (2006). What is authenticity? *The Language Teacher*, 16(5), 17–21.
Retrieved March 1, 2012, from <http://jalt.org/pansig/2006/HTML/Tatsuki.htm>
- TAYLOR, D. (1994). Inauthentic authenticity or authentic in authenticity? *TESOL*, 1(2), 1–12. Retrieved February, 2012 from <http://www.writing.berkeley.edu/tesol/tesol-quarterly>. Vol. 30. NO. 2 The University Of Auckland.
- TOMLINSON, B. (Ed.). (1998). *Materials development In Language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- TOMLINSON, B. (Ed.) (2003). *Developing Materials For language teaching*. London, New York: Continuum.
- TOMLINSON, B. (Ed.) (2008). *English Language Learning Materials: A Critical Review*. London: Continuum.
- TUDOR, I. (1996). *Learner Centeredness as Language Education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- UR, P. (1984). *Teaching listening comprehension*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- UR, P. (1999) *A Course in Language Teaching. Practice and theory. Trainee Book*. Cambridge Teacher Training and Development. www.blackburn.gov.uk/news
- WEST, J. (1994). State of the Art Article: Needs Analysis In language. *Language Teaching*, 27(01), 1-19.
- WHITE, R. (1998). *The ELT Curriculum: Design, Innovation and Management*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- WIDDOWSON, H. G. (1998). Context, community and authentic language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(4), 705–616.
- WIGGINS, A. R. & NEWTON, S. & EBERLY, B. M. (2001). The Syllabus as a Tool for Student-Centred Learning. *The Journal of General Education*, 50(1).
- WILLIS, D. & WILLIS, J. (2007). *Doing Task-Based Teaching*. Oxford University Press.
- WOODWARD, T. (2001). *Planning Lessons and Courses: Designing Sequences of Work for the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- YALDEN, J. (1987). *Principles of Course Design for Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- YALDEN, J. (1987). *The Communicative Syllabus: Evolution, Design and Implementation*. Prentice-Hall International English Language Teaching.

Contacts

Maria Zaheer
Prince Sultan University, Saudi Arabia
Marszaheer@hotmail.com

Amina Altaf Shaikh
Qassim University, Saudi Arabia
gulamina@gmail.com

Language in education: Instructions

Valieva Nasiba Khadiyatullaevna

National University of Uzbekistan

valieva_nasiba@mail.ru

Abstract

In the present article we tried to illuminate the importance of giving instructions in the classroom. Some viewpoints of distinguished scholars on classroom language learning serve as the basis of this research. Instructions in the classroom have educational and communicative value. Owing to the skillful role of educator the learners encounter with language literacy and become motivated to produce at least short conversation. As an output of an educational institution we get a well-organized, possessing wide world view member of society who is ready to generate his/her gained knowledge, new ideas and energy in the development of the country.

Key words: educator/teacher, learners, classroom language, instructions, communication, scaffolding, friendly environment, society

As it's well known the main participants of Education process are **teachers** and **learners**. Giving instructions is of great importance in education. The most part of our learning process we have in the classroom. The communication between an educator and the learners plays significant role in the becoming of a personality. Classroom language has been in the focus of the methodologic and linguistic studies since the middle of the 20th century.

Classroom language learning was the focus of research studies in the 1960s and early 1970s. Such issues as teacher preparation and experience, class size, learners' need and attitudes, lack of well-defined classroom process and lack of agreement on what constituted successful learning were investigated. However, researchers' attention is now being directed to the social dynamics and discourse of the classroom (Savignon, 2002, p. 21).

The early studies of **classroom language** shared a number of common assumptions, drawn from work in sociolinguistics. For example, sociolinguists hold that differences in oral **communication** reflect social variables, such as gender, ethnicity, social class, and age. When children enter school, their mode of oral communication has been influenced by these factors; they also already work within a communication system, which consists of language structure (sound structure, inflection, syntax), content (meaning), and use (purposes of communication,

appropriate forms of communication). Knowledge about meaning, language functions (pragmatics), discourse genres, and more complex syntax continue to develop during schooling and into adulthood (Scott, 1995).

Vygotsky's social constructivist theory is the starting point for the discussion of major themes and research trends in classroom language research and their relationship to literacy learning. In particular he introduced the notion **scaffolding** which broadly means the classroom interaction. Through dialogue and associated nonverbal interaction, teachers provide graduated assistance to novice learners as they attain ever higher levels of conceptual and communicative competence (Wilkinson & Silliman, 2001). The use of scaffolds in both regular and special education classrooms reflects a continuum from interrogation sequences to instructional conversations (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).

Questions remaining to be addressed include how instructional conversations are actually used in literacy **instruction**, and how they affect the motivation of individual students to read and write for a variety of communicative purposes. Educators should be encouraged to implement more discussion-based activities -- such as debating, questioning, clarifying, and elaborating -- which can be initiated in the classroom by the teacher or students. Such activities employ instructional conversations to varying degrees and assist students in developing effective strategies for comprehension and expression as tools of inquiry (ReadingOnline, online).

Obviously, the use of oral language in classroom has become the most important issue in the theoretical and practical studies of the language.

Value of using English when giving instructions

In teaching English as a foreign language success of the learning depends on the environment. When teacher from the very beginning of the academic year conducts the lessons in English students will try to react to whatever teacher asks them in the same language too. One of the first things a teacher does is giving instructions. Teacher can ask or order, urge or make students do activities. Students learn by listening to the teacher, minding the tone of the voice and situation. Along with giving instructions it is advisable to focus on the structure and language. Creating the friendly and English-speaking environment a teacher not only facilitates to overcome the language barrier but also encourages them to be involved in the activities. Educator invokes the classroom conversation by asking the everyday questions, such as: Who is absent today? What is your home task? Why are you so noisy today? Do you want to know your test results? Surely, these kinds of questions demand the learners' reply but don't influence the classroom environment. On the other hand, if

the educator changes these questions into instructions he/she may provoke the funny and **friendly environment** which will influence the further flow of the lesson. For example:

1. *Stand up those who are absent today.* - will provoke humoristic effect and teacher will be able to see which of the learners are attentive to his words.
2. *Remind me please your home task.* - have learners to tell him their task.
3. *Don't be so noisy I can't hear a fly buzzing around my ear.* - in humoristic way urge the learners to be quiet.
4. *If you are interested in your test results ask me one by one in alphabetic order according the first letter in your name.* - involve learners to make order for asking the question.

Purposes of giving instructions may be different for instance, in the classroom to do any activity, in the street giving directions to the strangers to find their way, when doctor administers a medicine we follow his/her instructions, suggesting somebody a way out in confusing situation and etc. We can find ourselves in a variety of situations demanding giving instructions. So teaching the instructions in English supports learners to mingle into the English-speaking environment and be conventional in any situation.

Characteristic of effective instructions

Although to give instructions may seem an easy task, teacher may fail in getting the right output. The basic requirements to the successful instructions may be the first, the usage of simple words and expressions that convey instructions must be understandable, clear. The second, instruction shouldn't contain a lot of words. It must be short. The next is - it must be in logical order. Suppose you give instruction to answer the questions based on the text, but your learners don't know what the text is about. Obviously, it brings to the failure and will slow down the pace (flow) of the lesson. And the last, minding English grammar when giving instructions one should use imperative sentences. But it doesn't mean that you should sound harsh. To prevent the unwilling circumstances the teacher has to introduce some words and constructions in order to sound polite, for example: please, can you...? Do you think you can....? Emilia, can you help Maria with the text?

Hence, we can give instructions using not only imperative form but also question form structures. Besides the instructions may be declarative ones. In other words, the affirmative and interrogative sentences together with imperative ones may imply the instruction.

For instance:

You have five minutes to do this.

It's time to finish.

I'm waiting for you to be quiet.

Methodologically, giving different types of instructions during the lesson have significant impact on the learners' motivation. It's up to the educator and his power of imagination to sustain the friendly environment within the classroom. To vary the process of giving instructions here we present a handful of them to use in your classroom:

1. Write the instruction on the white/black board.
2. Write the instruction on the piece of paper and let a learner read it aloud to the rest of the class.
3. Silent instruction, i.e. miming/gesticulating.
4. Stick the instruction on the outside of the door and ask a learner go out and read it then come back and tell to the classmates.
5. "Traffic light" instruction is good for starting or finishing some activities in class. Educator raises the Red coloured paper, then changes it with yellow one and swap with the green one implying the attention, becoming ready and starting reading the text/ doing the work/ writing exercise/essays/having discussion, etc. The process of finishing the activity requires the reverse order of colour signals.

Classroom language

TEACHER'S CLASSROOM LANGUAGE

- I'm waiting for you to be quiet
- Sit down and be quiet.
- Stop talking and be quiet.
- Settle down.
- I'm going to call the roll.

- Good morning everybody. How are you today?
- Take out your books and materials.
- Put all your other books and papers away.
- Let's begin our lesson now.
- Is everybody ready to start?
- Have you done your homework?
- We are going to correct the homework first, then, we will...
- Fulanico, can you start reading please?
- Maria, go on please.

- Maria next.
- Emilia, can you help Maria with the text?
- Open your books at page ...
- Turn to page...
- Pay attention everybody.
- Raise your hands / Put your hands up.
- Put your hands down.
- Are you ready?
- We finished on page....
- We will continue with the(first, solar system) chapter.
- Do you understand the topic?
- Are there any questions?
- Are you with me?
- What part do you find difficult to understand?
- Come up to the (black) board.
- Come to the front of the class.
- Let's check the answers.
- Does everyone agree with Fulano's answers?
- Repeat what (your classmate) (Fulano) said.
- Any other answers?
- Why did you choose that answer?
- Copy the information on the board.
- Write that down.
- Take note of that.
- Don't write in the books.
- Use a pencil to write in the workbook.
- Repeat after me.
- Put your bags on the floor.
- Only books and pencil cases allowed on the desk.
- Stand up.
- You have five minutes to do this.
- It's time to finish.
- Have you finished?

- We'll do the rest of this chapter next time.
- We'll finish this exercise next lesson.
- We've run out of time, so we'll continue next lesson.
- We'll continue this chapter next Monday.

- This is your homework for tonight.
- Do exercise 10 on page 23 for your homework.
- Study tonight because tomorrow I will test you.
- Prepare the next chapter for Monday.
- There is no homework tonight.
- Remember your homework.

- The bell hasn't gone yet.
- That's all for today. You can go now.
- It's time to stop / finish. Pack up your books. You can go (ESL flow, online).

The above list of the classroom instructions contains a lot of lexical and grammatical material to study. On one hand the words used by teacher regularly during the lessons are easily memorized by learners and expend their lexicon. Consequently, learners have these words in their active vocabulary and may easily operate with them when teacher asks to give instructions to the friends or do some role-playing activities: act like the teacher in the classroom. The learnt expressions support to maintain the class communication. On the other hand the range of words used in classroom instructions may be a **good tool** in teaching or revising grammar rules. In every order there is a verb, a noun, pronoun, or phrasal verb (verb + preposition), etc. For instance, **parts of the speech**

Verb	pronoun	noun	phrasal verb	collocations
do	it	exercise	Come up	Pay attention.
copy	that	text	Are you with	Pack up your books.
repeat	them	words	me? (to be with	Turn the page.
give	me	pen	= follow)	
use	this	pencil	Turn to	

Type of the sentence

- Any other answers?
- Fulanico, can you start reading please?

- Take note of that.
- We finished on page....

Tense forms: When giving instructions Present simple, Present Progressive, Present Perfect and Future simple may be used.

- This is your homework for tonight.
- I'm waiting for you to be quiet
- We are going to correct the homework first, then, we will...
- We'll do the rest of this chapter next time.
- Have you finished?

Negative and Positive instructions

- Do exercise 10 on page 23 for your homework.
- Don't write in the books.

Role of educator/teacher

- **What is education?** - It is when **teacher** teaches and learner learns.
- **How do we get knowledge?** - We read books, do exercises, observe others and try ourselves.
- **Does anyone tell us what *is advisable* to read or what is *reasonable* to do in some situations?** - Parents, **teachers**, friends.
- **Who taught your parents, teachers, and friends?** - **TEACHER.**
- **What does the teacher do?** - Educate us.
- **How does he/she educate us?** - Explains the new topics, tells us to do different tasks, shows the examples.
- **How do you know that you get good knowledge?** - **Teacher** asks the questions, we do the test and write compositions for which **teacher** evaluates us.

Behind all these questions and answers is teacher's hard work, patience and love to profession. Teacher prepares for each lesson, searches new material every time, analyses it, adapts to the level of learners, discusses with the colleagues, improves it then checks the learners knowledge by preparing tests, quizzes, worksheets and etc. During the lesson teacher instructs learners what to do and how to do assignments. And not only during the lesson after the lessons has teacher stayed at the school/campus to give more information/practice with learners the learning skills etc. Moreover, in the everyday life teachers help, instruct, give advice not only at their workplace but everywhere appealing to the society to live by the rules.

The communication between the educator and the learner has strategic importance for the future of the society. Starting from the primary school teachers order the children to repeat the words or actions and have them do so. Teachers write books in which they write the tasks to fulfill, for instance, *Read the text and answer the questions* or *Write the sentences with fact and opinion adjectives*. At collage teachers instruct student how to cope with different tasks: to write an essay, make winning presentations and so on. The role of a teacher is very important in our society. As an output of educational institution we get a well-organized, possessing wide world view member of society who is ready to generate his/her gained knowledge, new ideas and energy in the development of the country.

Reference

ESL flow. (online). Available at: <http://www.eslflow.com>

ReadingOnline. (online). Available at: http://www.readingonline.org/articles/art_index.asp?HREF=/articles/handbook/wilkinson/index.html

SAVIGNON, S. J., & SAVIGNON, S. J. (Eds.). (2002). Communicative Language Teaching: Linguistic Theory and Classroom Practice. In S. J. SAVIGNON & S. J. SAVIGNON (Eds.), *Interpreting Communicative Language Teaching: Contexts and Concerns in Teacher Education* (pp. 1–28). Yale University Press. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/j.ctt1npsh9.4>

SCOTT, C. (1995). Syntax for school-age children: A discourse perspective. In Fey, M., Windsor, J. & Warren, S. (Eds.), *Language intervention: Preschool through the elementary years* (pp. 107-141). Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes.

THARP, R. G. & GALLIMORE, R. (1988). *Rousing minds to life: Teaching, learning, and schooling in social context*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Training the Trainers: Training Toolkit (2009). Tashkent.

WILKINSON, L. C. & SILLIMAN, E. R. (2001, February). Classroom language and literacy learning. *Reading Online*, 4(7). Available: http://www.readingonline.org/articles/art_index.asp?HREF=/articles/handbook/wilkinson/index.html

Contact

Valieva Nasiba Khadiyatullaevna

Uzbekistan

Tashkent-100041

Str. I. Muminov 1/2 - 17

valieva_nasiba@mail.ru

Challenges in teaching legal English and efficient methods of evaluating Romanian students at the Faculty of Law and Public Administration

Roxana-Petruta Goga-Vigaru

"Spiru Haret" University, Romania

roxanavigaru@yahoo.com

Abstract

The aim of this paper is to present the challenges in teaching legal English to non-native students from the Faculty of Law and Public Administration in a Romanian private university and to offer several suggestions for improving the methods of assessment. English for Specific Purposes has increasingly developed in the last decades and there is no argue that English has become lingua franca. Being the language of international legal practice, English is an important part of a legal training programme and, in order to face the challenges of the labour market in the future, students must be able to overcome the problems due to the differences between legal systems and languages. Teaching English for Specific Purposes is a never-ending process considering that, in order to achieve proficiency, constant training is needed.

Key-words: legal English, vocabulary acquisition, terminology, assessment, learners' needs

Introduction

Legal language is a technical language, different from other technical languages, like mathematics or physics, as it is tied to a national legal system, having its highly specialized terminology. In language for special purpose communication, the text is formulated in a special language or sub-language that is subject to special syntactic, semantic and pragmatic rules. Legal language is used in communicative situations, for pleading, claiming etc., by lawyers, judges, jury members, law professors, and also in communications between lawyers and the layperson or the general public.

According to White (1982, p. 423), one of the most problematic features of legal discourse is that it is 'invisible'. He claims that "the most serious obstacles to comprehensibility are not the vocabulary and sentence structure employed in law, but the unstated conventions by which language operates."

Teaching legal English in private universities and methods of evaluation

The legal English course I am teaching is an upper-intermediate course for learners who are students at the Faculty of Law and Public Administration and who need to be able to use English in their future legal profession. "Spiru Haret" University has introduced legal English at the Faculty of Law and Public Administration in order to cope with the great demand, thus determining non-native English speaking students to specialize in legal English. Our students study legal English for four semesters during the first two years at the Faculty of Law and Public Administration and since beginners cannot be accepted, they have to have at least an intermediate level in order to be able to deal with the requirements of studying English within a law degree programme.

Students should be able to use legal English in a professional manner, so, in the first year, their training focuses on:

Part I

- Unit 1. British Law vs. US Law
- Unit 2. Forms of Punishment
- Unit 3. The European Court of Justice – Composition and Structure
- Unit 4. Institutions of the Community
- Unit 5. Daily Telegraph I
- Unit 6. Daily Telegraph II
- Unit 7. Home Confinement

Part II

- Unit 1. Student First Amendment Case
- Unit 2. Contempt of Court or Violation of Freedom of the Press?
- Unit 3. The Role of Federal Courts in Balancing Liberties and Safety
- Unit 4. United States Constitution: Amendments
- Unit 5. Disclosure of Classified Information
- Unit 6. Health Care Fraud
- Unit 7. Identity Theft

and in the second year on:

- Unit 1. Law
- Unit 2. Civil Law
- Unit 3. Criminal Law
- Unit 4. Criminal Procedure
- Unit 5. Courts

Unit 6. The British Constitution and Government

Unit 7. The United States Constitution and Government

Unit 8. Legal Education

Legal English course is a course of language, not a course of legal concepts or information, so I must admit that, in order to gain sufficient knowledge on different legal issues, I asked for my colleagues' help. As they are specialists in different areas of law, they could provide useful information which is important for me in succeeding teaching legal English.

Instead of the present structure of the legal English course, starting next academic year I shall try to change the syllabus and follow the structure of ILEC (International Legal English Certificate) Preparation Course. I consider that ILEC syllabus is more appropriate for a legal English course because it familiarizes students with the kind of vocabulary and situations they will encounter later on in their professions, it improves their ability to write common legal text types in English, it improves their ability to read and understand legal texts, it improves their speaking skills, making them more confident to engage in speaking situations typical of legal practice.

The course succeeds in achieving its aims through certain aspects found in the syllabus: production of authentic legal texts, language functions specific to legal texts and learning new legal vocabulary (Krois-Lindner, 2006).

During all these years of teaching at the Faculty of Law and Public Administration, I have noticed that we, English teachers, face a difficult problem, the fact that students concentrate more on law subjects. For this reason and because of the fact that we have a limited number of hours for the legal English course, I would propose the following syllabus as being more suitable for what a student needs to know after graduating this course:

Unit 1. The practice of law

Unit 2. Company law: company formation and management

Unit 3. Company law: fundamental changes in a company

Unit 4. Contracts: contract formation

Unit 5. Contracts: assignment and third-party rights

Unit 6. Employment law

Unit 7. Intellectual property

Unit 8. Competition law

Unit 9. Transnational commercial law

When writing or structuring a legal English course, a teacher must be aware of the fact that students don't need to master US or UK legal concepts, but to provide information regarding their own legal system, in our case Romanian law. As Codruta mentions it in her paper (2012), "the teacher must be utterly aware of the problems that such approach might create. When students are required to discuss in English about their own legal systems, we unavoidably determine them to translate into a foreign language. Although they are fluent and accurate in English and can engage, develop and sustain a conversation on a wide array of topics, it is very difficult for them to think in English about their own legal system."

A great result of legal English teaching would be that students gain the ability to formulate speeches using specialized terminology and also to develop ideas in the field of law. That is why, I, as a teacher, encourage discussion activities and role-plays in order to improve students' performance on speaking. In order to function adequately in an international legal English context, students must be able to produce legal vocabulary through legal texts and to express themselves by providing, orally, legal information in English.

A great method for developing listening comprehension skills in the absence of native speakers involved in the educational process is through videos. I use this method with my class and it proves to be very efficient in achieving communicative objectives. I create all sorts of exercises for them (multiple choice, fill in the gaps, true/false exercises, short essays, etc) and use them while we are watching or post-watching the videos.

Another problem teachers are facing is the fact that, although students should have at least intermediate level of English, there are many situations when they have different language levels and achieving their common aim of learning legal terminology and of familiarizing in English with the kinds of situations typical of legal practice becomes a big challenge for teachers.

I consider that assessment is important for the improvement of the teaching-learning process. In the process of learning, of gathering information, it is very important to write a report or to give an oral presentation as forms of assessment because, as we all know, legal professions require a lot of legal writing and speech delivering.

I also consider very important the constructive criticism offered by the other students (the audience) after preparing and holding a presentation. In this way, as mentioned by Bradea, students will be better organized in their activity of selecting and organizing legal information, will do research in the library and on the Internet, will develop presentation abilities and authentic English discourse.

When writing a project it is essential to know what information to select and to adapt it to your own project. As mentioned earlier in the paper, legal English course is a course of language and not a course of legal concepts, so an oral presentation will better reveal students' English language abilities.

Unfortunately, the current method of assessment at our university for the legal English course is through 'multiple choice' exercises, which does not allow the teacher to correctly evaluate the students. As I mentioned earlier, the best method of assessment for both teacher and students is through PowerPoint presentations, projects, essays and also through written tests. As Dudley-Evans and St. John mentioned, evaluation should be a "dynamic and adaptable" process: "Evaluation is a very constructive and powerful activity and a very stimulating one" (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 2006, p. 129). In this way, all students will have equal chances of getting a good grade and the teacher will not give an advantage to a student who expresses himself better over another student who is, perhaps, shy or, maybe, who does not have such good qualities of an orator.

Conclusion

The method of teaching is conditioned by the students' needs and also by their level of English language. Teaching legal English represents a challenge for teachers for three reasons:

1. Students' increasing interest for law subjects and lack of interest in learning highly specialized terminology in English.
2. Students' different levels of English language.
3. The fact that the teacher has to play the role of the learner himself in order to be prepared all the time.

Besides the desire of succeeding in their teaching job and of making the students realize the importance of legal English in their future professions, the teacher also has the obligation of helping the students to be able to face the challenges of the labour market later on. One can do that, first of all, through the teaching methods he uses, and secondly, through the form of assessment which has to be the most suitable for achieving this aim.

References

- HATIA, V. K. (1989). Legislative writing: A case of neglect in EA/OLP courses. *English for Specific Purposes*, 8, 223-238.
- BRADEA, L. O. (2013). Evaluation & assessment by *Project Work* with English for legal purposes. *Studia UBB Philologia*, LVIII, 2, 91-100.

- CODRUTA, B. E. (2012). Teaching legal English as a second language. *Annals Timisoara, XVIII*, 829-833
- DUDLEY-EVANS, T. & ST. JOHN, M.-J. (2006). *Developments in ESP: a multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge University Press.
- KROIS-LINDNER, A. (2006). *International Legal English. A course for classroom or self-study*. Cambridge University Press.
- WHITE, J. B. (1982). The Invisible Discourse of the Law. Reflections on Legal Literacy and General Education. *Michigan Quarterly Review*, 21.

Contact

Roxana-Petruta Goga-Vigaru
Faculty of Law and Public Administration
"Spiru Haret" University
roxanavigaru@yahoo.com

What causes a headache to Slovak teachers of legal English?

Janka Spálová

University of St Cyrilus and Methodius in Trnava, Slovakia

janka.spalova@gmail.com

Abstract:

Legal language and legal terminology are characterized by semantic precision, clarity, consistency, briefness and non-expressivity. However, legal practice and translation work point to the fact that in practice this characteristics does not apply, especially in the translation of legal terms from the source to the target language. This problem is more acute if a conflict of legal systems occurs - such as the Roman-Germanic and Anglo-American ones, which differ not only in their bases but also in spirit. The study attempts to clarify this fact by providing translation solution. The problem with translation of legal lexemes is not caused only by characteristics of the terms, but also by non - equivalency of terms or by the transition of legal branches, change of the term due to lapse of time and finally by the culture differences and the language itself. The paper deals with the concept of the term with which Legal English operates as well as with its characteristics that legal English breaks.

Since the late 20th century, people speak of the teaching as an expert profession. All the above mentioned facts about Legal English require from a teacher of legal English to be not only a language teacher but also a translator as well as professional in the field of law.

Key words: legal English, term, legal system, translation, lexeme

When writing contributions on topic of language of specific documents, we deal with the notions "concept and term". The concept is an abstract category. In Slovakia, we usually define the term according to the Slovak "earlier" authors and thus we rely on the accuracy of their definition of the 'term'. It is expressed by them as follows: "The legal terms name legal facts and their meanings can be precisely defined" (Tomášek, 1998, p. 25).

The basic features of the term by the above mentioned authors are:

- semantic accuracy
- clarity
- briefness

- comprehensibility
- determinateness.

Let us compare the features of term with legal language. The first features of the term in accordance with the above definitions are clarity and accuracy. Let's have a look at the word "vehicle". The English word "vehicle" means in translation even in the definition of this word in the English vocabulary vehicle, respectively, means of transport. Right. However, it is not right, if we take into account the generally binding regulation of towns and villages saying: "No vehicles in the park!" This means that the enter into the park will be forbidden also to a garbage truck, police car, ambulance, mother with stroller or a child on a bike? Moreover, can a tank, as a monument recalling the horrors and might fighters in the First, Second World Wars, be placed there?

Another example of clarity, in our case, can be a basic concept of law - "civil law". In the Anglo-American legal system, this word means continental law, but also a civil law.

When we want to mention other examples that are contrary to the stated properties of the term we may mention e.g. the issue of the word "accused". It can be translated into Slovak language as the accused or to be in charge of - in Slovak language these are 2 completely different meanings - obžalovaný a obvinený). How can we talk about accuracy or clarity when we mean 2 different stages of criminal proceedings?

We would like to mention also the term "government". We translate this word in state law as a government, even a power, but in criminal law as a party in criminal proceedings- i.e. representative of the State - the prosecutor.

Another feature of the term is "determinateness". Even by the experience gained by our existence we can support the falsity of this term's property. The law that changes and evolves with the dynamics of social development has nothing to do with this property. We are referring to the words as "Law of European Communities", which was earlier understood as European law. They were basically synonymous. Today, however, we must strictly distinguish the term "European law" that is an umbrella term and Law of European Communities and Law of European Union that are its components.

The last disputed property of the term, in our opinion, represents the "briefness". Translation of the English word "child support" to the Slovak is expressed as follows: "maintenance obligation to a child after divorce proceedings realized as a part of a property settlement." = („vyživovacia povinnosť na dieťa, realizovaná po rozvodovom konaní ako súčasť majetkového vypořádania“). As you can see, it is not short in

Slovak language at all. This is probably the result of non-equivalence of terms as well as the contents of the terms because of 2 different legal systems.

The translator and the teacher, therefore, must deal with the partial equivalence of terms in both languages - that is, part of the content and the scope of the legal expression overlaps in both languages - in the source and also in the target language. We could provide another example - the highest legislative body of the country: in the Slovak Republic and in the UK, it is a Parliament, but in the US it is the Congress.

The problem with translation of legal lexemes is not caused only by characteristics of the terms, but also by non - equivalency of terms or by the transition of legal branches, change of the term due to lapse of time and finally by the culture differences and the language itself.

In English, the term "law" can deter even a soulful interpreter - beginner as it hides in itself two key concepts: law and the law. Uncountable "some law" translator must translate as law (právo), but countable "the law" as the act (zákon). A very interesting example is the word "damage" which means damage, injury but in the plural form, the word "damages" means the exact negation- i.e. compensation (odškodné).

Another problem may be for the translator the typing error (e.g. leaving of a letter "s") or in other words ignorance of two completely different terms - and i.e. a multiple sentence or cumulative sentence (in Slovak language it is more obvious - súhrnný a úhrnný trest). When speaking about the ignorance, we can speak about the ignorance of terms arising not from legal content but from history and literature. Tomášek speaks about "Enoch Arden Laws" (Tomášek, 1995, p. 85) - these are the laws that come from Tennyson's poem. Enoch Arden hides his existence from his wife. She considers him being dead and therefore she gets married again. The US laws that allow conclusion of a new marriage, if one of the couple made him/herself not known for a certain period of time, follow from this poem - (e.g. in State of New York this period is five years). This is a special pronunciation for being dead. If the translator does not know the historical - literary context, he can skip (leave) this fact or even s/he may believe that it is the law that are associated with a certain local name.

Another example of solving the translation problem can be a problem with the translation of the term "law of property". This is a property law, but the content of this term is different in the Slovak and English legal systems. English property law is concerned only with the real estate.

Language, as such, is therefore a means to convey the objective reality or the exchange of information. In the social sciences, it is an instrument of scientific cognition, by which we define certain terms. As we see, the definitions are not

always accurate, although we would like them to be accurate. Mostly, this is due to the fact that objects and events of which we speak, are not always clear and precise. If we take into consideration just the word "big". How big is big? Can a small business be named as a factory? Does this small business have to have machines in order to be considered a factory? When does the booklet become a book? How many pages does it have to have (Crystal, 1995, p. 169)?

We think that especially in the area of criminal law we all wish, because of our own certainty, everything would be accurate, clear, and would not provide much room for interpretation. Yes, the legal terminology in the opinion of many authors is characterized by accuracy. But this is mostly the view of linguists who perceive language mostly in general terms - I mean the various manuals on stylistics and language, which usually state that the fundamental principle of legal terms is their definition in the Act, and therefore it arises from this the assumption an unambiguous interpretation of legal terms. However, even the students in the 1st year of their studies at the law faculties meet with the view - "as many lawyers, so many legal opinions". It follows from the legal practice that the legal meaning of the term in many cases is not clear, and often only interpretation can reverse the outcome of the legal process.

From Slovak Labour law we can mention the term "regimen". Labour Code, No. 311/2001 Coll, uses the term "regimen", but legally it does not define it. § 81 of this Labour Code assesses an employee an obligations to comply with the treatment regimen. Failure to comply with this obligation, the employee committed a "serious professional misconduct". Not only there was no definition of a treatment regimen, but this provision breached the right to human dignity, honour, reputation and good name by protecting human rights and freedoms enshrined in the Chapter II of the Slovak Constitution - "unjustified interference with the right to the protection of human dignity also relates to violation of professional secrecy, which belongs mainly to health professionals" (Král, 2004, p. 65) - because the employer checked the compliance with the treatment regimen.

We state also the absurdity of the different requirements for evidence in the case of the court proceedings in Criminal law and Civil law that is incomprehensible to the layman. These are two phrases - the plaintiff wins the civil litigation dispute thanks to the preponderance of the evidence; in the Criminal law we have in English the legal term "beyond a reasonable doubt". The prosecutor, in the Anglo-American legal system, "district attorney" must prove that the accused is guilty "above all doubt." This "absurdity" of two different requirements on evidence can be best illustrated by the case of O.J. Simpson, who was accused of murdering his own wife Nicol Brown Simpson and her friend Ron Goldman. The jury determined that he was not guilty,

because standard "beyond a reasonable doubt" was difficult to achieve, but in the civil legal process initiated by parents of Ron Goldman, OJ Simpson had to pay to the surviving family high damages because the standard for the recognition of compensation is lower - it is only the "preponderance of evidence".

In addition to managing legal terms, the Slovak teacher has to know and has to be able to translate phrases and language templates. The phrases may be e.g. enter into force, in accordance with law, in compliance with the law. Language template can be e.g. subject matter of a contract is in accordance with the law, the subject matter of the contract is in accordance with the requirements of the law.

So far we have taken in to consideration only the terms, phrases and templates, but the English legal language comprises also words that come from ancient and medieval English- so called archaisms : "Here words" (hereafter Herein, hereof, herewith) called. "There words" (thereabout, thereafter, Thereby, Therefore), or "Where words" (whereas, whereby). Further it includes Latin phrases (alibi, habeas corpus, force majeure) and finally even words from Old French, which were later taken over by English (demurrer). These are the additional language pitfalls that cause headaches to Slovak translators and teachers of Legal English.

Perhaps these are the reasons why the English legal language is not in a united Europe, neither official nor working language of the European Court of Justice.

In addition, we provide some overall information about the Legal English from the linguistic point of view:

1. Frequent use of common words with uncommon meanings – action (law suit), party (person contracting or litigating).
2. Frequent use of Old and middle English words – whereas, hereby.
3. Frequent use of Latin words and phrases – affidavit, alias, alibi.
4. Use of Old French and Anglo – Norman words – esquire, demurrer.
5. Terms of art – plaintiff, injunction, defendant.
6. Argot – issues of facts and issues of law.
7. Formal words – whereas, before me a notary public.

The above mentioned examples tell us that university teacher of Legal English has to be not only a language teacher but as well as the professional translator into target languages and experts in the fields of Law.

Since the late 20th century, people speak of the teaching as an expert profession. Professionalization of the teaching profession in the 20th century has brought a shift in the orientation of the minimum competencies of teachers, i.e. the transfer of knowledge to the orientation on the widely open model of the professional teacher. World Pedagogy moves away from an understanding of the teaching as the

technological process, which can be accurately planned and implemented step by step, but understands it as a complex, variable and creative process of personal meetings between teachers and pupils through the curriculum. It treats the teacher as an expert on this meeting, an expert of facilitation of the learning process expert for solving educational (educational and training) situations (Coolahan, Vonk, Shulman, Hustler, Intyre, Perrenoud, Berliner and others in Spilková 2004). The teacher then should be able to control the "expert diagnosing of situations and subjects, decision-making processes and interventions with knowledge of causality, interpersonal strategies, self-reflection on professional base built teaching" (Vašutová, 2004, p. 23). The basic teaching competence is specified from these starting points. If we compare the known classifications, we can find one subject-specific competence and the other 6-7 competencies of pedagogical or of the integrated nature (e.g. Vonk, 1992; Kyriacou, 1996; Švec, 1999; Spilková, 1999; Vašutová, 2001; Walterová, 2002; Kasáčová, 2002 et al.).

The concept of professional knowledge then does not mean narrowed knowledge but a complex structure including the components of knowledge, skills, experience, attitude, and value. For this reason, we start using instead of professional competencies, the concept of value or responsibility (Lukášová, 2003; Vašutová, 2004).

As the teaching profession is a practical and permanent communication between the theoretical and practical, explicit and implicit, objective and subjective knowledge, the integration of theory and practice in a given cycle is specifically reflected in it. On the basis of theoretical inputs, the decision making processes are in progress. Then action, and finally its reflection are a return to the theory at a different level. Atkinson and Claxton state that (in Lukášová, 2003, p. 33) according to the thought processes which are in progress the teacher needs three professional skills: attribution of causes is influenced by theoretical knowledge and results in an ability to plan educational process. Insight (intuitive) is represented by knowledge in action - it is the experiential knowledge gained in practice (not knowledge of the operations, but the immersion of thought in action itself, which sometimes cannot even be described), which results in the ability to implement educational process. Reflection will produce contextual knowledge i.e. knowledge of the connections between theory and practice which will result in the ability to evaluate and improve the educational process. If true professional is known by that he produces knowledge, what new theoretical knowledge actually does a teacher constitute? His professional confidence would significantly increase if we instead revaluation of professional knowledge showed him that teacher actually creates experiential knowledge in action which could through reflection be converted into a theoretical

form that apart from him no one else knows. If the teacher is able on the professional, methodological basis to realize the reflection of his activities, then he creates "epistemology practical knowledge of the profession" (Stech 1998). He theorizes the practical procedures, rationalizes, verbalizes implicit, intuitive, hidden or concealed (tacit knowledge) assumptions of decisions and acting. He reconstructs his own experience by that he describes them, converts into a language into a form of procedural knowledge. He asks questions what is going on and changes his own actions.

The skilled practitioner possesses own intuitive tacit knowledge, but which ceases by his departure from the profession. This knowledge in action cannot be taught theoretically. However, by reflection one can understand his own actions and hand it over to another, at least as a model one, as one of the hypotheses.

If we sum it up an expert professional teacher should be an expert: 1. on himself (autonomous subject) 2. on the pedagogical relationships (to help individual pupils' progress and solve educational situations) 3. He has to facilitate learning (the widely perceived psycho transformation of educational content) and 4. He should permanently reflect on practical activities and self-reflection.

English for specific purpose - Legal English - is different from general English. The most important difference lies in the learners and their purposes for learning English. ESP students are usually adults who already have some acquaintance with English and are learning the language in order to communicate a set of professional skills and to perform particular job-related functions. An ESP program is therefore built on an assessment of purposes and needs and the functions for which English is required. ESP concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures. An ESP teacher has to play many roles. He has to organise courses, set learning objectives, establish a positive learning environment and evaluate students' progress. The authors of theories on ESP do not mention that s/he must be a specialist on subject s/he teaches or a translator. However, the practice of teaching Legal English in Slovakia and the students require the teacher to be a specialist in a field and a translator of Legal English into Slovak and English languages.

The teacher of legal English as we could see from the analysis of the Legal English must be an expert in the field of law, not only a teacher of English, because he teaches 2 legal systems simultaneously.

Conclusion

In Europe, we work on approximation of law but we still have problems with translation of the legal terms because they merely do not exist in European language as the legal systems of European nations are built on Napoleonic Codex and therefore are different from common law systems. The translator and interpreters have problems, so does the teacher because students want to know what this word means in target or source language. As the Legal English is taught at the faculties of art (for students of translation studies) as well as the faculties of law, students from our experience are not satisfied if they are taught just English legal system, because they want to be prepared to switch from one system to another using the right vocabulary and grammar. If we taught just English legal system and not Legal English, we would be teachers of English for Specific Purpose. In our opinion and on the basis of the above mentioned facts, we are not teachers of ESP anymore.

Bibliography

- CHROMÁ, M. (2003). *New Introduction to Legal English, volume I*. Praha: UK v Praze, Karolinum.
- CHROMÁ, M. (2003). *New Introduction to Legal English, volume II*. Praha: UKv Praze, Karolinum.
- KASÁČOVÁ B. (2002). *Učiteľ – profesia a príprava*. Banská Bystrica: PF UMB.
- KASÁČOVÁ B. (2003). Učiteľská profesia a jej dimenzie. In *Biodromálne premeny učiteľa – učiteľ v premenách času* (p. 23 – 41). Prešov: FF PU.
- KASÁČOVÁ B. (2005). *Reflexívna výučba a reflexia v učiteľskej príprave*. Banská Bystrica: PF UMB.
- KOSOVÁ B., PUPALA B., & PORTIK M. (2004). Status, identita a profesijná spôsobilosť učiteľov. *Pedagogické rozhľady*, 13(5), 9-11.
- KOŤA J. (1998). Profesionalizace učiteľského povolání. In *Učiteľské povolání z pohľadu sociálných vied* (p. 6-42). Praha: PF UK.
- KYRIACOU, CH. (1996). *Kľúčové dovednosti učiteľa*. Praha: Portál.
- LUKÁŠOVÁ-KANTORKOVÁ, H. (2003). *Učiteľská profesie v primárnom vzdelávaní a pedagogická príprava učiteľů (teorie, výzkum, praxe)*. Ostrava: PF OU.
- SPIPKOVÁ V. (2004). *Současné proměny vzdělávání učitelů*. Brno: Paido.
- SPIPKOVÁ V. (1999). Základní trendy ve vzdělávání učitelů primárních škol v zemích Evropské unie. In *Premeny pedagogickej zločky prípravy učiteľa 1. stupňa ZŠ* (p. 34-44). Banská Bystrica: PF UMB.
- ŠTECH S. (1998). Dilemata a ambivalence učiteľského povolání. In *Učiteľské povolání z pohľadu sociálných vied* (p. 42-59). Praha: PF UK.

- ŠTECH S. (2003). Pohled na učitelskou profesi zvenjšku a zevnitř. In *Biodromálne premeny učiteľa – učiteľ v premenách času* (p. 9-22). Prešov: FF PU.
- ŠVEC V. (1999). *Pedagogická príprava budoucích učiteľů: problémy a inspirace*. Brno: Paido.
- The International Encyclopedia of Education*. (1994). 2nd ed. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- TOZZI, K. & PŘIDALOVÁ, E. (2004). *Legal English*. Praha: Linde.
- VAŠUTOVÁ J. (2001). Kvalifikační předpoklady pro nové role učitelů. In *Učitelé jako profesní skupina, jejich vzdělávání a podpůrný systém, 1. díl* (p. 19-46). Praha: PdF UK.
- VAŠUTOVÁ J. (2004). *Profese učitel v českém vzdělávacím kontextu*. Brno: Paido.
- VONK J. H. C. at al. (1992). *New prospects for teacher education in Europe*. Amsterdam: Vrije Universiteit.
- WALTEROVÁ E. (2002). Učitelé: proměny profese a rekonstrukce jejich vzdělávání. *Pedagogická revue*, 54(3), 220 – 239.

Contact

Mgr. et Mgr. Janka Spálová
KAaA FF Univerzita sv. Cyrila a Metoda v Trnave
Námestie J. Herdu 2
917 01 Trnava
Slovakia
janka.spalova@gmail.com

Persuasion and suggestion as priorities in psycholinguistic survey of political discourse

Zarine Avetisyan

Gyumri State Pedagogical Institute after M.Nalbandyan, Republic of Armenia

zarinaavet@mail.ru

Abstract

Nowadays the ongoing interdisciplinary dialogue provides a rich soil for linguistic cultivation. There can be no mistaking in the fact that linguistic phenomena can't be studied from a purely linguistic perspective while doing discourse analysis.

The present paper dwells on the psychological inside of political discourse trying to reveal psycholinguistic phenomena, namely persuasion and suggestion, interwoven in political text and talk. The research aims to prove that the speech strategy of manipulative argumentation implemented in political discourse rests on persuasion and suggestion in deeply fundamental ways.

Persuasion appeals mainly to human logic; manipulation reportedly affects human subconsciousness. The present research reveals that persuasion is hardwired to argumentation, whereas suggestion underlies manipulation. However in the mainstream of political discourse these two powerful means of impact are inextricably intertwined constituting the psycholinguistic basis of the speech strategy of manipulative argumentation implemented in political discourse.

Key words: persuasion, suggestion, manipulative argumentation, political discourse

Introduction

The demarcation line between speech impact means and devices has not yet been drawn. It is abundantly clear that scholars have not achieved a consensus on the matter under consideration. Nevertheless an attempt of systemization has been made by Sternin who distinguishes between:

1. proof as a narration of arguments in line with the laws of Logic;
2. persuasion as the formation of a belief that the truth is verified, under logical or emotional pressure;
3. convincing as an impetus to renounce one's viewpoint by adopting someone else's;

4. suggestion as a way of inoculating ideas bypassing critical evaluation of the addressee;
5. imposture conveyed as a must-do against the addressee's will (Sternin, 2001, p. 252).

Of the above-cited ones, the two basic speech impact means implemented in political text and talk are persuasion and suggestion. Since psychological impact is carried out in two simultaneous directions, namely on human consciousness and subconsciousness, scholars distinguish between rational and emotional impact. The addresser's appeal to the listener's psychology, his/her consciousness and emotions underlies the rhetorical organization of discourse, up to the selection of language means (Shelestyuk, 2006, p. 153-164).

The psychological categories of persuasion and suggestion have penetrated into Linguistics through the study of speech impact.

Persuasion is interpreted as speech organization and transmission so as to appeal to the addressee's consciousness and critical thinking. Persuasion does not equal to argumentation and is not replaced by it since it relies on rational justification as well as on the system of arguments. Neither should persuasion be equated to the classical techniques and imagery of rhetoric. Also, it does not coincide with separate directive or imperative speech acts. The mechanisms of persuasion are systemized and are based on rational and emotional impact principles (Chernyavskaya, 2006, p. 46).

Thus the research makes it abundantly clear that persuasion appeals to human reason and rational ways of thinking regulating the addressee's actions in line with the addresser's hidden motives.

Summing up the issues of persuasive communication A.Golodnov proposes the following assumptions:

1. persuasive communication is a special type of psycholinguistic relationship between the interlocutors in which consciousness is the impact target;
2. persuasive communication is carried out through persuasion and attraction aiming at the change in the addressee's behaviour;
3. persuasion is carried out by means of certain text types and is a practice-based mode of human cooperation (ibid.)

If persuasion is humanistic and tolerant, since it gives room for addressee's critical evaluation and further conscious action, suggestion is comparatively anti-human as it implies inconspicuous reconstruction of human subconsciousness. Scholars call special attention to the hidden, inconspicuous nature of suggestion, the latter implying "absence of critical evaluation" on the part of the addressee (ibid.).

Suggestion is the impact on human psychology which has to do with digressing awareness. The addressee is in a subordinate communicative position of which s/he is utterly unaware.

Suggestive linguistics is the domain of scholarly research which brings together divergent interpretations of suggestion. Zvegintsev (1968, p. 138) formulates the main propositions of "impact" linguistics as follows:

1. language as a whole can be regarded as a suggestive system (a system endowed by the power of suggestion); in other words- all the language components have the potential of suggestion;
2. suggestive linguistics is interdisciplinary and borders on Linguistics and Psychology. This is the reason for taking into account the addressee's physiological reaction;
3. speech impact is embedded in text. Texts can be both verbal and nonverbal (gestures, mimicry, etc.), i.e. text can be regarded as a sign system which encompasses "a bunch of languages";
4. suggestive linguistics is of a dynamic nature; it studies impact processes;
5. each impact component is of a double nature;
6. it is appropriate to analyze speech impact from the point of view of the communication theory.

One of the main preconditions for realizing suggestion is the psychological 'cultivation' of the addressee's consciousness: "When we have a ready-made opinion which is forced with good or ill intentions, logically or hypnotically, we are speaking of suggestion in its broad sense. Naturally speech suggestion is not to be taken as inoculation of utterly alien elements into the addressee's consciousness; on the contrary, it implies primary 'cultivation' in order not to introduce irrelevant information to human brain" (Demjankov, 1989, p. 13 – 40).

Both persuasion and suggestion have a conduct-regulating function which linguistically corresponds to achieving the perlocutive effect.

Summing up central issues of persuasion and suggestion, we can state that:

1. persuasion as well as suggestion are embodied in text and can therefore be revealed through text analysis;
2. the demarcation line between persuasion and suggestion lies in the intention of appealing to human reason, as in the former case, or bypassing it, as in the latter case; via suggestion the political leader verbally hypnotizes the audience;
3. there is no unsurmountable border between persuasion and suggestion. Being oriented asunder pragmatically, persuasion and suggestion complement each other in real communicative process.

The present paper regards persuasion and suggestion as *pragmemes* [8], the latter being interpreted as pragmatic subsystems of linguistic competence which are meant for both rational and emotional impact realization and addressee's conduct manipulation. Among the pragmemes we find emotionality, evaluation and aesthetics (Avetisyan, 2015).

The present research reveals that persuasion is hardwired to argumentation, whereas suggestion underlies manipulation. It must be stated that in linguistic literature we find sufficient evidence that both argumentation and manipulation are speech strategies (ibid.). We depart from the assumption that manipulative argumentation be viewed as a 'hybrid' speech strategy, with persuasion and manipulation for its psycholinguistic basis (ibid.). Political text and talk provide the researcher rather rich pragmatic and psycholinguistic material for analysis (Chilton, 2004, p. 226).

Relevant to the present paper is the interpretation of speech strategy put forward by S. Gorin: "Speech strategy is the overall communicative intention, the speech mechanism of introducing change to the addressee's mind, the correction of his/her vision of the world" (Gorin, 1994, p. 37).

Thus, as a psycholinguistic means of impact persuasion is the 'backbone' of argumentation strategy, suggestion having the same function within the strategy of argumentation. As it has already been stated, the latter act in the deep structure (Chomsky, 1965) of political discourse and are inextricably interwoven.

Persuasion and suggestion in action

To illustrate persuasion and suggestion in action, the present research discusses examples in which narration of arguments is of a manipulative character:

94 years ago one of the great atrocities of the 20th century began. Each year, we pause to remember the 1,5million Armenians who were subsequently massacred or marched to their death in the final days of Ottoman Empire. The Meds Yeghern must live on in our memories, just as it lives on in the hearts of the Armenian people (Obama, "Obama on Armenian Remembrance Day", April 24, 2009).

The episode of argumentation is influential *per se* due to the information embedded in it. The opening of the very first sentence "one of the great atrocities" makes negative evaluation conspicuous. Negative connotation of "atrocious" is enhanced by the epithet "great" arousing curiosity towards the continuation. The unmistakably derogative passive construction of "were massacred", coupled with its euphemized variant "were marched to their death", semantically echo each other. The third sentence is the "peak" of argumentation taking into consideration the diplomatic mission of the speech. By admitting the facts and labeling the event as

“Meds Yeghern” Obama de facto acknowledges Genocide. But the argumentation is manipulative and he thus avoids admitting it de jure.

There can be no mistaking persuasion that underlies the cited facts, more precisely-the arguments. Manipulation consists in the replacement of the word “Genocide”, which would lead to international recognition, by the term “Meds Yeghern” by analogy with the Jewish holocaust, leaving the Armenian lobbyists and the Armenian community in the dark.

More traces of persuasion and suggestion as the psycholinguistic underpinnings of political text and talk, come under the linguistic microscope in the following:

The truth is, on issue after issue that would make a difference in your lives – on health care and education and the economy – Senator McCain has been anything but independent. He said that our economy has made “great progress” under this President. He said that the fundamentals of the economy are strong. And when one of his chief advisors – the man who wrote his economic plan – was talking about the anxiety Americans are feeling, he said that we were just suffering from a “mental recession”, and that we’ve become, and I quote, “a nation of whiners” (Obama, “The American Promise”, Denver Colorado, August 28, 2008).

In the communicative process some of the transmitted information is naturally lost because of fatigue, uncertainty, flagging interest, etc. On that political orators build the techniques of deception and distortion of facts. Thus, relying on the mistrust to G.W. Bush and his policies John McCain’s name is anchored to the latter. The main trick lies in the quotations (“mental recession”, “nation of whiners”) which apart from being insulting in their contents, are more importantly anonymous. Instead, the author is represented as “one of his (McCain’s) chief advisors, the man who wrote his economic plan”, this is of the utmost importance for it subconsciously evokes the false impression that the responsibility for these words lies on J. McCain focusing the listener’s attention on his person only.

In the mainstream of information this keeps our attention on McCain’s person and policies making him the guilty party. The false impression of unanimity is the result of association. According to D. Carnegie there are three natural laws of memorizing impression, repetition and association which is a productive way of supplying the missing information with the required bias (Carnegie, 1998, 2).

Conclusion

Studying the deployment of persuasion and suggestion in political text and talk, we infer that these psycholinguistic tools perform a sound impact function giving the orator room for manipulation of facts, beliefs and opinions.

References

- AVETISYAN, Z. (2015). Speech Impact Realization via Manipulative Argumentation Techniques in Modern American Political Discourse. Available at: <https://www.waset.org/journal/Social>.
- CARNEGIE, D. (1998). *How to Win Friends and Influence People*. Moscow: Progress.
- CHERNYAVSKAYA, V. (2006). *Discourse of Power and Power of Discourse: Issues of Speech Impact*. Moscow: Flinta & Nauka.
- CHILTON, P. (2004). *Analysing Political Discourse: Theory and Practice*. Cornwall: International Limited.
- CHOMSKY, N. (1965). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. MIT Press.
- DEMJANKOV, V. (1989). *Effectiveness of Argumentation as Speech Impact*. Moscow.
- GORIN, S. (1994). *Have You Tried Hypnosis?* Moscow.
- KISELJOVA, L. (1978). *Problems of Speech Impact Theory*. Leningrad: LSU Press.
- SHELESTYUK, E. (2006). *Means, Types, Devices and Instruments of Verbal Impact: Classical linguistic formations in modern multicultural dimension*. Pyatigorsk: PSU Press.
- STERNIN, I. (2001). *Introduction to Speech Impact*. Voronezh: Quanta.
- ZVEGINTSEV, V. (1968). *Theoretical and Applied Linguistics*. Moscow.

Contact

Ph.D., Assist. Prof. Zarine Avetisyan
Republic of Armenia
Gyumri 3526
Ani district, Charents str., Post Office 13
zarinaavet@mail.ru

Women empowered or victimised: A gynocritical analysis of *Jane Eyre* and *Wide Sargasso Sea*

Kübra Baysal

Kastamonu University, Turkey

kbaysal@kastamonu.edu.tr

Abstract

Written by Jean Rhys in 1966, *Wide Sargasso Sea* is a novel presents the background for Charlotte Brontë's *Jane Eyre* of 1847. Two novels are indeed intertextual for using the same characters, namely Antoinette and Rochester, with the history of these characters first in *Wide Sargasso Sea* and then *Jane Eyre* forming the basis for respective narratives. However, *Wide Sargasso Sea* comes up with an alternative to *Jane Eyre* when handled with a feminist perspective and puts the emphasis on indigenous people along with their culture under the rule of the white European coloniser. In the comparative analysis of *Jane Eyre* and *Wide Sargasso Sea* through gynocriticism, the paper shall reflect similarities as well as diversities in the texts referring mostly to the female protagonists, Jane and Antoinette, as active or suppressed women characters.

Key words: Rhys, Brontë, gynocriticism, indigenous, feminism.

Introduction

As women writers struggling in a field dominated by men, Charlotte Brontë and Jean Rhys reflect the problems they encounter in their respective societies through their characters despite their distinct way of handling narration. When compared through a feminist perspective, women protagonists of both novels depict the state of women in a striking way while Rochester undergoes a change from Brontë's to Rhys's story.

When the novels are taken into account, Charlotte Brontë's *Jane Eyre* is a representative of the Feminine Phase, in which women writers cannot express their rebellious ideas freely. For fear of the banishment from the society, Brontë uses a pseudonym while writing her novel. Likewise seen in the character of Jane Eyre, she is an intelligent child at the beginning of the novel. She questions the incidents and people in her mind that is why she is sent to the terrifying Red Room (6). Searching for her voice in the Victorian society, Jane becomes a governess and proves to be a gallant young woman at Thornfield, which takes Rochester's immediate attention as he is tired of selfless and ordinary women. In a similar vein, throughout the

narration, feminine descriptions and language manifest the femininity of the text as Jane talks about her affection to Rochester: "He made me love him even without looking at me" (176). Soon the patriarchal character, Rochester replies her affection as he disguises as a gypsy fortune teller to direct Jane towards his path, yet Jane realises that it is Mr. Rochester despite his different look (183). When Jane confesses her love to Rochester, Jane declares that her spirit is equal, which pleases Rochester and makes him propose Jane all the same. "... it is my spirit that addresses your spirit; just as if both had passed through the grave, and we stood at God's feet, equal,—as we are!" (256). Therefore, it is through Jane's extraordinary character and actions that Bronte accomplishes as a woman writer. So, she both adopts from previous female writings and provides the material for novelists such as Jean Rhys since all female narratives bear the traces of previous writings with the inheritance of "despair" (Gilbert & Gubar, 2010).

Likewise, Jean Rhys writes her novel in the "female" phase according to Showalter's theory. It is in this period that woman writers feel free to reflect themselves in their writings as exemplified by *Wide Sargasso Sea* challenging the long-set world of the canonical *Jane Eyre*. Rhys' adventure as a woman writer stems from her interest in reading the classical books. Hence, she reads Bronte's *Jane Eyre* as a reader and accordingly, decides to write a history to Edward Rochester's mad/denied wife Bertha Antoinette Mason and gives her a voice to express herself. As part of the female literary tradition, Rhys looks for a model to base her writing upon and she has Charlotte Bronte's classical novel. She might have needed the female support and solidarity from previous writers during the process of creation and felt the "anxiety of authorship", in Gilbert and Gubar's words (2010). She makes an extraordinary interpretation of *Jane Eyre* and creates a postcolonial prequel to the canonical work, which once again confirms the intertextual nature of two different texts belonging to different cultures and periods. Despite Rhys' Creole background and Bronte's English origin, they narrate the suffering of women in distinct contexts because they are both women writing about the universal female problems. However, Rhys turns *Jane Eyre* into a "writerly text" for it invites the reader to re-examine the details and fill the gaps in the text from Antoinette Cosway's point of view (Al-Andri 4). In that respect, Rhys' *Wide Sargasso Sea* can in fact be regarded as a deconstruction of the original text in that it represents Edward as a colonial and misogynist personality in contrast with Bronte's depiction of the Romantic and victimised character, Rochester talking about his wife Bertha as an obstacle to his happiness. Further, as a hybrid between Jamaica and England, Antoinette is accepted by neither side, which explains her loneliness and sensitivity. In her childhood, she has a Martinique friend Tia, with whom she eventually parts ways as she

discriminates Antoinette for her race and humiliates her. Antoinette suffers for being an outcast in her society and observing the suffering of her friend Tia, she feels like seeing herself “in a looking-glass” (41). After her troubled childhood in the nunnery, she marries to Edward Rochester, an English gentleman seeking ways of earning money, thinking she will finally find true happiness. In the end, she is disillusioned and miserable because of her discriminating husband and is locked away in an attic at Thornfield, England, being forced for an isolated life. Therefore, Jean Rhys pens the sad story of Antoinette Mason as she is also a Creole woman and she might have desired to express the problems of women in the postcolonial Jamaica. As a woman, she feels the need to write about women and display her thoughts about English patriarchy in a most sentimental way and without the fear of patriarchal oppression.

As with the feminist criticism, taking the female protagonists into consideration, Jane is the representative of the free and spirited young women struggling to find a respectable place in the society. She feels inferior to Rochester in terms of property as she is the governess of Rochester’s niece, Adele and he is the master of the house. Living in the Victorian Age, she must obey her master and be obedient as well as submissive as a woman. Still, she feels equal to him in her spirit and mind. When she learns about Rochester’s wife and he asks her to be her mistress, she refuses him due to her dignity. “Sir, your wife is living: that is a fact acknowledged this morning by yourself. If I lived with you as you desire, I should then be your mistress: to say otherwise is sophistical—is false” (307). Finally, Jane elevates to Rochester’s position when she inherits a great sum of money. Then on, Bertha Antoinette Mason, Rochester’s mad wife, is presented as a mysterious and dangerous female character in the novel. Her presence is proved when her brother announces that Rochester is married to “[...] Bertha Antoinetta Mason, daughter of Jonas Mason, merchant, and of Antoinetta his wife, a Creole” (293). Soon Jane sees her as well, when Rochester takes her to her attic. She mentions about her as resting on her hands on the floor and roaring like an animal, which not only diminishes Bertha to the position of an animal but also justifies Rochester’s plea for happiness as a young man searching for his soul mate. What is striking in this part is that Antoinetta is treated like an animal “bound to a chair” by force (297).

Just the same, *Wide Sargasso Sea* introduces many female personalities innovating to the feminist analysis of the text. Principally, the protagonist of the novel, Antoinette Cosway is a great example for the lively woman seeking for a companion, but turned into a monster by the male-oriented society. After the “Emancipation in Jamaica”, former slaves turn bitter against slave traders, one of whom is Antoinette’s father whose burden is left with Antoinette and her Martinique mother, Bertha (17). Both as a girl and a hybrid between two races, she suffers and

gets excluded from other children's playgrounds and finally, she is sent away after her mother loses her mind. Mr. Mason provides her with a dowry of thirty thousand pounds. Even though she is a beautiful woman full of life, Edward does not appreciate her because she is a Creole woman living in the heart of nature, in her house Coluibri, on an island. She is a true lover of nature and thinks it is "better than people" (25). Especially in the parts where Antoinette is in nature, Rhys ornaments the narration lively and colourful nature through Antoinette's eyes and thus, presents material for "l'écriture femininity" (Naseri-Sis, 2012, p. 45-47). Further, Antoinette is driven into madness by Rochester's ignorance and insistence about calling her as Bertha, instead of Antoinette. She becomes Antoinette Bertha Cosway Mason Rochester, expressly manifesting the gradual fragmentation in her identity. She eventually becomes the embodiment of the women suffering in postcolonial countries.

Furthermore, there is major parallelism in the characters of the two protagonists, Jane and Antoinette. Jane has premonition when she dreams about a wild woman 'ripping her clothes', who happens to be Bertha in *Jane Eyre* (208). Likewise, Antoinette has symbolical dreams in nature related to the terrifying power of patriarchy on her. At the end, she sees the fire in her dream and then sets Thornfield on fire with her candle (Rhys, 2010, p. 171). Besides, both characters learn domestic skills like dancing and "embroidery" as women characters learning female conduct (Anderson, 2011, p. 2). Besides, both Jane and Antoinette like to see themselves in the looking glass. As Gilbert and Gubar denote, in "the looking glass" women search for their identity and they can find whatever they are lacking in the reflection or distortion of their own reality (2030). Whenever they are away from the mirror, they become restless and start to lose their voices as in the case of Red Room, where Jane is locked in and Antoinette's imprisonment in the attic without a mirror.

On the other hand, the major practitioner of the patriarchy in both novels is Edward Rochester, who victimises Antoinette in *Wide Sargasso Sea* and puts Jane in difficulty in *Jane Eyre*. When studied in the order of his fictitious history, Rochester gets married to Antoinette Cosway first to become a rich man in the face of the English society. He is the second son of his family, so he must make his own property in his own way. Originating from a patriarchal family and society, he becomes a rich gentleman through a marriage of contract. Even though he sometimes follows his instincts and finds Antoinette attractive, he then abhors her for her simplicity, her connectedness to the nature and her "long, sad, dark, alien" eyes, in short her indigenous looks (61). He pretends to like her even though he hates her in the beginning. As the days go by, he does not bother himself with pretentiousness and shows ignorance to her and pushes her into misery. He decides to shatter her soul

down because he realises that she is “too strong-minded” to be changed (Naseri-Sis, 2012, p. 46). Then again, he wants to explore and discover the untouched territories of the island as the representative of the colonial mind. As he causes Antoinette’s psychological breakdown, he has the guilty conscience and gets afraid of the things and the elements of nature around him, which recalls Antoinette’s ecofeminist relation to nature as both are evaded and abhorred by Rochester. Because he is a man of culture, he wants to get rid of the natural and go back to England. He calls her Bertha, cheats on her, makes fun of her natural way of life and drives her into madness. Finally, he brings her to England and locks her in an attic at Thornfield, leaving her in endless pain and loathing.

Additionally, it is striking that Edward Rochester in Rhys’ narrative is quite different from the Rochester in Brontë’s novel. He has been the master of the house for nine years, since his brother’s death, which reminds of his settled system of authority at Thornfield. Yet, he rejects the once accepted and applied rules of patriarchy and the Victorian Age, when his feelings for Jane reveal themselves. He fights against the norms of the system after he wants to marry Jane, his “inferior” and “a governess” (Shuang-Ju, 2012, p. 1 & p. 3). He is represented as a victim in Brontë’s text whereas Rhys’ novel changes the interpretation of Brontë’s novel by creating an “anti-Bildungsroman” for Rochester (Kendrick, 1994, p. 204).

Conclusion

In short, Charlotte Brontë and Jean Rhys write the problems of women in their own period of time. However their subject matter transcends the limitations of time and place. While Jane Eyre achieves self-fulfilment at the end of the novel, Antoinette Rochester perishes in the hands of the patriarchal society as a woman and a Jamaican. Therefore, the reader encounters two types of Rochester in two novels from two different female novelists’ point of view and takes part in the interpretation process considering the texts. So, it is hardly surprising to discover the new dimensions of the classical text, *Jane Eyre* due to the innovative nature of a modern novel, *Wide Sargasso Sea*.

References

- AI-ANDRI, N. (2010). The Untold Text: Jean Rhys’ *Wide Sargasso Sea* as a Writerly Reading of *Jane Eyre*. Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Umm Al Qura University, Department of English. 19.10.2013. Web.
- ANDERSON, A. (2011). Identity and Independence in *Jane Eyre*. Mid-Sweden University, Department of English Studies. 19.10.2013. Web.
- BRONTË, Ch. (2012). *Jane Eyre*. Pennsylvania: UP Electronic Classics Series.

- GILBERT, S. & GUBAR, S. (2010). *The Madwoman in the Attic: The Women Writer and the Nineteenth-Century Literary Imagination*. 19.10.2013. Web.
- KENDRICK, R. (1994). Edward Rochester and the Margins of Masculinity in *Jane Eyre* and *Wide Sargasso Sea*. *Papers on Language and Literature*, Chapter 10. 19.10.13. Web.
- NASERI-SIS, R. (2012). Female Identity in *Wide Sargasso Sea*, *Foe* and *Jack Maggs*: A Comparative Study. *Contemporary Online Language Education Journal*, 2(2).
- RHYS, J. (2010). *Wide Sargasso Sea*. Logan: Perfect Learning Corporation.
- SHOWALTER, E. (1981). Feminist Criticism in the Wilderness. *Critical Inquiry*, 8(2). *Writing and Sexual Difference*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- SHUANG-JU, Y. (2012). A Feminist Study of Rochester in *Jane Eyre*. *Sino-US English Teaching*. New York: David Publishing.

Contact

Kübra Baysal
Kastamonu Üniversitesi
Yabancı Diller Bölümü Fazıl Boyner Yüksekokulu Kuzeykent
Kastamonu 37200
Türkiye
kbaysal@kastamonu.edu.tr

Difficultés linguistiques et culturelles dans l'enseignement du français en Libye

Alsadag H. E. Alsadag

Université de Sirte, Libye

alsadag_alsadag@yahoo.com

Abstract

The aim of our research consists in trying to study challenges encountered by students learning the French language during their university studies. Teaching/learning French as a foreign language in Libya may face several linguistic and cultural difficulties since Libyans students can only deal with Arabic and their usage of the French language is limited to conversations in French courses. In this aspect, we are willing to try to discover factors behind these difficulties and solutions to enhance teaching/learning French and to overcome these challenges.

Key words: French as a foreign language, culture, knowledge, Arab learners.

Résumé

L'objectif de notre recherche est d'essayer d'étudier les difficultés que rencontrent les étudiants de français durant leur étude universitaire. L'enseignement/ l'apprentissage du français en tant que langue étrangère en Libye peut se heurter à nombreuses difficultés linguistiques et culturelles, puisque les étudiants libyens cohabitent uniquement avec la langue arabe et leur usage du français est limité à la classe de français entre le professeur et les étudiants. Dans cette optique nous allons essayer de savoir quels sont les facteurs qui déterminent ces difficultés? Et comment améliorer l'enseignement/ l'apprentissage du français pour surmonter ces difficultés.

Mots - clés: français langue étrangère, culture, connaissances, apprenants arabophones.

Introduction

Dans les pays arabophones comme dans les pays arabes francophones, l'anglais jouissait d'une place plus ou moins importante, il est adopté à l'enseignement dès l'école élémentaire et promu dans les médias.

Quant au français, classé deuxième mondial après l'anglais après avoir été historiquement et pendant longtemps premier (notamment dans le monde arabe), il balance entre le statut de langue seconde aux pays du Grand Maghreb (la Tunisie,

l'Algérie et le Maroc) où il est fortement appuyé, et le statut de troisième, voire quatrième dans le reste des pays.

Nous traiterons, dans cette recherche, le statut de cette langue ou bien l'enseignement du FLE dans les pays arabophones.

Cet idiome n'est, certes, pas la première langue mondiale, mais d'abord elle l'était. « Elle l'était » implique une grande histoire, une civilisation glorieuse et une culture sans égale. Cette culture dont le monde entier avait tiré profit, des idées de ces philosophes des lumières qui avaient illuminé plusieurs penseurs. La déclaration française des droits de l'Homme qui avait beaucoup influencé les valeurs d'ordre humanitaire. C'est donc une culture qui devrait nous inspirer pour le bien culturel des générations présentes et futures. A l'ère moderne, les Arabes ont besoin plus qu'avant de tirer de cette culture et de ces valeurs humanitaires qui s'ajouteraient à la culture arabo-musulmane.

Bref, comme nous avons besoin de la langue anglaise –véhiculaire des sciences et des technologies- nous sommes aussi assoiffés aux valeurs humaines véhiculées dans la langue et la culture française.

Toutes les conditions économique, géographique et politique actuelles (nous parlons du rôle tangible que jouait la France dans les changements politiques et économiques actuels dans le monde arabe) nécessitent l'introduction efficace de la langue française dans le système de l'enseignement de tous les pays arabes. Nous avons dit efficace, car comme susmentionné, bien que l'enseignement de cette langue soit répandu dans tous les pays arabes de manière plus ou moins pas équilibrée, il connaît plusieurs problèmes et lacunes dont il est impératif de trouver des solutions.

La Situation linguistique en Libye

La Libye est un pays arabophone où l'arabe est considéré comme langue officielle et langue d'instruction dans les établissements de l'enseignement, l'usage du français est limité à la classe de français entre le professeur et les étudiants.

Les difficultés ou les obstacles qui entravent le succès de l'apprentissage de la langue française dans les pays arabophones sont dues à des facteurs multiples. Nous tenterons ici de déterminer les causes, de repérer et d'analyser quelques erreurs qui les prouvent et de suggérer des moyens en vue d'une remédiation possible, s'avère être une partie prenante de l'activité pédagogie de l'enseignement/apprentissage en répondant aux deux questions suivantes :

Quelles sont les difficultés (linguistiques et culturelles...) qui mènent à l'échec de l'enseignement/l'apprentissage de cette langue ? Et quels sont les moyens pour les aplanir et résoudre les problèmes rencontrés ?

Mots clés : la langue, apprentissage, enseignement, arabophones, culture, civilisation, échec, apprenant, enseignant, système linguistique.

-Les facteurs linguistiques culturels et autres:

Nous aborderons ici en détails les raisons qui contribuent à l'échec de l'enseignement/l'apprentissage du français chez les apprenants arabophones en citant quelques exemples d'erreurs très fréquentes.

1. Les facteurs linguistiques :

Sur le plan linguistique, la langue arabe et la langue française ou les langues européennes en général sont issues de groupes de familles très éloignées : le français est d'origine latine, l'anglais est une langue germanique et l'arabe est un idiome sémitique. Ce qui implique qu'elles n'ont aucun lien commun. Le processus d'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère se vient se superposer à une acquisition antérieure de la langue maternelle et éventuellement d'un apprentissage préalable d'une ou des langues étrangères. Et comme cette superposition des savoirs se fait entre deux systèmes linguistiques distincts, plusieurs erreurs surgissent.

A.Le niveau phonétique

La langue française et la langue arabe sont deux langues ayant deux systèmes phonétique, phonologique et graphique différents ce qui fait que l'apprentissage du français par les arabophones pose plusieurs problèmes. C'est en fait, l'apprentissage d'un système phonétique et phonologique radicalement différent de celui de leur langue maternelle et les acquis phonétique et phonologique de la langue maternelle leur servent occasionnellement.

Les francisants commettent systématiquement des erreurs interférentielles multiples, soit dans les exercices oraux d'interaction communicative en classe ou les erreurs qu'on signale souvent dans leurs copies d'examen.

Ils trouvent des difficultés au niveau de la prononciation surtout dans la prononciation et l'articulation de quelques lettres comme [p], [v], [e], [u]. Ces sons n'ont pas d'équivalents dans la langue arabe d'où vient le problème, alors que les autres lettres se ressemblent dans la prononciation avec les sons arabes.

Les erreurs qui portent sur le système vocalique consistent essentiellement à l'assimilation entre les deux voyelles [y] et [i]. On cite l'exemple de la prononciation du prénom français *Jules* prononcé *Jiles*.

La deuxième confusion se fait entre le système phonétique français et celui de la deuxième langue, l'anglais entre [u] et [y] : vu que la graphie *u* se lit *ou* en anglais. Le premier cas d'assimilation est surtout fréquent chez quelques locuteurs mauritaniens

et d'autres maghrébins tandis que le deuxième est largement répandu auprès des locuteurs libyens égyptiens, syriens...

La difficulté voire l'impossibilité de prononcer ces lettres chez plusieurs arabophones notamment les égyptiens et les libyens entraînent parfois une modification de sens de quelques mots et créent une confusion chez l'interlocuteur ce qui rend l'acte de communication incompréhensible.

Nous citons l'exemple des mots de sons très proches :

- Le verbe *boire* à la place du nom *poire*.
- Le nom *roue* pour *rue*,
- Le nom *fil* pour *ville*
- Le nom *ver* peut devenir *fer*
- Le verbe conjugué *pleut* prononcé *bleu*
- Et le participe passé du verbe lire *lu* prononcé *loup*.

Et beaucoup d'autres exemples fréquents qui changent le sens le mot.

Un autre exemple d'erreur phonologique touche l'articulation des syllabes. C'est une erreur plus fréquente à l'oral qu'à l'écrit et c'est influencé, à mon avis personnel, par les règles phonologiques anglaise surtout dans des mots où la syllabe finale est fermée et de forme ccv (consonne, consonne, voyelle) comme les syllabes finales *tre*, *dre*, *bre* ...

Cette syllabe fermée se transforme en syllabe ouverte *ter*, *der*, *ber*. Les mois *septembre*, *octobre*, *novembre* et *décembre* sont presque toujours prononcés plus ou moins à l'anglaise en substituant le son *bre* par *ber*. De même pour le mot *portable* articulé **portabel*.

B. Le niveau morphologique :

Vu l'absence de règle de discrimination entre les deux genres de noms (le féminin et le masculin) le genre de l'équivalent du nom dans la langue source influence souvent, voire détermine celui de la langue cible.

On cite la fameuse erreur commise par les arabophones : soleil, ciel, café ... féminins en arabe, qui sont des noms masculins en français, mais la majorité des étudiants les emploient au féminin sous l'influence arabe :

- الشمس EL - Chamsou (féminin) / le soleil (masculin) → **la soleil*
- السماء EL- Sama (féminin) / le ciel (masculin) → **la ciel*
- القهوة EL- Kahwa (féminin) / le café (masculin) → **la café*

Il y a d'autres erreurs au niveau du nombre :

Le mot français, toujours employé au pluriel (*vacances*) est souvent employé au féminin singulier parallèlement à l'arabe **une vacance*, forme impossible en français.

- العطلة EL- Otlā (féminin singulier) / *les vacances* (féminin pluriel) → **la vacance*

C. Le niveau syntaxique :

- C'est toujours la langue source qui dicte la forme dans la langue cible. Une autre erreur récurrente qui consiste au dédoublement du sujet : les apprenants ont tendance à dédoubler le sujet (ce qui est très courant en arabe dialectal), mais il n'est toléré en français qu'en cas d'emphasis :

- **Pierre il est français.*
- La phrase nominale arabe correspond à la phrase verbale française contenant le verbe *être*, or les étudiants arabes tendent souvent à produire des phrases avec l'omission du verbe *être* de types :
- **Je malade.*
- **Il professeur.*

- L'omission des articles indéfinis est aussi très fréquent, notamment pour les noms de pays : ** France est un pays européen*,
- La distribution des prépositions au sein du système d'une langue est dictée par un ensemble de contraintes propres à chaque langue, comme des contraintes liées au verbe ou à la préposition elle-même :

En français, le verbe *acheter* exige l'emploi de la préposition *à*, contrairement à l'arabe où c'est la préposition *de*. On rencontre des tournures de types :

**J'achète du pain de la boulangerie (j'achète du pain à la boulangerie).*

La forme correcte est : *j'achète du pain à la boulangerie.*

Le verbe *donner* doublement transitif exige l'emploi de la préposition *à* contrairement à son équivalent arabe suivi de *pour* :

**Je donne le manuel pour mon collègue (je donne le manuel à mon collègue).*

D- Le niveau sémantique :

Qu'elle que soit langue seconde ou troisième langue, les apprenants arabophones ont recours au *calque sémantique* ou à la traduction littérale de l'arabe vers le français qui mènent accidentellement à des énoncés corrects, mais souvent à d'autres énoncés incorrects linguistiquement et culturellement intolérables :

** Il attend dans son ami (il attend son ami).*

**Prendre une bonne note (avoir une bonne note).*

**Demander une question (poser une question).*

**Le ciel pleut (il pleut).*

**Dans ma maison (chez moi).*

Alors pour remédier à toutes ces erreurs linguistiques, il faudrait donner aux apprenants une explication systématique et efficace des différences entre les deux systèmes linguistiques, de bien s'exercer en classe et de bien travailler la communication orale.

2. Les facteurs historiques :

Comparant aux pays magrébins : la Tunisie, l'Algérie et le Maroc, où la langue française est largement répandue et bien insérée dans la vie des gens : dans l'administration, les médias et même dans la communication quotidienne de tous les jours, dans les autres sociétés arabes, cette langue fut presque écartée.

Cette différence entre les locuteurs d'une même communauté (les magrébins et les autres arabophones) est bien due à des facteurs historiques. Il s'agit, bien entendu, du colonialisme français dans les trois pays magrébins qui imposait cette langue et qui est aussi bien promue après les indépendances. En effet, contrairement au colonialisme anglais ou autres, le colonialisme français était culturel et linguistique en premier lieu. Dès son arrivée sur les territoires magrébins, le colon français a opté pour la francisation de l'administration et de l'enseignement. Les français n'ont pas cherché à apprendre la langue des colonisés pour établir la communication avec ceux-ci. Au contraire, ce sont les colonisés qui avaient été obligés d'apprendre ce nouvel idiome malgré les écarts phonétique et phonologique.

Ces considérations historiques étaient aussi décisives et distinctives entre les deux arabophones orientaux et magrébins. Ces derniers n'ont aujourd'hui pas de problème de prononciation des quelques lettres susmentionnées.

3. Les facteurs socioculturels :

Sur le plan culturel, les deux communautés arabe et française se croisent rarement. Elles divergent sur différents points : coutumes et traditions, mode de vie et centres d'intérêts et culte et religion spécifiquement pour le cas libyen et les pays du golfe dits conservateurs. Ces sociétés avaient une attitude réticente à l'égard de tout ce qui est étranger et surtout, pas islamique. Par conséquent, cette divergence culturelle renforce la faille entre les deux cultures malgré la proximité géographique.

Le français est traité comme une langue morte qui n'intéresse que les français. Il a une image dépréciative de langue difficile auprès de tous les étudiants arabophones mêmes les magrébins. On les entend souvent se lamenter et dire que la langue anglaise est plus facile que la langue française. Cette opinion sur cette langue découle de la comparaison dont ils font avec la langue anglaise. Il est vrai que,

contrairement au français, l'anglais omniprésent dans leur quotidien, est une langue facile en comparaison aux langues romanes. Les arabophones se contentent de la langue anglaise considérée facile à apprendre, fiable et mondiale. Dans leur conversation quotidienne, la langue française -hormis au Maghreb- est complètement absente. Dans des sociétés de tendance traditionnelle comme la société libyenne, égyptienne et syrienne il n'y a que le dialectal qui remplit la fonction de communication contrairement au Maghreb, où il y a un amalgame de mots arabes et français.

Il y en a aussi d'autres raisons liés aux apprenants ou étudiants eux-mêmes. En effet, les jeunes d'aujourd'hui ne s'intéressent plus aux sciences humaines et aux langues considérées, selon eux, théoriques et incapables de leur garantir leur avenir. Ils ne s'intéressent plus non plus aux livres à cause de la propagation des nouvelles technologies. Désormais, ce sont les ordinateurs et les smart-phones qui les occupent et qui prennent leur temps. Ces machines peuvent tout remplacer pour eux, selon leurs avis. Ces apprenants du FLE sont aussi pressants et ils manquent de persévérance. Ils veulent parvenir promptement à une certaine autonomie en français, ils s'ennuient très rapidement et abandonnent souvent tôt.

4.Facteurs pédagogiques et méthodologiques :

Les systèmes de l'enseignement dans plusieurs pays arabes ne sont pas efficaces dans le sens où ils n'accordent pas de l'importance à cette langue. En effet, l'enseignement de cette langue est très tardif, elle n'est introduite qu'en enseignement supérieur tout comme les autres langues très peu répandues en dehors de leurs territoires tels que l'espagnol, le russe et le chinois.

Les trois éléments de l'acte de l'enseignement sont déterminants dans la réussite ou l'échec de celui-ci : l'apprenant, l'enseignant et le contenu du cours.

En effet, Les méthodes d'enseignement mises en place ainsi que les manuels très généraux et pas bien ciblés entravent le succès de la bonne diffusion de cette langue. Les éditeurs français ne tiennent pas compte de la spécificité de chaque société. C'est pourquoi, on remarque la démotivation et l'abandon progressifs de la part des étudiants dès les premières séances de cours. Le professeur se trouve par ailleurs confronté au défi d'attirer un maximum d'étudiants et de rendre son cours accessible à tous.

Le manque d'ouvrages et de publications utiles ainsi que le quasi absence des médiathèques renforcent ce fléau.

- Les solutions possibles :

A la lumière des facteurs cités ci-dessus, une réforme globale de l'enseignement du FLE est de nécessité.

En effet, pour aider ces apprenants à remédier à leurs erreurs de prononciations par exemple, il faudrait créer des laboratoires et consacrer des heures par semaines à des exercices oraux. L'Etat devrait également consentir plus d'efforts à promouvoir l'apprentissage des langues en payant des séjours linguistiques en France et en organisant de temps à autre, des colloques et des conférences où on donne à l'apprenant l'occasion d'échanger des connaissances et des cultures avec les francophones dans le monde.

Pour garantir une bonne diffusion du français dans tout le monde arabe, il faudrait prendre en compte les spécificités interculturelles et historiques du public d'apprenants arabes qui s'avère hétérogène. Il faudrait donc traiter chaque public à part entière, et prendre en considération les profils des apprenants, leurs cultures et leurs besoins langagiers en FLE. Autrement dit, les centres d'intérêts doivent toucher à leurs besoins. Les éditeurs français des manuels FLE devraient tenir en compte tous ces points et cibler leur public. Les manuels qui servent pour un africain ou un maghrébin ne le font pas pour un libyen par exemple. Au sein de la même communauté, il y a des écarts qu'il faudrait prendre en conscience. Il est indispensable donc que les manuels soient conçus pour un public bien restreint et ne soient pas trop généralistes pour atteindre leurs objectifs.

La responsabilité de l'adaptabilité du cours aux apprenants, incombe également aux enseignants qui devraient bien faire valoir leur cours en l'adaptent aux apprenants ciblés, rapprocher le cours aux besoins langagiers de ceux-ci, et de ne pas être trop théoriques car dans le domaine des langues, il ne sert à rien d'avoir des notions de tout, si elles ne débouchent pas sur la capacité à s'exprimer et à exprimer la réalité vécue.

Le système de l'enseignement mériterait une révision globale. Les ministères de l'enseignement et les décideurs arabes devraient améliorer la qualité de l'enseignement du français et l'introduire au secondaire car l'aptitude humaine à apprendre tend progressivement à se limiter : plus on est jeune, plus on est apte à assimiler et à apprendre une langue étrangère. Il leur faudrait aussi améliorer la qualité de l'enseignement, réformer la structure administrative actuelle, renforcer l'inspection et le contrôle, sensibiliser chacun dans le corps universitaire à la responsabilité qui lui incombe, embaucher des enseignants compétents et bien qualifiés et augmenter les heures de cours pour que les étudiants cohabitent avec cette langue.

Le rapport enseignant-apprenant constitue un élément fondamental dans le bon déroulement des cours et la consolidation des acquis de celui-ci. Il faudrait alors créer une atmosphère d'entente entre les deux en classe. L'enseignant devrait adopter une méthodologie qui lui permettrait d'accéder à l'esprit de son étudiant et celui-ci devrait présenter un minimum d'intérêt pour le cours. Les enseignants doivent sensibiliser leur public de la nécessité d'accéder à cette langue de culture et de civilisation et de technologie dont peut se servir pour atteindre des objectifs d'ordre humanitaire, culturel et économique. L'accès à cette langue est aujourd'hui aussi nécessaire que tout autre temps. Nous pensons ici au rôle actif, présentement, joué par la France dans les décisions politiques qui touchent le monde arabe notamment la Libye, et aussi aux investisseurs français et aux grandes sociétés de services pétroliers et autres installées en Libye.

Conclusion

Au terme de cette recherche, nous tenons à rappeler que nous avons essayé de démontrer toutes les différentes raisons pour lesquelles l'apprentissage de la langue française auprès des arabophones est déplorable.

Il importe de rappeler aussi que c'est notre expérience dans le domaine de l'enseignement du FLE et les résultats des épreuves orales et écrites qui nous ont guidés à tirer des remarques pareilles et à mettre le doigt sur les lacunes citées plus haut. Un étudiant ayant acquis un apprentissage du français pendant quatre ans et plus, se trouve finalement incapable de s'exprimer même en français facile. Cela invite réellement à méditer, à s'interroger sur l'utilité des cours enseignés durant toute cette période considérable.

Il est important aussi de signaler que dans la démonstration qu'on a faite il y a des erreurs. On n'a pas voulu sous-entendre que les erreurs sont inadmissibles, au contraire, l'erreur est partie prenante du processus d'apprentissage. Mais celles qu'on vient d'évoquer, dans ce travail, sont récurrentes et largement répandues entre les arabophones. Cette récurrence exige une solution efficace et elle est bénéfique dans le sens où elle inspirerait une règle de remédiation sérieuse. Elles (les erreurs) mériteraient également d'être examinées non seulement par l'enseignant mais avant tout par l'éditeur français qui est sensé responsable de l'appréciation ou la dépréciation des manuels qu'il publie. L'OIF (l'Organisation Internationale de la Francophonie), principal pilier qui veille à la protection et à la propagation de cette langue, n'échappe pas non plus à cette responsabilité.

Cette recherche est une simple contribution que nous espérons avoir écho favorable auprès de toutes parties citées comme responsable dans cet échec. Nous

souhaiterions aussi qu'elle soit active dans la réforme générale et la réalisation des objectifs visés.

Référence

- BANGE, P. (2005). *L'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère*. Collection Sémantique. L'Harmattan. Paris.
- BLANCHE-BENVENISTE, C. (2010). *Le français. Usages de la langue parlée*. Leuven/Paris .
- BRÉAL, M. (1897). *Essai de sémantique*. Paris : Hachette.
- CICUREL, F. (2003). La didactique des langues face aux cultures linguistiques et éducatives. *le Français dans le Monde*, N°623, mars-avril.
- CUQ, J. P. & GRUCA, J. (2003). *Isabelle Cours de didactique de français langue étrangère et second*. Paris: Pug.
- DABÈNE, L. (1994). *Repères sociolinguistiques pour l'enseignement des langues*. Paris: Hachette.
- BEACCO, J.-C. (2010). *La didactique de la grammaire dans l'enseignement du français et des langues : savoirs savants, savoirs experts et savoirs ordinaires*. Paris : Didier.
- LAGANE, R. (1993). *Difficultés grammaticales* (accords et constructions, choix des modes et des temps, De A à Z, les conseils pour un bon usage du français écrit et oral). Paris : Larousse/ Bordas.
- PORQUIER, R. & PY, B. (2004). *Apprentissage d'une langue étrangère : contextes et discours*. Paris : Didier.
- PUREN, Ch. (1988). *L'histoire des méthodologies de l'enseignement des langues*. Paris : CLE International.
- TALBOT, L. (2005). *Sous la dir. Pratiques d'enseignement et difficultés d'apprentissage*. Ramonville Saint-Agne. Edition Erès.

Contact

Alsadag H.E. Alsadag
Département de Français
Université de Sirte in Libye
Street Rass Lamin
Waddan, Eljofra
Libya
Alsadag_alsadag@yahoo.com

1771 et au-delà : un tournant dans la réception de la langue et la littérature persane en France ?

Helia Tavakoli

Université Franche-Comté, France

heliatavakoli@yahoo.fr

Abstract

From 1771 the Occident saw the first phases of the increased receipt of Persian works. This acceleration is noticed by the major translation of the sacred book *Avesta* in French, the publication of the Persian grammatical in English and also the translations of many Persian poems in English translations. The first real eighteenth-century Persian Studies were made in India by both French and English scholars: one, the indianist Anquetil-Duperron, translator of the *Zend-Avesta*, the other William Jones, resident in India, exhibited his grammatical studies in *A Grammar of the Persian Language*. We will try to search the knowledge and allusions of France on culture and Persian literature from 1771. To clarify our research, we try to answer to these questions : the publication of these two major works has contributed a genesis of the introduction of Persian Studies? What changes were spread from the appearance of these two works in France? And the nineteenth century was it also influenced by studies of these two scholars?

Key words: France, XVIIIe et XIXe centuries, Orientalism, Persian

Résumé

Le présent article inaugure les événements qui expliquent l'accueil et l'évolution des études persanes en France. À partir de 1771, naissent les premières phases de la réception accrue des oeuvres persanes en Europe¹. Cette accélération se remarque par la traduction importante du livre sacré d'*Avesta* en français, la publication de l'œuvre grammaticale persane en anglais et également par le nombre de traductions de poèmes persans en anglais. Ces premières vraies études persanes du XVIIIe siècle ont été faites en Inde par deux savants français et anglais: l'un, l'indianiste Anquetil-Duperron, a traduit le *Zend- Avesta*, et l'autre William Jones, résidant en Inde, a

¹ Si nous voulons préciser en détail, il faut mentionner qu'en 1771, l'Europe s'avance sur le foyer des études persanes avec trois manières différentes majeures: l'Allemagne par la copie des écritures cunéiformes de Persépolis par Niebuhr, l'Angleterre par la publication de l'ouvrage de Jones et finalement la France par la traduction d'Anquetil-Duperron.

exposé ses études persanes. Nous essayerons de fouiller la connaissance et les allusions de la France sur la culture et la littérature persane à partir de 1771. Pour ce faire, les questions que nous nous posons sont les suivantes : la publication de ces deux œuvres majeures a-t-elle contribué à la genèse de l'instauration des études persanes? Quelle évolution a-t-il été établi à partir de l'apparition de ces deux œuvres en France? Le XIXe siècle a-t-il été également influencé par les études de ces deux savants?

Mots-clés : Avesta, France, Orientalisme, Persan, Traduction.

Introduction

Anquetil-Duperron, en traduisant le *Zend-Avesta* - un livre qui contient des matières religieuses et culturelles d'une certaine époque de l'empire perse - n'éclaircit pas seulement les mystères d'une religion ancienne du temps jadis mais dévoile également l'ancienneté d'une Histoire ensevelie. Comme le mentionne Edgar Quinet, « Anquetil a révélé la pensée, les croyances et les dieux perdus de l'Extrême-Orient » (Quinet, 1841, p. 3). Anquetil, selon ses intérêts, a pris la responsabilité d'aiguiller la connaissance de l'Inde et de la Perse sur un chemin éducatif. Spécialiste des études indiennes, il tente de révéler l'importance du *Zend-Avesta* et de le mondialiser. Néanmoins sa traduction de *Zend-Avesta* a été à plusieurs reprises critiquée pour plusieurs raisons comme le manque des détails précis ou le nombre des fautes. L'origine des sources traduites était questionnée par certains chercheurs. En premier lieu, Jones le critiqua en publiant sous le couvert de l'anonymat la *Lettre à A*** du P**** en 1771. Ensuite John Richardson questionne la datation du *Zend-Avesta* en 1777 (Voir Gallien, 2013).

En 1789, C'est à nouveau Jones qui revient sur *Zend-Avesta* en notant qu'Anquetil avait confondu, le zend et le farsi du pahlavi. Mais au début du XIXe siècle, Anquetil-Duperron est connu comme le révélateur de Zoroastre en Occident, l'auteur de *Législation orientale*, le fondateur des premières images de l'Orient en France, et des études indianistes en France. Anquetil remplace l'image exotique des contes par la réalité historique d'un culte. Il « re » découvre un continent délaissé. Il écrit avec regret dans ses notices : « Des ouvrages d'une certaine importance ne peuvent être très connus » (Anquetil-Duperron, 1771, p. 1). De l'autre côté, Jones commence à traduire, sur ordre du roi du Danemark, l'*Histoire de Nader Chah* en 1770. L'année suivante il rédige *A Grammar of the Persian Language*, un livre consacré à l'explication des règles de grammaire persane, dans lequel il mentionne les poèmes de Sadi, Hafez, Ferdousi et d'autres poètes persans comme exemples grammaticaux. C'est dans la préface de ce livre qu'il donne trois adjectifs à la langue

persane: « rich, melodious and elegant ». C'est ainsi que la Perse se représente dans deux ouvrages très importants du XVIII^e siècle.

Jones et sa *lettre à A* du P******

La publication de deux oeuvres majeures sur la Perse en 1771 initia les premiers contacts scientifiques sur l'histoire, la religion et la littérature persane. Anquetil-Duperron comme le dit Raymond Schwab marque plus qu'une date; il ouvre une ère nouvelle dans l'histoire de l'intelligence humaine (Schwab, 1934, p. 5). Jones à son tour publia son ouvrage sur la grammaire persane. Comme l'explique Jones, l'étude des littératures grecques et romaines a été bien avancée et diffusée en Europe mais les œuvres orientales comme les persanes étaient restées méconnues et dans le dénuement. Jones adressa ses regrets sur l'inconnaissance des langues asiatiques aux élites de l'époque. A titre d'exemple, en admirateur de Voltaire, Jones signala l'intérêt de celui-ci pour la beauté des images et des sentiments persans mais regrette que cet homme extraordinaire n'ait pas ajouté une connaissance des langues asiatiques à ses savoirs. Jones ajouta qu'en sachant des langues méconnues comme la persane en Europe, la littérature occidentale put offrir des poèmes et des histoires de la Perse dans une robe européenne. Anquetil et Jones avec leurs tâches et leurs passions de découverte ont essayé de ne pas seulement de connaître mais également de faire connaître les textes persans. Ils ont influencé l'Europe par leurs études persanes et même par leur conflit scientifique.

Anquetil relança dans sa première représentation écrite, Zoroastre comme un prophète réel, purifié de tous les personnages imaginaires au long du siècle. *Avesta*, ensemble des textes sacrés des mazdéens est devenu l'une des sources essentielles de l'inspiration philosophique, religieuse, historique et littéraire en Europe. Mais il a été immédiatement critiqué en Angleterre et en France. En premier, c'est Jones qui l'attaque dans sa *Lettre à A*** du P****² en 1771. Jones appelle l'ouvrage d'Anquetil, un ouvrage totalement inutile avec son discours préliminaire importun contenant « cinq cents pages de détails puérils, de descriptions dégoutantes et des mots barbares ». Ensuite après l'ajout des déclarations personnelles sur le goût et le savoir même de la langue maternelle d'Anquetil, il critique son style et l'appelle *dur, bas, inélégant, souvent ampoulé, rarement conforme au sujet, et jamais agréable*. C'est

² Il faut savoir que la lettre a été écrite dans un style très proche de celui de Voltaire. Afin de pouvoir critiquer le style d'Anquetil comme celui d'un Français, Jean-Jacques Ampère suppose que cette lettre a été rédigée par Voltaire lui-même. Voir Ampère. J.J. (1836). *Littérature orientale*.- Antiquités de la Perse -Travaux de M. E. Burnouf. *Revue des deux mondes*, Tome 8.

dans l'étape suivante qu'il l'accuse de commettre des fautes graves sur certains sujets. D'abord il se moque son ignorance sur la date de la publication de *Seddar* et d'*Ardwirafnameh*. Il souligne que ces deux ouvrages contenant les notions arabes appartiennent à l'époque moderne et ne peuvent pas considérer comme les sources de consultations sur Zoroastre. Jones reproche la confusion d'Anquetil sur la contemporanéité de Sadi et Hafez. Il finit par donner ses derniers commentaires sur les erreurs concernant les confusions d'Anquetil sur plusieurs points, il nomme le reste de l'ouvrage sans raison et sans précision. Jones ajoute que le savoir du persan d'Anquetil n'est pas profond et le ridiculise en disant que « souvenez vous aussi qu'un vocabulaire n'est pas plus une langue qu'une pierre n'est un château ». Par ces mots, Jones dénonce le fait que l'apprentissage d'une langue se limite à l'apprentissage du vocabulaire. Tous ces premiers pas ont été faits par Anquetil en Europe et non pas par d'autres savants et non plus par Hyde. Or Hyde a consacré certaines études sur ce domaine mais il n'a jamais essayé de s'interrompre pour apprendre le vieux persan et c'est pourquoi Anquetil reste ; malgré les critiques de Jones, le premier qui a lu et traduit Avesta dans sa langue originale.

Les réactions à la publication du *Zend-Avesta* en France

Les publications sur *Avesta* ont été commencées en 1768 par Anquetil dans le tome de 31 de *Mémoires de littérature, tirés de registres de l'Académie royale des inscriptions et belles-lettres*. Il publia ses articles sous le nom de *Recherches sur les anciennes langues de la perse* accompagnés des articles d'Abbé Foucher. En France, les réactions vinrent de la part de Voltaire et de Diderot. Voltaire qui auparavant avait fait des allusions à Zoroastre dans son *Zadig* et il avait consacré un chapitre dans son *Essai sur les mœurs* à ce personnage, humilia Zoroastre d'Anquetil dans son *Dictionnaire philosophique* et le résuma en « l'abominable fatras ». Là où Voltaire explique les paroles de Hyde comme un historien, il cite les phrases d'Anquetil de la part d'un « voyageur Français ». Cela témoigne que le travail de ce dernier ne retient pas une valeur scientifique chez Voltaire. Il considère tous les récits et les anecdotes sur la vie de Zoroastre comme des fables et il les qualifie d'insulte à l'Antiquité. Diderot à son tour publia dans son *Opinions des anciens philosophes*, un article sur *Zend-Avesta* destiné à éclaircir les contrevérités de la philosophie des Parsis et celle de Zoroastre. Pour Diderot, Anquetil a fait naître une clarification sur les liaisons de ce texte avec « l'histoire des Hébreux, des Grecs, des Indiens et peut-être des Chinois » (ibid., p. 504). Diderot expliqua la découverte d'Anquetil sur la doctrine de Zoroastre. Il indiqua plusieurs éléments des livres de Zoroastre sur la dispersion du genre humain, le respect du feu, l'existence d'une force morale et la dénégation du

mal, les premières dynasties persanes, les prédictions, la résurrection et un traité des rites et des cérémonies très *étendu* (Diderot, 1798, p. 499-520).

Le livre sacré zoroastrien représenta selon Diderot un style *oriental, répétitif, enthousiaste*. Il ajouta les détails sur le contenu et la langue de vingt-sept nosks et définit que l'ouvrage avait été écrit dans une langue morte avec ses origines inconnues. Zend selon Diderot se définit dans une manière net et simple et il est surtout représentant de l'antiquité. Il attribue l'invention de pehlevi à Kiamorz, le premier roi de première dynastie persane. Diderot dans cet article mentionne d'autres ouvrages zoroastriens comme *Bondahesh* et *Virafnameh*. Le *Journal des Sçavans* publia un article sur l'ouvrage d'Anquetil-Duperron en Novembre 1771 dans lequel il présenta Hyde comme le premier savant qui tenta d'approfondir les recherches sur l'histoire et la religion des Perses. Mais il ajouta que son manque de connaissance des langues anciennes ne lui avait pas permis d'avancer sur les textes en dépit de leur existence dans la bibliothèque d'Angleterre. L'auteur présenta Anquetil comme le pionnier des recherches persanes et apprécia son « projet hardi » de départ en Inde pour acquérir les langues dans lesquelles les textes étaient écrits. En Janvier et en Mars 1772, le journal consacre un de ses articles à expliquer la vie de Zoroastre et les différentes parties du livre ainsi que les détails sur les rois indiqués dans l'ouvrage d'Anquetil-Duperron. En Janvier de la même année, Grimm apprécie les critiques de Jones sur Anquetil en appelant une « lettre de correction fraternelle » (Grimm & Diderot, 1829, p. 380) dans son *Correspondance littéraire*. Diderot influencé par les critiques établis sur le travail d'Anquetil, publie *La philosophie des Perses*, dans lequel il qualifie les récits de la vie de Zoroastre de fictifs et manquant de toute la réalité. Mais en Mai 1772³ le *journal des Sçavans* publie une lettre anonyme intitulé *Une lettre à M. du P... dans laquelle est compris l'examen de sa traduction des livres attribués à Zoroastre*.

La lettre en critiquant Jones, considère son argument non-scientifique et le nomme une *satire* et une *ironie*. Jones est condamné à avoir uniquement une connaissance limitée sur la poésie et les romans. Autrement dit une connaissance des *frivolités*. C'est la raison pour laquelle la valeur des recherches basées sur l'Orient est incompréhensible pour lui. L'auteur rejette la critique de Jones concernant l'existence des mots arabes dans l'*Avesta* d'Anquetil et signale que la relation serrée des deux pays depuis les siècles a pu en être la raison. Il finit sa lettre en appréciant qu'Anquetil en publiant cet ouvrage, ait répondu à un zèle existant depuis longtemps en Europe. Si les textes contiennent quelques *traits peu importants*, c'est parce

³ Une lettre à M. du P... dans laquelle est compris l'examen de sa traduction des livres attribués à Zoroastre. *Journal des Sçavans*, p. 252.

qu'Anquetil comme le premier traducteur les a publiés comme ils étaient. Volney est le savant suivant qui critique Anquetil en 1780 dans *Chronologie des douze siècles, antérieurs au passage de Xerxès en Grèce, examinée* et appelle Anquetil *le traducteur des livres liturgiques des Parses, qui ne sont pas ceux de Zoroastre, malgré ses assertions*. En 1789, dans *Les ruines ou méditation sur les révolutions des empires* dans le chapitre X Volney estime que la naissance de Zoroastre s'est déroulée cinq siècles après Moïse, au temps de David.

Les études littéraires persanes de Jones

Parallèlement, les critiques et les études sur la Perse continuent. Jones à son tour avance ses études sur la littérature persane. Jones se réfère au poète persan Nezami. Jones est fasciné par l'introduction du recueil *Laili Majnun*, où Nezami présente l'amour divin à l'aide des poèmes allégoriques et mystérieux. Jones explique que le prénom de Leili, déjà utilisé dans les poèmes du *Masnavi* et les odes de Hafez, représentaient l'Esprit de Dieu. Dans « *Laili Majnun, A Persian Poem of Hatifi*⁴ », il parle de la version du poème de Hatefi. Dans ce volume, Jones dessine l'image de *Leili et Majnoun* de Hatefi⁵. Le poème est raconté d'une manière extrêmement simple mais très émouvante une histoire basée sur la vérité. Kais triste et possédée de l'amour de Leila prend le nom de Majnun. Jones indique que selon Sadi, Leili ne possédait aucune beauté mais que c'était dans les yeux de son amant qu'elle semblait belle. Il cite comme l'exemple un vers de Maulavvi of Rum qui aborde le même sujet dans deux hémistiches : « The Khalifah said to Laili, art thou the damsel, for whom the lost Majnu'n is become a wanderer in the desert ? Thou surpasses not other girls in beauty. She said : Be silent ; for thou art not Majnun » (Jones, 1807, p. 391). Jones indique que pour lire la poésie, il faut avoir une bonne connaissance des mètres dans lesquelles les poèmes sont composés. C'est à l'aide de ces mesures qu'on peut distinguer la prose de la poésie et faire une traduction juste. C'est sur ce point qu'il reproche un manque de connaissance à Gentius dans sa traduction de *Gulistan* de 1651. Jones propose aux traducteurs de ne pas ajouter d'images ou de pensées propres mais au contraire de les omettre car certaines métaphores sont loin des styles européens. Dans les dernières lignes de « *Laili Majnun, A Persian Poem of Hatifi* », il se plaint des publications persanes et arabes qui contiennent beaucoup de fautes. D'après lui, pour les publications des ouvrages asiatiques, il ne faut pas

⁴ Publié à Calcutta en 1788.

⁵ Ce divan de poésie a été rédigé la première fois par Nezami mais après lui, plusieurs écrivains comme Jami et Hatefi ont repris l'histoire et l'ont rédigée à leur façon. D'après Jones la version de Hatefi est la version la plus simple et la plus pathétique.

uniquement faire attention à l'art de l'imprimerie mais il faut aussi veiller à engager des individus savants comme ceux du Bengale qui peuvent fournir facilement les éditions de Hafez, Sadi, Nezami et Ferdousi. Il propose aussi de demander l'assistance des natifs qui peuvent aider à améliorer la valeur de la presse en échange de petites ressources. Jones dévoile ses véritables intentions quand il annonce qu'il fait ces propositions sous l'influence d'un souscripteur et sûrement pas d'un traducteur ou d'un éditeur de livres persans. Jones dans sa *Dissertation* parle des poètes orientaux et signale qu'au moment de la traduction, il faut que le traducteur soit au courant de certains détails. À titre d'exemple, il fait allusion aux images de rossignol et de rose dans les poèmes de Hafez qui sont les représentatifs de l'amour. Il explique le fond des poèmes et représente les sentiments qui animent les poètes persans comme un *amour vertueux*. Il cite deux chapitres de Nabi dans lesquels il parle sur la poésie persane (Jones, 1771):

Jones dans cette dissertation traduit deux odes de Hafez et il se pose une question sur ce dernier : il se demande si nous devons considérer les poèmes de Hafez dans un sens figuratif ou littéral? D'après Jones, Hafez n'a jamais prétendu être le plus vertueux des hommes. Il était amoureux d'une fille nommée Shakhi Nebat, or son rival était le prince de Shiraz. Il cite plusieurs vers de Hafez et parle de la vraie signification du vin chez le poète : la dévotion. Il explique que certaines notions possèdent une signification différente chez les Sufis et il aborde ses explications en utilisant des exemples comme « Sleep », « Idolaters », « Beauty » ou « Wine » qui veulent dire littéralement en poésie persane « Mediattion », « The man of purest religion » and « perfection of the supreme being ». C'est dans les années suivantes que le projet de Jones porte ses fruits quand de nouvelles traductions persanes voient le jour. Dans « On the Mystical Poetry of the Persians and Hindus » (Jones, 1792). Jones parle des Sufis et mentionne que dans leurs pensées, Dieu est le seul « perfect benevolence, perfect truth, perfect beauty ». Il explique que le seul vrai amour chez les Sufis est l'amour divin et que les autres amours sont absurdes. D'après les Sufis, la beauté de la nature, tel un miroir reflète les images de Dieu. C'est la pensée et l'esprit qui peuvent uniquement prétendre à une existence pure et absolue et les substances matérielles sont loin de les posséder. Jones explique la croyance profonde des Sufis dans le Coran et même il fait les remarques au sujet du jour d'Alast (Tome IV, p. 435).

Envoûté par « cette poésie douce et sublime », il tente d'inviter ses lecteurs à goûter *ces beautés réelles de la poésie*. Jones est l'un des premiers qui ouvre les portes de l'inspiration sur l'horizon orientale en Europe. Elle goûtera alors la « vivacité surprenante des images orientales ». En 1788, il déclare *la découverte de la famille des langues indo-européennes* et en 1789 dans son *The six discourse : on the*

persians Jones remarque sans aucune doute l'authenticité de la personnalité de Cyrus avec celle de Caikhosrau de Ferdousi. Jones reconnaît trois langues en Perse : le parsi, le pahlavi et le zend. Ce dernier est défini dans une langue très ancienne utilisée auparavant par les prêtres et les philosophes. Il présente qu'il y a un livre religieux et les devoirs moraux sont écrits dans cette langue. C'est pourquoi le livre comporte le même nom et ses commentaires sont intitulés *Pazend*. Jones continue son article en ajoutant qu'en lisant deux fois avec une grande attention le *Shâh-nâmeh* de Ferdousi, il a découvert qu'il y a au moins une centaine de noms *Parsis* dans ce livre qui étaient purement sanscrits. D'après Jones, les impératifs persans ont les mêmes racines que les verbes de sanscrits. Il conclut que le Parsi était dérivé comme les dialectes variés indien de langues des Brahmanes. Jones ajoute qu'il y a beaucoup de ressemblance d'une part entre le Zend et le Sanscrit et d'autre part entre le Pelevi et l'Arabe. Jones examine les mots dans *Pazend* et dans Farhang Jahangiri et de cet examen il conclut que Zend est un dialecte de Chaldaïque. Dans cette explication, Jones revient sur Anquetil. Il ajoute que dans le glossaire Zend présenté par Anquetil, il existe au moins six ou sept mots purs sanscrits. Comme Anquetil ne connaissait pas le sanscrit, il ne pouvait pas inventer une liste des mots sanscrits et cela témoigne que c'est une liste des mots en Zend. La conclusion est simple : Zend est un dialecte du Sanscrit. La découverte de Jones conduit à une vaste recherche littéraire, historique et religieuse. *Shâh-Nâmeh* devient aussi un foyer d'étude sur les dynasties et le passé de la Perse en Angleterre, en Allemagne et en France. A part l'art poétique de l'œuvre, ses allusions historiques s'intéressent aux savants de l'époque afin de révéler la réalité historique de la Perse. Jones est parmi ces savants qui essayent de deviner les équivalents entre les chants de Ferdousi et les anecdotes d'Hérodote afin de découvrir les langues parlées de l'ancienne Perse.

Les publications abondantes sur Zoroastre et l'épopée de Ferdousi

En 1788 Louis Langlès publie une introduction avec un résumé court sur l'épopée persane, le *Schâh-Nâmeh*. Dans *Analyse et extraits des ouvrages de Ferdoussy*, comme Jones Langlès compare le poète persan à Homer. Il emprunte la raison de cette comparaison à Jones en ajoutant que les deux poètes possédaient un haut degré d'imagination féconde, le génie de créateur et l'âme de la poésie. En 1813 la Littérature orientale du *Magasin encyclopédique* traite la traduction de *Schâh-Nâmeh* par M. Hammer. L'auteur Raymond présente pour mieux critiquer les cinquante premières distiques de *Schâh-Nâmeh* pour familiariser les lecteurs au mètre de la poésie. Il ajoute que *la connaissance du mètre dans lequel est composé Schâh-Nâmeh est un moyen de critique qu'on ne doit pas négliger*. Dans cet article, l'auteur se réfère à plusieurs reprises à Jones sur les différents sujets concernant

Ferdousi, la poésie mystique persane et la définition du jour Alast. En 1826 Jules Mohl accepte la traduction de *Livre des Rois* et en 1829 avec la collaboration d'Olshausen, il publie un petit recueil intitulé *Fragments relatifs à la religion de Zoroastre, extraits des manuscrits persans de la Bibliothèque du Roi*. Silvestre de Sacy en 1833 publie deux articles sur *Shâh-Nâmeh* dans *Journal des Sçavans*. Dans le premier article il présente l'ouvrage de Ferdousi et ensuite il analyse la traduction de Turner Macan. Son deuxième article, *Chrestomathia Schahnamiana* est une critique de l'ouvrage de Vullers. La même année, Eugène Burnouf publie *La connaissance de la langue d'Avesta* où il confirme l'authenticité d'Avesta d'Anquetil-Duperron. En 1836 le premier volume de la traduction de Mohl apparaît en France. Cette même année, Jean-Jacques Ampère publie dans *Revue des deux mondes* son *Antiquité de la Perse*, un article consacré aux travaux de Burnouf (Ampere, 1836).

Dans cet article, Ampère manifeste la valeur scientifique des études de Burnouf et croit que ses travaux précis sont les seuls qui peuvent nous aider un jour à découvrir Zoroastre. En effet, pour connaître la doctrine de Zoroastre et s'avancer dans les analyses approfondies sur ce personnage, il faut connaître sa langue et cette particularité n'existe que chez Burnouf. Ampère ajoute que selon Burnouf le zend est un ancien idiome de la Perse et un analogue du sanscrit. Ampère ajoute que la connaissance de la religion et de la pensée de Zoroastre dépend de la consultation des livres zends mais il a vivement besoin d'assimiler le zend. L'auteur attribue cette compétence à deux savants français Anquetil-Duperron au XVIII^e siècle et celui que l'Europe du XIX^e siècle a placé au premier rang de la philologie orientale, Eugène Burnouf. Il continue à clarifier la transmission de texte de Zoroastre en Inde et aux Parsis quelques siècles après la conquête de la Perse par les Arabes. L'abondance des éléments sémitiques dans la langue pehlevi est la remarque suivante dont l'auteur s'occupe de noter. Ensuite Ampère rend éloge à nouveau à Anquetil, qui avec son héroïsme de la science, a redonné à la France une opportunité alors qu'un érudit comme Burnouf a pu s'enfoncer dans l'obscurité du mystère de Zoroastre et à en sortir une grande clarification. Burnouf a essayé en premier lieu de lithographier le texte pour pouvoir facilement comparer avec la traduction d'Anquetil. Ensuite il passe à l'étape de la traduction. Avec ses études faites auparavant sur la philologie comparée Burnouf sans avoir ni dictionnaire ni grammaire, il se mit à traduire Yacna à travers d'une traduction sanscrite du texte zend, faite sur la version péhlevi au quinzième siècle par Nérioseng. Il reconnaît une langue sœur du sanscrit dans le zend et il réussit à réduire le mot de ses formes grammaticales pour trouver le radical. C'est grâce à ses recherches, la connaissance de l'alphabet persépolitain a fait beaucoup de progrès. Trois ans plus tard Jean-Jacques Ampère publie un article sur l'épopée persane *Le Livre des Rois* dans *Revue des deux mondes*. Dans cette analyse,

Ampère raconte qu'un recueil des contes et des fables anciens a été rédigé et conservé à l'abri à l'époque du roi d'Anouchirvan. A l'époque où l'islamisme s'est mis face à face au zoroastrisme, les nationalistes se sont unifiés pour conserver les traditions et le culte du pays. Selon Ferdousi, un personnage nommé Danishwar à l'époque de dernier Sassanide écrivait les parties d'un livre contenant des histoires racontées de la bouche des vieillards des provinces. Ferdousi écrit son épopée à l'aide du récit de Daneshwar. Dans ses propos, Ampère indique les éléments importants comme la tradition orale, les dihkans et les pahlevans. Louis Dubeux est le chercheur suivant qui en 1841 s'occupe de son ouvrage *La Perse*, dans lequel il cite l'histoire et la description des peuples de la Perse, de leurs religions et des mœurs, jusqu'à l'industrie et les costumes. Quelques années plus tard Garcin de Tassy corrige et augmente *La grammaire persane* de Jones en français. Dans la préface du livre Tassy rassure ses lecteurs que l'ouvrage de Jones concernant l'étude de la langue persane malgré ses défauts, contient une clarté singulière. Toutefois le traité de Jones est incomplet, Tassy est bien convaincu que l'ouvrage de Jones contient insuffisamment de matières nécessaires pour un niveau élémentaire. En 1852, Alexandre Chodzoko en rédigeant sa *Grammaire persane*, en plus des règles grammaticales, révèle comme Jones l'amour des persans pour leur littérature nationale et remarque la liaison perpétuelle de celle-ci avec la religion. Il fait allusion au rôle important que les ouvrages littéraires jouent chez les hommes d'État persans. Dans les années suivantes Théodore Pavie publie *Notice sur les travaux de Burnouf* en 1853 et Jacques-Joseph Champollion-Figeac a fait paraître son *Histoire des peuples anciens et modernes ; Asie orientale*. Champollion-Figeac consacre son livre à la Perse d'un point de vue historique mais basé sur les sources historico-littéraires de *Zend-Avesta* et *Livre des Rois*. Il catégorise les dynasties préislamiques de la Perse en profitant la liaison entre le livre de Zoroastre et celui de Ferdousi, l'auteur qui est à la fois un poète et un historien. Abel Hovelacque rédige sa *Grammaire dans la langue Zend* en 1868. Dix ans plus tard il publie *L'Avesta, Zoroastre et Mazdéisme* dans lequel il nomme *l'Avesta*, le Bible de mazdéisme. Dans les premiers chapitres, Hovelacque fait une recherche sur les opinions anciennes concernant ce livre avant la traduction d'Anquetil. Ensuite il continue par les détails sur Anquetil et il examine l'authenticité de *l'Avesta*. D'autre érudit qui travaille avec persévérance sur les études mazdéennes est James Darmesteter. Il publie ses ouvrages sur la Perse intitulés *Haurvatât et Ameretât : essai sur la mythologie de l'Avesta, Ormazd et Ahriman, Les Origines de la poésie persane*. Dans les années 92 et 93 il revient sur le sujet de Zoroastre et publie son *Zend-Avesta, ouvrage de Zoroastre*. La publication de *Zend-Avesta* dans les dernières années du XIXe siècle témoigne l'existence d'un leitmotiv répétitif depuis 1771 en France. Tout au long du XIXe siècle, les savants ont

tenté de découvrir, clarifier et déchiffrer tous les points obscurs du XVIII^e siècle sur les études persanes commencé par l'apparition du personnage de Zoroastre. Adolphe d'Avril en 1888, en travaillant sur les sujets des femmes dans l'épopée iranienne dévoile l'importance de l'étude comparative de cette épopée en France. Avril au début de son œuvre fait l'éloge des littératures comparées spécialement l'étude comparée des épopées. *Shahnameh* ou *le Livre des Rois* selon Avril est une collection des traditions populaires depuis l'origine de la monarchie iranienne jusqu'à la conquête des Arabes. Un recueil de poésie qui comme Zoroastre a aidé la France pour fouiller les origines de la Perse.

Conclusion

Au début des années du siècle des Lumières, le domaine des présentations persanes est défini dans une île imaginaire créée par les Occidentaux. La Perse et sa religion mazdéique existaient dans les récits de Pétis de la Croix et représentaient un passage artificiel d'Ispahan à Paris à travers le roman épistolaire de Montesquieu. Zoroastre n'était qu'un objet d'exotisme au début du XVIII^e siècle. Dans les récits de voyages de Chardin et de Tavernier, on l'indique brièvement et énigmatiquement. Son nom introduit un personnage offrant la persanerie dans les *Indes galantes* de Rameau ou une image idéale dans le *Zadig* de Voltaire. La Perse découverte, déchiffrée et regardée par ses propres preuves se représente à travers les premiers ouvrages publiés en 1771. C'est à partir de cette date que l'Occident dépasse sa répétition exotique des noms et met ses propres pas à observer et à découvrir la Perse scientifiquement. Les études persanes s'améliorent grâce à l'intérêt de l'époque à l'Orient et aux études comparatives. Le personnage de Zoroastre et son livre examinent à plusieurs reprises par les savants. Issue des hypothèses variantes conclues de ces recherches, Zoroastre est observé par les savants français non seulement comme un personnage prophétique mais aussi en tant qu'un philosophe, un réformateur ou même un personnage légendaire qui a influencé son entourage par la mise en valeur de la bonté dans trois éléments essentiels : l'action, la parole et la pensée.

Références

- ANQUETIL-DUPERRON, A. H. (1771). *Zend-Avesta, l'ouvrage de Zoroastre*. Paris: N. M. Tilliard.
- AMOUZEGAR, J. (Printemps 2006). « Les langues anciennes et les religions célestes », *Haft Aséman*, n°45.
- AMPERE, J. J. (1836). Antiquités de la Perse, Travaux de M. E. Burnouf. *Revue des deux mondes*, tome 8.
- AVRIL, A. (1888). *Les femmes dans l'épopée persane*. Paris: E. Leroux.
- DARMESTER, J. (1875). *Haurvatât et Ameretât : essai sur la mythologie de l'Avesta*. Paris: A. Franck.
- DARMESTER, J. (1877). *Ormazd et Ahriman, leurs origines et leur histoire*. Paris: Leroux.
- DARMESTER, J. (1887). *Les origines de la poésie persane*. Paris: F. Vieweg.
- DARMESTER, J. (1892). *Le Zend-Avesta*. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
- DIDEROT, D. (1798). *Œuvres de Denis Diderot*. Tome 7, Paris, Desray et Deterville, p. 499-520.
- FIRDOUSI, A. K. (1829). *The Shah Nameh*. Translated by Turner Macan, 4 vols, Calcutta, Baptist mission press.
- FIRDOUSI, A. K. (1876-1878). *Livre des Rois*. Traduit par Jules Mohl, 7 vols, Paris, Imprimerie nationale.
- GALLIEN, C. (Février 2013). Une querelle orientaliste : la réception controversée du Zend-Avesta d'Anquetil-Duperron en France et en Angleterre. *Littératures classiques*, n° 81.
- GRIMM, F. M. & DIDEROT, D. (1829). *La correspondance littéraire, philosophique et critique*. Tome 7, (1770-1772), Paris, Furne, p. 380.
- HOVELACQUE, A. (1868). *Grammaire de la langue zende*. Paris: Maisonneuve.
- HOVELACQUE, A. (1878). *Avesta, Zoroastre et mazdéisme*. Paris: Maisonneuve.
- JONES, W. (1771). *Dissertation sur la Littérature Orientale*. London: P. Elmsly.
- JONES, W. (1792). On the Mystical Poetry of the Persians and Hindus. *Asiatick Researches*, III.
- JONES, W. (1807). *The Works of Sir William Jones with the Life of the Author by Lord Teignmouth in thirteen volumes*. London, John Stockdale, Piccadilly and John Walker, Paternoster-Row.
- LANGLÈS, L. (1788). *Contes, fables et sentences tirés de différents auteurs arabes et persans*. Paris: Royez.
- QUINET, E. (1841). De la renaissance orientale. *Revue des Deux Mondes*, tome 28.
- RIES, J. (1983). *La religion de Zarathustra et le mazdéisme depuis les origines jusqu'à l'avènement des achéménides*. Louvain-la Neuve, centre d'histoire des religions.



SCHWAB, R. (1934). *Vie d'Anquetil-Duperron, suivie des usages civils et religieux des Parses par Anquetil-Duperron*. Paris: E. Leroux.

VOLTAIRE. (1835). *OEuvres complètes, oeuvres philosophiques*. Paris: Leroi.

Contact

Helia Tavakoli

Doctorante à l'Université Franche-Comté

43 rue de l'Alouette

94160 Saint-Mandé

06 42 69 56 54

heliatavakoli@yahoo.fr