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Problems in Teaching Tenses to Turkish Learners

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Abstract—This study focuses on the problems in teaching tenses to Turkish students at university level in Turkey. Some of the problematic and confusing tenses such as Past Simple and Present Perfect Tense, Present Continuous and Present Simple, Past Simple and Past Continuous Tense Teaching grammar have been handled throughout this study with the data obtained from the written exams of the learners. Most frequently occurred errors have been listed and they have been analyzed in detail. The findings reveal that the reasons for these errors mostly derive from mother tongue interference and lack of adequate linguistic background. The other component of this article is to offer remedial teaching activities for foreign language learners to compensate the shortcomings.

Index Terms—tenses, grammar, mistake, error, foreign language, mother tongue interference, teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

In foreign language teaching process, teaching grammar is one of the stressed points that teachers cannot disregard. Despite the various views whether it should be presented or not, there is a general agreement that a systematic and purposeful teaching of it vital to master the target language. Grammar, either directly or indirectly, is taught from the elementary education until the undergraduate studies for about eight years in Turkey. Thus, every student has to learn grammar for about eight years long. However, it is observed that in spite of teaching grammar so extensively, students are unable to produce grammatically correct sentences. Students suffer from English phobia and join courses to develop their linguistic competence even after completing their graduation.

Generally speaking, the teaching of grammar has been regarded as a highly structure based and formal activity in many of the schools in Turkey. In most cases, grammar is exclusively taught for its own sake. The general pattern for the teaching of grammar is to give some rules using a lot of technical terminology, talk about the exceptions to the rules, ask students to solve some exercises that are often mechanical and monotonous and this is the end of the teaching of grammar. Even if the students' performance in a grammar test is fairly good, there is no guarantee of the fact that he would be able to speak and write in English well. In this respect, Gokhale (2010) claims that in most cases, grammar is taught as an end in itself rather than as a means to an end. Ideally, the teaching of grammar must help our students to produce utterances that exemplify the grammatical rules, but it seems that generally the teacher focuses on teaching the rules of grammar and ignores the communicative aspect of language.

Put other way, grammar which is composed of tenses is an indispensable part of a language and it constitutes the bone of the body, language. Hence, they need to be learned or acquired by the learner either consciously or subconsciously. As it has a certain role in language teaching, the teachers of foreign language need to tackle with it within the teaching syllabus skilfully so that the learners can grasp it well.

Before talking about tenses in English it would be better to drop a few lines of grammar, in which tenses have a certain role. Grammar exists in languages and will be learned or acquired in a way. For the native speakers, according to Chomsky (1959), grammar is somewhere in their brains and they can use to make sentences. The hypothesis that the course of language acquisition is determined by an innate faculty is known popularly. Chomsky maintains that language activity is an activity unique to human beings' experience, so that learning a language involves mental processes. When it comes to foreign language learners the situation seems to be a bit different considering that they already know a language, mother tongue, and they will build a new one on it. So if a learner would like to approximate the competence of a native speaker, he should have some capacities such as the ability to distinguish grammatical from ungrammatical sentences. He should also be able to produce and understand an infinite number of grammatical sentences, and identify syntactically ambiguous sentences. Learning a language does not consist of only approximation to the native speaker, and the learner may have slips, mistakes, false starts and a number of ungrammatical behaviours.

Needless to say, Turkish students have some difficulties in learning some tenses due to some reasons originated from their misunderstandings or misinterpretations of the lessons presented by the Turkish teachers. Mother tongue interference can also be regarded as an important barrier that keeps the learners learning the newly confronted language. We always encounter with the misused sentences produced by the students such as, "*I have seen that film last year*", "**I am living in Ankara*", "**I told him he is at home*", "**I am playing football on Sundays*", "*I was go to Istanbul last summer*", "*I was knowing that you couldn't come*", "*I am understanding now*" and so forth. As a teacher of foreign language, what should be done is to make some remedial teaching on the misunderstood and fossilised concepts located in the students' minds. Hence, this study aims at presenting these misconceptions and problems arising in teaching

some tenses. Before moving to the problems in teaching tenses to present some general information about grammar will help to clarify our issue in concern.

II. TEACHING GRAMMAR

It is a fact that while teaching tenses we teach grammar of the language in question. Ur (1996) defines grammar as "the way words are put together to make correct sentences (p.75)". Radford (1998) characterises grammar as the study of the principles which govern the formation and interpretation of words, phrases and sentences. To Crystal (1992) Grammar is a systematic analysis of a language (p.158). It has also been known that grammar is traditionally divided into morphology and syntax.

We can say that grammar is abstract in the mind and it becomes concrete in the use. That is to say, it is something that is somewhere in the brain and turns out to be concrete in using. Moreover, it is the study of grammatical competence which means tacitly knowing about the grammar of a language. To introduce a technical term, we might say that native speakers have grammatical competence in their native language; by this we mean that they have tacit knowledge of their language. In other words, they are aware of how to form and interpret words, phrases and sentences in the language. So human beings have no conscious awareness of the psychological processes involved in speaking and understanding a language.

In a word, a grammar of a language is a model of the competence of fluent speaker of the language, and competence is reflected in intuitions about grammaticality and interpretation. A grammar of a given language is descriptive adequate if it correctly describes whether any given string of words in a language is or isn't grammatical, and also correctly describes what interpretations the relevant string has (Radford, 1997).

III. PROBLEMS IN TEACHING TENSES

Tense is a matter of inflection that is the changing of the shape of a verb by adding or not adding a morpheme. It should be borne in mind that "tense" and "time" are not to be regarded as synonymous in English. The term "tense" is used to refer to a verb form, not to chronological time (Graver, 1986, p.50). English verbs are used to express the *aspect* (simple, continuous or perfect) of an action or event. To some linguists, structurally speaking, there are two main tenses; present and past. Future is included in the present. On the other hand, most of the linguists state that there are three tenses in English; present, past and future. There are some problems arising in the learning of the use of these forms because of the first language interference and existing distinctions in a different way.

The choice of verb form (simple, continuous, perfect) made by English speaker depends on many factors, and not on a rigid set of grammatical rules. For the foreign language learner it seems to be quite difficult to be able to use the language appropriately for the appropriate situations. As they haven't developed on the stressed points efficiently they fail to get the message across. Now, let's examine some of the tenses causing difficulties for learners to learn through the results obtained from the research.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

A. Method

The method used in this study is qualitative research based on document scanning which aims to figure out the commonly recurring errors in foreign language learners' written exams. Our aim here is not to analyze foreign language courses at Turkish State Universities but to evaluate the problems occurring during the teaching of grammar. It is not true that all lessons are conducted structurally, but while presenting the course it is inevitable to offer grammatical patterns. During this process, most of the foreign language teachers come across a lot of problems demotivating the lecturers.

B. Procedure

I have been teaching English for about 20 years. Except for two years, I taught English to Turkish students, for about 15 years to undergraduate students at a Turkish state university, Kırıkkale University, Turkey. Most of the learners at this university, as in other Turkish State Universities, have low-level linguistic background because they claim that they could not get foreign language courses in their previous education appropriately. Therefore, when they confront with the course they usually have problems. In this study, I found out that certain error types were made by Turkish students after analyzing hundreds of sentences produced by EFL learners' written exams. In order to obtain the related data, I took notes of the errors on the papers for three years.

C. Participants

The participants of this study are the first-year students at various faculties: Faculty of Education, Faculty of Art and Literature and Faculty of Engineering. As it is a compulsory course for them to succeed in a year of 60 hour-course programme devoted, they feel obliged to follow the course. The written exams administered to the participants from the

first year students consisted of the questions requiring the grammatical knowledge of the learners. The exams of approximately 330 students (110 for each year) were scanned for three years in terms of the grammatical problems.

D. Limitations

This study only deals with the errors occurring in written exams administered to the first-year students at Kırıkkale University. The participants are specifically chosen from the ones with different linguistic backgrounds who did not have any comprehensive language education before.

E. Findings

According to Harmer (2007:137) there are three groups of grammatical mistakes. Two of them are “slips”, and “errors”. When it is a “slip”, students usually understand that they have made a mistake and are therefore able to correct themselves. On the other hand, ‘Errors’ require correction and explanation as learners do not have the language knowledge needed to correct these types of mistakes yet. Furthermore, the ‘errors’ can stem from two factors: L1 interference and as part of language development. In errors caused by L1 interference, the pupils’ knowledge of the framework in which their own language is used, causes problems in their L2 or FL production when unfamiliar structures appear in the sense that the pupils use the familiar structure from their L1. On the contrary, developmental errors are produced by all language acquirers and learners in a natural language proficiency process (ibid). As our concern in this study is to figure out the most frequently made errors by Turkish learners, it is time to analyze them in detail. The following part specifically focuses on the errors occurring while teaching tenses.

a. Problems in Teaching Present Continuous and Simple Present Tense

The students misuse the present continuous as they confuse it with the simple present tense. The reason behind this misuse and misconception is that they can't keep themselves away from mother tongue interference. Let's examine some of the typical mistakes that the students make while learning and practising present continuous and simple present tenses.

TABLE 1
PRESENT SIMPLE AND PRESENT CONTINUOUS TENSES

	<i>Erroneous Form Made by Turkish Learners</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Correct Form</i>
1	<i>*I am playing football every Sunday.</i>	265	80	82.66	I play football every Sunday.
2	<i>*They are living in Kırıkkale.</i>	302	91		They live in Kırıkkale.
3	<i>*I am not working on Saturdays.</i>	289	87		I don't work on Saturdays.
4	<i>*He isn't smoking.</i>	262	79		He doesn't smoke.
5	<i>*I am understanding you..</i>	267	81		I understand you.
6	<i>*I am not liking this lesson.</i>	256	78		I don't like this lesson.

The mean score of 82.66 reveals that Turkish students usually confuse present continuous tense with the present simple tense. It can clearly be seen that the students utter the sentences as they are produced in their mother tongue. We, in colloquial Turkish, usually state the *sentence 2* as "They are living in Kırıkkale", or "I am not working on Saturdays" for the *sentence 3*. "I am not smoking" is also another case that is uttered in the structure of present continuous in Turkish but refers to habitual activities of present simple. It should be reminded to the learners that the simple present, not the present continuous, should be used to express a present habitual action. Another issue to be considered is that the present continuous must be used for an action going on at the time of speaking.

Some of the Turkish students misuse some of the verbs denoting a state rather than an act. The verbs "*understand, know, believe, like, love, mean, prefer, hear, see, belong, consist*" and so on are used in the present continuous forms rather than present simple tense. These verbs mustn't be used in the present continuous but the present simple. To eradicate this problem, the foreign language teacher should focus on errors and provide the students with more practice.

b. Problems in Teaching Present Perfect and Simple Past Tense

To Richards (1979), the perfect in English creates problems for both elementary and advanced learners. It is interpreted frequently as an optional alternative to the simple past tense; this interpretation of its function leads to frequent errors of tense usage. Difficulties with the present perfect tense are often reinforced by faulty teaching. The basic uses of the perfect are outlined and contrasted with the functions of the simple past tense (p.95). The Present Perfect Tense is one of the most, probably the most, problematic tenses for Turkish students to learn. It is not easy to learn this tense correctly and to be able to use it appropriately for the appropriate situations as they have difficulties in understanding it. This tense is commonly confused with the simple past by most of Turkish students. The differences between the present perfect and past simple are complicated and difficult to analyse.

As is mentioned above, the students usually confuse the present perfect tense with the past simple. However, they need to be reminded that the past tense should be used for an action completed in the past at a stated time. The students should also be told that past simple is provided with the specific time expressions such as, "*yesterday, last night/year/week, ago, then*" etc. Let's examine some of the common mistakes of the learners.

TABLE 2
PAST SIMPLE AND PAST CONTINUOUS TENSES

	<i>Erroneous Form Made by Turkish Learners</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Correct Form</i>
7	<i>*I have seen him yesterday.</i>	312	94	88.20	I saw him yesterday.
8	<i>*A long time ago he has sold his car.</i>	284	85		A long time ago he sold his car.
9	<i>*He hasn't bought anything last week.</i>	301	91		He didn't buy anything last week
10	<i>*He hasn't died in the accident in 1989.</i>	277	83		He didn't die in the accident in 1989.
11	<i>*I lived in Kırıkkale since 1993.</i>	291	88		I have lived in Ankara since 1993.

Most of the students (88.20 mean) have also a tendency to use the past simple instead of the present perfect. Here are some of the other typical mistakes made by the Turkish students. Let's have a look at them and figure out what they confuse with.

TABLE 3
PRESENT PERFECT AND OTHER TENSES

	<i>Erroneous Form Made by Turkish Learners</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Correct Form</i>
12	<i>*I am living in Ankara since 1990.</i>	256	78	85.66	I have lived in Ankara since 1990.
13	<i>*He is sleeping for two hours.</i>	244	74		He has been sleeping for two hours.
14	<i>*I can't play football because I broke my leg.</i>	299	90		I can't play football because I have broken my leg.
15	<i>*Did you read this book?</i>	307	93		Have you read this book?
16	<i>*Did you see my book? I can't find it.</i>	301	91		Have you seen my book? I can't find it.
17	<i>*It is the first time I met him.</i>	293	88		It is the first time I have met him.
18	<i>*It is the best film I ever saw.</i>	289	87		It is the best film I have ever seen.

As it can be concluded through the examples and data (85.66 mean), the past simple is the only tense available in Turkish and it replaces the present perfect for all cases. Present perfect is also confused with present continuous tense by the foreign language learners. A good English teacher should help the students to differentiate the past simple and present perfect supplying them with efficient practice teaching materials. Otherwise, students won't be able to comprehend the language and this will lead to lack of communicative competence.

c. Problems in Teaching Past Continuous and Simple Past Tense

Past Continuous Tense is also another confused tense with the past simple. It is not as common as the other misused and confused tenses, but still some misconceptions and misinterpretation arise due to lack of practice and mainly mother tongue interference of the learners. In Turkish we normally say "*Böyle yapacağımı biliyordum*", which can be translated into English word-by-word with the past continuous tense, whereas the equivalent of the same sentence in English is "*I knew that you would act in this way*". The sentences produced in Turkish "*1989'da Kırıkkale'de oturuyorduk (item 21).*" Let's examine some of the sentences produced by the Turkish learners involving basically mother tongue interference.

TABLE 4
PAST SIMPLE AND PAST CONTINUOUS TENSE

	<i>Erroneous Form Made by Turkish Learners</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Correct Form</i>
19	<i>*I was knowing that you wouldn't come.</i>	289	87	86.50	I knew that you wouldn't come.
20	<i>*She was working in a factory last year.</i>	276	83		She worked in a factory last year.
21	<i>*In 1989 we were living in Kırıkkale.</i>	284	85		In 1989 we lived in Istanbul.
22	<i>*I was smoking ten years ago. Now I don't smoke.</i>	301	91		I used to smoke ten years ago. Now I don't smoke.

Past continuous tense is also confused with the past habitual actions that should be expressed with "used to" to reveal that something happened in the past for a while and not continue any more. The mean score (86.50) proves that the participants have problem in comprehending past continuous tense.

Another issue to be considered is that most of the students at the beginning of learning process confuse past simple tense by generalising the past form of auxiliary "be" for the past simple tense. As it proceeds past simple in most of the coursebooks and syllabuses, most of the students attempt to use "was" or "were" for the all cases of the past simple. It is quite possible to confront such mistakes "*I was go to school*", "*He was study English yesterday*", "*I was do my homework last night*" and so forth.

What should be done, actually, is to practice on the related problematic tense as much as the students get the message. It wouldn't be fair to consider that all the errors made by the students are originated only from the mother tongue, as the mother tongue interference. In order to help the students retain the problematic tense in the correct form, the teacher should have enough time within his teaching syllabus for error correction and remedial teaching. Needless to say, to teach a tense quickly without making any drills, repetitions or drills cause these misconceptions in language teaching.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The aim of this study has been to provide some general information about the problems that occur in language teaching, and present some suggestions to eradicate the common mistakes and errors arising in teaching and learning process. A good language teacher is the one who can observe the learners and figure out the problems while teaching tenses and present some solutions to diminish these problems. On the other hand, it should not be kept in mind that, as

Brighton asserts (1994), errors will always be made, and have direct implications for remedial work because they are by their nature systematic infringements of the normal rules of the language. The teacher needs to plan his remedial treatment of them into syllabus for the coming weeks and months. The insight that errors are a natural and important part of the learning process itself, and do not all come from mother tongue interference, is very important.

Remedial teaching is a kind of teaching activity that should be done by the language teachers when the problems occur while teaching any kind of teaching point, especially the problematic tenses for the students. However good the teaching and however effective the learning, there will always be a place for remedial work of one kind or another because it is beyond the capacity of a human being to absorb perfectly and retain indefinitely everything he is presented with (Broughton et al, 1994, p.133). Hence, from one point of view every learner needs remedial teaching after the first lesson. It is unfortunately common to find a student who is quite incapable of using the present simple or present perfect at the end of a teaching session.

There are of course some reasons that necessitate doing remedial teaching. There are circumstances quite beyond the teacher's control which produce remedial situation. The syllabus, for example, is usually not within the control of most ordinary teachers. The difficulty is that the students get indigestion from doing too much of one thing all together, and that once a topic is finished, and it is only incidentally referred to and practised later.

Another important factor which can produce poor learning and a potential situation is the many choices of materials to teach from. They must be suitable for the age groups of the students and suitable for the part of the world they are to be used in. Apart from the syllabus, the materials and the teacher, another potential source of trouble is the learner himself. Even with optimal conditions, there still is room for remedial work as there is no such thing as perfect learning. Clearly it is inevitable that learners do make errors.

It was a widespread belief until recently that contrastive analysis (comparing the learner's mother tongue with the target language) would predict the difficulties a learner would encounter and so enable the teacher to concentrate on them and avoid them. So it can be concluded that learners need remedial teaching when they don't understand the related tense well.

It is clear from this brief discussion that the learner brings with him one source of error: his mother tongue. Even more importantly, the learning process is the source of other errors. The most sensible course of action, with present knowledge, for the teacher is to reject the extreme positions. It shouldn't be considered that errors are wrong and must be avoided at all costs by very carefully. On the other hand, these incorrect forms are necessary, even vital, and should be actively planned into the teaching process. From the viewpoint it seems more useful and realistic to expose EFL students to a larger range of structure types in the first few weeks of an EFL course (Burt, 1975, p.62). They can also be used as a teaching material to present some tenses to attract the attention of the learners on. What is more, errors are natural outcome of learning.

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“A Cognitive Interpretation of Discourse Deixis”

by Youwen Yang

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The Application of Critical Thinking in Teaching English Reading

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Abstract—Examining different critical thinking definitions, one thing is agreed upon by most researchers: that is critical thinking includes not only critical thinking skills (containing both a process of thinking and thinking ability), involving analysis, interpretation, inference, explanation, evaluation and self-regulation but also critical thinking dispositions including clarity, accuracy, precision, consistency, relevance, sound evidence, good reasons, depth, breadth, fairness. So a new way to teach English reading focusing on developing students' critical thinking should be proposed. Students should be trained to be critical readers who can “question, organize, interpret, synthesize, and digest what they read”

Index Terms—critical thinking, English teaching, English reading

I. CONCEPT AND VARIOUS DEFINITIONS OF CRITICAL THINKING

The concept of critical thinking has been refined and enriched since its appearance 2500 years ago. By looking through literature, various definitions were found to help one understand the nature of critical thinking. John Dewey (1993) is the first to define critical thinking as “reflective thinking...active, persistent, and careful consideration of a belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds which support it and the further conclusions to which it tends” (p.99-116) and John Dewey (1993) suggested a 5-phase critical thinking model which included (1) suggestions, (2) problem definition, (3) hypothesis generation, (4) reasoning and (5) hypothesis testing.

In this definition, Dewey states the necessity for individuals to actively and persistently participate in their own thinking process through reflections, giving reasons and interpretations to the conclusions and evaluate it. Learning improves in the process of reflective thinking.

Bloom (1956) terms critical thinking as the ability to gain knowledge through the exploration of ideas concerning the following six levels: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Knowledge and comprehension belong to the low level of thinking skills, while the other elements belong to the higher level of thinking skills.

William Huitt (1998) defines critical thinking that the disciplined mental activity of evaluating arguments or propositions and making judgments that can guide the development of beliefs and taking action.

Michael Scriven & Richard Paul provided the most important features of critical thinking and intellectual standards. They describes critical thinking as the intellectual process of actively conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action. In its exemplary form, it is based on universal intellectual values that transcend subject matter divisions: clarity, accuracy, precision, consistency, relevance, sound evidence, good reasons, depth, breadth, and fairness (Scriven & Paul, 1987).

Robert Ennis is another important person in developing critical thinking theories. He emphasized the practicability of critical thinking. Ennis (1991) terms critical thinking as “reasonable, reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do.” (p.6) His emphasis is on decision making about belief and action, the process of reflection and the rationality of reason. Critical thinking helps people to decide what to believe and how to solve various problems. He develops a streamline of critical thinking skills starting with open-mindedness and mindful of alternatives. A critical thinker should always try hard to widen the gap of his understanding of one topic and to be informed more about what one learns gives more rational reasons in one's critique. One's judgement of things will be more credible and reliable if one is well-informed. A well-informed person can identify conclusions and assumptions in an argument. In other words, A well-informed person is able to probe and find things that will support with evidence and be able to defend it in such a way that people will accept it. The model also proposes that a critical person asks relevant and legitimate questions that help to clarify things. By doing this, a learner can formulate hypothesis which can be tested in an experiment. Ennis (1985) also explains that creative acts such as formulating hypothesis, alternative ways of viewing a problem, questions, possible solutions, and plans for investigating things all belong to critical thinking.

Fisher(2001) describes critical thinking as “a kind of evaluated thinking—which involves both criticism and creative thinking and which is particularly concerned with the quality of reasoning and argument which is presented in support of a belief or a course of action” (p.13). Paul & Elder (2005) summarize the essence of critical thinking as the art of thinking about thinking in two ways: 1) identify its strengths and weaknesses, and 2) recast it in improved form (where

necessary). It requires the thinker to be skilled in analytic, evaluative and creative thinking. To Paul & Elder, critical thinking is analysis of thinking by focusing on the parts or structures of thinking (“the Elements of Thought”), evaluation of thinking by focusing on the quality (“the Universal Intellectual Standards”) and improvement of thinking by using what you have learned (“the Intellectual Traits”). This definition points out critical thinking as the “art of thinking” and the way to develop one’s critical thinking ability through “thinking about thinking”. The biggest contribution of Paul and Elder is that they added the dimension of intellectual standards to measure critical thinking.

In 1990, The Delphi Report gave the consensus statement about critical thinking by a group of experts:

We understand critical thinking to be purposeful, self-regulatory judgment which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or contextual considerations upon which that judgment is based... The ideal critical thinker is habitually inquisitive, well-informed, trustful of reason, open-minded, flexible, fair-minded in evaluation, honest in facing personal biases, prudent in making judgments, willing to reconsider, clear about issues, orderly in complex matters, diligent in seeking relevant information, reasonable in the selection of criteria, focused in inquiry, and persistent in seeking results which are as precise as the subject and the circumstances of inquiry permit. (American Philosophical Association, 1990)

Examining different critical thinking definitions, one thing is agreed upon by most researchers: that is critical thinking includes not only critical thinking skills (containing both a process of thinking and thinking ability), involving analysis, interpretation, inference, explanation, evaluation and self-regulation but also critical thinking dispositions including clarity, accuracy, precision, consistency, relevance, sound evidence, good reasons, depth, breadth, fairness (Scriven & Paul, 1987).

II. RELATED THEORIES AND RESEARCHES ON CRITICAL THINKING

A. *Benjamin Bloom’s Taxonomy*

Bloom’s Taxonomy perhaps influences educators most in their teaching and thinking. Teachers often use Bloom’s Taxonomy to design their lessons, make up test questions and assignments. Benjamin Bloom (1956) is the first person to classify human thinking skills into six major classes: 1) knowledge, 2) comprehension, 3) application, 4) analysis, 5) synthesis, 6) evaluation. Knowledge is defined as the remembering of previously learned material. It represents the lowest level of learning outcomes in the cognitive domain. In this level, students are required to search for objective answers to things such as “Who”, “What”, “When”, “Where”, and “How”. Learning knowledge comes before anything such as comprehension or analysis. It should be thought of as the first step one takes when beginning one’s critical look into a piece of text. For example, if one reads a book on the history of the Chinese Tang Dynasty, the first step the reader does is to obtain knowledge of history. They can use defining, describing, identifying, recognizing, stating and reciting. There need not, according to this model, to have too many preconceived notions about the passage in the first reading, just read it so that there are objective facts in one’s mind. In this way the students will be ready to form an initial understanding of the text. Comprehension follows knowledge. It is the ability to grasp the meaning of the material and goes just beyond. It takes what one has learned and interprets it into one’s own words. Comprehension is the lowest level of understanding and it is a necessary skill to possess before being able to use the knowledge for any useful purpose. It may contain classifying, estimating, explaining, illustrating, predicting and summarizing. For example, if you learn about the history of Tang Dynasty, you do not just have the knowledge, but have a basic understanding of what the life was like at that particular period in history. Upon comprehension, you are able to communicate to others what you have learned about the key events of the Tang Dynasty. Application is the next area in the hierarchy and refers to the ability to use learned material in new and concrete situations. Application requires a higher level of understanding than comprehension. Application is always a major struggle for an educator because while one might have the enormous ability to comprehend obtainable knowledge, the question is always, “How do I apply this to what I am doing?” This level helps learners to apply, change, complete, defend, interpret, and translate. In analysis, the next area of the taxonomy, the learning outcomes require an understanding of both the content and the structural form of material. This is where a person has to become like an archaeologist, exploring, comparing, contrasting, investigating, researching, inferring, and examining. An archaeologist’s job is to probe into one’s findings. For example, if an archaeologist has discovered a mummy, he/she must go beyond their basic knowledge and understanding of this particular finding. He/she will want to find evidence to support exactly where the mummy is from, what are the important features, and so forth. This will help the archaeologist come to a conclusion about the mummy’s identity. So, if a learner is reading a novel, they will form an in-depth discussion about the book. He/she will take it apart, piece by piece, in order to find the true meaning of the book. Because analysis calls for an understanding of something or someone in a subjective manner rather in an objective manner. Analysis is often used to prove whether something is correct. Lastly, it is often used to demonstrate the relevancy, usefulness, and qualities of knowledge learned. Without proper probing into knowledge, we will not know how it can be applied to whatever we are doing in our society. Next is synthesis, which refers to the ability to put parts together to form a new whole. Learning outcomes at this level stress creative behaviors with a major emphasis on the formulation of new patterns or structures. It helps bring thinkers to new stages of adapting, combining, developing, experimenting, imagining, predicting, and speculating. Synthesis calls for a learner’s ability to try to see the bigger picture of whatever he/she has learned. This is where creativity plays a huge role in a student after obtaining some useful knowledge or skill. It gives a learner a chance to suggest their own ideas and

solutions to the material they have learned. The learner becomes real participants of what he/she is reading or engages actively in a more direct way. Synthesis offers a learner a chance to create his/her own unique solutions or apply the theory in his/her work or personal life. Lastly, synthesis gives the learner a chance to form new perspectives. The learner no longer is just a student, but someone who is seriously challenging existing ideas. Synthesis is not emphasized enough in schools. It is an educator's responsibility to instill in a learner to not just to obtain knowledge, but to give them the motivation to think on their own and how they can contribute to what they have read, seen, or heard. The last level of the taxonomy is evaluation. Evaluation is concerned with the ability to judge the value of material for a given purpose. The judgments are to be based on definite criteria. Learning outcomes in this area are the highest in the cognitive hierarchy because they incorporate or contain elements of knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, and synthesis, being able to assess, command, conclude, critique, and support their findings. In addition, they contain conscious value judgments based on clearly defined criteria (Bloom, 1956).

B. *The Revised Version of Bloom's Taxonomy*

During the 1990s, a former student of Bloom, Lorin Anderson, led a new assembly which met for the purpose of updating the taxonomy, hoping to add relevance for 21st century students and teachers. The new version of the taxonomy changed the word form of the old version, from noun to verb. Knowledge becomes remember. Evaluation in the old version was changed to Evaluate and was put in the second from the bottom in the new version. Comprehension and synthesis were changed to understand and create. The following table is a detailed explanation of each component. The terminology in the revised version is more clear and exact to analyze the critical thinking skills in literature. The new terms are explained in the following. This paper will combine the two models to analyze *the History of the Peloponnesian War* by Thucydides as an example to show how critical thinking functions in a piece of text.

1. Remembering: Retrieving, recognizing, and recalling relevant knowledge from long-term memory.
2. Understanding: Constructing meaning from oral, written, and graphic messages through interpreting, exemplifying, classifying, summarizing, inferring, comparing, and explaining.
3. Applying: Carrying out or using a procedure through executing, or implementing.
4. Analyzing: Breaking material into constituent parts, determining how the parts relate to one another and to an overall structure or purpose through differentiating, organizing, and attributing.
5. Evaluating: Making judgments based on criteria and standards through checking and critiquing.
6. Creating: Putting elements together to form a coherent or functional whole; reorganizing elements into a new pattern or structure through generating, planning, or producing. (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001, p.67-68)

C. *Paul & Elder's Framework*

Paul & Elder's framework of critical thinking examines how human beings reason critically and creatively and perhaps is the most applicable and widely used framework at present USA. Many universities adopted this framework in promoting their education quality—University of Louisville (Ideas2Action Committee), Montclair State University (Research Academy for University Learning); Indiana University (Campus Writing Program). This framework contains three components: the elements of thought (reasoning), the intellectual standards that should be applied to the elements of reasoning, the intellectual traits associated with a cultivated critical thinker that result from the consistent and disciplined application of the intellectual standards to the elements of thought.

The elements of thought (reasoning) first indicates that each reason has purposes. This is to say that any acquired knowledge has some useful application or else has no meaning. Human beings by nature want to know why they have to learn and then they try to show great curiosity. Point of view is very essential to one's reasoning. A learner engages not just in one point of view, but in all possible angles of whatever he/she is analyzing. Each learner's point of view will use some useful attempts to solve any problems being discussed in any given situation or material presented. This element of human thought embodies a learner's capacity to see things in his own and other people's mind. In one way, point of view is the ability to look at a concept or idea in a broader sense rather than in a narrow view in order to grasp the meaning of something fully. This means that the point of view serves as an opportunity for their own perspectives or opinions to be influenced or challenged by other materials or people's views and ideas. A learner's goal is to find a final conclusion to the work and discovers new solutions and applicable knowledge. Our interpretations help us to research these final conclusions. The Paul-Elder's Critical Thinking Framework presents a formal standardization for universal intellectual reasoning. These standards help a critical thinker create quality reason. In Paul's (1995) notes that educators should at all times aiming for perfecting a student's performance. Firstly, clarity is always a challenge for students who are trying to communicate their ideas in a coherent way to their audience. For example, if a student writes a short story for a creative writing class, it may be so general and yet basic in detail that a reader might misinterpret the meaning of the story. So, an educator will point out someone in a story whose character is not been described in proper detail. Not only that, maybe there are details that are not necessary which in turn will make his character seem rather vague and misunderstood. Clarity ensures accuracy and precision. If the details are accurate and precise, a reader will have a better understanding of how this character fits into the story. The educators' job then, is to produce an accessible model for a student to use to help them to have more clarity in their story writing. If these intellectual standards are to be met, a teacher will demonstrate ways through anything that will motivate the student to look at one's story and see how it can be perfected so that the work turns out to be an exceptional work of literary art. Depth is always a student's least

favourite in learning. Paul (1995) notes that he thinks most students are not actually scanning their own skills and do not have clear ideas of these standards. The obvious factors that make it difficult are not necessarily a lack of knowledge or understanding, but a student's low aspiration to produce his/her own concepts and ideas. A teacher needs to motivate his/her students to think more on their own. In this way, a student is able to create a quality work that is creative and more thought provoking. This should be done through careful evaluation of all the aspects of a student's work.

III. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE APPLICATION OF CRITICAL THINKING IN TEXTS AND TEACHING

Having discussed relevant critical thinking theories prevalent in the present America, this part examines how critical thinking functions in the literary text, namely *the History of the Peloponnesian War* by Thucydides using Bloom's Taxonomy, the revised version of Bloom's Taxonomy and Paul-Elder's critical thinking framework to show how the writer has used a critical thinking category to further the narrative and/or make an argument and also to analyze the pros and cons of each model. Then based on the analysis of the application of critical thinking skills by the writer, a model to train students critical thinking skills in teaching the text will be developed.

Text Analysis of Thucydides' History of the Peloponnesian War

Thucydides begins his writing, "Thucydides, an Athenian, wrote the history of the war between the Peloponnesians and the Athenians, beginning at the moment that it broke out, and believing that it would be a great war and more worthy of relation than any that had preceded it". In Bloom's Taxonomy, the writer utilized the skills of both comprehension and synthesis (putting all the elements together to form a whole). In the revised version of Bloom's Taxonomy, the writer is using the skill of Summarizing (Abstracting a general theme or major points).

In using Richard Paul's Model to analyze the logic of this topic sentence, the writer is stating his purpose in writing the history of the war between the Peloponnesian and the Athenians.

IV. A MODEL FOR TEACHING ENGLISH READING & CONCLUSION

In a traditional English reading class, students are mainly trained to improve their language skills- first to enlarge vocabularies and then to improve reading comprehension ability. They are expected to obtain information or knowledge from the text and accept the ideas or viewpoints presented in the textbook. Most of the reading articles are literature works, humorous stories and scientific articles, but very few argumentary articles with strict logic (Wen et Liu, 2006). The reading exercises are often multiple- choice questions to test students' comprehension. The traditional lecturing and classroom activities are not very helpful in fostering students' critical thinking. So a new way to teach English reading focusing on developing students' critical thinking should be proposed. Students should be trained to be critical readers who can "question, organize, interpret, synthesize, and digest what they read" (Paul, 1995, p.491)

First, the reading materials chosen for teaching must arouse students' interest and motivation, providing challenge to their thinking. Nuttall (1982) lists some useful guidelines in selecting a text:

1. Tell the students things they don't already know.
2. Introduce them to new and relevant ideas, make them think about things they haven't thought about before.
3. Help them to understand the way other people feel or think.
4. Make them want to read for themselves.
5. Does the text challenge the students' level of foreign language?
6. If there are new lexical items, are they worth learning at this stage and not too numerous?
7. Are some of them understandable by means of inference from the context?
8. Does the text lend itself to intensive study?
9. Does it enable you to ask good questions or devise other forms of exploitation?

The above guidelines involve Nuttall's criteria in choosing a text--readability, suitability of content and authenticity of text.

Pirozzi (2003) defines critical reading as "very high-level comprehension of written material requiring interpretation and evaluation skills"(p.325) and "it also entails using reference to go beyond what is stated explicitly, filling in informational gaps, and coming to logical conclusions"(p.325). So critical reading emphasizes the active nature of reading. The readers are not simply receiving the facts and knowledge in the text, but try to form their own opinions and viewpoints about what they read from the texts. In language teaching, according to Wallace (1999), critical means "both a preparedness to question and reflect on the meaning and uses of language" and it argues for "the need to draw attention to the ideological bases of discourses as they circulate both in everyday life and within specific texts" (p.98). The reading class should train critical readers. Therefore, critical readers "question, organize, interpret, synthesize, and digest what they read (Paul, 1995, p.491).

On the basis of theory discussion and the writers' own teaching experiences, the research proposes a five-step model to promote critical thinking in teaching English reading class.

First step: Pre-reading--Introduction of background or cultural knowledge to students.

According to Nunan's (2000) schema theory, cultural or background knowledge is more important than grammar complexity in reading comprehension. In this step, not like the traditional way of how teachers lecture to students the relevant knowledge, but teachers activate students' knowledge about the topic. Before reading, teachers should ask

students to read the title, the first or last paragraph or topic sentence of each paragraph. Then they ask the students to talk about their knowledge about the topic, predict the content. In this way, students' desire to read the text will be aroused. This method is used by Robert Gagne in his nine instructional events. (<http://tip.psychology.org/gagne.html>).

Second step: comprehension of the text and explicating the main idea of each paragraph.

Understanding phrases and sentences of a text is still very important to foreign language learners. But this should not be done through teachers explaining word by word and sentence by sentence. A critical reading class should encourage students to guess or infer meaning by context clues. Teachers should encourage students to elicit the main idea of each paragraph based on their own thinking of the content.

Third step: analyzing the logic of the text. In this step, Paul's Elements of Thought is a useful tool. The students should be encouraged to ask the following questions:

What is the key **question** the author is trying to answer?

What is the author's fundamental **purpose**?

What is the author's **point of view** with respect to the issue?

What **assumptions** is the author making in his or her reasoning?

What are the **implications** of the author's reasoning?

What **information** does the author use in reasoning through this issue?

What are the most fundamental **inferences** or conclusions in the article?

What are the author's most basic **concepts**? (Paul, 2008, p.10)

Fourth step: evaluating the logic of the text.

As evaluation is one of the key critical thinking skills, assessing the logic of the reading text helps bringing reading and thinking ability to a higher level. In this stage, Paul's Intellectual Standards is suggested to apply. The following questions help assess the logic of a text:

Does the author **clearly** state his or her meaning, or is the text vague, confused, or muddled in some way?

Is the author **accurate** in what he or she claims?

Is the author sufficiently **precise** in providing details and specifics when specifics are relevant?

Does the author introduce **irrelevant** material, thereby wandering from his/her purpose?

Does the author take us into the important **complexities** inherent in the subject, or is the writing **superficial**?

Does the author consider other **relevant** points of view, or is the writing overly narrow in its perspective?

Is the text internally **consistent**, or does the text contain unexplained contradictions?

Is the text **significant**, or is the subject dealt with in a trivial manner?

Does the author display **fairness**, or does the author take a one-sided, narrow approach? (Paul, 2008, p.11)

In answering the questions in the third and fourth step, peer work, group discussions and other cooperative learning are classroom techniques that can be utilized by teachers. Fogarty & McTighe (1993) point out that cooperative learning enhances thinking processes. Through cooperative learning, students share their thoughts with each other and thus engage in an interactive approach to processing information. A key component of co-op learning is the reflection by group members.

Fifth Step: Writing.

In this stage, after comprehending and evaluating of the text, students will be required to write summaries, commentaries, reading journals, create similar stories or composing similar style argument of their own. This step trains the students' higher level of thinking skills--synthesis and application. This stage has the language teaching theory explanation by Brown (2001), "reading ability will best be developed in association with writing, listening and speaking activity. Even in those courses that may be labeled 'reading', your goals will best be achieved by capitalizing on the interrelationship of skills, especially the reading-writing connection". (p.283)

In a world, in this model, first and second steps aim at text interpretation, third and fourth steps focus on text evaluation, the fifth one is on reader's reaction. It concludes that this model throws a very different and efficient light upon teaching English reading. Of course, it needs to be improved in the practise. As a result, suggestions are greatly needed from all experts and scholars to make the model functional perfectly.

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Integrating Task-based Instruction as an Alternative Approach in Teaching Reading Comprehension in English for Special Purposes: An Action Research

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Abstract—Teaching through task or in Willis' (1996) words, "an activity which involves the use of language but in which the focus is on the outcome of the activity rather than on the language used to achieve that outcome" can create favorable learning conditions for the students of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses (Kavaliauskienė 2005). Concerning the current inappropriate teaching methods dominant in Iranian ESP trend, this research aims to investigate the feasibility of integrating task-based language teaching (TBLT) as an alternative to the rather ineffective, yet widely practiced method known as Grammar Translation Method (GTM) on ESP reading comprehension of Iranian students majoring chemistry at two Iranian universities whose syllabus mostly focuses on this skill. To do so, two homogeneous groups as experimental and control at each university served as the participants of the study. Before treatment, pretest was performed in both groups. The participants in the control groups were required to read the texts, translate them into Persian and answer some traditional forms of reading comprehension questions, while the ones in the experimental groups studied the same passages but furnished with some patterns of task-based instruction and accompanied with exercises prepared within Willis' TBLT framework. At the end of the treatment, a post test was administered to them. Finally, drawing on t-test at the 0.05 level of significance, the researchers compared the students' performances to study the probable effectiveness of TBLT. The findings revealed the significant advantage of teaching ESP through tasks and integrating this approach as an innovative one in this trend.

Index Terms—ESP, TBLT, reading comprehension, EFL setting

I. INTRODUCTION

In English as a Foreign Language (EFL) setting, it is mostly believed that reading comprehension is the central means for learning new information and it is the most important skill needed for the student's success. The importance and position of reading comprehension skill in Iranian academic setting like other EFL settings are undeniable; in a way, it is often introduced as the main goal of English language learning. Therefore, it has attracted the attention of many English Language Teaching (ELT) researchers and applied linguists.

The framework of current ESP textbooks in Iranian academic setting shows that the most important skill the students need for success in their studies is reading (Farhady, 2006 ; Riazi, 2005), but enumerating the significant drawbacks of Iranian ESP textbooks, Erfani et al. (2009) introduce the lack of useful and efficient strategies and enjoying an inflexible and clichéd pattern as serious shortcomings of ESP textbooks developed by SAMT (The Organization for Research and Compiling University Textbooks in Humanities).

The available findings in this area reveal that emphasizing on reading based on traditional approaches and strategies has been the source of new problems. In this case, Hokmi (2005) states that traditionally Iranian students in ESP courses are required to read texts, translate them into Persian, and answer the comprehension questions. According to Shokouhi (2006), inadequate approaches including Grammar Translation Method have been dominant in the current ESP textbooks and classrooms; significant approaches which have shown to be effective in enhancing the learner's understanding have somewhat been neglected in this trend.

In fact, the problem with traditional approaches is that they do not usually consider as being purpose-driven and comprehension questions generally address all information in the text in an undifferentiated manner as if all ideas or aspects of the text are equally important. In this regard, Farhady (2006) clearly asserts that the activities and exercises in the ESP Iranian textbooks do not give learners a sense of achievement in terms of the reading skill. Tasks are not designed to involve students in the process of learning, so a remodeling of the texts and activities is highly recommended.

Among the recent effective approaches, Task-based Language Teaching, also referred to as Task-based Instruction has become an important approach; in a way, that it is currently known as the dominant teaching approach to language instruction. As Kavaliauskienė (2005) writes, teaching through tasks creates favorable learning conditions for students who study English for specific purposes. In her words, task-based instruction seems to grant meaningful use of language and promote autonomous learning. Introducing task-based instruction as a practical methodology which can be supplemented in EFL textbooks, Finch (2004) asserts that by creating such student-centered and interactive learning materials, teachers can achieve syllabus goals and can help their students to become more motivated and effective learners.

On the one hand, observing such a serious drawback which the current ESP textbooks are suffering from, and on the other hand conceiving the significant stance and effectiveness of Task-based Instruction as an alternative approach in ESP teaching and materials development, this paper intends to introduce the probable advantage of integrating task-based instruction by incorporating some kinds of educational tasks through action research in an Iranian ESP setting.

Thus, this paper reports the results of an explanatory action research of the integration of Task-based Instruction into ESP reading comprehension ability of university students majoring chemistry based on Willis' TBLT framework (1996) in Damghan and Shahrood Universities, Iran.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

ESP courses receive a great deal of attention and emphasis among the EFL practitioners and learners especially at universities. Concerning the importance of ESP textbooks, Mansor (2001) maintains that they have always been an integral part of a syllabus, and that they have served many teachers well, providing them with the pivot onto which their lessons hinge.

Here, due to the problems with traditional approaches applied in ESP textbooks as well as the importance of reading comprehension in English for specific purposes, it seems necessary to investigate whether task-based language teaching as an alternative suggestion has any effect on improving ESP reading comprehension ability of Iranian students.

Here, it is worth noting that action research is known as one of the newly developed methods in ELT. In Crookes' words (1993), in such a research, the research question emerges from the immediate concerns and problems in which the teacher is practicing. Action research is a more practical and user-friendly than research defined in traditional senses. It is conducted research for one main purpose: to improve teaching and learning (Slavin, 2006). In addition, due to its less formal nature, teachers and building administrators will find by far the easiest form of research to conduct. It can involve a single researcher or a collaborative team working together to focus on a mutual topic (Ross-Fisher, 2008). Burns (2009) also introduces action research as an efficient tool for teaching practice enhancement.

As noted, in spite of efficiency of task-based instruction in ESP teaching, the Iranian ESP instructors still follow the traditional approaches specially the GTM. Thus, on the one hand to tackle the immediate problems felt by the ESP teachers in Iranian context and on the other hand to verify the probable advantage of task-based instruction, this study was undertaken through action research to provide an answer to the following research question: Does task-based instruction have any effect on reading comprehension ability of Iranian university students majoring chemistry?

In line with the attempt to determine whether task-based approach has any effect on improving reading comprehension ability, a null hypothesis was formulated: "task-based instruction has no effect on the improvement of ESP reading comprehension of Iranian university students majoring chemistry".

III. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this part, firstly it was tried to introduce task-based approach, its essential components, as well as its types and possible outcomes in brief. Then, the Willis' TBLT framework, which was adopted as the framework of this research, is introduced.

A. Task-based Instruction

Task-based instruction has gained popularity in the field of language teaching since the last decade of 20th century (Sanchez, 2004). In this approach, learners concentrate on meaning rather than form; that is, students carry out a group of communicative tasks instead of doing form-based discrete exercises. Students are expected to express their own ideas, either orally or in a written mode, about the topic of the lesson (Willis, 1996).

Nunan (1991) outlines five characteristics of a task-based approach to language learning:

1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
2. The introduction of authentic texts (teaching materials) into the learning situation.

3. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus not only on language, but also on the learning process itself.
4. An enhancement of the learner's own personal experience as important contributing elements to classroom learning.
5. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activities outside the classroom.

Willis (1996) explains that "within the TBL framework, tasks and texts combine to give students a rich exposure to language and also opportunities to use it themselves" (p. 101).

According to Ellis (2006), task is an activity that necessarily involves language. Nunan (1989 & 2004) and Skehan (1996) clearly wish to restrict the use of tasks to activities where meaning is primary. Willis (1996) has defined the term task as those "activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose in order to achieve an outcome" (p. 28).

Cubillo and Brenes (2009) assert that if language learners want to attain objectives of a task, especially if it is part of an ESP course, it must fulfill certain characteristics. Firstly, the task should have an appropriate level of complexity and difficulty. Secondly, in an ESP context, the primary goal of a task should reflect what learners need to do in real-life situations at the workplace. Besides, tasks must be based on authentic materials obtained from written or oral texts which have been adapted to simplify their level of difficulty.

Ellis (2006) cites several authors that propose various designs of framework; however, they all coincide in three principal stages or phases. According to him, the first phase in the framework shown in the above figure is the "pre-task" that includes the various activities that teachers and students can undertake before beginning the task. Some of these activities may be asking and answering questions or reading a passage related to the topic. The second phase, i.e. task cycle or "during-task", takes place when the task is selected and learners engage in fulfilling the goals of the task. According to Haseli (2004), in this stage the learners usually perform the task (typically a reading exercise) in pairs or small groups. The final phase is "post-task" and involves procedures for following up on the task performance. Only the "during-task" phase is obligatory in task-based teaching. Options selected from the "pre-task" or post-task" phases are non-obligatory, but can serve a crucial role in ensuring that the task performance is maximally effective for language development.

B. Willis' TBLT Framework: Types and Outcomes

Willis (1996) has listed some types of TBL tasks which can be implemented in an ESP context. They are:

- a. *listing*: in this case, the instructor takes advantage of learner's prior knowledge on the topic to be developed. The outcome of this activity may be a list of concepts that the instructor collects from the students.
- b. *ranking items*: students rank their most important work duties where the target language is needed. The outcome of this activity may be the information stored according to specific criteria.
- c. *comparing or contrasting items*: in the case of atmosphere, for instance, learners may make comparisons between different layers of the atmosphere. A whole-class discussion about it may be carried out as the outcome of this activity. The outcome of this activity may be the identification of similarities and differences.
- d. *problem-solving activities*: in this task, students may give advice on how to solve common problems at the workplace. The outcome of this activity may be the finding of solutions to problems.
- e. *sharing personal experiences*: those open tasks consist of an exchange of opinions among students. The outcome of this activity may be the exchange of opinions and attitudes.
- f. *creative tasks*: these challenging activities require a higher level of preparation and integration of skills. The outcome of this activity may be the end-product appropriated by the audience.

Conceiving the probable efficiency and advantage of TBLT as an innovative approach, the researchers tried to study the effect of using this approach on ESP reading comprehension of Iranian university students through action research which was conducted at two universities, namely Damghan University and Shahrood University of Technology, Iran.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

This study involved 75 and 65 students majoring chemistry at Damghan University and Shahrood University of Technology, respectively. These participants were enrolled in ESP course. They were randomly chosen to serve as the experimental and control groups at each university. Damghan University's control and experimental groups were 37 and 38 and these numbers for Shahrood University of Technology were 32 and 33 students respectively. To assess their language proficiency, a standard test of English was given to them and based on their scores they were categorized as intermediate.

B. Design

Based on the purpose of the study, it followed a quasi-experimental design displaying the following characteristics: two homogeneous groups of intermediate level students served as control and experimental groups at each university. A treatment, namely task based instruction was offered to experimental group and the current traditional method i.e. GTM to control group. Two tests as pretest and posttest were administered in each group.

C. Instrumentation

The first testing instrument was a standard proficiency test. It was a test of 100 questions, 40 items of grammar, 40 vocabulary items and 4 reading comprehension passages each with 5 questions. The time allotted was 100 minutes. This test aimed at controlling the proficiency level of the subjects. The pretest was a reading comprehension test. It consisted of 6 reading passages followed by 30 multiple-choice questions. The post-test which was administered to both groups contained 6 reading passages followed by 30 multiple-choice questions. They were all the same length as the pretest and were from the same source.

V. PROCEDURE

To accomplish the purpose of the study, the following procedure was followed. Classes were conducted two hours a week and the study lasted for fourteen weeks. Since the purpose of this study was to compare teaching reading comprehension through some strategies of TBLT in comparison with the traditional one i.e. GTM, the two groups were treated differently.

During the experiment, at each university, the both classes had the same curriculum and the same schedule of instruction, except that in the control group, the students had the conventional learning, that is, the teacher introduced the new words and phrases, and the students began to translate the passages into Persian and answer the traditional comprehension questions and exercises. For the experimental group, the same passages were redesigned by the researchers to fit Willis's task-based framework. Thus, for them the class time was divided into three phases namely, pre-task, task cycle and post-task.

VI. DATA ANALYSIS AND INVESTIGATION OF RESEARCH QUESTION

The effect of task-based instruction on reading comprehension ability of university students was determined with the pretest-posttest equivalent group design. The pretest was given before students received reading instruction using task-based instruction. To control for confounding variables, the treatment and control groups were taught using the same instructional methods, except for the task-based instruction. At the end of the treatment, an independent sample t-test was used to analyze the data.

To answer the stated question, after scoring the tests and tabulating the scores for each subject, the results were put under a series of statistical analyses. First of all, the means and standard deviations of the two groups in pretest in Damghan and Shahrood universities were calculated respectively.

TABLE 1:
PRE-TEST RESULTS FOR BOTH GROUPS (DAMGHAN)

Groups	N	X	SD
Exp. G.	38	16.84	1.63
Cont. G.	37	16.27	1.60

TABLE 2:
PRE-TEST RESULTS FOR BOTH GROUPS (SHAHROOD)

Groups	N	X	SD
Exp. G.	32	16.81	1.67
Cont. G.	33	16.90	1.66

The above tables indicate that our two samples at each university had, though not exactly, the same dispersions of means which seemed to be suitable for our purpose in this research. Next, an independent t-test was used to verify the pre-test results on both groups at each university.

TABLE 3:
THE T-VALUE FOR PRE-TESTS OF THE TWO GROUPS (DAMGHAN)

t crit.	df	p.	t obs.
1.99	73	0.13	-1.52

TABLE 4:
THE T-VALUE FOR PRE-TESTS OF THE TWO GROUPS (SHAHROOD)

t crit.	df	p.	t obs.
2.00	64	0.81	0.23

As table 3 shows, the value of the calculated t was -1.52, less than the value of the t-critical 1.99 at 0.05 level of probability. Similarly, as table 4 shows, the value of the calculated t was 0.23 which was less than the value of the t-critical 2.00 at 0.05 level of probability. Therefore, the two groups at each university had little differences. At the end of the study, the results of computing the means of the pre- and post-test of the control groups indicated that there was some progress in each group. In order to find out the difference, the researchers conducted a matched t-test for both universities.

TABLE 5:
PAIRED T-TEST FOR CONTROL GROUP (DAMGHAN)

Group	X1	X2	S1	S2	df	t obs.
Cont. G.	16.27	20.10	1.60	1.80	36	-29.18

$P \leq 0.05$ $t_{crit.} = 1.99$

TABLE 6:
PAIRED T-TEST FOR CONTROL GROUP (SHAHROOD)

Group	X1	X2	S1	S2	df	t obs.
Cont. G.	16.90	20.81	1.66	1.84	32	-29.35

$P \leq 0.05$ $t_{crit.} = 2.00$

The results obtained from table 5 indicate significant difference between the control group performances on both tests for each university because at Damghan University the observed t of -29.18 at a probability level of $p \leq 0.05$ exceeded the critical t of 1.99. The same is true for Shahrood University of Technology.

The scores gained from the pre- and post-tests of the experimental groups at both universities were also calculated and the results showed a remarkable difference which confirmed the importance of task-based instruction on Iranian university students' ESP reading comprehension. To be sure of the results, the researchers conducted another paired t-test for both universities.

TABLE 7:
PAIRED T-TEST FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (DAMGHAN)

Group	X1	X2	S1	S2	df	t obs.
Exp G.	16.82	23.26	1.63	1.95	37	-52.21

$P \leq 0.05$ $t_{crit.} = 1.99$

TABLE 8:
PAIRED T-TEST FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (SHAHROOD)

Group	X1	X2	S1	S2	df	t obs.
Exp G.	16.81	22.75	1.67	2.40	31	-33.12

$P \leq 0.05$ $t_{crit.} = 2.00$

This time since the t-observed -52.21 at Damghan University and -33.12 at Shahrood University of Technology exceeded the value of t-critical 1.99 and 2.00 respectively at a probability level of $p \leq 0.05$, supported the idea that task-based instruction had a significant impact on Iranian university students' ESP reading comprehension.

Then, the means and standard deviations of two groups in the post-test were calculated and the differences between them showed a significant difference between the two groups at each university.

TABLE 9:
POST-TEST RESULTS FOR BOTH GROUPS (DAMGHAN)

Groups	N	X	SD
Exp. G.	38	23.26	1.95
Cont. G.	37	20.10	1.80

TABLE 10:
POST-TEST RESULTS FOR BOTH GROUPS (SHAHROOD)

Groups	N	X	SD
Exp. G.	32	22.75	2.40
Cont. G.	33	20.81	1.84

TABLE 11:
THE T-VALUE FOR POST-TESTS OF THE TWO GROUPS (DAMGHAN)

t crit.	df	p.	t obs.
1.99	73	0.0001	-7.25

TABLE 12:
THE T-VALUE FOR POST-TESTS OF THE TWO GROUPS (SHAHROOD)

t crit.	df	p.	t obs.
2.00	64	0.0001	-3.63

Since the t-observed of -7.25 and -3.63 at Damghan University and Shahrood University of Technology respectively exceeded critical t of 1.99 and 2.00 at a probability level of $p \leq 0.05$, the result of the independent t-test confirmed the positive relationship between using task-based instruction and reading comprehension of Iranian university students. Thus, it could be claimed that passages accompanied with task-based instruction can be more effective than the ones without them.

To analyze the findings more precisely, it was decided to check the gathered data from another way. First, the mean score of experimental and control groups at both universities in post-test was compared with together.

TABLE 13:
COMPARING DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TWO GROUPS

	Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t	Sig.
Pre test	experimental	70	16.82	1.64	-0.92	0.358
	control	70	16.57	1.65		
Post test	experimental	70	23.02	2.17	-7.58	0.000
	control	70	20.44	1.84		

As the above table shows, $t(139) = -0.92$, there is no statistically significant difference between experimental and control groups in pretest. But $t(138) = -7.58$ indicates that mean score of the experimental group was more than the mean score of the control group in post test which is statistically significant. Therefore, it could be concluded that there was no difference between two groups before treatment but after instructing via TBLT in experiment group and conventional method in control group, mean score of the experimental group promoted significantly more than the control group.

VII. CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This study was conducted to probe the plausible advantages of TBLT on Iranian university students' ESP reading comprehension. Comparing achievement of the groups, the researchers found that task-based instruction could have significant effect on improving the ESP reading comprehension of Iranian university students.

Generally speaking, based on the results of this research, the following pedagogical implications might be presented:

First, task-based language teaching, which focuses on the ability to perform a task or activity and not on the explicit teaching of grammatical rules or on vocabulary memorization and has attracted the attention of many researchers, language instructors and syllabus designers, can be an innovative alternative for university ESP classrooms in Iranian context.

Second, the instructor's observation revealed that the procedures used in the experimental group triggered off the students to participate more actively in discussions and devoted more attention and interest to the topic.

Third, in spite of some breakthroughs into ESP materials development, there is no doubt that the current status of ESP in Iran as well as many other EFL contexts seriously suffers from the available textbooks. Certainly ESP materials play a strong role in all ESP programs and the Iranian context is not an exception to the rule. Therefore, we need to redesign the materials and obviously following TBLT can be a solution to this problem.

Fourth, dealing with classroom problems, the researchers can use action research as a practical and user-friendly research which its main purpose is improving teaching and learning. Since it can involve a collaborative team as well as a single researcher to focus on a mutual topic or common problem, it can lead to strengthening the cooperative spirit among the researchers.

Last but not the least, although the lack of task-based textbooks on ESP is clearly felt, ESP teachers themselves can design the tasks. Surely, the tasks designed should take into account the learners' needs and interests.

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On Untranslatability of English Linguistic Humor

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Abstract—Linguistic humor has long been considered untranslatable because of the fact that its linguistic features can never be duplicated in another language. The thesis views this long-debated issue with the Skopos theory and Translation Variation Theory and arrives at the conclusion that what has been hindering the humor translation includes not only the outward form—linguistic features of humor, but also something in ideological aspect—the conventional idea about the nature of translation and translation criteria.

Index Terms—untranslatability, linguistic feature, ideological aspect

I. INTRODUCTION

Numerous scholars hold the view that English linguistic humor is impossible to be translated into Chinese because English, as an alphabetic language, makes full use of its own phonological, semantic and syntactic features in producing linguistic humor that are practically impossible to be duplicated in Chinese, which is an ideographical language. It is reasonable, but only partly right. In most cases the conventional concept about translation and translation criteria hinders translation more than linguistic features do.

With people's gradually enriched knowledge about the nature of translation, translation criteria are undergoing a transformation from being unitary to being multiple. In the meanwhile new theories and approaches keep emerging and give us strong theoretical support to approach the translation of linguistic humor from English to Chinese in different ways. It is high time we reconsidered the issue from new perspectives.

II. THE FEATURES OF ENGLISH LINGUISTIC HUMOR

Humor involves different modes and falls into different groups if viewed from different angles and for different purposes. Linguistic humor is the rhetoric device-dependent humor, whose funny effect derives directly from the language itself due to the clever use of rhetorical devices like pun, zeugma and so on. So it is almost the same as the comic created by language. As far as English linguistic humor is concerned, it adopts rhetorical devices in phonological, semantic and syntactic approaches. For example, (1) "We have courses to make *grown* men young and young men *groan*". (2) A: Please put on your clothes. I don't want to see you in front of me without *wearing* anything. B: I'm wearing the perfume. (3) A: There is a man outside with a wooden leg *named Smith*. B: What is the name of his other leg? English makes best use of its homophonic words or phrases, polyphones, polysemants, homographs, perfect homonyms and full homonyms to create humor. Phonetic features are usually coupled with semantic ones to add a charming flavor to a humorous writing. Linguistic untranslatability occurs when the linguistic form has a function beyond conveying factual relationships.

III. UNTRANSLATABILITY OF ENGLISH LINGUISTIC HUMOR

A prevailing opinion that linguistic humor is unlikely to be translated into another language has long been dominating the translation field. The untranslatability lies in the fact that English and Chinese belong to the different language families and the linguistic differences are almost insurmountable.

Take the above humor for example. Humor (1) "We have courses to make *grown* men young and young men *groan*". The meaning can be easily put across into Chinese but the link between "*grown*" and "*groan*", which is reflected in the pronunciation, definitely disappears in the translation. Humor (2) is a humor using semantic feature of the word "*wear*". It can be followed by different objects, so in English there exist several different expressions with it like "*to wear a dress*", "*to wear earrings*", "*to wear arms*", "*to wear an air of expectancy*", "*to wear a beard*", and "*to wear a hole in the sole*". But when they are translated into Chinese, six different Chinese words are needed to explain the same English word "*wear*": "穿着一件裙子", "戴着耳环", "佩戴着武器", "面带期望的神色", "蓄着胡子", and "鞋底磨了个洞". The semantic feature of "*wear*" makes this joke possible in English but practically untranslatable into Chinese. In the third humor, the phrase "*named Smith*" is the attribute of "*a man*". But they are separated by another phrase "*with a wooden leg*". So "*named Smith*" can be taken as the attribute of "*a wooden leg*", too. Because of the syntactic ambiguity, humorous effect is easily achieved in English but it is difficult in Chinese.

Some researchers think linguistic humor can only be produced and consumed at home, without any possibility to be translated into other languages or other characters. So compared with other fields, the study on humor translation, especially linguistic humor E-C translation, is still a runner-up.

An investigation was carried out in September, 2007 about linguistic humor E-C translation in China. Thirteen core journals in foreign language learning/teaching and translation fields have been searched, including four well known professional translation journals, via the data bank, *China Academic Journals (CAJ)* of *China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI)*. For each journal, “*theme*” was selected as the search item and “幽默” as the search word and time is from 1985 to 2007. The result is illustrated in the following tables.

TABLE. 1
THE INVESTIGATION ON HUMOR STUDIES IN CHINA (1985-2007)

	The Title of the Journal	Article
1	Journal of Foreign Languages	17
2	Foreign Languages and Their Teaching	13
3	Modern Foreign Languages	7
4	Journal of PLA University of Foreign Languages	20
5	Foreign Language Research	12
6	Foreign Language Education	21
7	Foreign Languages Research	3
8	Journal of Sichuan International Studies University	25
9	Shandong Foreign Language Teaching Journal	5
10	Language and Translation	4
11	Shanghai Journal of Translators for Science and Technology	1
12	Chinese Science & Technology Translators Journal	4
13	Chinese Translators Journal	11

Tab.1 shows that 143 articles on humor have been published in these 13 journals up to the date of September 1, 2007. The number of 143 is desperately small in contrast to more than 20 years of time span.

Then those 143 articles were reexamined and articles with humor translation as the subject were singled out. The result is more unsatisfactory.

TABLE. 2
THE INVESTIGATION ON HUMOR TRANSLATION STUDIES IN CHINA

	The Title of the Journal	Article	Publishing Time
1	Journal of Foreign Languages	1	1992/01
2	Foreign Languages and Their Teaching	1	2007/02
3	Modern Foreign Languages	0	/
4	Journal of PLA University of Foreign Languages	2	2007/02;1996/06
5	Foreign Language Research	0	/
6	Foreign Language Education	5	2002/05;1994/02;1990/02;1987/01;1987/03
7	Foreign Languages Research	0	/
8	Journal of Sichuan International Studies University	2	2007/02;1998/01
9	Shandong Foreign Language Teaching Journal	0	/
10	Language and Translation	1	1985/04
11	Shanghai Journal of Translators for Science and Technology	1	1993/03
12	Chinese Science & Technology Translators Journal	1	2004/04
13	Chinese Translators Journal	2	2002/01;1999/03

Two problems reflected in Tab. 2 deserve our attention.

First, only 16 articles among 143 are about humor translation and these 16 articles include those in which humor is not the only subject. Second, the publishing year is not near. It reflects that not much new research has been done into humor translation.

Linguistic features of English humor are undoubtedly factors that hinder the translation, but are there any other reasons besides those in linguistic aspect? This is the question that deserves our deep thought.

IV. RECONSIDERATION OF UNTRANSLATABILITY AND TRANSLATABILITY OF LINGUISTIC HUMOR

What is translatability and untranslatability? Baker defines it as the capacity for some kind of meaning to be transferred from one language to another without undergoing radical change (Baker, 1998). Owing to the fact that the concept of “meaning” varies greatly among different scholars and researchers, the definition of translatability itself remains a vague concept.

When it comes to linguistic humor translation, no one can deny that peculiar linguistic features of English linguistic humor block the way of its translation. But Chang Nam Fung's statement on pun translation gives us an idea about the true reason that is deeply hidden. Chang (2003) says to the effect that translatability varies greatly with the changes of the views to what is translation. The fact that linguistic humor has long been considered untranslatable is greatly due to the conventional concept about the nature of translation and translation criteria.

The topic of translation criterion is one that has arisen ever since the emergence of translation activities. Traditional translation theory in China emphasizes faithfulness which means the precise conveyance of the message must be given priority. People use "accuracy" to evaluate a translation and to judge the extent to which the translation matches its original. But the fact is not every word in one language has an exact equivalent in another and not all concepts that are expressed through the words of one language are identical to the ones that are expressed through the words of another. Traditional criteria are usually aware of the intra-linguistic factors such as semantic, lexical, grammatical features but attach little importance to extra-linguistic factors like situation, subject field and receiver.

Gu Zhengkun held that it is the unilateralism of our thoughts that makes us accustomed to judging things by A or B. People are used to believing that everything has a unique answer, affected by which many translators have spared no efforts looking for an absolutely right translation criterion (Gao, 2007). This is the exact way people view English linguistic humor translation and the very reason that the idea of untranslatability is widely accepted. So we need to consider the issue from the ideological aspect.

In his book *A Study on Translation Compensation*, Xia Tingde (2006) analyzes the translatability and untranslatability by citing how Feng Youlan explained the hard understanding Chinese proposition, "A hoop-linked chain can be unlinked (连环可解也)", raised by Hui Shi who was a well-known Chinese debater of 2000 years ago. This proposition is hard to understand because people always wonder: Now that it is a hoop-linked chain, how can it be unlinked? Feng Youlan broke the usual thinking mode and viewed the proposition from a new angle: once a hoop-linked chain was damaged, it would be easily unlinked. The lesson we can learn is that why not stop inviting desperation and approach linguistic humor E-C translation in other ways?

The answer lies in the Skopos theory and Translation Variation Theory. Functionalists have moved away from the linguistically oriented translation theory because linguistics alone won't help us. It reflects a general shift from predominantly linguistic and rather formal translation theories to a more functional and sociocultural oriented concept of translation. The significance of Skopos theory in linguistic humor translation is that it sets it free from the restriction of the conventional idea that translations must be faithful to the source texts in linguistic form, for it redefines equivalence as the same communicative function or functions as the source text.

In addition, Translation Variation Theory put forward by Huang Zhonglian in 2001 brings new lights to Chinese translation studies. Translation variation refers to translation activities where various shifting devices, such as adding, reducing, editing, narrating, contracting, combining, rewriting, are employed (黄忠廉, 2002). It is of great significance for both the theoretical study of translation and translation practice in China, because it formally includes those so-called non-translational methods into the framework. So it has a great influence on linguistic humor translation by providing theoretical support to those who carry out translation activities with devices unacceptable before. For example, (4) A: What makes a road broad? B: The letter "B". If there were no Translation Variation Theory, the translation should be like this: 甲: 为什么路会变宽? 乙: 因为字母 B. It seems that the translation is faithful to the source text, but in fact humor dies out totally in the target text. Now with this theory, we can translate the source text this way: 甲: 什么会使门变阔? 乙: "活"字呗! This Chinese translation that used to be unacceptable is now a good illustration of compensation, one of translation methods.

Now that the criteria judging a good translation have become multiple from unitary, many methods prove workable in translating English linguistic humor. Peter Newmark (1998) tackled the problem of pun translation by putting forward "compensation". If the purpose of the pun is merely to raise laughter among its readers, it could sometimes be compensated by another pun on a word with a different but associated meaning. Leo Hickey (2001) wrote in *Perlocutionary Equivalence: Marking, Exegesis and Recontextualization* that recontextualization applied well to translating humorous writings. Chinese scholars managed to put forward some solutions, too. Zhao Yanchun (2005) thinks analogy is a method to solve the problem. Chang Nam Fung (2003) put forward ten methods of translating pun after analyzing Delabastita's strategies on pun translation (Pun is a major rhetorical device used to create humor. Solutions to pun translation must be much helpful to humor translation).

V. CONCLUSION

The long-debated issue of translatability and untranslatability accompanies the development of translation theory and practice. Linguistics and translation have long had what Peter Fawcett calls a love-hate relationship. In the era when new theories keep emerging, it is necessary and imperative that linguistic humor translation criteria be re-oriented and that the contribution of linguistic approaches be placed in a more realistic perspective if we want to find out a solution to the translation of linguistic humor from English to Chinese.

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Reflective Teaching and Professional Development of Young College English Teachers—From the Perspective of Constructivism

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Abstract—In recent years, young college English teachers' professional development has become a core issue. The traditional training of young teachers ignored the empirical, experiencing and diversifying nature of language teachers' professional development. From the perspective of constructivism, this paper elaborates the impacts of teaching reflection on young college English teachers and highlights four effective methods and strategies to carry out reflective teaching.

Index Items—reflective teaching, teachers' professional development, constructivism, young English teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

Presently, young teachers account for the majority of college English teachers. The quality of young teachers is decisive for the overall quality of the college. Therefore, the demands on professional development of young college English teachers are becoming increasingly high. However, the in-service training and the traditional “top-down” model cannot satisfy the need of young college English teacher professional development. In the 1980s, a completely new model, “bottom-up” model, appeared in the teacher education field of such western countries as America and Britain, which has attracted many teacher education researchers into this field. This “bottom-up” model holds that a teacher should take the self as an important source in her/his professional development by reflecting upon her/his own teaching practice.

However, in the teacher education field of our country, such research is rare and just belongs to an initial stage. Based on the above reasons, it is significant for us to explore an effective way to young college English teacher professional development. The paper, guided by Piaget and Vygotsky's constructive theory, attempts to explore a constructive way for young college English teachers to promote their professional development.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Constructivism

Constructivism is a theory of how people learn, a philosophy that views learning as an active process in which learners construct their own understanding and knowledge of the world through action and reflection (Williams & Burden, 2000). Constructivists argue that individuals generate rules and mental models as the result of their experiences with both other human subjects and their environments and in turn use these rules and models to make sense of new experiences (Henson & Eller, 2005).

Constructivism focuses on learning process, which can be applied in teaching because teaching is learning and the process of teacher professional development is just a process of learning. So we can see the main underlying assumptions for reflective teaching and teaching professional development. Firstly, teacher professional development becomes possible only when teachers critically reflect upon teaching, for reflective teaching is the process of self-study or self-learning. Teachers are learning while teaching. Secondly, problem-solving provides an important means for reflective teaching. Teachers have to ask themselves questions to find ways to settle different problems met in the dynamic process of teaching because no methods or approaches can tell teachers the way to the most effective teaching. Teachers' feeling of success in problem-solving is a sign of professional development (Bailey et al, 2001).

B. Reflective Teaching

Recently, a great deal of attention has been devoted to the topic of reflection and the development of reflective practice. More and more studies have been made to find out the nature of reflection and reflective practice.

Reflection has long been studied by many people. Dewey (1933) originally defined reflection as “active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds” (p.9). Bartlett (1990) also gives us his definition: reflection, or critical reflection, refers to an activity or process in which an experience is recalled, considered, and evaluated, usually in relation to a broader purpose. It is a response to past experience and involves conscious recall and examination of the experience as a basis for evaluation and decision—making, and as a source for planning and action.

Reflective teaching is a teaching theory that has drawn the attention of scholars in western countries and has influenced the educational system in China as well. Chinese foreign language educators and researchers introduced the trend of thought “reflective teaching” from abroad in the 1990s. From then on, researches on reflective teaching in China have started and flourished. Professor Xiong Chuanwu (1999) refines reflective teaching as “the process that the teacher as an active agent with the help of action research, keeps on inquiring and solving their own problems of the teaching goals and of teaching instruments, connects ‘learning to teach’ with ‘learning to learn’ and tries to improve rationality of teaching, and makes themselves a teacher of some scholar kind.(p.3)”

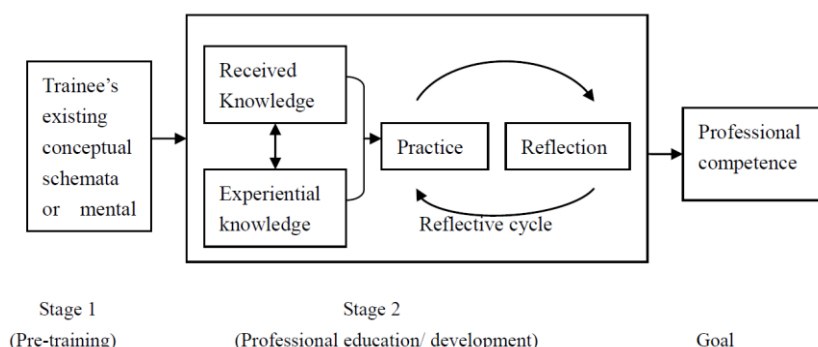
III. SIGNIFICANCE OF REFLECTIVE TEACHING ON PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Reflective teaching is seen as a process that can facilitate teaching, learning and understanding, and that plays a central role in teacher professional development. The significance of reflective teaching is well expounded by many scholars.

Dewey was among the first to promote reflection as a means of professional development in teaching. He believes that “critical reflection” is the most important quality a teacher may have and adds that “when teachers speculate, reason, and contemplate using open-mindedness, wholeheartedness, and responsibility, they will act with foresight and planning rather than basing their actions on tradition, authority, or impulse. Schon (1983) has demonstrated that reflection is an essential component of professional knowledge and practice and has believed that teachers will develop the ability for continued learning throughout the professional career if they are engaged in reflection in action. Richards and Lockhart (1996) argue that critical reflection of one’s practices can trigger a deeper understanding of teaching and contribute to one’s professional development. Wallace’s (1991) reflective teaching model of professional education/development (Table 1) has clearly described the role of reflection in teacher professional development.

The significance of reflective teaching on professional development can be shown as follows. First, reflective teaching increases the degree of “professionalism”. Teachers who are better informed as to the nature of their teaching are able to evaluate their stage of professional growth and what aspects of their teaching they need to change. Reflective practice offers practical options to address professional development issues. Secondly, it can help young teachers achieve a better understanding of their own assumptions about teaching as well as their own teaching practices; it can lead to a richer conceptualization of teaching and a better understanding of teaching and learning processes; it can serve as a basis of self-evaluation and is therefore an important component of professional development. Lastly, as young teachers gain experience in a community of professional educators, they feel the need to grow beyond the initial stages of survival in the classroom to reconstructing their own particular theory from their practice.

TABLE 1



Reflective teaching has the effects of making teachers more initiative and responsible in pursuing the practical rationality through exploring teaching and learning activities, taking more informed actions and establishing a deeper understanding of teaching, which ultimately contributes to their professional knowledge and competence. So a process of reflective teaching is a process of teacher professional development. Without systematically reflective teaching, teacher professional development becomes impossible, and at the same time teacher professional development spurs teachers to do reflective thinking in their teaching.

IV. STRATEGIES OF REFLECTIVE TEACHING

Based on the researches of reflective teaching both home and abroad as well as the author's own five years' teaching experience, four main strategies are suggested as follows.

A. *Observation*

Observation is the most basic research technique teachers can employ in classrooms. Teachers encounter many issues in classroom settings. Most of the rich data of classroom occurrences is gathered by the teacher himself/herself. Their peers also contribute. According to the author's investigation, 64% of the teachers occasionally ask their colleagues to observe their teaching and 15% of them can actively ask colleagues to observe their own teaching. It means that college English teachers also frequently use observation as a way to do reflection. Jack C. Richards and Charles Lockhart (1996) suggest observation as a way of gathering information about teaching, rather than a way of evaluating teaching.

In many language programs, young college English teachers are often reluctant to take part in observation or related activities since observation is associated with evaluation. Thus in order for observation to be viewed as a positive rather than a negative experience, the observer's function should be limited to that of gathering information. The observer should not be involved in evaluating a teacher's lesson.

Although observing the classes of young English teachers is a useful technique for them in order to gain valuable feedback on teaching and learning, observing another teacher's class can also be fruitful, especially observing the famous or experienced teachers' class.

Except for great knowledge of teaching theories, young college English teachers are lack of teaching practice. Therefore, observation is a good way for their professional development.

B. *Collaborative Learning*

It is often beneficial to gather feedback from academic colleagues. Brookfield (1995) maintains the importance of continual dialogue with peers and colleagues about teaching in the mutually cooperative environment rather than a competitive one. Collaboration with colleagues increases the probability that teachers will be successfully reflective and more confident in their professional development.

When discussing events young college English teachers have experienced, they can describe their own experiences and check, reframe and broaden their own theories of practice. Moreover, colleagues' diverse experiences, perspectives and ideologies can help young teachers avoid static, lopsided view. Plus, reciprocal peer discussion of pedagogical matters frequently with colleagues reveal that concerns or problems are shared, which not only validates a teacher's trials and successes, but also provides new perspectives and insights into problem-solving, enhance teaching skills.

C. *Teaching Blogs*

With the rapid development of information technology, more and more people choose blogs as the best way to express their feelings. The widest benefits of blogs will accrue to the young college English teachers. It is reported that only 14.4% teachers have never reflected upon their teaching by writing teaching blogs. That is, a large number of college English teachers use this method to record their teaching or their feeling about their teaching.

Teaching blogs are written or recorded accounts of teaching experiences, which will be about teachers' routine and conscious actions in the classroom. These actions include conversations with students, critical incidents in a lesson, teachers' beliefs about teaching, events outside the classroom that will influence teaching, and teachers' views about language teaching and learning. There are two purposes for teaching blogs, one of which is for later reflection and trigger teachers' insights about teaching by writing, and the other of which can involve all their students, their colleagues and other educators in the blogs so as to offer more advice on teaching.

D. *Audio and Video Recordings*

Through watching their own or other colleagues' audio and video recordings, young English teachers can develop their self-awareness for teaching is an independent and conscious activity of an individual.

A classroom video can vividly picture the whole process of teaching. It can trigger teachers' reflective thinking, reflect on their weaknesses and help them get some inspiration and ideas for their teaching improvement.

In doing reflective teaching, each strategy has advantages and limitations, and some are more useful for exploring certain aspects of teaching than others. It is up to initial teachers to decide which strategies are useful and for what purposes.

V. CONCLUSION

Due to the need of new curriculum and high demanding of college English teaching, professional development of young college English teachers in our country is extremely urgent.

From the perspective of constructivism, reflective teaching has proved to be an effective way to teacher professional development theoretically and practically, for reflective teaching can make a teacher become a life-long learner and researcher, can make a teacher become more self-aware and self-monitor of his own teaching, and cannot only change and but also integrated a teacher's teaching beliefs and practice.

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Lexicalization of Motion Event in Persian

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Abstract—In this paper we will have a short look at Persian language structure and discuss about expressing change of state and motion in Persian. Persian is considered among languages with a few simple verbs, and most of Persian verbs are compound. We can categorize the Persian verbs indicating motion event as following: 1. PATH is expressed in a non-head framed construction, and the main verb shows the MANNER of motion. Compounds in this pattern are combined verbs and non-separable. 2. PATH is indicated by the main verb (head-framed construction type) and is emphasized or explained in the non-verbal (satellite/non-head) part, and the MANNER of motion comes in the adverb. 3. The main verb indicates both PATH and MANNER of motion: Although, it may be considered as an incorporated compound verb in which the prepositional disappears after incorporation. Both head-framed and non-head framed construction of path are available in Persian, but except deictic verbs in which path is specified, in other cases, path is expressed mostly in a non-head construction type. The main verb almost expresses manner of motion, and path is mentioned in the non-head part of a clause. Of course, it needs more studies in order to judge and prove whether Persian is a non-head framed (S-Language) or not.

Index Terms—Persian, motion, compound verb, path and manner

I. INTRODUCTION

Persian is an Indo-European Language with SOV structure. The most verbs in Persian are compound as there are few simple verbs in this language. I discuss the article “compound verbs in Persian” of Dabir moghaddam (1997) before the main discussion in order to get a general knowledge about the construction of Persian compounds.

Persian is a SOV language. Verbs are marked for tense and aspect and agree with the subject in person and number.

- (1) *ali be madrese raft-Ø*
 ali to school went-3S
 ‘Ali went to school.’

- (2) *man tā xāne david-am*
 I until house ran-1S
 ‘I ran to the house.’

Although verbs come at the end of sentence and it is a head-last language, Persian is otherwise head-first as in Noun-Genitive (Ezaf), Noun-Adjective, and Preposition-Noun. It is observed in the following examples that heads are initial.

- (3) *barādar-e man*
 brother-EZ I
 ‘my brother’

- (4) *doxtar-e zibā*
 girl-EZ pretty
 (a) pretty girl

- (5) *dar xāne*
 in house
 ‘in the house’

II. COMPOUND VERBS IN PERSIAN

Though many traditional grammarians have argued compound verbs in other languages and in Persian, still we don’t have a satisfactory treatment of this category in Persian. We may say that compound verb is a verb consists of a nonverbal part and a verb. Non-verbal part may be a noun, adjective, past participle, etc. Persian compound verb is considered as a whole word although its morphological structure is not simple.

Barjasteh (1983) also has discussed Persian compound verbs in his Ph.D. thesis. According to him, compound verbs may be divided into separable and nonseparable ones. In separable compounds, the nominal parts of compounds can take the accusative case marker *-rā* in a different structure and hence function syntactically as the direct object of their clauses.

- (6) *hasan az mā [[in taqāzā] rā kard-Ø]*
 hasan from we this request OM did-3S
 ‘Hasan made this request to us.’

- (7) * *ali* [[*in* *qadam*] *rā* *zad-Ø*]
 Ali this step OM struck-3S

Actually lots of Persian verbs expressing the motion event are compound and we may consider the same element in those verbs. Here we have a glance at Dabir moghaddam's article (1997) about the lexicalization of compound verb formation in Persian.

Dabir moghaddam (1997, p. 25) gives a suggestion about Persian compound verbs. He defines compound verb as a verb which "is made up of two otherwise independent constituents that form a compound word". He spotlights the formation processes of compounds and makes a distinction between compound verbs formed through combination and those formed through incorporation and believes that these two vary in degree of productivity: "In compounds formed through combination, an adjective, noun, prepositional phrase, adverb or past participle has combined with a verb. In the formation of compound via incorporation, a nominal element functioning as a direct object loses its grammatical ending(s) and some prepositional phrases functioning as adverbs of location lose their preposition and incorporate with the verb. Therefore, in incorporation there is always a corresponding nonincorporated construction."

A. Combination

Following him compound verbs formed through combination are constituents from a nonverbal element with a verb. This type is constituent of and adjective and an auxiliary, in which the verb can not be used in a separated form and thus no uncombined form of the verb can be considered. This is the kind that Barjasteh (1983) considers it as non-separable compound. The auxiliaries *budan* 'to be', *šodan* 'to become' and *kardan* 'to make' are used in this kind of compound verbs.

delxor kardan annoyed do 'to annoy'

or constituent of noun and verb

- (8) *qadam zadan* foot strike 'to stroll'

A constituent of a prepositional phrase and a verb is another combined compound verb. This type consists of some motion expressing verbs, but mostly is understood metaphorically.

- (9) *be-donyā āmadan* to-world come 'to be born'

- (10) *dar miān nahādan* in middle put 'to discuss'

Compound verbs formed through combination can be made of an adverb and a verb. Some motion verbs are made through this construction.

- (11) *forud āmadan* down come 'to land'

- (12) *piš kešidan* before draw 'to bring forward'

The last type of combined compounds is the compound which includes past participle and passive auxiliaries. These are passive of compound verbs. The auxiliary involved is *šodan* 'become'. Any transitive verb that may be passivized belongs to this set.

- (13) *košte šodan* killed become 'to be killed'

Although Dabir moghaddam (1997) separates this kind of verbs as a compound formed through combination, I think it may be considered just as the passive form of simple verbs, as in the above example the active verb is *koštan*, and just the past participle follows the verb *šodan* to form the passive verb as the process of formation applies.

B. Incorporation

Compounds formed through incorporation are those in which direct object or preposition phrase are incorporated with a verb. In Persian when the direct object loses its grammatical endings (e.g., the postposition *-rā*, the indefinite marker *-i*) it may incorporate with the verb and then create an intransitive compound verb which is a conceptual whole. For instance 14 (a) contains an independent direct object *qazā-yeš-ān* which is incorporated with the verb *xord-and* in 14(b).

(14)

- a. *bačče-hā* *qazā-yeš-ān* *rā* *xord-and*
 child-pl food-his/her-pl OM ate-3P
 'The children ate their food.'

- b. *bačče-hā* *qazā* *xord-and*.
 Child-PL food ate-3P
 'The children did food eating.'

Incorporation occurs in Persian also in the case of prepositional phrases functioning as adverbs of location also according to Dabir moghaddam (1997). After incorporation the prepositional disappears. Examples (a) and (b) below exemplify this possibility.

(15)

- a. *bačče* *be* *zamin* *xord-Ø*
 child to ground ate-3S
 'The child fell to the ground.'

- b. *bačče* *zamin* *xord-Ø*
 child ground ate-3S

The child fell down.

This kind of incorporation may be observed in expressing the motion event in Persian and it will be discussed later.

III. PERSIAN PREPOSITIONS

Prepositions may be divided into two groups: bare prepositions and *ezafe* prepositions (those which are always used in genitive case). Following are lists of the preposition used in motion expressing, divided according to whether express vector of motion or conformation.

A. Prepositions Which Show Confirmation

outside of	<i>birun-e, xārej-e</i>
inside	<i>dāxel-e, tu-ye</i>
in front of	<i>jolo-ye, piš-e</i>
behind of	<i>pošt-e, pas-e</i>
on, above	<i>bālāye, ru-ye</i>
under,	<i>zir-e</i>
between	<i>bein-e</i>

These prepositions (except *bein-e* ‘between’) may be combined with the verb to constitute a compound verb, and then they lose the form of *ezafe*, e.g., *birun raftan* ‘to go out, exit’.

B. Prepositions Which Show Vector

from	<i>az</i>
to	<i>be</i>
as.far.as	<i>tā</i>

These prepositions with their following names may come before a motion verb to be the satellite and show the PATH of the motion. Most of them (except *be-taraf-e* ‘toward’ appear without *ezafe*, e.g., *tā xāne davidan* ‘to run until the house’.

IV. EXPRESSING THE MOTION EVENT IN PERSIAN

Following Talmy (1985) one can distinguish two types of languages –perhaps a universal split- in terms of whether they prefer to express change of state in verbs or in elements associated with verbs. He divides languages to verb-framed languages, in which PATH is indicated by the main verb in a clause, and satellite-framed languages, which PATH is given by a satellite to the verb in those languages. These two types of lexicalization pattern entail two types of grammatical construction for motion events. Here we study and discuss this idea in Persian. We explained before that compound verbs in Persian are considered as a whole word, it is difficult to distinguish whether path is mentioned by the verb or the satellite. So we may distinguish two terms for expressing change of states, one head framed construction and the other is non-head framed construction. Still we can not decide about Persian to be one of these two patterns. In this paper after an examination we could have a hypothesis and in the next steps of paper we will try to find out whether Persian is a head framed language or non-head framed language in expressing motion event. First we have a look at Persian verbs describe change of location, the core feature of a motion event.

Here are some Persian verbs which express motion event. As mentioned before in Persian, compound verbs are considered as a whole and we can not say that which part of the verb is the main in those verbs. Anyway, the verbal part of a compound is considered as the head of the clause. Persian motion verbs can be divided as following:

1-The main verb expresses path of motion: (mostly auxiliaries or deictic verbs, except *gozaštan* ‘pass’).

<i>raftan</i>	go	go
<i>āmadan</i>	come	come
<i>vāred šodan</i>	enter become	go into, enter
<i>dāxel šodan</i>	inside become	
<i>xārej šodan</i>	outside become	go out, exit
<i>birun raftan</i>	out go	
<i>bālā raftan</i>	up go	go up, rise
<i>bālā āmadan</i>	up come	
<i>soud kardan</i>	rise do	
<i>pāin āmadan</i>	down come	come down, fall
<i>pāin raftan</i>	down go	
<i>nozul kardan</i>	falling do	
<i>rad šodan</i>	pass become	get across, cross
<i>obur kardan</i>	pass do	
<i>gozaštan</i>	pass	

2-Verbs express manner of motion:

<i>qadam zadan</i>	foot hit(strike)	walk
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<i>piāde-ravi kardan</i>	on foot-going do	
<i>davidan</i>	run	run
<i>parvāz kardan</i>	flying do	fly
<i>paridan</i>	fly, jump	jump
<i>harekat kardan</i>	motion do	move

Verbs express both path and manner of motion:

<i>reže raftan</i>	troop go	troop
<i>piāde raftan</i>	walking go	walk

As it is observed, most of motion verbs are compound, and just a few simple verbs are included. Reviewing the compound verbs, we may find some patterns for construction of these verbs:

(a) (preposition + *raftan* 'to go'): (Path):

<i>birun raftan</i>	out go	go out
<i>tu raftan</i>	inside go	go into
<i>bālā raftan</i>	up go	go up
<i>pāin raftan</i>	down go	go down
<i>pas raftan</i>	backward go	go backward
<i>piš raftan</i>	forward go	go forward
<i>jolo raftan</i>	front go	go forward

In this part of compounds, the main verb (deictic verb) refers to PATH and emphasized by the non-head part of the compound (satellite), the preposition which is an adverb here, so the compound verbs formed in this way express the PATH of motion as it is observed above. It is possible also to add the prepositions to the deictic verb *āmadan* 'come' and have the opposite meaning of above verbs. This kind of verbs can be considered as incorporated compound verbs which occur when prepositional phrase functions as adverbs of location.

(b) ({N/Adj/Adv} + *raftan* 'to go'): (Manner+Path):

<i>rāh raftan</i>	road go	walk
<i>yurtme raftan</i>	trot go (for horse)	trot
<i>piāde raftan</i>	walking go	walk
<i>reže raftan</i>	troop go	troop
<i>sinexiz raftan</i>	chest crawl go	crawl (like a snake)
<i>širje raftan</i>	dive go	dive/plunge

This kind of verbs is a different pattern of expressing motion event. As in Persian compounds are considered as a whole word, and in this kind of compounds the former part express the manner of motion and the later indicates the PATH and it is a whole, there is no special emphasize on PATH or MANNER of motion in this verbs. We can use another word by a conjunction referring to the first part of the verb. Also in the following sentence

(16)

sarbāzān moqābel-e rahbar reže raftand.
 soldier-pl in.front.of-EZ leader troop went-3pl

'soldiers troop in front of the leader.'

there is no special ground for the verb. The compound verb is just expressing the act of trooping as there is no *reže āmadan*. For more explanation, we may have the word *piāde-ravi* ({walking/on foot} going) 'walking' that can be used in

(17)

Man piāde-ravi-rā az savāri bištar dust dāram.
 I on.foot-going-Acc from riding more like have-1sg

'I like walking more than riding.'

Thus we may consider this pattern of verbs as a third type which indicates both PATH and MANNER of motion. Though in this type, the verb is deictic, but the compound verb is used to express the manner of motion.

(c) (noun + *kardan* 'to do'):

<i>nozul kardan</i>	falling do	descend
<i>soud kardan</i>	rising do	ascend, climb
<i>obur kardan</i>	passing do	pass
<i>harekat kardan</i>	move do	move
<i>piāde-ravi kardan</i>	on foot-going do	walk
<i>parvāz kardan</i>	flying do	fly

(d) ({N/Adj} + *šodan* 'become'):

<i>rad šodan</i>	passing become	pass
<i>dāxel šodan</i>	entered become	enter
<i>vāred šodan</i>	entered become	enter
<i>xārej šodan</i>	exited become	exit
<i>piāde šodan</i>	on foot become	get off

These two kinds of motion compound verbs are constituent of nouns and auxiliaries. As the verbal part of these compounds has no special motional meaning, actually the meaning is understood from the former part of compound (non-head part). Thus in a case the first part refers to manner of motion, compound is understood to be a manner expression of motion, e.g., *nozul kardan* 'descend' or *rad šodan* 'pass', and if the first part of compound includes the PATH in its meaning it may be adjusted to be a Path expressing compound, e.g., *parvāz kardan* 'fly'.

Here are some sentences which include different motion verbs in written Persian.

(18)

(man) {be/tā} istgāh **raftam**. Deictic
 I {to/until} station went-1S
 I went to the station.

(19)

(man) tā istgāh {qadam zadam/ ♦piāde **raftam**} Non-head / Deictic
 (I) to station {foot hit-1S/ walking went-1S}
 I walked to the station.

(20)

(man) be dāxel-e xāne **davidam**. Non-head
 (I) to inside-EZ house ran-1S
 I ran into the house.

(21)

(man) (qadamzanān) be dāxel-e xāne **raftam** Deictic
 (I) (walking) to inside of house went1S
 I walked into the house.

(22)

♦(man) az xāne **birun davidam**. / {be xārej-e xāne **davidam**} Non-head
 (I) from house out ran-1S. / {to outside-EZ house ran1S}
 I ran out of the house.

(23)

(man) az arze rudxāne qadam-zanān **gozaštam**. Head framed
 (I) from across-EZ river foot-hitting passed/crossed-1S
 I walked across the river.

(24)

(man) az arz-e rudxāne davān davān **gozaštam** Head framed
 (I) from across-EZ river running running passed-1S
 I ran across the river.

(25)

♦(man))az tappe **bālā davidam** / {♦tā nok-e tappe **davidam**} Non-head
 I from hill up ran-1S / {until top-EZ hill ran-1S}
 I ran up the hill.

(26)

(man) tā {bālā-ye/nok-e} tappe **qadam zadam** Non-head
 (I) until {up/top-EZ} hill foot hit-1S
 I walked up the hill.

(27)

(man) be dāxel-e salon **negāh kardam**. Non-head
 (I) to inside-EZ hall look did-1S
 I looked into the hall.

(28)

♦(man) yek tup (rā) be dāxel-e jabe **partāb kardam**. Non-head
 (I) a ball (OM) to inside-EZ box throw did-1S
 I threw a ball into the box.

V. LEXICALIZATION OF PERSIAN VERBS EXPRESSING MOTION EVENTS

Considering the above points we can categorize the Persian verbs indicating motion event as following:

1. PATH is expressed in a non-head framed construction, and the main verb shows the MANNER of motion. Compounds in this pattern are combined verbs and nonseparable.

(29) (man) *tā* *bālāy-e tappe qadam zadam.*
 I as.far.as top-EZ hill foot hit-1S.
 'I walked up the hill.'

(30) *tā* *nok-e tappe davidam.*
 as.far.as top-EZ hill ran-1S
 'I ran up the hill.'

2. PATH is indicated by the main verb (head-framed construction type) and is emphasized or explained in the non-verbal (satellite/non-head) part, and the MANNER of motion comes in the adverb:

(31) a. *qadamzanān* *az tappe bālā raftam.*
 walking from hill up went-1S
 I walked up the hill.

3. The main verb indicates both PATH and MANNER of motion:

(32) *joqd az surāx-e deraxt birun parid*
 Owl from hole-EZ tree out flew-3S
 Owl flew out of the hole.

Another example:

(33) (man) *az tappe bālā davidam.*
 (I) from hill up ran-1S.
 I ran up the hill.

Although, it may be considered as an incorporated compound verb in which the prepositional disappears after incorporation. (32) may have been as below before incorporation.

(34) *joqd az dāxele-e surāx be birun parid.*
 Owl from inside-EZ hole to out flew-3S

Both head-framed and non-head framed construction of path (Talmy's verb-framed and satellite-framed patterns) are available in Persian as it is observed above, but except deictic verbs in which path is specified, in other cases, path is expressed mostly in a non-head construction type. The main verb almost expresses manner of motion, and path is mentioned in the non-head part of a clause. Of course, it needs more studies in order to judge and prove whether Persian is a non-head framed (S-Language) or not.

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The Psychological Predicament of Contemporary People—Analyzing the Symbolic Meaning of Cage and God in *The Hairy Ape*

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Abstract—This essay is aimed at revealing the psychological predicament of the contemporary people through analyzing the symbolic meaning of cage and god in *The Hairy Ape*. In the late 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century, capitalism appeared and then developed rapidly. Science and technology were also developing. All these resulted in contemporary people's identity crisis and bewilderment. The analysis of the symbolic meaning of cage and god may be conducive to readers' further comprehension of Yank's experience in finding self-belonging and freedom.

Index Terms—Yank, cage, god, predicament

I. INTRODUCTION

The Hairy Ape, which consists of eight scenes, is one of the most interesting and thought-provoking works written by O'Neill Eugene. The theme of The Hairy Ape is the contradiction between individuals and society and the process of finding self belonging. After reading the drama carefully, it is easy to find out that the images of cage and god appear frequently. The image of cage runs through the whole text, in which it lays a gloomy keynote. Both Yank's living place and working place are all like cages which are often used to confine animals. The office where the Industrial Workers of the World (IWW) local NO.57 locates, as well as the prison and the gorilla cage are also images of cage. Yank's psychological process of finding his own identity and self belonging just means jumping from one prison to another.

The image of god in the text is of the same importance as the image of cage. With the development of science, technology and capitalistic economy, people's belief systems have been changed substantially. In addition, with Nietzsche's declaration of "the god died" many people are stuck in bewilderment. They do not know what to do, because in their minds, people can't live without god. As O'Neal says: "the playwrights should explore the root of contemporary drawbacks, i.e., the old god has died, while science and materialism fail to provide a new god to satisfy people's original religious instinct—finding the meaning of life to comfort the fear of death".

Yank, who is very proud and conceited at first, ignores god. At last, however, when he is dying, he calls for god, crying "Christ, where do I get off at? Where do I fit in?" It is only the weak who would admire and need god. Yank is no doubt a weak person. As a representative of contemporary people, we can see his longing for freedom and expectation for self belonging from Yank's changing process in seeking the value of existence.

II. ANALYSIS OF THE PLAY

A. Generalizing *The Hairy Ape*

Yank was a fireman in a luxury liner. He was broader, fiercer, more truculent, more powerful, and surer of himself than his colleagues. As a result, he was very arrogant and proud, believing that he was the foundation of the world; it was he who created the speed and everything. He also had strong dignity and wanted to be respected by every people. However, his dignity and proud were badly dented by Mildred, who called him a filthy beast when she first saw him. It seemed that he was stuck in bewilderment since then.

He decided to revenge Mildred and the alike. So he went to the Fifth Avenue to insult the rich people. Unfortunately, he was arrested and put into prison after punching a fat gentleman. When he escaped from the prison, he went to the Industrial Workers of the World (IWW) to seek his belonging. Again he was driven away by the organization, considering him as a spy by mistake. This time he lost himself completely.

Earlier, he thought that he controlled the world, but now the world controls him. He wasn't on earth or heaven, he was in the middle, trying to separate them, but suffering all the punches from both. Then he went to the zoo and talks to

a gorilla. Now he knew for sure that he had no past, no future, only present. He thought he and the gorilla belonged to the same club. So he released it and shook hands with it, but unfortunately, he was squeezed to death.

He was a representative of the primitive society. He blindly admired his own strength and ignored the reality and his class belonging. He had no consciousness of classes, so when he felt insulted by Mildred, he just wanted to revenge her alone, not her class. He was defiant to Long's and Paddy's thoughts. So after his dignity was cracked down, he found himself in a fix, not knowing where to start and where to go.

B. The Symbolic Meaning of Cage

Yank appears in a luxurious transatlantic liner sailing on the sea. In contrast, his living space is rather narrow.

"It is a cramped space in the bowls of a ship, imprisoned by white steel. The lines of bunks, the uprights supporting them, cross each other like the steel framework of a cage." The firemen in their forecabin are "the bewildered, furious, baffled defiance of a beast in the cage." This is the first description of cage. It not only has the symbolic meaning of prison, but also connects the workers with beasts, which echoes with the cage in which the gorilla stays.

Although the liner is very luxurious, the firemen's working environment is also like a prison, no better than their living place. In the stokehole, "dimly-outlined bulks hang over head, shedding just enough light through the murky air laden with coal dust to pile up masses of shadows everywhere".

Just like what Paddy has described the ship "black smoke from the funnels smudging the sea, smudging the decks-the bloody engines pounding and throbbing and shaking, choking our lungs with coal dust-breaking our backs and hearts in the hell of the stokehole, caged in by steel from a sight of the sky like the bloody apes in the Zoo!" Thus we can see that the firemen are kept in "prison" day by day, suffering the exploitation.

In fact, they care for nothing and have no thoughts, but shouting, cursing, laughing, and singing—"a confused, inchoate uproar swelling into a sort of unity, a meaning—the bewildered, furious, baffled defiance of a beast in a cage." When working in the stokehole, they are "outlined in silhouette in the crouching, inhuman attitudes of chained gorillas". They are just beasts in the cage in the eyes of the upper class. In addition, after Yank's watch has come off duty, he doesn't wash himself, so his fellow workers make joke of him "it will stick to you, it will get under your skin. It makes spots on you—like a leopard". This indicates that dirt is connected with beasts. In this respect, readers can have a more comprehensive understanding of the symbolic meaning of cage.

Yank "feels himself insulted in some unknown fashion in the very heart of his heart" when Mildred calls him "filthy beast". He is in bewilderment, and goes to the Fifth Avenue to revenge her and the alike. He is put into jail after punching a gentleman. "The cells extend back diagonally from right front to left rear. They do not stop, but disappear in the dark background as if they run on into infinity". The environment in the prison gives readers a cramp feeling.

As he is struggling to escape, "he puts his two feet up so that his position is parallel to the floor like a monkey's; he gives a great wrench backwards. The bar bends like a licorice stick under his tremendous strength". We can see that he is also regarded as a beast, which should be kept in a cage.

The symbolic meaning of cage—prison also extends to the local office of Industrial Workers of the World (IWW), which locates "near the waterfront". "Moonlight on the narrow street, buildings massed in black shadow", just like a scaring cage-like prison. At last, Yank slips in a heap on the floor and dies in the cage which the gorilla stays in.

According to Foucault, the dominant class in society needs a political tool to tame and diminish the dissidents and maintain their ruling. The appearance of prison caters to this demand. The first prison (Zuchthaus) in the world was set up in Hamburg, Germany in 1620. Rather detailed regulations were launched in 1622. Since then, prison's functions as tools to maintain social stability had been bringing into full play.

As a result, Yank's struggling is no more than walking from the iron cage in the forecabin to prison then dying in the cage which is used to keep beasts. In Yank's life, prisons are ubiquitous; his fate is merely walking from one prison to another.

C. The Symbolic Meaning of God

People in the 20th century have experienced an unprecedented psychological crisis. On one hand, after Nietzsche says "the god has died!" many people feel the lack of accord with reality, for they lose their beliefs and live in loneliness. So gradually they are stuck in psychological predicament. On the other hand, the rapid development of science and technology has promoted industrial and machinery development. People's productive efficiency and life styles have been changed fundamentally. Science and technology have ignored people's desire for sentiment. So after losing beliefs, they become fascinated with science and technology, which they consider can change everything. Thus they become conceit. Yank is a representative of this kind of people. Though he is merely a fireman in a liner, he regards himself as part of the engines. "It's me makes the stokehole hot! It's me makes it roar! Sure, only for me everything stops".

He also says conceitedly: "I am the end! I am the start! I start something and the world moves. I am the thing in coal that makes it burn; I am steam and oil for the engines; I am the thing in noise that makes you hear it; I am smoke and express trains and steamers and factory whistles; I am the thing in gold that makes it money! I am what makes iron into steel! Steel, that stands for the whole thing! And I am steel—steel—steel! I am the muscles in steel, the punch behind it!" In fact, what Yank says are god-like words. According to The Bible, god not only creates everything, but also a supreme governor. The Poem writes that the governor is king. Once he controls universe, the land cannot be moved! In

addition, Joshua prays to deity: "let the sun stop at Gideon and the moon at Yaya. So the sun stops as expected, and the moon stops moving". What's more, Aristotle considers God who controls stars as the unmoved mover. From the above we can see that the movement of heavenly bodies is controlled by God. As a worker of the lower class, Yank praises himself as the initial power, with god-like energy and authority. It is no more than a reflection of conceit.

But Yank's pride and conceit are seriously destroyed by Mildred. When "he whirls defensively with a snarling, murderous growl, crouching to spring, his lips drawn back over his teeth, his small eyes gleaming ferociously", Mildred "looks at his gorilla face, as his eyes bore into hers, she utters a low, choking cry and shrinks away from him, putting both hands up before her eyes to shut out the sight of his face, to protect her own". Then she cried whisperingly: "take me away! Oh, the filthy beast"! This startles Yank to reaction. "his mouth falls open, his eyes grow bewildered". "Rage and bewildered fury rush back on Yank. He feels himself insulted in some unknown fashion in the very heart of his pride". He often sits down in the same attitude of "The Thinker" from scene four. He begins to realize that he is merely a hairy ape in other people's eyes. According to Sartre's existentialism, the more one person thinks, the more clearly he will be conscious of freedom. So Yank starts to hate Mildred, for hatred is a resistance to people's intolerance of my freedom. That is to say, when Mildred exerts her right of freedom, she regards Yank as a thing which enjoys no freedom, so Yank hates her and decides to revenge Mildred to prove his value of existence. However, Yank's revenge has another fundamental reason—he is confined in the forecandle and the stokehole like a hairy ape for many years. He has been deprived of freedom and thought, and the value of existence.

The fact is unacceptable to Yank. So he begins to revenge. But he comes across setbacks here and there. After being thrown out by the IWW, he "storms the closed door, but stops bewildered by the confusion in his brain, pathetically impotent. He sits there, brooding, in as near to the attitude of Rodin's "The Thinker" as he can get in his position". He realizes gradually that freedom is the origin of his pain.

He then says to himself: "three square a day, and cauliflowers in the front yard—equal rights—a woman and kids—a lousy vote—and I am all fixed for Jesus, huh? What does that get you? This thing is in your inside, but it is not your belly. Feeding you faces—sinkers and coffee—that don't touch it. It's way down—at the bottom. You can't grab it, and you can't stop it. It moves, and everything moves. It stops and the whole world stops".

We can see that "it" refers to freedom. Yank understands that freedom is a born right, which can't be chosen and got rid of. So he thinks that he can't go ahead but tries to degenerate.

Yank comes to a gorilla, trying to get comfort from it. Now he thinks they are "both members of the same club—the hairy apes". So he forces the lock on the cage door and throws it open, trying to shake hands with the gorilla. However, he is squeezed to death by its hug. Realizing "got no past to think in, nor nothing that's coming, only what's now—and that don't belong. I am not on earth and I'm not in heaven. I'm in the middle trying to separate them, taking all the worst punches from both of them", he cries with sudden passionate despair: "Christ, where do I get off at? Where do I fit in?" At the end of Yank's life, he entrusts hope to the care of god. According to Nietzsche, only the weak miss and need god's favor and Yank is no doubt the weak.

III. CONCLUSION

O'Neal expressed his view of the age in a letter in 1929: "the playwrights should explore the root of contemporary drawbacks, i.e. the old god has died, while science and materialism fail to provide a new god to satisfy people's original religious instinct—finding the meaning of life to comfort the fear of death". Nietzsche thinks that if one wants to live a meaningful life, and undertake one's own responsibilities, he or she must abandon god. God must die if one wants to live. Sartre also thinks that it is necessary to discard god if one treats himself or herself seriously. If god exists, one cannot enjoy freedom, and vice versa.

In the late 19th and the early 20th century, "god died" has caused disturbance in belief systems while it brings freedom to people at the same time. Thus the contemporary people are facing an identity crisis. Without the protection of god, people have to find their belonging and value by themselves. As a symbolic of people, however, Yank has failed to find self belonging in the industrialized society. In this age, money and machine have taken the dominant place of people; science and materialism has become the god. Yank is a victim of industrial civilization and machine, he has experienced a changing process from conceit to pain and then to despair, which results from his gradual understanding of his situation. He has tried to change something but failed.

O'Neal says that Yank is a symbolic of everyone who struggles to find self belonging. He is a living person, or he will not be accepted. Yank is you and I as well, he is all persons. So Yank's tragedy becomes the tragedy of people's fighting with themselves. The tragedy has revealed that the dominant class tries hard to suppress people's original power and passion, which long for freedom and self belonging. This kind of suppression can be seen from the symbolic meaning of cage.

Through *The Hairy Ape*, we can learn that O'Neill's search for self is the efforts made to find self belonging, and the distinct to find the meaning of life. It then resolves social sickness. Though he once said, the characters in his dramas are struggling for the hopeless hope, we can still be shocked by the power, enthusiasm, and sincere emotions expressed in the drama.

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English as a Global Language in Chinese Context

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Abstract—In the forthcoming global environment, just as there seem to be two dominant economic global poles, China and the United States, so too it appears that two global languages, Chinese and English, will remain as the most dominant languages among the 6,912 languages in use. In this article, the author discusses why Chinese and English have taken on such significance globally, demonstrating their current and likely future impact linguistically, resulting in what might be called the G2 languages, Chinese and English. The author specifically discusses: Introduction of G2 languages: Chinese and English; The role of Chinese as a dominant world language; The role of English as a dominant world language; and Conclusion. References are included.

Index Terms—Chinese, English, G2 Languages, global languages

I. INTRODUCTION OF G2 LANGUAGES: CHINESE AND ENGLISH

In the global economic sphere, the largest global industrialized countries began as the G7: Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States. Later, G7 became the G8, adding Russia. In 2007, because of the emerging global financial and environmental crisis, a new G20 was created, adding such emerging countries as Brazil, China, India, and South Africa. Many writers suggest that while all of these units have their value, in the coming economic climate, there will only be a realistic G2: China and the United States, as the two most important global economic leaders. In the same way, we can see that dominant languages expand and contract in importance, and that currently there are two global languages that have a most significant world influence. These are Chinese and English. A discussion of these two languages forms the basic structure of this article.

Michael H. Prosser identifies the following aspects of language as verbal linguistic codes: verbal linguistic codes provide the link for cultural communication; speech is the basic coding procedure followed by language; language symbolizes and catalogs one's perceived reality; language universals or near universals serve as the primary link between language and cultures; language universals or near universals are summary statements about all human speakers; language universals or near universals may be distinguished by logical structure and substantive content; stability and change play a role in the understanding of grammatical systems, and the focus of language contact is the bilingual or polylingual individual. (1978, 1985, 1989, pp. 87-104, see also Donahue & Prosser, 1997).

Prosser identifies such communication scholars as Richard Weaver, Marshall McLuhan, I.A. Richards, Kenneth Burke, Chaim Perelman, Michel Foucault, and Jurgen Habermas, although none were concerned primarily with sociolinguistics nor intercultural communication, as major contributors to the study of modern and contemporary language usage. For Weaver, all language is sermonic; for McLuhan, the essence of language, as it was for Aristotle, is the metaphor; for Richards, the goal of language is to bring understanding out of misunderstanding; for Burke, language and symbolic usage become the essence of communication to move humans toward cooperation and consubstantiality; for Perelman, he calls for the development of a universal audience through the appropriate use of language; for Foucault, he explores language, discourse and power; and for Habermas, he calls, as do Plato and Weaver, for language to lead men toward "the good life," while overcoming distorted language which leads to distorted cultural communication (Donahue & Prosser, 1997; Prosser, 2007, pp. 31-52).

There are 6,912 languages in use around the globe today (Gordon, 2005). Such a large number of languages make communication between people in different countries—or even in the same country in some cases—very difficult. Linguistics Professor David Crystal (2003, p. 9) provides two main elements in forming a global language: one is that a language that can be made the official language of a country to be used as a medium of communication in such domains as government, the law courts, the media, and the educational system; the other is that a language can be made a priority in a country's foreign-language teaching, even though this language has no official status. In reflecting on the above two elements, English has become undoubtedly a dominant international language. The demand for English language has increased exponentially with economic globalization. It is the language of air traffic control, international business and trade, diplomacy, technology, science, the internet, popular entertainment, international conferences, tourism, and even sports. For example, 80% of internet usage is in English. At the United Nations, where English and French are the two working languages, 80% of the delegates request their documents in English.

Approximately 375 million people speak English as their first language (Curtis, 2006). English today is probably the third largest language by number of native speakers, after Mandarin Chinese and Spanish (SIL Ethnologue, 2005, 2009). However, when combining native and non-native speakers, it is probably the most commonly spoken language in the world. Crystal calculates that non-native speakers now outnumber native speakers by a ratio of 3 to 1 (2003).

Even in China, there are 350 million learners of English, more than the total populations of the United States, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. But there is evidence that it is not the single global language. It has some rivals in at least some regions as the economies in those regions are growing in a fast pace, such as Spanish. Therefore, it is doubtful to claim that English will completely become a universal second language.

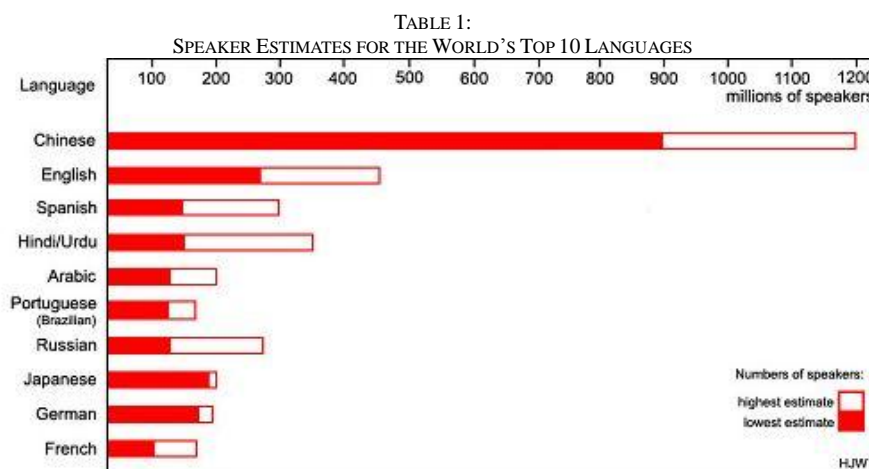
At first glance, Zhang believes that the most obvious option for the dominant global language would be Mandarin Chinese. It is spoken as a first language by over three times as many people as the English language (Gordon, 2005). Chinese is spoken by 1/5th of the population all over the world according to the findings made by available and reliable statistics. There is no field in which the Chinese people or people of Chinese origin have not made a name for themselves. Their sincerity and hardworking nature have gotten them genuine respect. China is visited by millions of tourists annually to see among other things The Forbidden City in Beijing and The Great Wall which is one of the Seven Wonders of the World, and it is no big surprise that it is becoming a famous destination for tourists and international businessmen and women equally. Many of them attend Chinese language and writing classes with the intention to speak and understand the Chinese language. Many websites and pod casts are now offering Chinese language lessons which can be learned for free. The global services delivery centers of many international corporations are being moved to China because of the necessity of Chinese language translation.

Meanwhile, according to the statistics of the China Scholarship Council in 2009, about 200 thousand international students from more than 180 countries are learning Chinese in China. For example, Beijing Language and Culture University has more than 7,000 foreign students learning Chinese and Chinese culture, the largest number of international students at one university in the world. Many universities in China have 1,000 to 3,000 foreign students in similar situations. In order to cater to the needs of learning Chinese around the world, 282 Confucius Institutes have been set up in more than 87 countries. Presently, more than 40 million people are learning Chinese and more than 2,500 universities from about 100 countries have set up Chinese language courses. More and more foreign countries have listed Chinese learning in their curriculum of primary schools, middle schools and secondary schools. In several countries of East Asia, Chinese has become a dominant regional language.

II. THE ROLE OF CHINESE AS A DOMINANT WORLD LANGUAGE

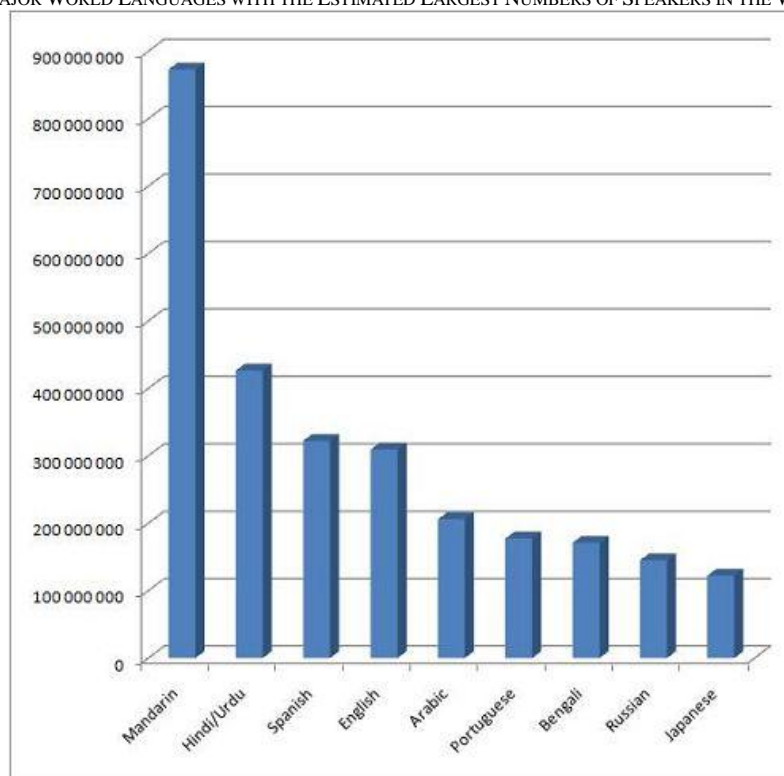
At first glance, Zhang Shengyong believes that the role of Chinese today as a world language can be reflected clearly. As a result, learning Mandarin Chinese can often be an enjoyable and a very useful skill. With an economy growing by leaps and bounds, the importance of China on the world stage is increasingly felt. As noted in the introduction of this article, we are now faced with a situation in the not too distant future of a dominance of G2 languages. Chinese is the most frequently spoken language in the world with approximately 900 million speakers and is hence one of the key languages in the world culturally and in international business. Though some scholars would challenge this concept, Chinese and English can definitely be shown as the two most significant global languages now and in the foreseeable future. An important feature in contemporary China is that in the last two or so decades, 100 million illiterate Chinese have learned to read and write, due in part to the simplification of Chinese characters (*China News*, September 16, 2007. See also McBride-Chang & Chen, 2003)

Table 1 below presents speaker estimates for the world's top 10 languages (given in millions), taken from Eric V. Gunnemark's *Countries, People and Their Languages (a Geolinguistic Handbook)*.



SIL Ethnologue, 2005. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Main_Page

TABLE 2:
9 MAJOR WORLD LANGUAGES WITH THE ESTIMATED LARGEST NUMBERS OF SPEAKERS IN THE WORLD



The nine languages with the estimated largest numbers of native speakers in the world, according to SIL Ethnologue, 2005. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Main_Page

It is demonstrated by these tables that Chinese is doubly more dominant as a spoken native language than the next major language grouping, Hindu and Urdu. In this case, however, it is also notable that the second grouping comes from Asia too, and thus it is clear that Chinese, Hindu and Urdu, are all in a dominant global position. Following Crystal's view of how a global language might be developed, while Hindu and Urdu are both official languages in India, there are 15 official languages, including English. Generally, also, these languages are not spoken widely outside of Asia. In the case of Spanish, it is clearly a global language with native speakers in Spain and 20 South American and Caribbean countries as well as 30+% in the United States and Canada, and also in this sense has more native speakers than in countries where English remains a national native language. The advantage of English as a dominant world language stems from its broad appeal not only as a national native language in major English speaking countries, but because it dominates so many fields of endeavor and frequently is considered the standard for multicultural settings.

III. THE GLOBAL SPREAD OF CHINESE

With China's long-term political stability and sustainable rapid economic development as well as the increasing exchanges in the areas of trade, culture and education between China and the international society, the demand for learning to speak Chinese is in dramatic growth in various countries across the world. Furthermore, the demand is expanding from academic and teaching areas to social folks and to foreign governments. According to Zhang Xincheng, the Vice-Minister of Education and Managing Deputy Director of the State Leading Group for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language, the United States launched an AP Chinese task force by the end of 2003 and in American middle schools, students learn Chinese and in universities and colleges Chinese courses are counted as credits. According to preliminary investigations, 2,500 US primary and middle schools have offered Chinese course so far, whereas in the past there were only more than 200 schools. (see "World demand brings Chinese to the world," 2005) We have learned that there were only slightly more than 2,000 applicants taking the Chinese proficiency test or HSK (*hanyu shuiping kaoshi* in Chinese) more than 10 years ago. Currently, 34 countries in the world have set up 151 places of examination. In 2009, the number of the applicants reached 90,000 and the growth has been 40 per cent year on year in the past two or three years. There is a very popular demand for learning Chinese in countries of Southeast Asia, Europe, Africa and South America. The number of international students in China has nearly doubled from 110,844 in 2004 to 223,500 in 2008. The number of American students increased 2.35 times and European students 2.2 times. At the University of Hong Kong, more than half of the enrolled students are from overseas, with scholarships for all research postgraduate research students. The Hong Kong government invests an average of 510,000 Hong Kong dollars for the education of each student annually. More than 90% of the tuition is subsidized by the government and external funds (englisnews, 2010, 07, 10).

For a number of years, China Central Television has placed high importance on bringing Chinese teaching programs overseas viewers; it has produced a series of Chinese teaching programs tailored for learners of different age groups and different needs. For overseas viewers, this is a convenient alternative to classroom learning of coming to China to study. In order to assist beginners to gain an innate understanding of dialogues in Chinese and quickly gain communication skills, China Central Television makes full use of the television medium to produce situational dialogues and provide *pinyin*, Chinese and English subtitles onscreen for the new vocabulary and common expressions, so that what viewers see, they can learn it cultivates a language environment and leaves a lasting impression.

According to the statistics of the China Scholarship Council in 2009, there are about 200 thousand foreign students from more than 180 countries of the world learning Chinese in China. And in order to satisfy with the needs of learning Chinese around the world, 282 Confucius Institute have set up in more than 87 countries. At present, more than 40 million people are learning Chinese and more than 2,500 universities from about 100 countries have set up the Chinese courses. More and more foreign countries have listed Chinese learning in the curriculum of primary junior and senior middle schools. In several countries of East Asia, Chinese has become the regional language.

China can open doors to employment in a variety of occupations such as in virtually any business related to manufacturing as well as in teaching, translation, interpreting, and the growing travel industry. In the United States or other Western countries with large Chinese communities, it can also lead to an increase rapport with Chinese employees that may be learning English or with contacts in companies abroad. With Asian economies growing significantly, learning Chinese greatly improves one's chances of success in job markets dealing with these economies. Studying Chinese can be a creative task, as well as an important one.

Although frequently and increasingly censored, the internet in China has played a considerable role in the development and usage of Chinese and English in China itself, and more broadly. During the late 1980s and 1990s, many Chinese postgraduate students were studying in the United States. Wei Wu discusses the development of the internet as a means for these students to keep in touch with each other in a rather strange intellectual environment. In March, 1989, two Chinese students in Canada proposed a plan for a communication network in North America. The small group quickly created an internet, *China News Digest (CND)* which quickly reached an early list of 400 readers. Later, several other Chinese networks emerged in the US and Canada, building their own North American cyber community (1998). In 2001, there were approximately 80 million internet users in China. At the end of 2009, there were 339 million internet users in China, with 42 million new users in the first half of the year. While English accounts for 80% of language use on the internet, 10% is accounted for by the Chinese language, and the other 10% represents all other languages used on the internet. The Chinese Baidu and American Google search engines have been in intense competition for several years. Baidu has consistently been well ahead of Google in Chinese market shares. Because of cyber attacks against Google in 2008 and 2009, Google is considering pulling out of China. This would be a serious loss for Chinese intellectuals and students.

However, we cannot ignore the other side of the Chinese popularity. When one wonders if Chinese will eventually overtake English as the global language, he or she has to realize that Chinese is already the most widely spoken language in the world, but that is because of the vast population of China. Outside the Chinese mainland, one wonders how many people have a basic or working knowledge of Chinese, either by choice or by compulsion? English on the other hand, is spoken by roughly 350 million people across the world and is gaining popularity in terms of usage and adaptability, even in China. It's a well-known fact that there is huge demand for English speaking professionals in China who can facilitate international business. There is also an acute demand for English teachers who can make the Chinese students better equipped for modern-day business and life. So from emerging trends, it seems evident that Chinese is not poised to overtake English as the most dominant global language, at least anytime soon. However, Chinese appears to be an equal partner with English as one of the two most significant languages globally. Admittedly, the Chinese economy is strong enough to boost the cause and popularity of its language, just as English did. But, it is possible that China's resurgent economy is a result of its ability to adapt to others' languages and way of work rather than the imposition of the Chinese language on other countries.

IV. THE ROLE OF ENGLISH AS A DOMINANT GLOBAL LANGUAGE

The author has already noted in Tables 1 the relationship of Chinese and English for the world's top 10 languages and 2, the relationship Chinese and English for the 9 major world languages with the estimated largest number of speakers in the world. Let us now consider the world speakers of English in a map of the world.

TABLE 3:
WORLD SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH (BLUE)

World speakers of English (blue)



Eric V. Gunnemark's *Countries, People and Their Languages* (a Geolinguistic Handbook).

Aixa L. Rodriguez-Rodriguez stresses that industrialized nations, multinational corporations, and technological advancement all tend arrogantly to define globalization as universal, comprehensive, democratic, and all inclusive, but she believes that they actually mean these terms only in relation to their own interests, and not for less developed or emerging nations, traditional “have nots” such as women, minorities, and otherwise marginalized people. She argues that computer mediated communication through the internet cannot meet all of these definitions since English is the overwhelmingly dominant and therefore imperialistic language (1998).

The “China threat” concept probably would include both China and Chinese as a global language as a risk to the US and English and other dominant European global languages by such authors as Edward Timberlake and William C. Triplett II (1989); Richard Bernstein and Ross H. Munroe (1997), Bill Gertz “(2002); Herbert Yee and Ian Storey (2004) Dore Gold (2004), Hui Wang, Theodore Hutters, and Rebecca E. Karl (2006), Minqi Li (2008), Martin Jacques (2009), Zachary Karabell (2009), Hui Wang (2010), and John Naisbitt and Doris Naisbitt (2010) and many others. Shengyong Zhang’s MA thesis discusses the role of the United States Congressional Commission on Chinese security which issues an annual report identifying a genuine congressional concern about China’s potential threat to the US (2009). In contrast, a frequent reader of *China Daily* and other government controlled newspapers in the mainland of China would recognize that many of the Chinese authors writing either as opinion columnists, or as news reporters, or even in the political cartoons on the editorial page have an anti US bias. Even prestigious academic Chinese scholars writing in the *Journal of Middle Eastern and Islamic Studies (in Asia)* for which Prosser is an editorial board member, worry consistently about the US as a long term threat to China. Although most of the books and articles may not explicitly tie the counter threat to the domination of one global language over the other, implicitly if one country is strongly criticized as arrogantly dominant over the other, then there is a threat also to the global language which each country represents as also hegemonic over the other.

Recognizing the problem of terms like “non-western cultures” as a potentially culturally imperialistic English usage on the part of Western academics, Prosser, when he was editor of *Today’s Speech: The Journal of the Eastern Speech Association* cited Theodore De Bary, then Professor of Chinese and Japanese Thought at Columbia University, saying that the designation of “non-western cultures” was as irrelevant and arrogant as saying that Jewish, Protestant, and oriental religions could be referred to as “non-Catholic.” At the same time, many western universities and academic organizations were seriously promoting “non-Western culture” studies, for example, Harvard University, the East-West Center at the University of Hawaii, McGill University, UCLA, and the American universities in Iran, Turkey, Egypt, and Morocco, as well as The Middle East Studies Association, the Far Eastern Studies Association, the American Political Science Association, and the American Sociological Association. Therefore, Prosser, in his role as editor, for want of a better designation, centered one whole issue of *Today’s Speech* on “non-western cultures” (1969).

So we can see that just as the notions of a “non-western” approach or of China threats to the US and US threats to China may be relative and negative semantic concepts, so too may be the idea that such European global languages as English, French, Portuguese and Spanish, because of an initial colonialistic heritage as imperialistic may be now also be an outdated concept. Whether these languages should have achieved global language status is now less the issue than the fact that these European languages have indeed achieved this role, and that English remains certainly the dominant language among these European languages.

Nobleza Asuncion-Lande directly confronts the issue of the English language as dominant and therefore imperialistic. She points out that linguistic usages can certainly denote and distinguish a dominant cultural pattern, for example, with English expressing individualism, competitiveness, and democracy and Chinese and Southeastern Asian

languages expressing collectivity, harmony and kinship: "A culture's linguistic system thus provides us with a sense of who its people are, and how and what they think." She continues: "Language can be viewed as a demarcation line between social classes. Many former colonies of Britain, France, Spain, Portugal and the United States have chosen to retain the languages of their colonizers as one of, or the official languages. These have also been adopted as the medium of communication among the elites, and confer to their speakers positions of status as well as mark them as educated and privileged" (1998, pp. 68-70).

Addressing the concept of the globalization of English, Asuncion-Lande says very strongly: "The emergence of English as the world's lingua franca is an unprecedented phenomenon in the history of linguistics.... English is ... the sole medium of communication of numerous international and regional organizations.... English is the dominant language of cyberspace.... The dominance of English speaking media throughout the world is quite evident when one travels in non-English speaking countries.... The export of popular culture in English is growing at a fast pace.... In the realm of advertising, English appears to be the dominant language" (1998, pp. 72-74). She proposes that English, has in fact, become *culture*. Asuncion-Lande postulates that "live cultures are dynamic entities in contact with each other, exchanging, adopting, absorbing and discarding features that are found to be unproductive or irrelevant to new realities....[The] prospects for English as the dominant language of intercultural communication at least in the early part of the twenty-first century remains undiminished. English has developed its own momentum, aided by developments in information technology and growing interactions in world economy. No other language has achieved such a status or is likely to do so in the foreseeable future." (1998, pp. 79-80). She concludes: "The acceptance of its dominance by the world at large suggests the growth of a commonality, of values and norms between nations and cultures.... It [English] has become an international property that no one country can claim as its own" (pp. 75, 75, 79-80).

Power is of course a major component both in the internationalization and globalization of dominant languages, whether of a European origin, or in contrast, an Asian language such as Chinese throughout the world. This can have both positive and negative consequences. Just as Rodriguez-Rodriguez has noted, Asuncion-Lande agrees that the ability of English usage can be seen as pro-elite and anti-poor in nonnative English speaking countries throughout the world. Additionally, She points out that the emergence of "New Englishes" (for example, Philippine English, Indian English, Singapore English, or Nigerian English, to name a few) over time raises not only the question of whether there is a standard English on a world-wide basis. It is fair to say that on a spoken level, it is often difficult to understand different New Englishes, or sometimes even between people from the common native speakers of English from one country to the next, however, with some effort, such spoken English can be understood, and the written English can almost always be understood without great difficulty.

Many countries, often former British European (such as in Africa, or Asia or American colonies (such as the Philippines) which have long since adopted English as the official or preferred language (or French, Spanish, or Portuguese in their former colonies, for example), or have returned to English as the dominant language, have done so primarily to maintain an economic edge over other countries in the global marketplace. Asuncion-Lande notes Singapore, now one of the leading economic powers in Asia. Noting the argument against English as a neutral language in a world context, nevertheless, it is in fact a dominant global language, and in her perspective, it is THE dominant global language. In fact, Asuncion-Lande argues that not only is English THE dominant global language, but that American English is the world's lingua franca (pp.79).

The most recent SIL, Ethologue statistics indicate that there are a total of 478,367, 215 speakers of English, including native speakers, second and third English language speakers. This number is likely to be grossly underestimated as many citizens such as those in India or Nigeria with several official languages are likely to identify another language as their primary language. Among native speakers, the following represent the eight largest countries: 1.US: 280,000,000; 2. India: 100,000,000; 3. UK: 55,000,000; 4. Canada: 17, 100,000; 5. Australia: 15,682,000; 6. South Africa: 3,500,000; 7. New Zealand: 3, 203, 000; 8. Ireland: 2,600,000 (2009).

V. ENGLISH IN THE CHINESE CONTEXT

While there many examples that can be offered about the spread of English, in this final section, we wish only to discuss it in the context of China which has been a very important development since the early 1970's, and increasingly so since the opening up of China in 1978 and 1985. While the newer American passports have requests for safe passage in English, French, and now also Spanish, the Chinese passport has the same request both in Chinese and English. Most major roads and express roads in China have signs with both Chinese and English information. Using *pinyin*, many stores now have signs both in Chinese and English.

As we have mentioned, there are 350 million learners of English in China, more than the total populations of the US, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. The Ministry of Education reports that in 1999, there were 145 million pupils in Chinese primary schools and 91 million students in Chinese secondary schools and in 2002, there were 12 million college and university students. The United Nations Development Program indicated in 2003 that China had 116,390 kindergarten classes, with 613, 000 teachers and 20 million students; 425,846 million primary schools, with 5.7 million teachers, and 116, 8 million students, with a 51% increase from 1998 to 2007. Most of China's better primary schools now begin teaching elementary English in the third grade. General secondary education included 79,490 schools, with 4.5 million teachers, and 85.8million students, plus 3, 065 special secondary schools, 199,000 teachers and 5 million

students. If students did not begin learning English earlier, at least by the age of about twelve, they will have begun the process of learning English. In 2003, there were 1,552 institutions of higher education, with 725,000 teachers, and 11 million students. This number surpassed 2,236 institutions in 2007, with more than 18.9 million undergraduates, and 1.2 million postgraduate students. Because of China's emphasis on science and engineering, as the foundation in the early 1980's of the Four Modernizations and President Jiang Zemin's "3 Represents," each year 450,000 engineering students graduate from engineering programs, 50,000 with master's degrees, and 8,000 with Ph.D. degrees. All Chinese applicants for China's university admission or postgraduate programs must pass at least a written exam in English and in the college or university as undergraduates as sophomores they must pass English Band C 4, and many take English Band C 6 or other English certificate programs to enhance their opportunities for employment in international trade. Robin K. Cooper writes that in 2009 there were 671, 616 international students studying in the US, spending \$17 billion for tuition, travel, and living expenses, with 98,500 Chinese undergraduates studying in American universities (plus the postgraduates), a 21% increase over 2008 (Facebox, Education in China, 2010, 01, 15, see also Internet Reuters, 2008, 12, 12; *UN Human Development Report* 2009).

Besides pupils and students enrolled in all levels of formal education, companies teaching English in China are among the most prosperous businesses. The New Oriental School (New Oriental Education and Technology Group), the largest private education company in China, founded by Michael Yu in 1993 is a primary example. Before the end of 2009, 7 million students were enrolled, including 1.5million in 2009, with 270 learning centers, including 48 schools, 23 New Oriental bookstores, plus 5,000 third party book stores, and approximately 5200 teachers in 40cities, and an online network of 5million registered users. Nearly 100,000 copies of *New Oriental Magazine* are sold monthly (www.NewOrientalSchool.com, 2010)

China's former Minister of Education, Zhou Li, has identified three major proposals for the reform in the teaching of English, noting that "The Ministry of Education and the universities have always attached great importance to the teaching of English to enable Chinese students to communicate in the language and develop a global vision." (Zhou, 2006, pp. 95-96). Thus, the Ministry has provided three major proposals:

First, the Ministry of Education has set new basic requirements for teaching English, with practicality and the students' comprehensive ability to use the language as the guideline. According to the new requirements, the teaching of English should shift its focus on reading to comprehension, and the traditional curriculum should be reformed to give universities autonomy and space for development.

The second proposal is to establish a campus-based English teaching network. The traditional reading mode of a blackboard, a piece of chalk and a textbook should be replaced by modern education technology to improve the students' self-learning ability.

The third proposal is to develop a new evaluation system to assess the teaching of English in colleges at different levels, from different angles, and during different processes. For example, evaluation should the students' learning process as well as their final examination. The teachers' work should be evaluated with reference to the students' progress. The Band Four and Band Six college English tests should also be further reformed to help students improve their ability to use the language. (Zhou, 2006, p. 96).

As we have noted, all college and university students in China must take and pass the CET-4 band test in English, usually in their second year of study. Many others take the CET-6 band test to provide themselves this credential for later study or employment, especially for international trade companies, most of which require a written test and often an oral test before candidates are chosen to work there. Among the large number of texts preparing students to take either the CET 4 or 6 exams, typically on a formulaic framework (title, topic sentence or paragraph, a main paragraph with pros and cons on the topic, a final summary paragraph, expressions of one's own views or most likely solutions to a stated problem), Zhou, Prosser, and Lu created a text with cross-cultural Chinese and American essays by Prosser and Lu, plus Chinese and American student writers, and cross-cultural analysis by Prosser (2003).

In addition to the reforms in moving English from a reading language to a comprehensively understood and spoken language, Ji also noted the Chinese Ministry of Education's 2001 reforms in bilingual education among China's colleges and universities which was intended to teach a number of subjects to actively promote the use of English and some other foreign languages in the teaching of such fields of study as biotechnology, information technology, law, and finance and other specialty courses for undergraduates. In 2001, China began to send faculty of basic subjects to English native language countries to improve their English and subject-based training. By 2004, university and other presses had greatly expanded their English language text books, with more than 1400 computer science texts alone (Ji, 2006, pp. 96).

Jia and Jia stress that it is not enough simply to say that Chinese are learning English, but that the symbols which are a part of the social processes have meaning only in the context of cultural and social settings, thus requiring an understanding the social, cultural, political and ethnic boundaries through the communicative processes that inform them: "The situation at present is that Anglo-American English has been considered as Standard English...and as a lingua franca in the Chinese cultural context...This variety of English used by the Chinese is generally called China English, which develops from both internationalization and indigenization of Anglo-American English. It has the native-speaker based world of English as its core system but integrates with Chinese symbolic systems, underpinned with Chinese cultural values." They argue that "English is used for every aspect of life in China. This is of great

significance for both China and the international community, because China and the world need to enter one another's world in their pursuit of peace and further development. Without China-English, communication between China and the world is almost impossible today" (2007).

VI. CONCLUSION

Many inventions which were expected to be the signs of the future in 2000 have now been seen as obsolete. ImpactLab has proposed that momentous global changes can also be expected in the second decade of the twenty-first century. Cautiously predictive, it has been argued that the dominant characteristics in 2020 could well be: "four key aspects of second decade can be discerned. The rise of China; the (relative) decline of the US; the expanding role of the global south; and finally, possibly most dramatically, the increasing impact of a roiling environment and growing resource scarcity" (2010, 01, 12).

Certainly in terms of the first prediction, we can argue that while the nineteenth century might have been called the British century, because of the industrial revolution; the twentieth century could have been called the American century, because of its increasing superpower, and perhaps even hyperpower status after the end of WWII; then the twenty-first century might realistically be called the Asian century, given the rising economic status of both China and India, representing a population of more than one fourth of the world's total number of people. A number of writers have also suggested that in fact the current century might be called the China century, because of its increasing dominance internationally and globally in many of its endeavors.

Understanding, that the second prediction notes that the US will be relatively weaker by 2020, this depends upon a great extent whether the United States can help to solve the major global and regional issues through unified efforts with other leading international stakeholders. Additionally, in the event that Barack Obama succeeds in leading the US out of recession, can help solve the many domestic issues facing the American people and can work effectively with other world leaders, determines if former Secretary of State Colin Powell's statement in the last week of the 2008 election that Obama is "a culturally transformational figure" actually develops over time. Prosser, following Powell's statement, has recently argued that Obama has exhibited culturally transformational identities and accommodations in his approach to the Middle East and Islam (2009).

When Obama received the 2009 Nobel Prize for Peace, the Oslo committee determined that it was in anticipation that he could help to bring about a world of greater peace, especially in the Middle East. The third prediction of the expansion of the role of the global south seems very realistic, noting the growth of various regional international organizations, and seeing the development of a G20, incorporating such emerging powers as Brazil, China, India, and South Africa, in its efforts to solve the world economic crisis beginning in 2008, or earlier. Finally, the last prediction, about the roiling environment and growing resource scarcity, seems highly reliable, as has been noted in the December, 2009 Copenhagen UN conference on climate change, which unfortunately was unsuccessful, but has the possibility of at least a start in international negotiations toward productive solutions to the enveloping crisis. It is also clear that resource scarcity is a growing threat in many areas such as sustainable development, food and water resources, and other energy sources.

Finally, the author notes the ideas expressed in their joint article in *The Wall Street Journal*, by US Secretary of State Hilary Clinton and US Secretary of Treasury Timothy Geithner. Initially, calling for "A new strategic and economic dialogue China," they indicate that "Today's China's GDP tops four trillion dollars, thousands of emails and cellphone calls cross the Pacific Ocean daily, and by next year [2010] there will be 249 direct flights per week between the U.S. and China." They continue: "In April [2009], President Barack Obama and President Hu Jintao announced new dialogue as part of the administration's efforts to build a positive, cooperative and comprehensive relationship with Beijing." Stressing their major point, Clinton and Geithner, recognizing that three main points for dialogue include recovery from the global economic crisis; the interconnected issues of climate change, energy, and the environment; and finding complementary approaches to security and development challenges in the region and across the globe, argue: "Simply put, few global problems can be solved by the U.S. or China alone. And few can be solved without the U.S. and China together. The strength of the global economy, the health of the global environment, the stability of fragile states and the solution to nonproliferation challenges turn in large measure on cooperation between the U.S. and China." Concluding their article, they state: "The Chinese have a wise aphorism, 'When you are in a common boat you need to cross the river peacefully together.' Today, we will join our Chinese counterparts in grabbing an oar and starting to row" (2009, 07, 27).

Clinton and Geithner's article suggests why we have chosen to discuss the G2 languages: Chinese and English in this article as a significant aspect of the growing importance of China and the US, moving beyond their influence globally to what may be the most likely situation in the next decade: China and the US, and Chinese and the English as the two most global languages.

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The Use of Literary Works in an EFL Class

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Abstract—English literature has not been considered a useful teaching tool in the EFL classrooms of many non-English speaking countries. This is because teaching L2 largely has been regarded as a matter of linguistics. However, Arthur (2006, p.200) points out, “Through the use of literature, a language learning experience might become at the same time a source of immediate pleasure and satisfaction for the student. This possibility makes literature an appealing teaching device for ESL teachers”. Certainly, today’s English teaching can have an intimate connection to literary works. Reading literature has a vital role to play in teaching foreign language readers that English is a rich, living language, and that literary works such as poems, short stories, novels, and plays are full of feelings and emotions, imagination and creativity. Nonetheless, while literature usage may motivate and encourage language acquisition, teachers should know how to utilize it. This paper provides a review of ideas and research regarding the role of literature in the EFL classroom. To this end, utilizing literature in the EFL classroom and the variety of approaches which can be employed are presented.

Index Terms—literary works, EFL learners, literature

I. INTRODUCTION

English literature has not been considered a useful teaching tool in the EFL classrooms of many non-English speaking countries. This is because teaching L2 largely has been regarded as a matter of linguistics. The English teaching activity in public schools of these countries mainly focuses on teaching grammar. Following some general explanations of the rules of grammar, teachers assign the students drills consisting of unrelated sentences, and the students memorize the grammar rules. As for reading, special course hours are not devoted to developing the reading skills of the students. Dull textbook passages are used in the classroom. Vocabulary words are distributed, and the students are asked to memorize them. Then, the teacher asks questions about the reading. The answers to the questions are quickly found in the text without any specific attention. The students do not have to infer anything from the passage. Almost nothing is done to develop the students’ writing and speaking skills. In this system, teaching English is teacher-centered, and the students in these schools only memorize linguistic forms (grammar and vocabulary), instead of internalizing them. So, when the students are required to write or speak, they cannot produce anything.

While Hill asserts “In the sixties and seventies, in fact, there was a distinct reaction against the use of any literary English at all in the classroom, but now the pendulum has swung the other way ...” (1994, p.7), Arthur rejects him “Through the use of literature, a language learning experience might become at the same time a source of immediate pleasure and satisfaction for the student. This possibility makes literature an appealing teaching device for ESL teachers” (Arthur, 2006, p. 200).

Finding literary texts “difficult”, “hard to understand”, and “not relevant” to students’ lives are the main complaints from teachers and curriculum writers. A stanza from one of Shakespeare’s poems might not be so easy to understand for the L2 student. They might even drop out of their language education in frustration. Many EFL teachers and students see literature as a hindrance because the literary language is viewed as incomprehensible. The long texts of literary works are also often seen as one of the major difficulties. Besides, vocabulary and grammatical structures of these texts are often considered to be too complicated.

Another problem of using literary texts in EFL classrooms concerns culture. Duff and Maley (1990, p. 7), claim that cultural factors can present difficulties in a way that “it is clearly impossible for outsiders to share fully the range of references of an insider”. The texts of literary works can also cause problems if they are viewed as “carrying an undesirable freight of cultural connotations” (Collie and Slater, 1987, p. 2). It is commonly understood that a language involves not only knowledge of grammar, phonology, and lexis, but also certain features and characteristics of the culture. Since every culture has its own norms for conversation and these norms differ from one culture to another, some of the norms can be completely different and conflict with other cultures’ norms.

II. DEFINITION OF ADVANTAGES OF LITERATURE

The negative point of views mentioned above might be caused by the lack of knowledge on the advantages of using literature, the criteria for selecting literary texts, and how to use the texts in classrooms. Better we have a look on these issues briefly; we can see the problems involved in using literature in EFL classrooms. Understanding these problems

precisely will enable us to identify the areas where teachers need to improve most in order to make the best use of literature in English teaching.

Features of Literature

1. Language Enrichment: Texts of literary works describe “things which mattered to the author when he or she wrote them”. Compared to the language samples in the textbooks, the language is far richer and more varied.

By asking students to explore the literary language, they will be encouraged to familiarize themselves with different language uses, forms, or conventions.

2. Cultural Enrichment: Literature also is a doorway into another culture, giving students the opportunity to eventually understand and appreciate cultures and ideologies different from their own. Students also can come to perceive traditions of thought, feeling, and artistic form within the heritage the literature of such cultures endows.

3. Authentic Material: Literature includes all possible varieties of subject matter and language that might be intrinsically interesting. The texts are nontrivial, because they cover many significant themes and contexts which are missing in most EFL textbooks (Duff and Maley, 1990, p. 6).

4. Personal Involvement: Helping students see how literature relates to their lives usually makes them like literature. Texts of literary works are open to multiple interpretation and genuine interaction. When they try to comprehend the meaning of the text, learners must make inferences, drawing on both the content of the reading and their own experience. The use of literature yields many benefits. The most important justification is that literature can educate the whole person (Lazar, 1993, p. 19). Literature sharpens linguistic and cognitive skills and provides for some deepening of the students’ understanding of the human condition.

Roger Sell (1995, p.8) points out that “From the point of view of language education, the most important implication is that a knowledge of linguistic form – of words and grammar – is not enough. For the purposes of both comprehension and production, a learner also needs to develop a fully internalized grasp of the social and cultural environments within which the language in question is actually used”. He adds as well that “We know what the language means because, in certain types of context and language use within the culture, certain signifieds are associated with certain signifiers, and because language is used in certain ways in certain situational contexts” (Sell, 1995, p.9).

III. HOW TO SELECT TEXTS FROM LITERARY WORKS

To minimize these difficulties, teachers should select appropriate texts from literary works for their students following these criteria:

1. Language proficiency: Teachers should select the texts of literary works from within students’ language proficiencies. If the students are not linguistically ready to deal with such texts, they can become frustrated. When the language of the literary work is quite straightforward and on the linguistic level of the students, they will want to read more literature and will find these texts more relevant to their experience. The abstract language of poetry and the length of novels may create problems in overcrowded classes. Employing literature so that students find it useful and enjoyable is a challenge for teachers in ESL classes.

2. Time availability: Drama can be used in classes, but it will be difficult to act out a play in crowded classes within limited course hours. Teachers should consider whether the texts can be integrated in the amount of class time available. When selecting texts from literary works, teachers should bear in mind whether they have enough time available to work on texts in class, how long students have to work on the text at home (reading), and how much background information on the text the teacher will need to provide.

3. Cultural Competence: The texts selected also should be within the teachers’ and students’ competence culturally. According to Carter and Long’s (1991, p.142) perspective, the theme of the texts must relate to some extent to the country or culture of the readers. Such literary works can touch upon a wide range of meaningful topics as identity, alienation, cultural clashes, and generational conflicts. Works of literature provide broad access to cultural experience.

4. Short story: The brevity of the text is important for the students because they will see that they can read, understand, and complete something in English. This will give the students a feeling of achievement and self-confidence. The aim of using the short story in teaching English is to encourage students to use what they have previously learned, and therefore, it is a student-centered teaching. Cultural elements in a literary text should be taken into consideration when choosing the text. The stories by English or American writers set in countries other than England and the United States, and reflecting the culture of these countries, will not be recommended to use in class, since developing cross-cultural understanding is not the aim of using the short story in ESL classes.

5. Personal involvement: Selecting texts that can stimulate a kind of personal involvement and arouse the learners’ interest is very crucial too. If the learners’ ideas, experiences, and needs are completely at variance with what they are asked to read, it is useless to expect them to be motivated. Sandra Lee McKay (2001, p. 322) and Wilga Rivers (1968, p. 230) point out that students read and enjoy a text if the subject-matter of the text is relevant to their life experience and interests. Recent trends in literary criticism have moved away from worrying about definitions and objectives for teaching literature and have focused more on pedagogy.

Recent L2 reading research shows that extensive reading helps improve students’ L2 language proficiency by focusing on the overall meaning of the text, rather than on linguistic aspects of the texts (Day & Bamford, 1998). This reading-for-meaning can be divided into two categories: efferent reading and aesthetic reading (Rosenblatt, 1978). The

former type of reading aims at gaining information in a text, while the latter type aims at enjoying the experience of reading. Though these two reading positions are not mutually exclusive, efferent reading can be beneficial when students read such materials as newspapers and academic articles, while aesthetic reading can be more suited for reading literature.

The aesthetic reading of literature increases student motivation and further develops reading proficiency. Aesthetic reading also can be beneficial to writing and speaking. Aesthetic reading can be used not only for reading classes but can be successfully incorporated into writing and speaking classes as well.

Furthermore, literature develops the learner's interpretive abilities. Through literature, the learner can be encouraged to make inferences, understand multiple levels of meaning, and develop skills in critical thinking, as well as learn to accept ambiguities in the text. As Whalen (2010, p.11) points out, "reading narratives as literary works aids in cognitive development and critical thinking". In other words, literature expands the student's language and emotional awareness by simulating their imagination and help in developing critical skills.

Elsewhere, Jennifer Hill (1994) mentions three reasons for using literature as extensive reading:

- the possibility of internalizing the language and reinforcing points previously learned,
- a genuine language context and a focal point for the students in their own efforts to communicate, and
- motivation.

English reading should be meaningful for students so that reading does not simply mean language decoding activities and mechanical drills. Literature study also can provide a range of texts and an introduction to the many different varieties of English (p. 7).

A major problem of language teaching in the classroom is the creation of an authentic situation for language. A language classroom, especially one outside the community of native speakers, is isolated from the context of events and situations that produce natural language. In the case of literature, language creates its own context. The actual situation of the reader becomes immaterial as he or she takes on what D. W. Harding calls 'the role of the onlooker', looking on the events created by language. These events create, in turn, a context of situation for the language of the book and enable it to transcend the artificial classroom situation (p. 179).

Aside from the length of the work, there are some other important criteria that must be considered while choosing the text. Hill (1994, p. 15) points out the basic criteria to be kept in mind while choosing a literary text as follows:

- the needs and abilities of the students,
- the linguistic and stylistic level of the text, and
- the amount of background information required for a true appreciation of the material.

The vocabulary and sentence structure of the short story to be studied must be suitable to the level of the students. Short stories with archaic language, slang, foreign words, allusions, or language that imitates the speech of a particular locality, uneducated people, or foreigners must be avoided. Similarly, very long sentences are difficult for students to understand. As students will not understand these sentences and words, they will get bored and not read the work.

IV. HOW TO TEACH LITERATURE IN AN EFL CLASS

A. Lesson Plan

This sort of lesson plan works well for excerpts from short stories:

1. Step one: Warm up

Warm up the students for the topic of the excerpt. This could take several forms: a short discussion that students do in pairs, a whole class discussion, a guessing game between you and the class, or a brainstorming of vocabulary around that topic.

2. Step two: Before reading

- Pre-teach very difficult words (Note: Pre-teaching vocabulary should be approached with caution. Often teachers "kill" a text by spending too much time on the pre-teaching stage. Limit the amount of words you cover in this stage. If you have to teach more than seven or eight, there is a good chance the text will be too difficult.)

- Read the first bit of the excerpt (with their books closed or papers turned over) at normal speed, even quickly. Ask students to compare what they have understood in pairs. Then ask them to report back to you. Repeat the first bit again. Then ask them to open the book (or turn over the page) and read it for themselves.

3. Step three: Understanding the text, general comprehension

Read the whole thing to the students so that they can get more of a "feel" for the text. Then let the students read it to themselves. It is important to let students approach a piece of literature the first time without giving them any specific task other than to simply read it. Then ask comprehension questions or ask them to explain the significance of certain key words of the text. Another way to check comprehension is to ask students to explain to each other (in pairs) what they have understood. This could be followed up by more subjective questions (e.g.: Why do you think X said this?)

4. Step four: Understanding the language

At this stage, come to grips with the more difficult words in the text. See how many of the unfamiliar words students can get from context. Give them clues. Then look at the connotation of the words the author has chosen.

5. Step five: Follow-up activities

- Have a discussion on issues the short story raised and how they relate to the students' lives.

B. Using Excerpts from Stories or Short Stories

- Ask students to write what they think will happen next, or what they think happened just before.
- Ask students to write a background character description of one of the characters which explains why they are the way they are.
- Ask students to personalize the text by discussing if anything similar has happened to them.
- Ask students to improvise a role play between two characters in the book.

V. CONCLUSION

Literature may motivate and encourage language acquisition. Certainly, English teaching today can have an intimate connection to literary works. Reading literature has a vital role to play in teaching foreign language readers that English is a rich, living language, and that literary works such as poems, short stories, novels, and plays are full of feelings and emotions, imagination and creativity.

Among literary forms, the short story seems to be the most suitable one to use in public high schools in teaching English. But stories that require detailed background knowledge will be difficult for students to understand it and they will get bored. The teacher should choose a story that students can follow easily. As Alemi (2010,p.28) points out “selecting a difficult short story from a well-known writer such as T.S. Eliot as a teaching tool for EFL students is a challenging approach”. Thus, the difficulty level of a literary work should match the proficiency level of the students.

Besides, evaluation shouldn't immediately follow the reading of the passage. Students may become accustomed to taking a test just after reading a text and may anticipate it rather than simply enjoying the story. If they don't enjoy the story or the literary text, they may stray from learning the language. Moreover, as Bagherkazemi & Alemi (2010, p. 11) state “EFL material developers, syllabus designers and teachers should select the most appropriate approach or combination of approaches, design activities and tasks and make the most out of literature to enhance language learning and teaching by analyzing the idiosyncratic features of the classroom, educational system and culture in which they will be used”.

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A Picture within the Picture—Working through “Stopping by Woods on a Snow Evening”

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Abstract—Robert Frost's poem "Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening" begins with a seemingly simple incident, but ends by suggesting meanings far beyond anything specifically referred to in the narrative. A tentative analysis of this poem is implemented from the aspects of rhyme scheme, diction and image, which contribute to the depiction of a picture or an episode within the picture. That deepens the theme of human ambivalence and its conflicts.

Index Terms—Robert Frost, tentative analysis, rhyme scheme, diction, image

In Robert Frost, the American people found their poet, their singer, and their seer. In the ripeness of his years, Robert Frost was claimed as few artists have been during their lifetime: his government officially recognized his greatness as a man and poet, and critics hailed his poems as “modern classics”. He was four times winner of the Pulitzer Prize for poetry, recipient of the Medal of Honor from the American Congress and of many other high awards and a veritable shower of honorary degrees from colleges and universities in the United States and abroad. At eighty-six, he reached the highest point of recognition, when he was chosen as inaugural poet for President John Kennedy.

Frost is the poet of New England country and farm life. His poems are smooth, easy, and informal and as much like common speech as possible, but they are not as simple as they seem to be.

“Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening” is one of his poems which is thought to be a master lyric of English language. The poem appears very simple, but it has hidden meaning to it. The simple words and rhyme scheme give it an easy flow, which adds to the calmness of the poem. The rhythm (iambic tetrameter) and the rhyme scheme (aaba bccb ccdd dddd) give the poem a solid structure. As Frost's loveliest lyric, this poem is mainly a picture or an episode set within the picture.

The title “Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening” is a label, which tells what we're going to see and then we see it—A man driving a horse pauses beside a forest to watch the snow falling on it; his horse seems to want to keep moving, and the man decides he ought to move on although the scene is pretty, and even inviting.

In the first line—“whose woods these are I think I know”—Frost gives “mood” more prominence or power by moving “mood” to the start of the sentence. In the second line, “His house is in the village though”, the word “though” implies something and it rhymes with the word that ends the first line.

The rhyme scheme (aaba bccb ccdd dddd) in this poem is peculiar, which lies in that through the whole stanza. Frost doesn't rhyme the next line with anything nearby but that the forth line rhymes with the first and the second, tying the stanza together. Because we have the word “snow” ends a three-line sentence that makes snow the object of our attention. The last two lines of the stanza are a natural, inevitable journey to the culminating word “snow”. We soon realize that this is where we had to go, all the time. This inevitability is underlined by the rhyme, where “know” and “though” build up a sound-expectancy to culminate in “snow”.

The speaker's self-consciousness is the most important element in the first stanza. As the stanza ends we learn something besides the speaker's embarrassment; we learn his motive for stopping: “To watch his woods fill up with snow.” “Frost's language here is plain. Saying “fill up”, instead of “to see it snow in his trees” or “to look at the snow falling on his forest”, contributes to the image or picture made by the poet; “his woods” becomes a container—empty or partly empty—which snow can fill.

As mentioned, “here” doesn't rhyme with anything around it. If we hold the sound of the word in our ears, however, we are rewarded when we read the first line of the second stanza. We experience the pleasure of completing something begun earlier, like the moment in a piece of the music when a theme (or a phrase or a chord) returns. Rhyme in this poem holds parts together, linking stanzas more firmly than many poems try to do. The third line of each stanza unrhymed to the lines near it, rhymes with three of the lines in the stanza following. The four stanzas together are like four groups of four dancers doing the same dance, with one member of each foursome holding hands with the group beyond it.

The second stanza, picking up the “here” rhyme, tells us that the little horse (“little” sound affectionate; this person seems to care about his horse's feelings) “must think it queer”. The poet picks the word “must” as we use it in speech. The doubtful “must” is chosen because he knows a human cannot mindread his horse. The speaker in the poem attributes doubts to his horse because he himself believes it weird or eccentric to stop one's horse for good reason out in the middle of nowhere to watch snow falling in the darkness. The man's uneasiness shows in his self-mockery: even his

horse must think he is crazy.

As this stanza continues, ostensibly telling what the horse must think queer, the poet gives us more information, and he gives us information in images that carry feeling on their backs. The road passes between the woods—which are like a container filled with snow—and the frozen lake. While “Frozen” adds cold to the poem, the line also increases the solitude of the scene: the lane runs between wood and lake only, no houses or factories here, no inns or filling stations, just these cold natural things, on “The darkest evening of the year.”

In the third stanza, the little horse does what horses do; he shudders or shakes, standing still in the cold night, and to the driver who still feels foolish pausing to gaze at snow in the woods, the horse’s jingling harness bells seem like the horse’s reproach. The jingling is another image—so far we’ve had images of sight (to watch), of touch (frozen lake), and of sound (bells)—and now the sound images multiply: “the sweep/ Of easy wind and downy flake.” Frost’s images often appeal to more than one sense. If “frozen” is an image of cold in “frozen lake”, it is an image of sight also, because we know what a frozen lake looks like. And the “sweep” is a swooshing sound, but it’s also (at least distantly) a visual broom moving. The “easy wind” is light and gentle—easy as “full of ease”, like the softness of “downy” that “easy” is parallel to. “Down” gives us pleasure, it means a good many things; among other it means goose feathers, soft (touch) and white (vision). It gives us two kinds of image at once, and perhaps also distantly gives us an image of the snow as a great white bird. It is also a rural image, connected with barnyard and countryside. Finally, the word “down” works its power on us one more reason: it reminds us of the direction in which, relentlessly, snow must fall.

By the end of the third stanza, the poem has erected a dramatic conflict, like a story or a play. The conflict lives in the mind of the speaker, who thinks it queer to pause where he pauses; at the same time it is the speaker who stops to gaze into the “lovely” beauty of wood, exercising the other side of his feeling. He is “of two minds about it” in the old expression. In the final stanza, mind 1 writes the first line and mind 2 answers with the second, third and fourth; the mind with the most lines has the last word.

In our daily lives, we are often ambivalent—of two minds, sometimes of three or four—about what we do. Often two desires are in conflict; the woods are lovely, but I have duties. Human beings are ambivalent by nature: we often find ourselves headed in two directions at the same time. In our deepest selves we are never one-hundred percent “anything”, neither loving nor hating, and if we tell ourselves we are pure, we fool ourselves.

This poem expresses human ambivalence and its conflicts, it embodies with honest clarity true human ambivalence. It acts out a particular ambivalence with so much clarity that the poem in the reader’s mind can stand for other conflicts.

Many people find further complexities in this poem. Some readers have found this poem suicidal and claimed that it contains a wish to die. People have often tended to look for a death wish in Frost because in his life time Frost spoke about suicidal feelings. But I would boldly argue that should we therefore consider that the speaker takes the woods as a symbol for death and longs for the darkness of his own death? Not therefore, at any rate, for then we would be leaping from life to poem as if it were always possible to make equations between the facts of the life and the facts of the poem.

First, we have the statement of attraction: “These woods are lovely, dark and deep.” The word “lovely” has the word “love” in it, as “downy” inclined “down”. So the woods pertain somehow to love. “Dark” and “deep” go together, not just for their alliteration. The woods are dark in this evening, filling up with snow that by definition is white; and they are deep, like a vessel with room for the filling. The woods are mysterious, perhaps a place suitable for hiding, and his sensation of mystery has an attraction like the attraction people feel for each other; so the woods are “lovely”. “Dark and deep” work together as a double adjective, explaining the kind of “lovely”. How differently the line would be if Frost had punctuated it differently and used a comma after “dark”. “The woods are lovely, dark and deep”—makes a different sound, and even a different meaning: the extra comma makes the three adjectives enumerate separate qualities of the wood; in the line as Frost wrote it, instead, we have a rush of feeling. The three adjectives in this line reinforce one another; not only do they present two different aspects of nature, but they also reveal the Speaker’s contradictory attitude toward nature.

The attraction of the beauty of nature makes the speaker stop in his journey. He finally turns away from it, with a certain weariness and yet with quiet determination, to face the needs and demands of life. This stresses the central conflict of the poem between man’s enjoyment of nature’s beauty and his responsibilities in society. Apparently the feeling in this poem are universal, and all of us find in ourselves on occasion a desire to abandon the track of duty, the track of the everyday, and to embrace the peace of nothingness. “The peace of nothingness” does not necessarily mean death. It may be a feeling that for some people apparently sounds suicidal—and for others merely sleepy. If all of us sometimes desire what we might call peace or oblivion, such feeling is not entirely different from the desire to die. Perhaps sleep—“death’s second self” as Shakespeare called it—will satisfy the desire. The speaker in this poem expresses a taste for darkness that resembles the wish to die but does not duplicate it to find a death wish in this poem is only an exaggeration, in my opinion.

There is one force appearing in each stanza. The first three forces—the relation between the speaker and the woods owner’s world, the relation between him and the horse’s animal world, and that between him and nature. The easy wind is still breezing and downy flake is falling, but this has nothing to do with what the speaker is thinking. The phenomenon of Nature is out of people’s control. The speaker feels the darkest evening is calling forth him: enter the woods, let himself covered by the downy snow. It is so easy and beautiful. But another force indicated in the forth stanza makes him conscious and is waiting for the speaker’s decision. He is attracted by the beautiful scene, but

suddenly he is brought back into the reality by what so called enlightenment. So the force may be social obligation, personal promise, or it is only a kind of reminding that one can not live on passion.

While the word “sleep” reminds us of its literal and symbolic interpretation—many critics think that it could mean death. I’d like to interpret it as “the peace of nothingness” which I mean it brings together more sides of peace.

Looking back through the whole poem, we may find that this poem begins with a seemingly simple incident, but ends by suggesting meaning far beyond anything specifically referred to in the narrative. This corresponds to Frost’s own idea that a poem begins in delight and ends in wisdom. He consciously created an image of simplicity through both his poetry and his public appearance; Frost---a gentle poet of nature and rural life---depicted a picture or an episode within the picture.

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The Construction of an Ecological College English Class on the Basis of the Task-based Language Teaching Method

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Abstract—The Chinese college English class is inharmonious; therefore the ecology of the class is imbalanced which can be identified in the unequal relationship between the teacher and the students, the imbalanced quantity of “input” and “output”. The inharmonious class will discourage students to acquire English. In order to solve the problem the task-based language teaching method is adopted to construct a balanced ecological English class

Index Terms—ecology of class, task-based language teaching, task

I. REASONS FOR THE IMBALANCED COLLEGE ENGLISH CLASS

The concept of Ecological Class was first identified in Education Sociology published in 1932 by Waller, an American educationist (Zhang, 110). According to this concept the college English class can be viewed as a micro ecological environment composed by the teacher, students and the environment of class. Therefore if a factor in the ecology of the English class is destroyed, the English class will be inharmonious because of the imbalanced ecological system of class. It is not hard to find the present college English class is ecologically imbalanced and the reasons can be found in the following:

A. *The Unequal Relationship between the Teacher and Students*

In the traditional English class the teacher is the center of the class, who plays the role of an organizer, supervisor or director; however what students can do is just to follow the teacher's order passively, who are shy and afraid of the real class interaction. Therefore a teacher-centered class will not raise the students' passion to learn English, in which the students' personality can not be shown and their development can not be realized exhaustively. This type of class has lost ecological balance.

B. *The Imbalanced Relationship between “Input” and “Output”*

Restricted by the Chinese foreign language teaching environment in which students cannot learn English through the real “output”, Chinese college English teaching emphasizes particularly on “input” which is viewed as a key role for students' acquisition of English. Therefore the teacher controls the class and inputs English knowledge to students, which naturally makes students become the container of knowledge. The teacher's “one voice” in class has violated students' right of English output. In Swain's Output Hypothesis (Ellis, 1994), a successful foreign language learner needs a lot of comprehensive input as well as output for “output” can optimize “input”. Only when the relationship between “output” and “input” is harmonious, the class will become a balanced ecological class.

C. *The Incohesion of Learning and Practice*

Many students cannot communicate in English fluently and correctly even after passing College English Test Four or Six (CET4 or CET6). This is an embarrassing phenomenon which is caused by the test pressure on the teacher and students. Influenced by the test the English class teaching makes some students skilled in passing tests. What the students have learned in class is usually on the basis of the English textbook and the test papers of CET4 or CET6, which is not relate to students' daily life and their professional knowledge. Therefore it is impossible for students to apply what they have learned into practice. The incohesion of learning in class and practice after class breaks the balance of ecological class.

D. *An Oversimplified Assessment of Learning Effect*

The assessment of students' learning effect in college English class is too simple because the teacher usually evaluates students' learning effect on the basis of their class performance, their finished assignments and the scores of the tests. During the process of evaluation the teacher is the director while students are not responsible for it. This oversimplified assessment can neither stimulate students effectively to learn English nor bring them a strong sense of emotional experience and learning identity. Therefore a plural and interactive ecological assessment system should be

established in college English class.

II. THE CONSTRUCTION OF AN ECOLOGICAL COLLEGE ENGLISH CLASS BASED ON THE TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING METHOD

In order to construct an ecological college English class the teacher will take the following three responsibilities in the three steps of teaching respectively: in the preparation step, the teacher will design individualized tasks for students according to their interest and level of English; in the teaching step, the teacher will encourage and help students perform the tasks, so the learning process is changed into the performance of tasks. During the process students will output English consciously or unconsciously and the teacher's "one voice" class will become students "voices" class; finally in the assessment step, the teacher will set a standard for the assessment and then adopt a plural assessment system consisting of students' self-assessment, interactive assessment and the teacher's assessment together.

A. *The Preparation Step Consists of Preparing Students and the Textbook*

To construct an ecological English class in which the relationship between the teacher and students is equal and harmonious and the students' personality can be manifested, in the preparation step the teacher will prepare the textbook as well as students.

1. Preparing Students Is the Preliminary to the Design of Individualized Tasks

The teacher will study students before teaching, which consists of students' major, English level, cognitive style and learning motivation. And the process will enable the teacher design individualized learning tasks which are proven to be appropriate and acceptable to the students

2. Preparing the Textbook Is to Make It Appropriate to Students

Preparing the textbook involves the choice and understanding of it. After studying students the teacher can choose the right textbook according to the students' major and English level, which makes it possible for the students to practice what they have learnt in class so learning in class and practice after class are incohesive.

After choosing the right textbook, the teacher will study it as a whole and will design listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating tasks for students to perform in or after class. These tasks will make the textbook active, which will be more appropriate and acceptable to students.

B. *Tasks Change "One Voice" Class into "Students' Voices" Class*

The traditional college English class is "one voice" class which means only the teacher outputs English in class. This type of class violates students' right of outputting English. In order to encourage students to output English in class and change "one voice" into "student's voices" class, the teacher will design tasks and then help students to perform through which they will actively participate in the class activities like the topic introduction, language point analysis and text summary.

1. Tasks Involves Students in the Process of Topic Introduction

With the teacher's help students will perform different kinds of tasks, like "Data Collection" and "English Report". The teacher will assign students to collect some data relevant to the text after class based on the students' major, personality and the topic of the text and then require students to make an English report according to what they have collected. "Data Collection" enlarges the content of the textbook so it increases "input" in class; moreover, "English Report" offers more chances for students to "output" English. The teacher will aid students to perform these tasks and supplement student's reports to some extent.

2. Tasks Realizes Students' Autonomous Learning

Students will perform various tasks in class aided by the teacher, such as "Language Point Explanation Task", "Five-minute Writing Task", "Role-play Task" and "Dubbing Task".

"Language Point Explanation Task" refers to the task which requires students to play the role of a teacher to explain some certain language points that are unsolved deliberately in class. For performing the task, students need to refer to dictionaries or some reference books and write the "lecture notes". As a matter of fact this type of task offers an opportunity for students to play the role of a teacher which can help them take the responsibility of learning.

"Five-minute Writing Task" refers to the task that requires students to write a composition in five minutes under the teacher's guidance. The title of the composition can share the same title of the passage studied in class or be chosen by students according to their interest. Performing the task can promote students' time-limit writing ability.

"Role-play Task" refers to the task that requires students to rewrite some certain passages from the textbook with the teacher's help. After rewriting students will choose and play a role in the passage which appeals to them. That task aims to involve students in the passage by playing their favorite roles, which can help them understand the passage better.

"Dubbing Task" refers to the task that requires students to dub some excerpts from classic English movies or speeches chosen by the teacher who also helps students analyze the pitches and tones of the heroes or heroines. That task can improve students' pronunciation.

3. Tasks Encourages Students to Make a Text Summary

Students will perform discussion, debate and theme writing task, through which they are able to make a summary for what they have learnt in class.

When students are performing the tasks, the teacher may adjust the difficulty according to the students' reaction to the tasks. Students can perform the tasks individually, with a partner or in a group.

C. A Plural Assessment of Learning Effect Is Established

In the traditional college English class the assessment of learning effect for students is very simple since the teacher plays the sole role of evaluation while students are not involved in it. In an ecological college English class based on the task-based language teaching method the assessment of learning effect will depend on students' task performance. As practitioners of tasks students should be involved in the assessment.

Firstly, the teacher will set the assessment standard; secondly, on the basis of the standard students will make a self-assessment or an interactive assessment in a group, which offers another chance of learning for students and thus strengthens their learning identity; finally, the teacher will make an object assessment according to students' self-assessment or interactive assessment in a group. Therefore, a plural assessment of learning effect is established, which consists of students' self-assessment, interactive assessment and the teacher's assessment.

III. CONCLUSION

The task-based language teaching method is viewed as the development of communicative language teaching method. It can effectively encourage students to "output" English through the meaningful communication which is realized by their learning task performance. In order to change the present imbalanced ecological college English class into a balanced one and promote students' English ability comprehensively, the teacher should encourage students to participate in the activities of the topic introduction, language point analysis and text summary through their performance of various individualized learning tasks. The process will make students become the real center of the teaching and learning.

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Adopting Communicative Teaching Method in Computer Major Bilingual Teaching

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Abstract—Due to less interaction between teacher and students and too much focus on professional terms in computer major bilingual teaching, some key approaches of communicative teaching method (CTM) are introduced into computer major bilingual teaching. Based on the summarization of practice experiences in English teaching training abroad and analysis of characteristics of CTM, an improved teaching method is proposed in computer major bilingual teaching such as software engineering. Using this new method, students' capability of expressing professional knowledge in listening and speaking with English will be improved.

Index Terms—communicative teaching method, eliciting, teaching plan, group work, computer major

I. INTRODUCTION

The authors attended a bilingual training program in New Zealand organized by Dalian Nationalities University from July to August this year. The training organizer, Edenz Colleges (Edenz Colleges, 2010), seated at the center of Auckland, adopted a teaching method called communicative teaching method, which is totally different from our traditional English teaching aiming at examination. Using this teaching method, teacher focuses on communicating with students, trying their best to elicit students to learn new knowledge, not giving presentation directly. Teacher will know every student quickly and give each one at least one chance to answer questions in class. Students participate in the class actively. When introducing games into warm up or lead in stage, students feel very interested in the class. Free speaking is necessary in each lesson. Guided by teacher, students will express themselves freely in English.

Although bilingual teaching in computer major is different from English teaching using CTM, we can adopt some excellent features of CTM in some extent.

The paper is organized as follows. Section II introduces how to practice CTM in English teaching. Section III summarizes characteristics of CTM. Section IV analyses current status of computer major bilingual teaching. Section V proposes a new teaching method, integrating CTM into computer major bilingual teaching. And Section VI gives conclusions.

II. TEACHING PRACTICE USING COMMUNICATIVE TEACHING METHOD

When training in Edenz colleges, teachers gave us grammar, vocabulary, listening, reading, writing and grammar lessons systematically and thoroughly. We not only knew CTM in English teaching, but also adopted this new teaching method from teaching content to form. Except that, to ensure finish each teaching practice successfully using CTM, we have to prepare each lesson carefully and designed each lesson intensively. Here, one listening lesson practiced by the author is given as an example to show how to adopt CTM in English teaching.

Before class, teacher needs to prepare a teaching plan, vocabulary cards including stress, syllables and part of speech, listening tape, topic pictures, gap-fill text and white board design. Topic of this lesson is job difference between men and women, which is illustrated in three pictures consisting of a female bank manager, a male nursery school teacher and a female engineer. Key vocabulary such as ambitious, persuade, qualification, challenge, satisfaction, stressful, promotion and academic needs to be elicited. Teacher guided students to guess right word and focus on stress, syllables and part of speech. Then concept question for each word is used to check whether students have understood the meaning. Listening tape called "working in something different" is selected corresponding to students' level. Some key words are left for students to fill when listening for detail. Discussion topic is related to listening content, that is, men and women are equally capable of doing any job. The teaching plan for this listening lesson is showed in Table I in chronological order.

TABLE I
LISTENING TEACHING PLAN USING CTM

Time	Stages	Teacher's activity	Students' activity	Purpose
4 min	Lead-in	Tell students the listening lesson is about jobs. Ask them to tell the class about the jobs showing in the picture and show their opinions about what jobs suitable for men or women	Students volunteer ideas from their own experiences	Get students thinking about topic-working in something different
6 min	Pre-teach vocabulary	Elicit key vocabulary Model, drill and write up the vocabulary, eliciting stress, syllables and part of speech	Students search for the right word, listen, practice pronunciation and identifying the stress, syllables and P.O.S	To clarify difficult vocabulary necessary to complete the task Establishing correct pronunciation
5 min	Prediction	Instruct students to work in pairs to guess why the jobs they are working are different	Students work in pairs, listing differences in their jobs	To anticipate text content
5 min	Listening for gist	Set the task. Remind students they don't have to understand everything. They just need to get main idea. Play the tape and get students to compare their answers in pairs and conduct feedback.	Students understand the task, listen to the tape and compare answers with their partners. Then they share answers with the whole class	To develop skills of listening for gist
10 min	Listening for detail	Set the task clearly. Play the tape. Get students to compare their answers in pairs. Listen carefully to decide whether students need to hear the tape again. Conduct feedback	Students understand the task, listen to the tape, fill in gaps and compare answers with their partners. Then they report back to the class	To develop skill of listening for detail
15 min	Speaking	Put students in groups of 2. Set the task. Feedback. Get the group to argue with the statement "men and women are equally capable of doing any job" and share their opinions	Students present their opinions from their experiences. Others listen and ask questions. Each group with opposite opinions chooses one to argue with others	To improve their fluency with this further practice. To share ideas for interest

In class, teacher needs to complete each step in teaching plan and ensure all students participate in lesson process. More emphasis is put on expression, not errors or mistakes. In each review step, students are encouraged to present what they have finished in English to practice their speaking skill. After class, training teacher will give feedback for practice teacher on good points and shortages to improve in the future. Using CTM, full preparation is very important before class. But, teacher will feel very easy in class because his or her work is to elicit knowledge points and set task for students.

III. CHARACTERISTICS OF CTM

Compared with our computer major bilingual teaching (Fenhua, 2010; Zhaoyi, 2009; Jian, 2010), CTM has the following characteristics:

(1) Eliciting. We used to present everything to students, not thinking of their understanding or accepting ability. Practice shows it doesn't work for bilingual teaching. In bilingual teaching, not only professional knowledge but also language teaching are also important. Many reference papers concern about using eliciting in computer major teaching. But in our opinion, it is much harder to put it into practice because our students are used to drive in teacher's idea. On the other hand, eliciting is very popular in language teaching abroad. Teacher's task is to elicit new points from students' current knowledge with different forms and approaches. Students should try their best to find the right answer guided by the teacher. Leading, not presenting, is a teacher's job when adopting CTM. What a teacher needs to do is to know his or her students very well and try to elicit each presentation point from students. Students will feel it is easy to learn some new knowledge from their previous knowledge.

(2) Student-centered. When teaching computer major, we used to teacher-centered mode. Presentation time proportion in one lesson is about 60% to 70%. Only some 10% time before class is over, students will do some exercises in reviewing knowledge points. But when teaching English using CTM, student-centered is emphasized and attach much importance. As shown in Table I, presentation by teacher is only about 15 minutes in 45 minutes lesson time. In the rest of lesson time, students do exercises, discuss related to topic and express themselves freely in English. This teaching method guided by teacher and started from students' point, helps to improve student's positivity and creativity. Differently from our traditional teaching method mostly presented by teacher, students have more chances to practice their listening and speaking skills to learn more about the language.

(3) Maximizing students talking time. Emphasis of language teaching is capability of expressing students' ideas in listening and speaking, so maximizing students talking time is one key feature of CTM. As shown in Table I, percentage of students' talking time in 45 minutes teaching time is at least 50%. Teacher will try his or her best to encourage students to express themselves and build their confidence in expression in English.

(4) Group work. In computer major teaching, students are required to complete their jobs individually. They seldom complete one task in one group. But when training abroad, teacher put much emphasis on group work. Even for a simple task, teacher will instruct students to check answer with one of their partners. For a complex task, students need to check answer within one group. In stages of warm up or lead in, which adopt game or competition, students must complete their jobs as one group.

(5) Minimizing teaching talking time. Purpose of language teaching is to improve students' expression ability. In lesson teaching, proportion for students' talking is enlarged while teacher's presentation is reduced. Teacher's task is to set teaching task and elicit everything from students.

(6) Various teaching methods. In computer major teaching, teachers spend most of their lesson time teaching theory content with one single teaching approach. Students will feel boring when accepting too much theory in one lesson. But teaching approaches are various using CTM, which will arouse students' interests and attention. Like memory competition, students in one group try their best to memorize as many words as they can in one minute and check word count to decide which group is the winner. Guessing word, group who guesses more words is the winner. Playing beautiful songs, students can enjoy beautiful music before introducing class topic. Each warm up or lead in for every lesson is different and is of interest to students.

IV. CURRENT STATUS OF COMPUTER MAJOR BILINGUAL TEACHING

In China, most universities set up computer major bilingual courses (Yunpeng, 2010; Tingting, 2010; Weiguo, 2010), which put too much attention on professional terms and writing ability and less attention on expression capability using English. But for most international software companies, expressing oneself fluently in English is much more important than large vocabulary and writing skill. Chinese students used to think every detail of the sentence before they speak. They are afraid to make mistakes or errors when expressing themselves. But as bilingual learning, fluency is more important than accuracy. Even if a student expresses himself with some grammar errors or pronunciation error, it doesn't matter. In other words, communication capability including speaking and listening is essential for working in multinational companies, while writing or vocabulary doesn't matter. In China, students have little chance to practice their English speaking or listening skill. What they can do is to get good marks for various kinds of exams. Now most colleges adopted infiltrative bilingual teaching methods in computer major teaching, which will help students to improve their reading skill and enlarge their vocabulary. But for training international IT software engineers, it is a long distance to go.

V. ADOPTING CTM IN COMPUTER MAJOR BILINGUAL TEACHING

Computer major bilingual teaching is different from language teaching, so we can't adopt CTM in it totally. But we can adopt some excellent features of CTM. Based on the author's experiences in English teaching using CTM and computer major bilingual teaching, a new fusion method is put forward as follows:

(1) Integrating boring professional knowledge into games. Teacher teaches the same theory again and again, with no interests to students. But if students participate in lesson teaching process, they will be interested in what are studying. For example, in software engineering teaching (Pressman, 2005), life cycle of software development is divided into different parts, and students are instructed to rearrange these parts into one complete flow chart. Using this way, it will be much easier for students to accept new theory than presentation directly.

(2) Adding class discussion in each class. Some appropriate proportion of lesson time is left for students to discuss relevant to knowledge points. To ensure all students participate in discussion using target language, feedback is necessary after each discussion to check whether they exchange ideas within one group and get common view for the topic. When doing requirements analysis in software engineering, students work in different groups finish requirements analysis deliverables and present in the class.

(3) Broadening interaction between students and teacher. For professional terms teaching, teacher adopts eliciting technique, leading students to think and search for the right word. What students need to do is trying their best to learn new terms based on what they have learned. For discussion stage, teacher provides some direction or suggestions to help students. Teacher should encourage students to express themselves in English, share their ideas with partner, group and class. Students will feel boring if a teacher talks too much in a class. One rule is to minimize teacher talking time and maximize students talking time. We try to practice this rule as much as we can. Students are interested in sharing their ideas and presenting in the class.

(4) Extending group work. Group work is essential for software development. It is impossible for one engineer to complete a software development with more and more complication than before. Software engineers have to work together and share their ideas together to succeed in finishing a software development in all software life cycle. Group work is a good chance for students to practice their cooperation and communicative ability. They can discuss requirements together, write requirements together, and design system together, coding and testing together. So in bilingual teaching, students are required to complete one software requirements analysis, system design, coding and testing in one group. Deliverables are to be completed in target language using IEEE templates. In each review stages, team leader of one group needs to present what they have finished in class.

(5) Spreading writing for important knowledge points. Besides language expression of listening and speaking skill, writing skill is also important for students' job competitive power. As mentioned in group work, students are required to complete different deliverables using normal templates. Through this training, students will improve their writing skill in regular format.

Except these approaches, other auxiliary methods such as course bilingual website support, English software and documents help and online discussion group can also be helpful for students to review what they have learned in class, study what will be taught in future and communicate with teachers or classmates with misunderstood questions or puzzling problems.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

Teaching English in communicative teaching methods help students improve their language application capability at a large extent from listening and speaking skill to enthusiasm and initiative. Introducing CTM into computer major bilingual teaching with too much theory will not only broaden student's professional vocabulary, but also improve students' ability to express professional knowledge in English.

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Designing Online Collaborative Tasks for Language Learning

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Abstract—Designing online collaborative tasks for language learning is a challenge. This article aims to provide guidelines for creating effective online collaborative tasks. First, a definition of an online collaborative task is proposed. Then it comes to discuss the ways task design may relate to theories of learning, practical guidelines and examples for constructing collaborative tasks. The article concludes with suggestions for future language task research and design.

Index Terms—designing, online collaborative tasks, language learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Chapelle (2001, P.2) poses the challenge that ‘anyone concerned with second language teaching and learning in the 21st century needs to grasp the nature of the unique technology-mediated tasks learners can engage in for language acquisition’ ... A key part of Chapelle’s challenge is to think of ways to construct tasks so that we can make effective use of these vast computer networks. These tasks remain central, though earlier attempts to migrate classroom-based tasks to online environments have not always been successful. Clearly, as we make greater use of networked environments, we need to gain experience in developing and using technology-mediated tasks. With collaborative learning in mind, we will have an overview of the way tasks align with educational theory and a brief sketch of social constructivism.

II. LINKING TASKS WITH EDUCATIONAL THEORY

The role of a task in online learning shifts, depending on its intended use and underlying pedagogical theory. For example, if a teacher believes that Web surfing is a productive learning activity, her tasks would have few explicit directions or outcomes. So she would defend her view of learning as a ‘discovery’ of new information based on individual need (Bruner, 1985). By contrast, a teacher who advocated sequenced instruction would design each task so that it would make an incremental contribution to a larger set of carefully constructed modules. This teacher would defend his task design on a ‘structured’ approach to teaching.

III. DEFINING COLLABORATIVE L2 PEDAGOGICAL TASKS

For our present purposes, a focus on these authors’ ‘pragmatic/ pedagogical’ definition of a learning task is useful:

A task is an activity, influenced by learner choice, and susceptible to learner reinterpretation, which requires learners to use language, with an emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective. (Bygate, Skehan & Swain, 2001)

We can rework their clearly set definition to fit our own networked computer environment context, and underpin it by highlighting social constructivist principles as follows:

A collaborative online task is a loosely directed activity, shaped and interpreted by members of a learning team, which requires learners to communicate through the use of networked computers, with an emphasis on the production and integration of authentic online resources, to achieve a milestone within a larger project that itself is extensible to other contexts.

To serve as a basis for collaborative projects we can, therefore, build upon the Bygate, Skehan and Swain (2001) definition by emphasizing the ‘loosely directed’ nature of constructivist tasks. But how loose should the initial design parameters of such tasks be? In general, however, Jonassen and Land (2000) advise that activities designed for online learning environments be ‘scaffolded’ in achievable steps. Here, the influence of elaboration theory (Ausubel, 1963; Reigeluth, 1987) within a collaborative setting provides guidance for inexperienced learners.

Accordingly, they see that tasks designed for authentic purposes need to: a) relate to real-world activities; b) avoid predetermined outcomes; and c) vary in levels of complexity. In a further extension, Chapelle (2001, P.55) discusses criteria for CALL task appropriateness. Here authenticity is integrated within a cluster of other necessary factors that include language learning potential, learner fit, meaning focus, positive impact and practicality.

IV. CONSTRUCTIVIST PRINCIPLES

The foundation of much online collaborative learning rests in the principles of social constructivism.

Social constructivists promote close ties between authentic activities, collaborative learning, a variety of materials, the student ownership of outcomes and critical reflection. According to Driscoll (2000), the five key principles of this learning theory are as follows:

A. Integrating Authentic Activity within a Complex Learning Environment

Students readily discern what will and will not be useful to them. They know, for example, that the Internet will be part of their lives. The use of real Internet resources heightens a sense of authenticity and provides motivation.

B. Emphasizing Social Negotiation as Integral to Learning

Placing a collaborative task at the core of a class focuses student attention on group dynamics and interpersonal communication; task completion hinges on students' collaboration. Audience awareness, a key part of effective communication skills, is also developed at several levels through interpersonal, group, institutional and, potentially, global interactions.

C. Combining Content with Multiple Modes of Representation

Collaborative tasks, by their very nature, contain a juxtaposition of ideas and information. Working through a range of electronic resources with colleagues helps students to gain experience in a variety of modes: spoken, written, individual, group and technologically mediated.

D. Relating Instruction to Student Needs

Well-designed collaborative tasks allow scope for students to shape outcomes; their ownership of the work is made clear from the beginning. As a need arises in relation to a task – and this includes conflicts within the group – we can provide guidance and some perspective.

E. Reflecting on Practice

Thinking about what went right, what went wrong and how it can be improved next time is a powerful way to deepen understanding. Done well, reflection encourages a critical perspective and transferability of learning to other contexts.

F. Putting Theory into Practice

The use of clear design procedures, reproducible templates and model sites can assist task writers. The comprehensive WebQuest site (webquest.sdsu.edu) for native speakers provides solid guidelines for task design (Dodge, 2002) that can be readily adopted for second language programs. Consider the following six steps to writing online collaborative tasks as shown in Table 1:

TABLE 1:
GUIDELINES FOR ONLINE COLLABORATIVE TASK DESIGN

Task component	purpose
Introduction	Prepare and motivate learner interest in the area
Setting objective	Describe clearly and simply what you expect learners to achieve
Steps and process	Explain the steps that learners should go through to achieve the objective
Resources	Provide a list of authentic online resources that learners can use to achieve the objective
Evaluation	Tell learners how to check their work through the provision of model responses that relate to specific goal within an established curriculum.
Reflection and Extension	Encourage Learners to think about what has been learned and how to apply that learning to different contexts.

(Adapted from Corbel, Gruba, and Enright, 2002)

Online collaborative tasks can be situated within the context of a larger project. In an ideal situation, each project generated in a single classroom contributes to an overall theme, and each task within a project resonates in some way with that theme. Ideal tasks involve every member of the class, both within project teams and across the class as a whole, as expertise is shared among the entire group. Through this sharing, individual students can see and reflect upon the ways in which their contribution relates both to the team and to the wider organization. Effective collaborative tasks are appropriate, extensible and encourage reflection.

Although the ultimate aim of the example task is to produce a collaborative report, the task is constrained so that an individual only writes a section of the report, since our students are not always able to collaborate. However, by placing the task within a larger project, it can be extended and related back to an overall theme. In this case, each team in the class could examine 'entertainment options' across the city, and then debate the merits of each reported venue. If the resources are available, the task could also act as a catalyst for students to create their own online materials (for example, a team could write a guide for international visitors to a tourist attraction). Any texts they created could potentially be useful to readers who wanted information on the presented topic.

Finally, because 'reflection' and 'extension' are key tenets of social constructivist approaches to learning, a key characteristic of collaborative tasks is to ensure they can be used to stimulate further learning. Task designs, therefore, need to be concluded in such a way that they encourage students both to think about what they have learnt and how to apply that learning in other contexts.

V. FURTHER DEVELOPMENT

One way to meet Chapelle's (2001) challenge regarding technologically mediated tasks lies in our collective attempts to define them, write them and try them out with our own students. As we move from theory to practice through networked computer environments, we need to be acutely aware of how task design can be underpinned by sound pedagogical approaches. Research can be focused on four key areas: 1) understanding actual student use of technologically mediated tasks, for example, how they use such tasks in both online and offline contexts; 2) the use of collaborative tasks within groups; 3) collaborative task usage across groups; and 4) the role of collaborative tasks in assessment.

As our field begins to consider the need to develop 'multiliteracies' (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000) – so that our students can cope with a greater variety of text types, intertextual references and modalities – we need to expand our list of factors that may influence the use and definitions of online tasks. We should also consider making explicit statements regarding mode of presentation in task design. For example, 'video-mediated' tasks need to be clearly differentiated from 'audio-mediated' tasks when we set out to design online listening activities. We will need a stronger understanding of the attributes of a multimedia production if we are to exploit it effectively (Chun and Plass, 1997).

Another way to meet the challenge of understanding effective technologically mediated tasks is to find ways to better teach their design and use. We need to create purposeful training modules that address the unique demands of online collaborative environments. Staff development materials that foster effective online task design for use both in teaching and action research already exist (Corbel, 2001). Beyond that, however, teachers must experience for themselves 'learning how to learn' in networked teams, and come to consider using social constructive approaches to teaching rather than remaining somewhat suspicious of them (Debski & Gruba, 1999).

By using some structured guidelines and inspiration from existing WebQuest sites, second language instructors can construct their own materials, try them with colleagues and meet the challenges of designing technologically mediated tasks.

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