The Tertiary English Language Curriculum in China and its Delivery: A Critical Study

Thesis

The Tertiary English Language Curriculum in China and its Delivery: A Critical Study

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Dedication

To my sisters who have always had confidence in me and have constantly

provided consolations to my souls during this journey.
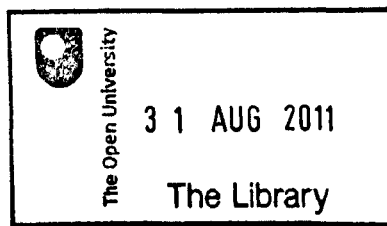
Declaration

I confirm that this is my own work and the use of material from other sources has been properly and fully acknowledged. This thesis has not been submitted to the Open University or to any other institute for a degree, diploma or other qualification.

Abstract

This thesis investigates the tertiary English language curriculum in China and its delivery, focusing on the intensive reading (IR) course for students studying English at degree level. It examines the extent to which IR realises the aims of the current English curriculum, revised in 2000 with the intention of introducing more contemporary approaches to English language teaching. It also examines how IR relates to the behaviour and beliefs of two teachers who deliver it, and to their students' participation and views. The study applies an ethnographic approach to collect its data and discourse analysis to analyse classroom discourse constructed in teacher-student interaction. Data was collected at a university in China and consists of classroom observations, audio recordings of classes, interviews with the teachers and students being observed, government documents, teachers' syllabi and teaching plans. Data analysis focuses on the textbooks that are used to deliver the revised curriculum; how teachers use these textbooks, and their mediation of book knowledge via the use of PowerPoint slides; and the language choices made by teachers in delivering knowledge from the textbooks and PowerPoint slides. Data analysis reveals that classroom practice is very much at odds with the principles set out in the 2000 Curriculum. Whereas this emphasises the use of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-based language teaching (TBLT), the use of English as a teaching medium, and a focus on student-centredness, the teaching itself is heavily textbook and PowerPoint slides orientated, with teachers acting as 'messengers' (Scollon 1999). The teachers tend to dominate classroom interaction to the point where students' voices are silenced. They make substantial use of L1 as the medium of instruction. A further disparity is shown between teachers' practice and students' expectations. Driven by the nature of their English language needs and engagements in world affairs,

students are asking for more opportunities to practise what they have learnt and express the wish that teachers would move away from a traditional teaching pedagogy towards a more student-centred approach.

This thesis aims to encourage teachers, teacher educators, policy makers, and material developers to reflect on what is happening in ELT classrooms and to consider what steps need to be taken to improve tertiary level ELT in China.

Acknowledgment

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List of frequent Acronyms

ALM – Audio-Lingual Method

CLT – Communicative Language Teaching

ELT – English Language Teaching

GT – Grammar Translation

IR – Intensive Reading

MOE – Ministry of Education

SCEC – Specialist College English Course

TBLT – Task-Based Language Teaching

Chapter 1 English in China

1.1 Introduction

China is now experiencing unprecedented social, economic and political changes and is catching up with the West in the fields of science, technology and education. As a result, the demand for English proficiency is rising. On a national level, English is perceived by the government as a means for the country to realize its modernization and to compete in world affairs; on an individual level, proficiency in English is the key to enter and graduate from university, to go abroad for further education, to secure desirable jobs in public and private sectors, foreign-owned companies or joint ventures, and to be eligible for promotion to higher professional ranks (Hu 2002a). For most people a good knowledge of English is seen as a bridge to the outside world and a gatekeeper to economic, cultural, and social opportunities. As a consequence, mastery of English has come to be regarded as a defining characteristic of talent in the 21st century (Huang 2005) and a sign of distinction. There is now a widespread belief that 'everything is low but English is high' (based on a Chinese proverb – 'Everything is low but reading books is high' - which will be quoted and elaborated in Chapter 4). Due to the massive drive to expand and improve English in both formal and informal educational settings, English teaching in China is now a major enterprise with vast numbers wishing to learn the language. But it also attracts a lot of criticism, the most frequent one being that students commonly begin their English studies in primary school and continue them for over ten years yet often fail to achieve significant levels of communicative competence as defined by Hymes (1972) and Canale and Swain (1980). The 2008 Beijing Olympic Games and the 2010 Shanghai International Expo are two recent international events that provided a meaningful opportunity for Chinese students to put their communicative

competence in English into practice. The demand for this competence and learners' needs to achieve it put English language teaching (ELT) under huge pressure. In order to improve students' communicative competence, new English curricula for primary, secondary and tertiary levels were issued at the beginning of the 21st century by the Ministry of Education (MOE) and these are ostensibly based on modern Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) methodologies. However, English is mostly imparted in a traditional transmission manner (Maley 1990; Hu 2002a, 2002b). This is based on a model of communication characterized by Reddy (1979) as 'the conduit metaphor' and by Maley (1990) as the 'pint-pot theory' in which knowledge flows from teachers to students like a liquid into an empty vessel. As a result, what students attain inside the classroom is limited to formal grammar rules and language points instead of the practical communicative skills (Hu 2002a, 2005a; Rao 1996).

Taking into account this background, this research examines the tertiary English language Curriculum and its delivery and has three aims:

- From a macro level, to review the status of English and ELT policies in China and to examine how the development of ELT methodologies in the West has impacted on ELT in China.

- From a micro level, to look at what is taught and how the language is taught in the classroom. I tackle these questions by examining the teaching materials used by teachers and students and by investigating classroom practices. This forms the empirical part of the present research.

- On the basis of my empirical investigation I make a number of recommendations on the delivery of English language teaching in China,

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targeted at teachers, teacher educators, material developers and policy makers.

These three aims are designed to lead me to have an insight into classroom practice, enabling me to evaluate the implementation of the *Higher Education English Specialist Course English curriculum* (Hereafter referred to as the New Curriculum) which was issued in the year 2000. In the New Curriculum methodologies like CLT and TBLT were advocated and student-centredness was highlighted.

Allwright and Bailey note that

> Generally speaking, teachers plan, more or less explicitly, three aspects of their lessons: syllabus - what they intend to teach, methods - how the syllabus is to be taught, and atmosphere - most of the teachers have a good idea of the sort of 'atmosphere' they would like to have in their classrooms, (whether they want it to be relaxed and friendly or brisk and business-like, or whatever) (1991: 22).

In a similar vein, Johnson remarks that 'The *what* and *how* of language teaching can be closely connected, so that a statement of content is likely to carry with it methodological implications' (2001:212). In my data the 'what' can be addressed by looking at how English lessons were organised in the classes under study and at the content of the textbook and PowerPoint slides that constitute the main teaching sources. This is the focus of my analysis in Chapter 4. The 'how' can be tackled by investigating what methods/teaching styles the teachers are following when the textbooks and PowerPoint slides are used. This is considered in Chapter 5. Another factor that demonstrates the 'how' question is the language the teachers use as a medium of instruction, i.e. whether it is the target language or their own and the students' first language, Chinese. I look at language use in

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Chapter 6. The use of textbooks, PowerPoint slides and the language medium will form the primary data to be analyzed in order to evaluate the implementation of the New Curriculum.

Both teachers and students' behaviour inside the classroom is informed by their attitudes to and beliefs in what counts as good teaching and learning strategies. I use interviews to elicit this information. Interview data is considered alongside observational data in Chapters 4-6. Further details on the research are to be addressed in Chapter 3, where I will elaborate on research methodology, data collection, research questions and data analysis.

In the remainder of this chapter, I will briefly review the role of English as an international language in general then focus more specifically on its status in China. I will outline the landscape of English learning and teaching in China in both formal and informal settings. By virtue of the focus of this study, I will concentrate on the Specialist College English Course (SCEC) that forms the basis of English Language teaching in higher education and detail the language skills that students are required to achieve. The Intensive Reading (IR) module from which my data is collected will then be examined. By identifying the gap between what is advocated and what is practised, I will point out the focus of my data analysis before finally outlining the organization of this thesis.

1.2 English as an international language

English is the most widely used international language in the world. The British Council notes that:

> English has official or special status in at least seventy-five countries with a total population of over two billion...Speakers of English as a second language will soon outnumber those who speak it as a first

language...One out of four of the world's population speak English to some level of competence. Demand from the other three-quarters is increasing (British Council 2005).

Crystal points to two factors that have contributed to the present-day world status of English: the expansion of British colonial power which peaked towards the end of the nineteenth century, and the emergence of the United Sates as the leading economic power of the twentieth century (2003:59). Kachru uses the terms 'inner', 'outer' and 'expanding' circles (1985:12) to reflect the spread and the status of English in different countries.

Following Kachru, Phillipson (1992) made a broad distinction between two types of English speaking countries: 'Core English-speaking countries' and 'Periphery-English countries' the former is used to refer to Britain, Ireland, the USA, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand and the latter are of two types: countries which require English as an international link language (e.g. Scandinavia, Japan), and countries where English was imposed in colonial times and where it has been successfully transplanted and still serves a range of intranational purposes (India, Nigeria) (1992:17). Both Phillipson (1992) and Pennycook (1998) see the spread of English as linguistic and cultural imperialism and argue that English language teaching was always a highly significant part of colonial policy. In Pennycook's words: 'Where the empire spread, so too did English' (1998:20).

Later, Pennycook argues for the need to combine critical analysis with recognition of the complexity of the current global states of English - both 'new forms of power, control and destruction' and 'new forms of resistance, change, appropriation and identity' (2006:5). He suggests:

> We need to move beyond arguments about homogeneity or heterogeneity, or imperialism and nation states, and instead focus on

translocal and transcultural flows. English is a translocal language, a language of fluidity and fixity that moves across, while becoming embedded in, the materiality of localities and refashioning identities (Ibid).

In other words, Pennycook argues that English is closely tied to processes of globalization: a language of threat, desire, destruction and opportunity (2006).

Whatever positions these scholars take, seeing the spread of English in terms of different World Englishes (Kachru 1985; Crystal 2003), as linguistic and cultural imperialism (Phillipson 1992; Pennycook 1998), or locating it within a complex view of globalization (Pennycook 2006), all acknowledge that English is spoken by a very large proportion of the world population and that the English language is the medium through which information on science and technology is exchanged, most international business is conducted and the majority of the world's publications, films, internet and popular music is circulated. As a consequence of which, English proficiency has become a commodity of strong exchange value (Bourdieu 1986).

Many of the current debates about the special position of English in the world relate to Kachru's model of three circles (1985), which Swann succinctly summarises as follows:

> The 'inner circle' refers to native speaker varieties in countries such as the US and the UK that are seen as norm providing... the 'outer circle' refers to 'second language' varieties in countries such as India and Nigeria, developed under British (or US) colonialism....The 'expanding circle' refers to contexts in which English is seen as a 'foreign language', taught as a subject in school (2010:4).

Due to China's past isolation and current economic ascendancy, however, it does not fit easily into Kachru's three circles, as they are essentially a

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postcolonial model formulated at a time of Western supremacy and implying dependence by the outer and expanding circles on the inner circle. Nevertheless, current English language teaching policy in China, as reflected in the curricula and textbooks discussed in this thesis, follows an 'inner circle' 'norm' (i.e. a native-speaker model) at all levels of education. At tertiary level for example, the New Curriculum implemented in 2000 says that 'students should understand authentic television program like CNN and understand editorials and critical essays on political issues from British and American major newspapers and magazines' (my translation and more details are listed in Section 1.5.1); and the texts in the textbooks used by teachers and students are all written either by American or British authors (See Chapter 4 and Appendices 2 and 3). As already observed, despite this emphasis on a native speaker model of English, and the students' aspiration to achieve it, a more appropriate aim for Chinese learners would be a form of 'International English', or 'English as a lingua franca' (ELF). Although there are a variety of terms available, such as 'World English' (Jenkins 2003); 'English as a global language' (Mair 2003), Seidlhofer notes that 'When English is chosen as the means of communication among people from different first language backgrounds, across linguacultural boundaries, the preferred term is 'English as a lingua franca' (2005:339). And, as Seargeant notes, ELF provides a model of English which is not linked to the native varieties of the inner circle:

> [the project of ELF] is an attempt to circumvent the doubt bind that a universal language would need to be unitary (it is one common language for the entire world) but that a pluricentric view (a commonwealth of local varieties) is the more democratic option,

reducing (if not destroying) the hegemony of the Anglo-American model (2009:12).

1.3 English in China

When the English explorers, together with their guns and cannons, forced open the door to China in the early 19th century, the Chinese people, from the grass roots to the emperor, felt shocked. Their image of Middle Kingdom (the literal translation of the name for China) as the most civilized and developed nation was seriously damaged and the great Qing Empire gradually declined to become a quasi-colonial country. Initially the English were viewed as 'barbarians' and their language as 'barbarians' language', but in the late 19th century 'Under the influence of the philosophy of "Chinese learning as the essence, Western learning for its usefulness", foreign subjects known as "Yang Wu" 洋务 were introduced to the university examination system' (He 2005:12). The change of status has been described by Adamson:

> Before the two Opium Wars (1839-1842, 1856-1860), access to English within formal educational institutions was severely limited, and existed only in a small number of missionary schools. After 1860, access to English in the educational domain increased greatly, not only within Western Christian institutions whose numbers multiplied in the latter decades of the nineteenth century, but also in the first Chinese schools of foreign languages in Beijing and Shanghai (2004:vii).

Later, during the 1920s, the Nationalist government sought to regulate the teaching of English within a school system that mainly served the aims of the government, and at the same time tried to limit the influence of missionary schools and institutions. From the middle of 19th century until the beginning of 20th century,

the guiding principle for state education was Chinese learning as the essence, Western learning for its usefulness.

With the founding of the People's Republic of China in October 1949, the Ministry of Education issued a new 'Scheme for English Instruction in Secondary Schools', in which the goal of English language learning was clearly stated as being to serve the new republic. The language was widely accepted as a utilitarian tool for science, technology, national development and modernization. However, this perception changed during the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976) and since English was associated with capitalism or capitalist thinking, English language teaching was badly affected. Everything foreign - books, films, music - was regarded as bourgeois and therefore forbidden. The use of English did not disappear completely however because it was also regarded as a 'weapon' for political struggle, but only a 'Red and Expert' 又红又专 (you hong you zhuan) few who were loyal to Mao's Cultural Revolution had the privilege to continue accessing English.

When China opened its door to the outside world in 1978, the nation quickly realized how far it had been left behind by the developed countries. A good knowledge of English was seen as a vehicle to bridge China with the outside world and as a means to learn from other countries. Driven by globalisation, English, as the foremost international language, has since been embraced by the Chinese with unparalleled fervour. In terms of the spread and the status of English, China belongs to the 'expanding circle' (Kachru 1985) or the 'Periphery-English countries' (Phillipson 1992).

However, because of its large population, the total number of people who are learning English is considerable. Niu & Wolff note that 'at least 600 million Chinese

citizens are studying English, which is more than twice the number of people living in the United States' (2007).

1.4 The landscape of English language teaching (ELT) in China

Ever since the enforcement of the opening-up policy, the teaching of English as a foreign language has become a nationwide endeavour pursued vigorously at all academic levels, from kindergarten to university. A report from the Third International Conference on Foreign Language Teaching Methodology held in Shanghai reveals that around 50 million Chinese students at all school levels are studying English, of whom 800,000 are English majors [1](Dai 2008).

However, the sheer size of the country and the unequal development of the economy and education in China makes the English teaching and learning landscape a very complicated one. In the following section I will elaborate on ELT in both formal and informal education settings and on the newly emerging bilingual education programme in order to present a broad picture of ELT in China.

1.4.1 English in a formal education setting

By virtue of the fierce competition in education and the one-child policy, parents in urban and developed areas hope to give their child some advantage from the outset by sending the child to kindergartens where English is taught. Although ELT at pre-school level is not officially required, bilingual kindergartens are blossoming, particularly in cosmopolitan cities like Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou which enjoy the fruits of a growing economy. When the English curriculum for primary schools was issued in 2000, primary schools at city and county level were expected to be providing English lessons by 2001/2002. The recommended starting grade was three, when students are about 9 years old and the recommended lesson time was four instruction hours each week. The policy was

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[1] English majors is a term used in China referring to university students who learn English for a degree.

updated in 2007 and now all primary schools must offer English lessons from primary grade one, although in reality schools in some rural areas can only offer English lessons from grade three. Following this students spend six years at Middle School (at junior and senior secondary level), where English is compulsory. It now shares equal importance with Chinese and Mathematics in the National Matriculation Test (NMT)[2] which is used to select students for tertiary education (Cai 2008).

At tertiary level there are two types of English courses: Public English and Specialist English. Public English is a compulsory English-for-specific-purposes (ESP) course for non-English majors which they take in the first two years of their four-year undergraduate studies. Before finally graduating these students must pass the College English Test (CET) at band four, though to improve job prospects most students choose to take band 6, which is equivalent to an intermediate level of English. In recent years CET has attracted much criticism (Niu 2001; Li 2002). Opponents (Guo 2006) of the exam question the need for every student to learn English and argue that this exam should not be bound together with the students' degree. Some universities have hinted they may abolish it but for now, students still have to sit it.

The SCEC is designed for English majors. There were over 300 Specialist College English programs in 2001 (Wu 2001), however, this number had risen to 420 by 2002 (Chang 2006). These programs are available in foreign studies universities, comprehensive and normal universities and teachers' colleges. As the Specialist English course is designed for English majors, the standard is set very much higher than Public English. Since I chose a SCEC for this study I will elaborate on this course in Section 1.5.

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[2] In China, every student must sit NMT in Chinese, Mathematics and English regardless their options for university study

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From kindergarten to university, the number of years spent learning English is significant, indicating the importance that is now attached to the language. Table 1.1 shows that an English major spends 10-16 years studying English before he/she graduates.

Age of student	Level of education	Years of English learning
18-22	University	4
15-18	Senior secondary school	3
12-15	Junior secondary school	3
6-12	Primary school	0-3
3-6	Kindergarten	0-3

Table 1.1 Years of study for English major from an economic advanced area

1.4.2 English in an informal education setting

In informal educational settings English is taught at evening classes, via distance learning, television courses, web-based programs, English summer schools etc. These programmes are mostly exam-oriented, helping students to prepare for university entrance exams, International English Language Testing System (IELTS) or Public English Test (PET).

Due to stiff competition in the National Matriculation Test (NMT), many school students attend these English learning courses to supplement their learning in school. Of the extra-curricular courses run for students the most popular one, targeted at primary, secondary and even tertiary students, is called 'Crazy English' which was founded and run by an indigenous Chinese undergraduate Yang Li. Having failed in his PET band 4 exam, Li was nevertheless determined to have a good command of English. His experience of reading English aloud 'like crazy' worked well for him so he decided to popularize his unusual method of improving his language skills. With its advocates 'sanzi' (三最) three superlatives - 'zuidashen', 'zuikuisu', 'zuiqinxi' (最大声, 最快速, 最清晰) —speaking English

loudest, fastest and clearest like crazy, 'Crazy English' started in the early 1990s. Li's programme is a controversial one and has attracted much debate. Opponents argue that the three zui-superlatives cannot synchronize with each other nor is there any underlying theory to inform this practice. However, with reading aloud and memorization its main strategies, 'Crazy English' is very much compatible with the Chinese learning style so it is still enthusiastically embraced and implicitly continues to shape students' learning.

Figure 1.1 Instructor Yang Li teaching primary school students at summer school

Due to Chinese people's enthusiasm for English, the programme 'Crazy English' is still the most popular one amongst students as well as adult learners.

1.4.3 Bilingual education

A very recent addition to the education models for teaching and learning English is bilingual education. In the introduction to the book *Bilingual education in China: practices, policies and concepts* A. Feng points out that the concepts of

bilingualism and bilingual education in China have long been associated with minority groups. However, in the last two decades, using English as well as Chinese as a medium of instruction (Chinese-English bilingual education) has attracted much attention among policy makers and academics (2007). Bilingual education in China can mean either helping minority groups to master both Putonghua (Mandarin Chinese) and their own minority language or using a foreign language (often English) as a medium of instruction, the latter of which is in fact content-based language instruction, in which subjects are taught through the medium of a new language on the assumption that this simultaneously furthers both student proficiency in that language and their knowledge of the subject in question. This is very much like Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) which is energetically promoted by the EU. CLIL is also used in teaching other languages, but 'English is by far the commonest choice' (Cook 2010:31). The emergence of Chinese-English bilingual schooling can be attributed to the aforementioned 'craze for English' as well as the 'dissatisfaction with ELT' (Z. Feng and Wang 2007). According to A. Feng, the purpose of this programme is to 'educate all-rounded talents with sound knowledge in specialized areas and strong linguistic competence in a foreign language (2007:259). Hu notes that bilingual education initially started at 'a small number of schools in socioeconomically advantaged areas exploring the use of English as an instructional medium in the 1990s, [but] large-scale government-supported experimentation with Chinese English bilingual education started in Shanghai in 2001' (2007:95).

In the same year, the Ministry of Education decided to step up its effort to expand bilingual programmes and announced that 'within 3 years, 5-10% of undergraduate courses in institutions of higher learning must by taught in English and all district educational departments should work out plans for experimentation with bilingual education' (MOE 2001). As a result, nearly 100 kindergartens,

primary schools, and secondary schools set up bilingual programmes in the autumn of 2001 (Lin 2001); in 2002 bilingual programmes snowballed to involve about 30,000 students (Su 2003a), increasing to 45,000 in 2003 (Su 2003b) and to 55,000 in 2004 (Xu 2004).

In 2004 MOE announced its plan to increase the number of bilingual teachers from 2,000 to about 10,000, bilingual schools from 260 to 500 and students attending bilingual programmes from 55,000 to 500,000 by 2010 (Shen 2004). Although the plan designed by MOE is for higher education, it has also affected other levels of ELT as well. Hu observes that

> ...this form of bilingual education has gained tremendous publicity and momentum and is sweeping across a country that has until recently taken great pride in its culture and indigenous languages dating back over 5000 years (2007:95).

Behind its popularity, A. Feng, taking note of sociopolitical, economical and educational factors, argues that

> the most obvious of them include perceived importance of English as cultural capital for both individuals and the society, observable and hidden forces of globalization, and the positive outcomes of using English as a medium of instruction in schools as compared with traditional EFL teaching (2007:267).

The Bilingual programme has been controversial ever since it emerged. Proponents see it as in the vanguard of education reform, a key component of quality education, and a vital means for China to interface with the rest of the world (Qian 2003; Sun 2002). Opponents, however, argue that there exists a myriad of constraints that undermine, compromise, and frustrate the optimistically envisioned goals for bilingual education (Hu 2007). Practical problems include

'lack of qualified teaching resource, shortage of appropriate textbooks and lack of coherent planning' (A. Feng 2007:267). There are also concerns about political negative effects on students' learning and use of their mother tongue. Finally there are concerns that bilingual programmes targeted at children from politically or economically advantaged families will reinforce social stratification.

The most extensively discussed constraint is the acute shortage of bilingual teachers (Luo & Liu 2006). The bilingual programmes are a fairly new phenomenon and most teachers staffing bilingual programmes have been trained to be either subject teachers or teachers of English as a foreign language. As a consequence, teachers lack the combination of linguistic and academic competence to teach subjects bilingually. Bilingual programmes are nevertheless mushrooming across China, although there is still no official curriculum from MOE on bilingual education.

1.5 The focus of this study

This study will focus on the Specialist College English Course (SCEC). The reasons for choosing the SCEC for this study are two-fold. The first is mainly because of my own experience. I took one SCEC over twenty years ago at a university in the middle south of China and after I obtained a degree in English language and literature, I became a secondary school English teacher and later a university lecturer teaching English in the SCEC. During my teaching I always tried to understand the underlying philosophy that contributes to the ways in which English is taught in the hope of finding methods to improve classroom practice. The second reason is because of the importance and influence that SCEC has in the ELT domain. Dzau argues that 'So important is this course that ELT in China cannot be fully understood without knowing something about the teaching materials and the teaching methods' (1990:44). Within this course the core module

is 'Intensive Reading' (IR). In the following section, I will first give an overview of the SCEC and then expand on IR, as the latter will be the primary focus of this study.

1.5.1 The Specialist College English Course (SCEC)

The SCEC is a four-year course designed for English majors studying for a bachelor's degree. Due to the changing demands of the modern workplace, the skills required of new graduates are also changing and this is reflected in the course aims. According to the latest curriculum issued in 2000, the SCEC should provide English major undergraduates with a solid foundation in English, an in-depth knowledge and competence to use their foreign language skills in a wide ranging set of possible careers in education, finance, media, business, government foreign ministries and other organizations that interface with the outside world. Therefore English departments in China are intended to provide students' not only with language proficiency but also with expertise in other relevant fields and all these subjects are taught in English.

The four-year bachelor degree courses are divided into two stages - foundation and specialized. The foundation stage includes the first two years when students study core modules such as: intensive reading, extensive reading, listening and speaking and writing. Hu sees the goal of this stage as:

> to provide students with a firm knowledge base of grammar and vocabulary as well as an all-round development of both receptive and productive skills (2002a:16).

The second stage is more specialized and covers the final two years during which, apart from continuing with core modules such as intensive reading and writing, students study optional subjects, depending on their own specialist interest and the available courses (see Table 1.2).

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		Year	Foundation Stage				Specialist stage			
		Semester	Year 1		Year 2		Year 3		Year 4	
Courses			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Proficiency	Compulsory	Intensive Reading	√	√	√	√				
		Intensive Reading (Advanced level)					√	√		
		Phonology	√							
		Listening	√	√	√	√				
		Speaking	√	√	√	√				
		Extensive Reading	√	√	√	√				
		Writing			√	√				
		Grammar			√	√				
		Interpretation							√	√
		Translation					√	√		
	Optional	Visual Listening and speaking								
		Practical stylistic writing								
		Overseas newspaper reading								
		Online reading								

Table 1.2 Stages and objects in the 4 years bachelor degree course

Information based on the New Curriculum, the latest national English curriculum for English majors issued in 2000 (my translation).

In the New Curriculum it also mentions that each university is allowed to make adaptations on timing and content of study based on their own specific situations.

From the subjects listed in Table 1.2 Intensive Reading (IR) is pivotal, occupying the longer period of study (three years, including advanced-level study). It also involves more classes than the rest of the modules. Every week there are four classes for IR whilst the other modules, like extensive reading, listening and speaking have just two classes each. In addition to the extra time involved, IR also

attracts the double credits. Altogether an English major should have 24 credits from the IR whilst they only need to have 8 credits from listening and speaking, 12 from translation and 8 from interpretation. For these reasons, IR may be legitimately regarded as the core of the Tertiary English curriculum throughout China and therefore has been selected as the focus of this study and is considered in 1.5.2 below.

Overall, English majors are required to complete 2,000 to 2,200 hours of English instruction, amongst which nearly 500 hours should be allocated to IR. They are expected to acquire a large vocabulary, a sophisticated knowledge of English, very high skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing and a firm foundation in specialist areas. These are much higher goals than those evident in College English for non-English majors.

Table 1.3 lists the five skills that an English major should acquire before being awarded a degree, reflecting the high demands of the subjects (my own translation from the New Curriculum 2000: 6-10).

Knowledge/Skill	Major Objectives
Listening	Understand conversations on various topics in authentic contexts; understand radio or television programmes of English speaking countries (e.g. CNN) concerning political, economic, cultural, educational and scientific issues, special reports on lectures on similar subjects and questions and answers on those subjects; understand TV reports on current issues and conversations on TV series; understand reports at a speed of 150-180 words per minute after listening twice with a pass criteria of 60% accuracy
Speaking	Exchange ideas with people from English-speaking countries on major international or domestic issues, to engage in lengthy and in-depth discussions on these subjects, and to express themselves clearly, assertively and coherently

Reading	Understand editorials and critical essays on political issues from British and American major newspapers and magazines; understand historical biographies and literature published in English-speaking countries of varying degrees of difficulty and be able to analyze the thesis, structure, rhetoric and style of writing; be able to read a text with 1,600 words within 5 minutes, getting the gist and the main ideas, understanding the facts and details
Writing	Be able to write various styles of essays (descriptive, narrative, expository and argumentative), expressing themselves effectively, coherently and accurately. The required speed is 300-400 words within half an hour. Students need to write a thesis of 3,000 to 5,000 words in length which is part of the requirement for a bachelor's degree, and which should be clear, substantial and coherent
Translation	Be able to render into Chinese literary works and newspaper or magazine articles published in English-speaking countries, and to translate Chinese literature or newspaper articles into English. The translation speed required is 250-300 English words per hour. Students are also asked to serve as interpreters at public functions involving people from English-speaking countries

Table 1.3 Objectives for English majors after four years' study

As mentioned earlier in this section IR occupies a pivotal position and the main goals set in the curriculum are expected to be fulfilled primarily through IR, with the rest modules as complementary. However, the goal set in the curriculum is extremely high, possibly too high and perhaps only a few English majors from the top universities can achieve it. For the rest the goal would appear to be unattainable.

Since IR is a significant part of the curriculum it will be the focus of my study, and therefore I will detail this course in the following section.

1.5.2 Intensive Reading (IR)

IR, 精读 (jingdu), literally meaning 'reading meticulously', is one of the legacies of an era when China was influenced by methodologies from the Soviet Union (this will be elaborated in Chapter 2). It is sometimes referred to as Comprehensive English by virtue of its characteristics that include listening, speaking, reading,

writing and translation - all the five skills. IR precedes the New Curriculum but approaches to its teaching have remained fairly constant over time. Different scholars give different definitions of IR based on their own experience. Meyer, for instance notes:

> IR in my institute here in Beijing means examining a specific text from Advanced Reading Book 1 (ELP 1982). This is a collection of articles and extracts from novels, each of several pages, followed by notes and exercises (comprehension, grammar, translation, essay topics), and it is my task to provide background knowledge and then to go through paragraph by paragraph explaining words, idioms and anything else I find necessary. The Chinese co-teacher deals in alternate weeks with the exercises (1990:164).

Everett, in his article 'A theoretically based evaluation of intensive reading', comments that:

> IR is, in a general sense, what its name implies, a careful scrutiny of a text. In common practice that means students are given a short text (1 to 3 pages), which the teacher first reads out loud to the students. The reading is followed by the analysis, which revolves around two goals. One is the expansion of the students' vocabulary knowledge...The other goal is the expansion of the students' grammatical knowledge (1990:177).

Although there are some differences here based on teachers' experiences, we can abstract common elements from the definitions: a short piece of text, analysis of the text, following explanation of vocabulary and grammar.

IR has been regarded as the most important course in the SCEC. In his paper, 'In search of a fitting role for intensive reading in the curriculum', Pennycook claims

that IR remains at the heart of most language teaching curricula at tertiary level (1987). A similar comment has been made by Dzau:

> The best and most experienced teachers were assigned to teach [IR]. As a result, its status was raised still more. Before long the methods used in this course were adopted all over China wherever English was taught, whether in tertiary or in secondary institutions (1990:44).

In line with this argument, Everett notes that:

> In many programmes, IR is considered to be the most appropriate manner of developing students' language ability. If there are other courses in the programme, they are typically considered supplementary and of relatively less important in developing language ability. The implication, then, is that IR is the method or technique which best provides the conditions essential to the development of language ability (1990:175).

Although English courses in secondary and other tertiary institutions may be known by different names they generally follow the same teaching manner as IR. It is not a reading course as its name suggests but a 'core foundation course in EFL in which everything the teacher wants to teach (grammar, vocabulary, reading aloud, etc) is taught through a written text' (Cortazzi & Jin 1996a:66).

Based on the studies done by Dzau (1990) and Meyer (1990), Cortazzi and Jin summarise a common teaching sequence for each unit/lesson in IR:

- Students prepare for a new unit by checking the meaning of new words, by listening to recordings of the text, if available, and by practising reading the text aloud.

- In class, the teacher will ask students to read the text aloud and will check pronunciation and ask general comprehension questions.

- The new words and selected grammatical points are then explained and exemplified in detail, with drills and exercises involving pronunciation, translation, the use of synonyms and paraphrase.

- The class goes through the exercises in the textbook and practises further with paraphrasing, summarizing and retelling the content of the text.

- Some teachers will go beyond the published exercises and will involve students in discussion, debate or role-playing, but many teachers believe there is no time for such activities or that they are difficult to organize in large classes (1996a:66).

China as a nation has undergone many changes in recent times and ELT has not escaped, evident in an evolving curriculum and innovation affecting teaching methodologies and textbooks. However two things remain unchanged: the status that IR enjoys and the classroom practices that are described above.

In the New Curriculum, IR is classified into two categories, foundation and advanced, described as follows:

- IR foundation: a course for comprehensive English skills, with the aim of fostering and improving students' comprehensive abilities in English. Through basic language training and text explanation and analysis, students are expected to improve their comprehension of the texts; understand the styles and characteristics of various genres; enlarge their vocabulary and be familiar with frequently used sentence patterns; develop the basic skills of spoken and written English. Teachers should encourage students to participate in a variety of communicative activities in order to

achieve the basic communicative skills, and to meet the listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation skills set out in the New Curriculum.

- IR advanced: a course for training students in comprehensive English skills, particularly their reading, stylistic rhetoric and writing ability. Through reading and analysing texts of various styles from renowned authors on topics as diverse as politics, economics, society, language, literature, education, philosophy, students are expected to broaden their knowledge; to deepen their understanding of society and life; to improve their ability to analyse and appreciate master-pieces; to develop the skills of logical reasoning and independent thinking; to consolidate and improve their English proficiency. A large number of exercises should be designed, including reading comprehension, vocabulary, lexis study, genre analysis, translation from both Chinese to English and English to Chinese, and writing, with the hope that students' English level can be improved enormously in quality (New Curriculum 2000:23 my translation).

The development of the New Curriculum and its associated textbooks was in response to criticism levelled at the inefficiencies of ELT at a conference on foreign language teaching convened by the then deputy Premier Lanqing Li on 28th June 1996 (this will be discussed further in Chapter 2). It was his view that ELT in China was 'investing more time; harvesting less profit' and he further went on to say that 'after having learnt English for over eight or even twelve years, the majority of university students cannot understand original English books; on top of that, they cannot even communicate with native interlocutors as they can't understand, nor can they speak the native speakers' English'. In his talk Li also highlights the important components in ELT - textbooks, teachers, and the linguistic environment. However, in countries like China, where students live in a

monolingual environment (where not many chances are available for students to use English outside of classrooms) and lack frequent contact with English speakers, the classroom is the primary place where their English is learnt. Therefore teaching methodology is viewed as the most important component that determines the efficiency of language learning. The importance of teaching methodology is stressed in Deputy Premier Li's talk:

> Our goal is to optimize teaching through the innovation of teaching methodology rather than adding to students' workload so that students can have a command of a foreign language and proficiency by spending less time... I keep thinking if only we have the time when we could find a learning method that suits us Chinese (Wenhui Newspaper 1996 my translation).

Over a decade has passed, and new curricula, textbooks and teaching methodologies have been updated and implemented. However, similar critiques can still be heard. The problem we have today is that the calibre of English major graduates cannot meet changing social and economic demands (Zhang and Yang 2000:3; Fang, 2001:76). Chang comments:

> Graduates from English majors in China are mainly trained in language skills, language knowledge, language theories and literary studies. Lacking knowledge in other disciplines, they cannot cope with tasks demanding the interdisciplinary knowledge required in a rapidly changing social, cultural, economic, scientific and technological world. Moreover, the educational ideology of teachers and administrators is still backward owing to the legacy of government planning systems. Inflexible management, a rigid syllabus, teacher-centred teaching, and

outdated materials cannot effectively prepare students for the changing market they are supposed to face (2006:518).

Chang's critique covers the focus of my study: the curriculum, the teaching methodology and teaching materials. When we consider the Chinese educational system, we may see two diametrically opposed phenomena. In theory, the latest national English language curricula issued for all levels of education emphasize the students' practical ability to communicate with English speakers. My own experience as an English teacher in secondary and tertiary school, the literature I have reviewed and the data I have obtained in my study, provide evidence of a gap between such policy and teaching practices. The data I collected led me to concentrate my attention on how textbooks and PowerPoint slides are used, what model of teaching style is being employed and how language is used as a medium of instruction. As outlined below research questions are discussed in Chapter 3.

1.6 Outline of this thesis

This thesis consists of three parts.

Part I is comprised of Chapters 1 to 3 and sets the background for the empirical study. Following this introduction, in Chapter 2, I review the history of ELT in China. Starting from the middle of 19th century, when English was introduced to China, and progressing to the present, I identify three phases. For each phase I consider English curricula and teacher development and how Western English teaching methodology has impacted on ELT in China. In Chapter 3 I discuss research methods adopted in the study, research questions and data. Ethical issues that relate to this research are addressed.

Part II is made up of Chapters 4 to 6, which deal with data analysis. Chapter 4 looks at what is being taught in the classroom and especially at the teaching materials, specifically the textbooks used by teachers and students. I review how

textbooks are generally perceived in a global context and then how they are perceived in a specifically Chinese context. I look at the textbooks used by the teachers in my study, and at general patterns evident in their use in particular lessons. PowerPoint slides seem to function as an extension of book knowledge, and Chapter 4 therefore includes discussions of PowerPoint slides prepared by the teachers. Chapter 5 is the first of the chapters that look more closely at how English is delivered. I focus on teachers' use of textbooks and PowerPoint slides, and examine this from a micro perspective, i.e. how teachers mediate between textbooks and PowerPoint slides when they deliver knowledge from the two sources. I look at particularly how the teachers position themselves and the students and what kind of 'voices' they draw on in their interaction with students. My data reveals that the teachers use a great deal of Chinese and in Chapter 6 I therefore look at how Chinese and English are used and what role they play in teaching.

Part III, Chapter 7, is the conclusion. Here I bring together evidence from my analysis in Chapters 4-6. I consider what I believe my research has shown, and I outline certain recommendations for policy practice in English language teaching in China. I also consider some limitations of the study and possibilities for further research.

1.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have reviewed the global status of English as an international language; how English has been perceived as a useful tool by different Chinese governments and the demand for English from people in China. I have sketched out the landscape of ELT and bilingual education across all levels of education in China. I have also outlined my study and the organisation of this thesis. Some relevant terms, e.g. SCEC and IR have been explained and the language skills

and the aims of IR in the curriculum have also been discussed. Further literature that has general relevance to this study is reviewed in the next chapter. Chapters 4-6 include brief reviews of literature that has direct relevance to their analytical focus.

Chapter 2 The development of ELT for English majors in China

2.1 Introduction

Numerous studies have been done on English Language Teaching (ELT) in Chinese primary and secondary school curricula and pedagogy (Adamson& Morris 1997; Adamson 2001; Adamson 2004; Hu 2002a, 2002b; Guan and Meng 2007), but there is no such systematic study of ELT at tertiary level, particularly of English majors, either in the West or in China, though there are some relevant articles in both Chinese and international journals. By virtue of the focus of this study, in this chapter I will review the development of ELT for English majors by looking at the policy, the curricula and pedagogy. As reviewed in Section 1.3, English in China has been seen as a tool at both government and individual levels. As a consequence, the development of ELT in China has been influenced by differing political, economic, social and educational needs at different times. Ross makes an analogy of ELT in China and sees it as 'a barometer of modernization' (1992:239). Adamson and Morris echo this view and argue that the barometer is clearly reflected in the production of syllabi /textbook and the selection of pedagogical approaches in the last five decades (1997). In the following section I will trace back to the beginning of ELT for English majors and elaborate its development over three periods of recent history: Pre-Cultural Revolution (from mid 19th century to 1960s), Cultural Revolution (1966-1976), and the Reformation and Opening-Up Policy (1978 onwards). In conjunction with the policy and curricula I will take the development of ELT methodology worldwide as a background, to elaborate on its adoption in China. Finally, by analysing ELT methods and the current curriculum used in tertiary institutes I will review the current methodology with the focus on the impact that Western methodology has on Chinese ELT.

2.2 Phase one- Pre-Cultural Revolution: mid 19th century to the schism with the Soviet Union

Education in China has been in existence for over two thousand years. However, until the depostition of the last emperor in 1911, the purpose of school education was to help students pass the imperial exam. The beginning of tertiary education in China was the result of the policy 'learning the barbarian's techniques to overcome the barbarian' (shi yi ren zhi ji yi zhi yi 师夷人之技以治夷) in the middle of 19th century, when the country was under the threat of frequent foreign invasion and occupation. Since the first English speakers arrived in southern China in the early 17th century, it took more than two hundred years before English was introduced to the formal education domain. The direct result was the Opium Wars, which was mentioned in Chapter 1.

According to Chang, 'China established its first foreign language training institution, the School of Combined Learning in 1862; Its subsequent incorporation into the Metropolitan College (predecessor Beijing University) in 1902 marked the official beginning of the education of English majors in China' (2006:517). Due to the turmoil and turbulence in the first half of the 20th century, i.e. the overthrow of the last Emperor in 1911 which marked the end of over 2000 years of feudalism in China, fighting amongst the warlords (1916-1928), the Japanese invasion (1937-1945) and the Chinese Civil War (1945-1949), neither ELT nor English majors developed much. By the time the People's Republic of China was founded in 1949 there were approximately 7,000 students pursuing higher education in English majors (Hu 1999:57 my translation).

The situation became worse for English majors after the new People's Republic of China was founded, when the country established the 'classes plus brothers' relationship' with Russia due to the isolation caused by 'Western Imperialism'

headed by the USA. Higher institutions began to offer Russian language education programmes in 1952, and soon English was replaced by Russian as the first preferred language. Learning English was now seen as unpatriotic. Chang summarizes the ELT for English majors at that stage as such:

> ...only eight institutions were teaching English in China and most English departments were closed down by the MOE (Ministry of Education) because of the low demand for English graduates at that time and ignorance of the growing influence of global English in the outside world. In 1956, there were only 545 teachers of English on campus. (2006:517)

The blockade by the USA and its allies determined the progress of the new People's Republic, which was already fragile in every aspect of life due to the aforementioned turbulence, and now had to rely heavily on Russia for both textbooks and methodology for foreign language teaching. Hu notes that 'The Russian model of foreign language teaching, like the traditional Chinese model, was teacher-dominated and textbook-centered, with an overwhelming emphasis on grammar and vocabulary' (2002a:17). Due to the compatibility between the two models, when they merged the outcome was long lasting and still affects ELT in China to this day. Another major influence was the introduction of the intensive reading (IR) module. Based on Maley (1990) and Scovel's (1983) argument, Hu further comments Russia's influences on Chinese ELT as such:

> The *explication de texte* approach introduced via the Russian influence fitted well into the tradition of L1 literacy teaching in China, thrived in the Chinese milieu and has become the hallmark of ELT practices in the PRC (2002a:18).

IR is still the major part of the Specialist College English Course (SCEC) as has been documented in Chapter 1. In 1956, driven by the goal of improving scientific knowledge, the central government declared 'we must prepare every necessary condition for scientific research...must expand foreign language teaching and improve the number of foreign books translations' (Hu 2001:247 my translation). Most likely as a consequence of this edict it was then that the MOE started to make great efforts to reinstate the education of English majors. The reinstatement of English and English majors in education advanced quickly at the beginning of the early 1960s after the schism with Russia (around 1962) and the establishment of foreign relations with the 'third world', e.g. countries from Africa and Latin America. Due to the political need, in 1964 the MOE officially stipulated English as the first foreign language in schools. Ever since then English has taken the place of Russian in language teaching and learning and within the first few years English education developed rapidly. Chang calls this stage 'the first renaissance in the history of English education in China' and adds that 'the expansion of English education not only increased the demand for graduates from English majors but also prepared English-speaking civil servants for Chinese government' (Chang 2006:517).

Considering the political environment and the status that English enjoyed in the 1960s, 'the-limited-opening-up' policy in ELT was enforced, which was documented in a journal article by the MOE.

> ...English majors need to have a language learning environment and a channel to understand the native countries' situations and culture. Therefore, an open-up policy is needed for teaching materials, textbooks, foreign teachers, as well as sending some students abroad (1999:5 my translation).

This policy reflected the fact that it is nearly impossible to cut off the contact with the native English-speaking countries purely from pedagogical point of view. Since the new policy took into consideration political and long-term economic needs, it is considered to 'have been practical and beneficial...' (Hu 2001:49 my translation).

There was no curriculum issued for ELT at tertiary level at that stage but one can have a sense of the tenor of ELT by looking at the syllabus issued in 1956, roughly about two years after relations with USSR first began to deteriorate, for senior secondary schools, in which the need for English learning was three-fold:

> First, to construct socialist China, it was necessary to absorb, through mastery of English, the latest scientific and technological achievements all round the world. Second, learning English could facilitate socialist education of the young generation. Finally, learning English could help students better understand their mother tongue, foster their thinking ability, and widen their vision (Hu 2002a:22).

Clearly, this syllabus stressed both the pragmatic and ideological functions of ELT and was subsequently updated in 1963, adding that English was 'an important tool for developing cultural and scientific knowledge, engaging in international interaction, facilitating culture exchange and fostering understanding between people of different countries' (Hu 2002a:22). The aim of learning English at this stage was 'self-strengthening': English would provide access to Western technology and scientific expertise. It was also in this syllabus that the then new teaching methodology-audio-lingual method was recommended.

However, this 'renaissance' lasted only a few years before the 'Cultural Revolution' was instigated by Mao in 1966 and in the following few years everything foreign was banned.

2.2.1 Teachers and teaching materials in the PRC before the Cultural Revolution

Due to the inconsistent development of ELT during this time, neither a national curriculum nor teaching materials were produced for English majors and most of the universities produced their own materials locally. Price described his own experience of working in one of the institutions as such:

> While some textbooks existed and were used, in the majority of cases the material was prepared locally, all too often only a week or two ahead of its use. This work was probably the most difficult and frustrating which foreigners have to do, mainly because of political distrust (1970:178).

In most cases the materials were first written by the Chinese teachers then revised by foreign teachers and finally compiled by the Chinese teachers. Price further elaborated on the process of writing the materials:

> The same text would first be corrected by a British teacher, and then by an American. Then some Chinese would compile the final draft without realizing the reason for the various corrections, and what was taught would be neither British nor American but a type of Chinglish... (1970:178).

The resultant material was politically oriented and unfortunately none of it survived the Cultural Revolution. However, we can still retrieve some examples of it from books or articles written by Western scholars. The following is an example from Price's article on the textbook written by an indigenous Chinese, Xu Guozhang, who had received a good education in the early 20th century and later studied at the University of London and Oxford from 1947 to 1949. In one of the texts entitled *The Study of English* Xu described the purpose of learning English as such:

...First of all, I know clearly what I study English for. A year ago, although I was interested in the language, I wasn't clear about its usefulness. I think I have a better idea of that now. To know what is going on outside our country, to tell our friends abroad what is going on in China, to help the oppressed peoples in their struggle against imperialism and for freedom and happiness - to do all of this, a good command of foreign language is necessary (cited by Price 1971:81).

In a similar vein Price summarized that the purposes of learning English were two-fold: 'helping China to obtain knowledge of foreign techniques which might be of use to her, and carrying the message of Chinese communism to the people of other lands' (1970:72).

During this politically sensitive time, whenever a government official spoke it needed to be taken as a mandate. At one university in 1962 the Foreign Minister Cheng Yi (who fought alongside Mao during the Anti-Japanese War and the Civil War) gave an important talk, which was summarized by Price thus:

> While warning that students should learn to use the language in a Chinese way and not learn the 'way of thinking of the foreigner', he made it clear that mastery of the spoken word was the main aim. Students should thoroughly master a vocabulary of at least 5,000 words, learning to use the idioms and 'set phrases' of the foreign tongue, and translation should be replaced by thinking in the foreign language. To this end Chinese should be avoided, at least in the classroom (1971:72).

Cheng Yi's talk was seen as a guide for both curriculum and teaching methodology. Although the summary of the talk is not lengthy it includes several aspects of language teaching and learning: the ideology of English learning, i.e. to

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think in a Chinese way and not in a foreigner's way; the importance of spoken English was highlighted; and 'monolingualism' was stressed for the first time in public. This was nearly the same period of time when the tenets that English should be taught monolingually also appear in the West and in post-colonial countries. It is difficult to say whether this 'monolingualism' was borrowed from the others or was an endemic phenomenon. In Chapter 6 the use of L1 will be analyzed in detail and there I will also review the development and application of monolingualism.

By virtue of the different education received by the Chinese teachers in this era of turmoil, their English proficiency was mixed. On the one hand there were scholars like Xu who had received an education either in the UK or USA, with an excellent grasp of the spoken language and culture of the countries concerned. On the other hand there were young teachers who had struggled to grasp some new and badly taught English and who lacked the ability to read or speak it properly as well as the aids which might have enabled them to do so. Between these two extremes 'the majority has a fair grasp of the language, with little idea of the life and literature of the country concerned' (Price 1970:179).

2.3 Phase two - the Cultural Revolution

The Cultural Revolution, which is also referred to as the 'ten-year-catastrophe', started in 1966 and ended in 1976 with Mao's death. With the economy and education suspended, the ten-year political campaign nearly brought the nation to the verge of collapse. Foreign teachers and scholars withdrew from China and all foreign language education was disrupted. In 1968, for political reasons, e.g. the schism with USSR and the establishment of the relations with the third world (countries from Africa and South America), some foreign language programmes resumed in some institutions of higher education. However, little teaching and

learning was happening, for students had to spend a significant amount of time 'learning from workers and farmers' when 'labour work was regarded the most glorious' one and 'education is to serve farmers, workers as well as soldiers'. When students did attend classes, all they learnt about was 'class and class struggle' (the expressions in the inverted comma were all slogans from the Cultural Revolution). Textbooks were full of politically charged texts to serve political needs and were not based on any theories of language teaching and learning. As a result, the English that was taught was full of 'revolutionary slogans' and the English language 'was neither fish nor flesh and some of it is still a laughing stock' to this day (Hu 1999: 76 my translation). According to Lam, 'even during those dark years for foreign-language education, Zhou Enlai (then premier) managed to save a remnant of the foreign-language majors and deployed them to jobs requiring foreign languages' (2002:246). The negative impact caused by this disruption did not stop immediately after the Cultural Revolution but was strongly felt in the subsequent years and the quality of ELT was at its lowest.

During this phase, the method applied was predominantly the grammar-translation method although in some institutes audio-lingual method was introduced, which will be elaborated in Section 3. No documents recording teachers' development can be found. At a stage when the economy and education was suspended, indeed when the whole nation was on a brink of collapse one would not expect this kind of programme even existed.

2.4 Phase three - the reformation and opening up policy

With Mao's death, and after the dust of the Cultural Revolution had settled, the nation shifted its primary task from 'class struggle' to 'economic development'. With the realization of the 'Four Modernizations' as its goal, the 'chief designer' of the opening up policy, Deng Xiaoping, instigated a national modernization

Programme. As a result, English as a global language regained legitimacy and English language education figured prominently in the drive for modernization (Adamson & Morris 1997). In 1978 the education of English majors 'ushered in the second renaissance' (Chang 2006), marking the beginning of the 'English fever', since when, more and more institutions for English majors have been built or expanded and students' enrolment has increased year on year. The latest available figures suggest some 800,000 English majors in the year 2008 (Dai 2008).

Hu observes that

> While some policy swings have occurred over the years, the overall trajectory of policy efforts has been characterized by a shift from an emphasis on the political and ideological functions of foreign language education to a focus on its role in facilitating economic development and national modernization (2005a:7).

This shift of focus from political and ideological functions to economic development brought about a change of curriculum. Work on the curriculum for English majors commenced at the beginning of the 1980s and the new curriculum had two versions. One version was issued and implemented in late 1989 for elementary college level and the other, issued in 1990, was devoted to advanced college level. However, due to the rapid growth of the Chinese economy and China's integration into world affairs, plus the improvement in English language skills of middle school graduates, the national curriculum could not keep up with the changing situation. In 1998, commissioned by the MOE, an ad hoc group of ten professors from Higher Institutes Specialist College English Committee started to work on the amendment of the new curriculum. Unlike the first one, which took over ten years to complete and implement, the second one took only two years to

introduce. After it was approved in 1999, the New Curriculum (the full name is *Higher Education English Specialist Course English Curriculum*) started to be implemented in 2000. The New Curriculum was a combination of the two older versions and was developed 'in a more coherent and more consistent manner' (Chang 2006:521). In a review of 'the impact of English as a global language on educational policy and practices in the Asian-Pacific Region', Nunan suggests that in China 'The latest syllabi across the board are based on a functional/notional view of English and refer frequently to concepts such as communicative language teaching (CLT) and learner-centeredness' (2003:596). In actual fact the two curricula (1990; 2000) all follow the native speaker countries' model, i.e. CLT, 30 years after the origin of it in the west, at a time (2000) when that model was already being questioned in the west. The latest curriculum also includes Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT).

In the following section, I will summarise the two curricula with the focus on their aims and advocated teaching methodology. The first summary is the curriculum issued in 1990.

The 1990 Curriculum	
Guidance	As well as English, lessons on literature from major Anglophone countries, linguistics, cultural knowledge including international trade, news and relationships, should also be set and be instructed in English.
Principles in teaching	English teaching should be student-centred, with heuristic teaching and discussion encouraged. Students' involvement should be promoted. While expanding students' knowledge, their practical English should also be improved. English teaching should also foster students' logical as well as independent thinking; more opportunities should be provided for students to practise their English.

Figure 2.1 Summary of the 1990 curriculum (my translation)

Since Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was officially introduced into the curriculum for the first time, the 'underlying abilities/capacities and enabling skills' [communicative competence entails] are presented in detail in the appendix of this curriculum. Due to the limit on space, I will only outline each ability/skill here.

'Candidates will need the following underlying abilities/capacities and skills to enable them to perform the communicative tasks' (1990:97) and the underlying abilities are:

- Linguistic abilities

- Pragmatic abilities

- Cognitive capacity

- Affective capacity

- Rational thinking

Apart from these abilities, the enabling skills are also listed which include:

- Be able to deduce meaning of unfamiliar lexical items and grammatical structure

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- Be able to express ideas beyond one's linguistic repertoire

- Be able to interpret text by going outside it

- Be able to talk ahead and check back while following the discourse

- Be able to structure or to recognize the structure of discourse

- Be able to make a distinction in the signification of different ideas in the discourse

- Be sensitive to significant paralinguistic and metalingusitic features in speech events (1990 :97-101)

Terms like 'pragmatic abilities', 'cognitive capacity', 'affective capacity', 'discourse' and concepts like 'to express ideas beyond one's linguistic repertoire' and 'be sensitive to metalinguistic features' were all new to most of the teachers and all the students. The change advocated in the curriculum was radical and to a significant number of Chinese teachers and students, these abilities and skills were too utopian and out of reach. This curriculum could not be implemented entirely by virtue of the lack of necessary teacher education and training that might have enabled them to achieve its aims.

There was a ten year gap between the two curricula, during which time a lot had happened in the field of ELT worldwide. CLT globally now seems to have passed its heyday but it is still the mainstay of the New Curriculum and TBLT is also highlighted. Perhaps the editorial committee assumed that teachers should already be well versed in the concepts of communicative abilities and capacities since in the New Curriculum this part has been deleted. The following is a brief summary of the latest curriculum focusing on its aim and suggested teaching methodology.

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The 2000 Curriculum	
Aim	Higher Institution Specialist College English Course is intended to provide 'composite-type' graduates with a solid English foundation and a wide range of knowledge, so they can apply English in the fields of foreign affairs, education, trade, culture, science and technology and the military for the purposes of translation, teaching, management and research. The 21st century is an era of the global knowledge economy. The challenge we are facing in the 21st century determines the educational aims and scale of the personnel undertaking the Higher Institution Specialist College English Course. Apart from the aforementioned knowledge, these personnel should have strong abilities and be of a high calibre. This is based on the premise that students have a solid English foundation and a firm command of specialist English knowledge, that they will expand their knowledge of humanities, science and technology, and will have a pool of knowledge that is relevant to their future career. They should also foster the skill of absorbing knowledge, thinking independently, being innovative and improve their moral, cultural and psychological qualities.
Suggested teaching methodology	The priority is to foster students' communicative competence. Teaching methods will directly affect the nature and improvement of students' all-round ability. Classroom teaching should put students to the fore with teachers as facilitators, thus changing the previous teacher-centred style, and fostering students' learning and research ability. Teaching should be focused on task-based language teaching, using various teaching activities. While still enforcing the basic training, other styles like heuristic, discussion, discovery and research should also be applied so as to generate students' enthusiasm, inspire their motivation, and optimize students' involvement.

Figure 2.2 Summary of the new curriculum (my translation)

Elsewhere in this New Curriculum, it refers repeatedly to 'student-centredness', 'CLT', 'TBLT' and teachers stop imparting knowledge.

In order to fulfill the aims and to reflect the changes of the curricula, textbooks were also updated. Due to the constraints of the resources and technology, there were not many options of textbook in the early 90s and Liu's critique on the new version of the textbook for the 1990 curriculum is:

> [the book] does not give enough opportunities for students to practise
> using the language they are exposed to, to interact with each other, or

to share each other's opinion; most exercises expect one correct answer, or close-end output, which is confined to the language itself, rather than requiring students to produce a meaningful piece of work (1996:600).

The following is the book used in the late 1980s and early 1990s. In each lesson, there was one short piece of text with some exercises mainly for drilling. The following pictures are the textbook I used when I was at the university. With notes in the margin and sentences highlighted, this learning strategy still exists to this day as we shall see in Chapter 4.
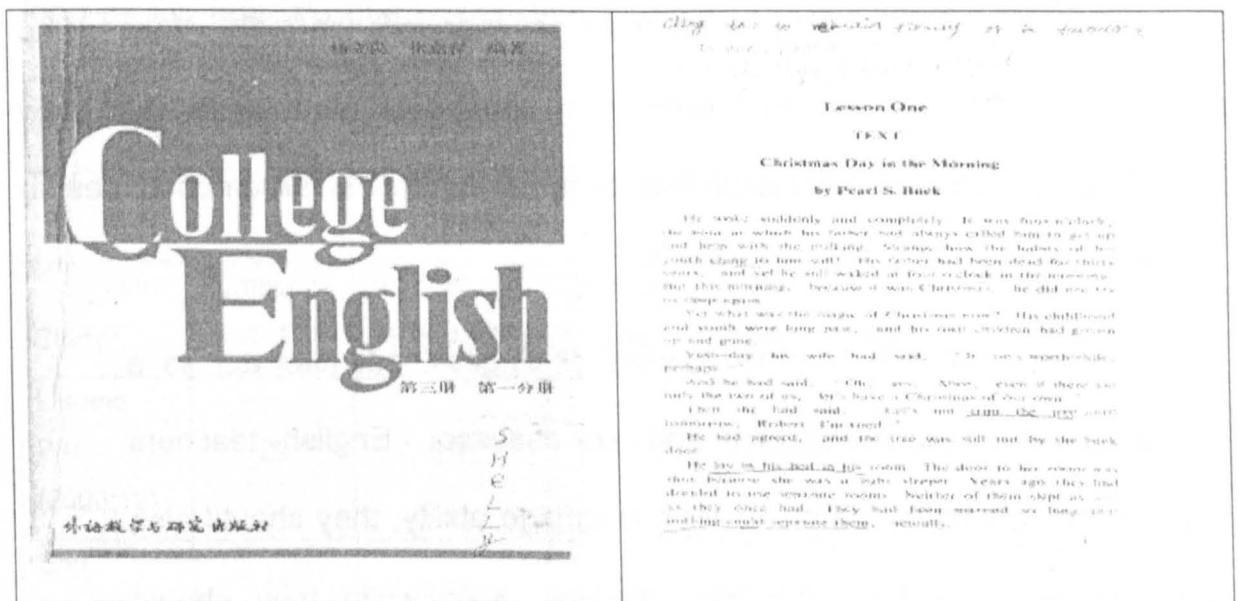
Figure 2.3 Textbook I used as a college student in the late 1980s.

More textbook options have been offered to universities that better relate to the newly issued curriculum and of all the published textbooks the most popular and authoritative one is the series issued by the *'Foreign language teaching and research press'*. In the newer, second textbook the texts were longer and more difficult, more teaching activities were designed for the exercises. However, if we have a closer look at the textbook, what Liu criticizes about the first version textbooks is still there, i.e. no opportunities for students to practise, to interact with each other or to produce a piece of meaningful work (1992). In fact there are no

'Tasks' (Prabhu 1987; Ellis 2003; Samuda and Bygate 2008) designed to trigger these activities for students. Since the teachers' use of the textbook will be analyzed in Chapter 4, I will elaborate in detail on the textbooks and its utility there.

2.4.1 Teachers' development during the third phase

Due to 'English fever' and the English learning environment in China, high expectations have been placed on English teachers. Although students can access English through other channels, i.e. English TV Channels from Hong Kong, English films, songs and English websites, the classroom is still the primary site where English is learnt and English teachers are therefore the major source. Shu argues that in China 'in the ELT domain, it can never be over-stressed how important the teachers' role is' (2004:288 my translation). Shu further continues on the teachers' role:

> Teachers are not only sample models of English, but also act as a guide, advisor, an interlocutor and an assessor. English teachers should not only have comprehensive language ability, they should also know theories on language and learning. Meanwhile they should constantly reflect and accumulate their teaching experiences so as to improve their teaching techniques' (2004:288 my translation).

The importance of teachers has been widely recognized and meanwhile teachers are facing unprecedented change due to the innovations in the curricula. As a result 'increasing attention has been paid to teacher education, because of the conviction that without a strong contingent of qualified teachers it is impossible to turn out competent personnel of science and technology needed for national development' (Hu 2002a:43). The 'English fever' has also fuelled the English

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teachers' education and the last three decades has seen an improvement in the quality of the teachers.

The following is a table based on two studies on the statistics of tertiary ELT teachers in China. One is a study by Liu and Wu in 2000, the other by Shu in 2004. The interesting thing is that, perhaps due to the constraints from research sources and technology, it took Liu and Wu ten years to complete their study. Their data was collected from 29 universities all over China with 519 teacher participants. Shu's data was from 11 universities with 1221 participants. Shu does not mention when the data was collected but we can assume it did not take as long as Liu and Wu due to the development of ELT research and technology in China.

The table compares the percentages for each type of teachers' degree.

Items Study	Number of universities	Number of participants	Doctorate degree	Masters degree	Bachelors degree	College certificate	Studied overseas
Liu and Wu (2000:12)	29	519	0.77%	35.26%	56.32%	4.24%	29.49%
Shu (2004:289)	11	1221	3.6%	58.48%	33.25%	0.49%	30.55%

Table 2.1 Comparison of teachers' development

Shu's data is anonymous so it is not known if some of the data is in fact from the same universities. Overall, this table suggests that teacher's education has improved in the past ten years, with PhD, Masters and Bachelor degree holders increasing significantly and college certificate holders decreasing. However, this increase is still far away from the goal set by the MOE that 'all teachers should have an MA degree in a few years' time' (Liu & Wu 2000 my translation) although they do not mention whether the MA degree should be awarded in China or abroad in English-speaking countries. Another important source of ELT teachers

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are native speakers and although neither of the studies included foreign English teachers it is evident that their number is growing as a result of China's integration in world affairs and economic development.

When we talk about teachers' development we have to bear in mind the imbalance amongst the regions in China due not only to its size but also its economic development. W. Wang and Gao note that 'As China experiences economic growth at an unprecedented speed, the society has become increasingly stratified' (2008:389). This stratification can be characterized in the distribution of English teachers. At some prestigious universities in Beijing and Shanghai half of the teachers are PhD holders whereas at some universities in less developed areas there are none according to Shu (2004).

Due to the rapid expansion of universities and English major Programmes, the demand for English teachers is growing. The shortage of English teachers makes many in-service teachers' work-load almost double with the consequence that these teachers have few chances to improve their own knowledge or carry out research.

In the review of Shu's (2004) book, Xu (2006) summarizes that a study in 2000 shows that, of several hundred English teachers from about 300 universities, 24 percent indicated that they never wrote nor knew how to write academic articles about their teaching and over 50 percent of them never participated in any research project. The low participation in research by English teachers, either as a result or the cause of a poor research environment, contributes to a low level of teaching ability. At this moment while I am writing this chapter, ten years (from 2000) has passed but the situation has changed little. Yang's study of English teachers in China reveals that 'majority of EFL teachers in China have not acquired the necessary qualifications, such as a degree in education or in applied

linguistics; nor do they receive sufficient pre-service or in-service training' (2010:9).

Although there is no unanimous agreement the necessary repertoire of knowledge for EFL/ESL teachers, it is generally believed that English teachers knowledge should include content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, curriculum and materials knowledge, second language acquisition, research ability, attitude and belief towards the changes in EFL (Mann 2005). However, EFL teachers in China generally believe that a high level English proficiency is the sole important element and lack awareness of the other components. As a consequence, Chinese teachers placed much greater importance on their personal knowledge base and subject knowledge as EFL teachers as 'the Chinese teachers considered sound pedagogical content knowledge as the most important quality of a good tertiary EFL teacher' (Zhang & Watkins 2007:781).

A lack of time and resources hampers teachers' efforts to do research, and as a result many Chinese teachers have never received any training on teaching methodology, and most of the time they imitate the methods used by their teachers when they were students. Therefore the existing method has been passed from one generation to another without realizing students' actual needs and the changing teaching environment.

2.5 Teaching methodology

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter tertiary education in China was the result of influence from the West. In the education domain, many terminologies are in fact borrowed from the West. The term 'pedagogy' was introduced to China at the beginning of the 20th century by a Chinese scholar Tao Xingzhi who studied in the United States under the supervision of Dewey, and who later became one of the pioneering contemporary educators in China. Since then 'pedagogy' (jiao xue

fa 教学法) which indicates both teaching and learning methods, has been used to replace the word 'imparting' (jiao shou fa 教授法), which means transmission method. The replacement of 'imparting' with 'pedagogy' marks the change of focus from 'teaching' to 'both teaching and learning' in China. Contemporary education in China tends to follow Western educational philosophies from countries like the United States, Germany and Russia either because of some influential Chinese scholars who had studied there or because of government policy. English language teaching is particularly so due to its own characteristics, i.e. the native language of many Western countries e.g. the UK and the USA and the development of methodology originated in these countries. In the following section, I will review the development of ELT methodology in each of the phases documented above and elaborate how ELT has been influenced by the methodology derived from the West.

In his history of ELT, Howatt classifies three unequal length periods, and claims it was the third period (from 1900 to the present day) that brought the subject up to date emphasizing the emergence of ELT as an autonomous profession in its own right (2004:1). Based on this clarification, this summary of ELT will focus on the post-1900 period, when incidentally the English programme for English majors in China started to emerge.

2.5.1 Phase one: traditional method

The term 'traditional method' is somewhat ambiguous as so far no clear definition has been given to this term. However, one method which is often associated with the term is grammar translation (GT). Therefore in this section I associate the traditional method with GT.

In the early 1900s GT was dominant in ELT worldwide. Howatt argues that 'The grammar-translation method was devised and developed for use in secondary

schools. It could even be called "the grammar school method" since its strengths, weaknesses, and excesses reflected the requirements, aspirations, and ambitions of the nineteenth-century grammar schools in its various guises in different countries' (2004:151).

GT was the principal method for the teaching of European languages from the 1840s to the 1940s. Despite the fact that new methodologies have emerged and been popularized since the 1960s, the GT method has not been ruled out completely and it continues to be used in modified forms in many countries today. Suddenly, when the fashion of ELT in the West moved to the wholesale use of the Direct Method, bilingualism in Western classrooms was effectively outlawed. However, this notion was not accepted in China for political and ideological reasons. As mentioned earlier, when the new Republic was founded in 1949, English was seen as a tool for science, technology, national development and modernization by translating original works from the West, and so this predicated the continued use of the GT Method. Reliance on this method can also be explained by the influence exerted on China in the early 1950s by the Soviet Union, which was providing economic and technical aid. At that time Russian became the dominant foreign language in China. Cortazzi and Jin suggest that 'In reaction against direct methods, held to be bourgeois, grammar-translation methods were established via Russian [language] textbooks' (1996a:64). The influence of the Soviet Union did not stop simply because of the schism with that country, as the majority of the Russian teachers were trained to teach English when Russian was dropped from the school curriculum.

A further explanation that has been advanced for the enduring nature of GT can be associated with its compatibility with the Chinese concept of education, and Chinese language teaching, i.e. teachers are seen as models for language

learning; accuracy is the major concern when language is taught and learnt (Hu 2002a, 2002b; Cortazzi and Jin 1996a); meanwhile GT method offers a sense of structure. Traditionally, teachers in China were compared to messengers and their role was passing information from books to students. 'Book' and 'teacher' were therefore two key elements in education (Further elaboration of this point will be in Chapter 4). For centuries Chinese language teaching focused on a teacher's explanation and a learner's memorization (This point will be further elaborated in Chapter 5). These practices are in Sampson's words, 'not trivial or accidental, but inherent in the fabric of Chinese Society' (1984:30 cited by Cortazzi and Jin 1996b: 184).

Johnson summarizes the characteristic of GT as such:

> ... GT lessons characteristically begin with a lengthy grammar explanation, followed by an example. This method is highly deductive, ...GT particularly relies heavily on the L1... Indeed, with the explanations given in the L1 and the liberal use of translations, there would almost certainly be more L1 than [foreign language] FL in the grammar-translation classroom (2001:165-166).

Similar comments have also been made by Howatt who vividly characterizes GT at its worst as 'a jungle of obscure rules, ...snippets of philosophy, and a total loss of genuine feeling for the language' (1984:136). Johnson further says that 'reading exercises involved going line by line through a text, dwelling on the meaning of every word and structure until 100 percent comprehension was achieved' (2001:185).

These features listed by the two scholars here have massive resemblance with the Chinese teaching and learning style, i.e. highlighting accuracy and full comprehension, memorization, and repetition (further details on the nature and

history of Chinese attitudes to education and teaching and learning style will be reviewed in Chapter 5). This can explain why the traditional method is still a prevailing one inside the ELT classroom. Dzau summarizes how Chinese language teaching affected ELT in this context:

> The convictions and beliefs of the average Chinese teacher of English as to how language should be taught have been important in shaping the methodology that is being used in China. These beliefs have their roots in the way Chinese teachers, especially from the older generation, learned their mother tongue (1990:75).

The following are two examples from both students and teachers' practice in an IR lesson.

Hu describes a typical secondary school student learning under a traditional model as such:

> Before the lesson, students prepare extensively for the new text in their textbooks by looking up virtually every new word in a dictionary, writing down their Chinese equivalents, trying hard to understand every detail of the text, and marking out difficult phrases and sentences (2002a:29).

Teachers' preparation of lessons taught in such a model at a tertiary level is also documented:

> The teacher also prepare extensively before the class, identifying all possible language points in the text, writing a detailed lesson plan full of explanations and examples, and penciling notes in the margin of the text that will enable her 'to expound every likely grammar point or word meaning which may arise'
>
> (Cortazzi& Jin, 1996b:183).

Both Hu's (2002a) and Cortazzi &Jin's (1996b) description of students and teachers practices still exist today and in my data, I have evidence to support their arguments. In Chapter 4 when I analyse how textbooks are used I will present pictures of textbooks used by students with phrases and sentences highlighted and notes written in the margins. Meanwhile during the interview, both the two teachers I interviewed mentioned that they put notes in the margin of the text as prompts.

Although the traditional teaching method has been rooted in Chinese society, it does not mean it remains static. It changes just as society does and current ELT in China tends to follow the trends and directions that emanate from the West. However, some scholars warn against the discarding of the GT method arguing that:

> Syntax is a system in its own right. Having a command of grammar structure is an efficient way of learning a foreign language, which has been proved by Chinese students. In spite of emphasizing communicative ability or fostering students' pragmatic capacity, from my point of view, explaining grammar rules is necessary. It is a cost-efficient and short-cut in English language teaching and learning (Jiang 2007 my translation).

Jiang's article does not provide solid evidence to support his claims that explaining grammar rules is a 'cost-efficient' and 'short-cut' in English teaching and learning. However, it justifies the existence of GT in China and reflects how significant grammar rules are in English language teaching and learning at least from some Chinese scholars' point of views.

2.5.2 Phase two: Audio-Lingual Method

With its focus on translation seen as a means of enabling an appreciation of literature in the target language, and the lack of emphasis given to actually speaking the language, in the west GT was eventually superseded by other methods which highlighted oral proficiency, such as the Direct Method, the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) and later methods developing from the Communicative Approach. Of these methods, the ALM and Communicative Approach have strong impacts on ELT in China. Therefore, in the following section I will focus on these two approaches.

Audiolingualism derived from the need for oral proficiency promoted by the US army after the Second World War. Johnson argues that a practical need was the starting point for Audio-Lingualism (2001:172). The underlying theory of the ALM was 'the combination of structural linguistic theory, contrastive analysis, aural-oral procedures, and behaviourist psychology' (Richards and Rodgers, 2001:53). With the claim that it was scientific and could enable students to master foreign languages both efficiently and effectively, this method was adopted by universities in North America. With drills and pattern practice as its distinctive feature, ALM spread and reached its peak in the 1960s.

Soon after the emergence of the ALM, it was adopted by a China that was still in the throes of the Cultural Revolution. According to Price it was pioneered in the First Foreign Language Institute in Beijing. Run by the Foreign Ministry, this institute enjoyed the confidence of the government and thus had the advantage of full access to a wide variety of reference works (1971). The introduction of ALM was well received in tertiary institutions and quickly spread to other levels of education. This method was characterized as 'ting shuo ling xian fa' 听说领先发 or 'listening-and-speaking-leads-first method'. It was recognized, at least in principle,

that 'listening and speaking' should come before 'reading and writing', and that fluency in speech was the primary objective in language learning. Although this method places a high demand on teachers' time in the classroom, it is still manageable with the aid of tape recorders and newer, modern multi-function media facilities. Therefore it is not surprising that this method is still in use in Chinese classrooms. One obvious influence that still can be seen in every level of education in China is the language lab, which is the immediate product of this method. At the university where my data is collected, nearly half of the lessons were given in this kind of language lab.

Figure 2.4 Photo taken in Ms Wang's class in the language lab

Another influence from the ALM is the use of the book 'English nine hundred', which again is the immediate product of the ALM. The book was very popular when I was a university student over twenty years ago and is still in use at informal education settings in China.

Kumaravadivelu makes a summary as well as critiques of the teaching procedures by using ALM as such:

> Within the audiolingual pedagogy, manipulating language input meant
> selecting grammatical features, sequencing them in some fashion,
> making them salient for the learner through a predominantly teacher-

centred, instruction... The learner was expected to observe the grammatical input, examine it, analyze it, imitate it, practice it, internalize it and use it. But, it become increasingly clear that confining the learner to an exclusively product-oriented, form-based language input not only distorted the nature of the target language exposed to the learner but also decreased the learner's potential to develop appropriate language knowledge/ability (2006:58).

Despite the critique of this method, with 'practice makes perfect' its tenet, this method is highly valued across China and this model of teaching and learning can be reflected in Chapter 5 where I analyse the transmission model of teaching.

The adoption of the ALM demonstrates the influence the West still exerted on China even when that country was in a state of isolation from the rest of the world. When China opened up, Western ideas together with new teaching approaches flocked in. Of all the new teaching methods the Communicative Approach has had the most significant impact on ELT in China.

2.5.3 Phase three: Communicative Language Teaching and Task-Based Language Teaching

The origins of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) date back to the late 1960s as a result of British applied linguists seeing the need to focus on language teaching on communicative proficiency rather than on mere mastery of structures (Richards and Rogers 2001:153). Halliday (1979) for instance, argues that CLT is a belief in the instrumentality of language teaching. Howatt observes that 'The key development [in the 1970s] was the emergence on both sides of the Atlantic of a new interest in how language is used and specifically in how linguistic systems interact with the world in which they operate' (2004:327). And he further states that

the notion at the heart of the 'communicative movement' in applied linguistics and language pedagogy after 1970 was the conviction that language teaching should take greater account of the way that language worked in the real world and try to be more responsive to the needs of learners in their efforts to acquire it (2004:326).

The Communicative Approach in language teaching starts from a theory of language as communication with the goal of developing 'communicative competence' (Hymes 1972). Hymes coined the term 'communicative competence' to contrast with Chomsky's theory of competence. Howatt distinguishes between a 'strong' and a 'weak' version of a communicative approach - the weak version stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider Programme of language teaching....The strong version of communicative teaching advances the claim that language is acquired through communication, so that it is not merely a question of activating an existing but inert knowledge of the language, but of stimulating the development of the language system itself, with the former characterized as 'learning to use' English and the latter 'using English to learn' (1984:279). Canale and Swain identify four dimensions of communicative competence: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic (1980). Hymes' concept of communicative competence entails both 'knowledge and ability' (Widdowson 1989) for language use.

With its claim that a Communicative Approach can foster 'Communicative Competence', CLT became commonplace in the 1970s. As meaning and authentic language are its primary focus, grammar teaching became minimal in the West where this approach was adopted. In more recent times the notion that 'communicative competence' can be enhanced by a Communicative Approach

and what exactly counts as authentic language are being questioned in the West (Widdowson 1978; Cook 2000, 2010; van Lier 1996). However, in China the Communicative Approach has become and remains the current orthodoxy and is advocated at all levels of ELT.

In 1979, together with the project CECL[3] (Communicative English for Chinese Learners), the notion of a communicative approach to language education appeared in China. This approach has provoked many comments and much debate. Some (e.g. Li 1984; Liao 2004), who follow the trend driven by the development of linguistic theory and market need, maintain that CLT is the best method while opponents (Hu 2005b), who take Chinese culture and social context into consideration, believe that 'absolutism' (Liao 2004) is something untenable. Based on a survey, Littlewood (2000) believes that Asian students do not want to be spoon-fed and would be willing to take the initiative if offered the opportunity. Eclecticists (e.g. Cortazzi and Jin 1996a; Rao 2002) believe CLT should be adopted with a suitable balance of new linguistic trends and China's traditional teaching structures.

The course *Communicative English for Chinese Learners* was developed at the Guangzhou Foreign Language Institute between 1979 and 1986 as a project supported by the British Council. This is considered 'the first textbook to be based on the communicative approach to language teaching and in China was quite unprecedented in its content and approach to language learning and teaching' ([Dyer 1993:24] Cortazzi and Jin 1996a:68).

With its student-centredness, use of authentic language and meaning focus, a Communicative Approach places a high demand on teachers as compared to GT.

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[3] Communicative English for Chinese Learners (CECL) was a project run by two Canadian teachers (Wendy Allen, Nina Spada) and a Chinese teacher (Li Xiaoju) at the Guangzhou (Canton) Foreign Languages Institute which was given the task of developing a new set of EFL materials for students majoring in English in tertiary education in China.

It met with considerable resistance at the outset, but due to the top-down policy and the publicity, Communicative Approach has now become a catchphrase in ELT in China. Most teachers claim that they are using CLT and teach English with an emphasis on communicative skills, though without truly understanding the underpinning linguistic or pedagogic philosophy. Cortazzi and Jin point out the mismatch between Chinese language teaching and a Communicative Approach by saying:

> Chinese approaches to language teaching have a long-standing concern with mastery of knowledge... In contrast the current notions of ELT in the West can be characterized as being centred on the development of skills, through four rather different foci: being centred on the learner, who will be involved in talk and will participate in interaction, frequently being engaged in activities or tasks and problems to raise awareness of language, particularly of functions and uses in which practice and communication, rather than memorizing, is held to be paramount (1996a:65).

Apart from the incompatibility with Chinese language teaching traditions, the implementation of CLT also met other obstacles such as a shortage of skilled teachers, inadequate teaching conditions and a rigid examination system. By virtue of the focus of this study, i.e. the New Curriculum and its delivery, in the data analysis chapters I will reveal the incompatibility in more detail.

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) has been regarded as a continuation of the Communicative Approach. Richards and Rogers put it that 'Task-based Language Teaching refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching' (2001:223). Willis identifies eight purposes of TBLT:

- To give learners confidence in trying out whatever language they know

- To give learners experience of spontaneous interaction

- To give learners the chance to benefit from noticing how others express similar meanings

- To give learners chances for negotiating turns to speak

- To engage learners in using language purposefully and co-operatively

- To make learners participate in complete interaction, not just one-off sentences

- To give learners chances to try out communication strategies

- To develop learners' confidence that they can achieve communicative goals (1996:35-36).

Each of the eight purposes highlights learners, i.e. their confidence, participation, and practices. This is clearly an approach that endorses the actualization of student-centredness. Many different definitions have been given to 'pedagogic task' depending on the focuses the scholars choose. After synthesizing the definitions of 'Pedagogic Task', for example, Long's (1985) definition which 'highlights connectedness with 'real-world' activity; Prabhu's (1987) definition which 'emphasizes the cognitive demands' and Ellis'(2003) definition which 'is framed in terms of a set of essential, criterial properties' (Samuda &Bygate 2008:63-64), Samuda and Bygate provide a clear synthesis of these varying approaches in the following definition:

A task is a holistic activity which engages language use in order to achieve some non-linguistic outcome while meeting a linguistic challenge, with the overall aim of promoting language learning, through process or product or both (2008:69).

Although the definitions of 'task' are given from different dimensions they all share the same tenet as Willis' (1996) eight purposes - learners are placed in the centre of the learning process.

TBLT shares the same general assumptions about the nature of language teaching underlying CLT, and highlights student-centredness and meaning rather than form. Therefore, it yet again places a high demand of teachers' proficiency, and the concept of student-centredness is at odds with Chinese values and traditional, social, moral and pedagogical responsibilities of the teachers, as we shall see in Chapters 4, 5, and 6.

As documented in the previous section, the concept of TBLT appeared in the latest curriculum for English majors issued in 2000. This New Curriculum was in response to the critique leveled against ELT by the deputy premier Li (1996) as well as the call for inventing a new teaching methodology and material that would suit the Chinese students most in the Chinese learning context. By virtue of the intricacy of ELT, scholars need to have linguistic, pedagogical, as well as psychological and educational knowledge to invent a new approach or methodology. So far no such ELT approach or methodology tailored to Chinese students has been produced in China and ELT is still following what is available in the West despite the following critique:

> In the last forty years, ELT in China generally follows the West or a
>
> higher level of education without considering its own teachers'
>
> proficiency, schools' facility or other conditions. We are used to
>
> embracing whole-heartedly a foreign methodology invented by a guru or
>
> reject this methodology completely...we have always been busy
>
> introducing foreign methodology rather than spending time to explore
>
> how to digest and permeate the Western pedagogy into Chinese ELT,

nor do we make enough efforts to study how to combine all the advantages of each method and apply them in the Chinese context (Jiang 2007 My translation).

The dilemma of ELT in China is that so far no indigenous scholar has found an efficient approach for Chinese learners and what is borrowed from the West was invented in contexts where China and Chinese students were excluded. The problem of implementing TBLT is like CLT. There are no corresponding teaching materials nor is there any teacher training for applying this approach. The term eclectism is frequently referred to in the Chinese ELT arena, meaning to adopt Western methodology in Chinese contexts, but no one can pin down how to adopt and adapt the Western methodology and the efficiency of this borrowing and adapting is worth investigating.

2.5.4 A summary of the methods

Richards suggests that the history of language teaching reflects the history of ideas about what language is and how language is learned (1984:7). Although 'common to each method is the belief that the teaching practices it supports provide a more effective and theoretically sound basis for teaching than the methods that preceded it' (Richards and Rodgers 2001:1), we have to bear in mind that methods are underpinned by how language is perceived by linguists. Most importantly, 'Linguists, then, typically take up a position, a particular perspective, and this, while giving them insights denied to others, at the same time limits their view' (Widdowson 2003:77). Therefore it is arguable that none of the approaches or methods is universally suitable for ELT, and which method one should adopt depends on the purpose and practical proficiency that students need as well as teachers' proficiency and awareness of what counts towards best teaching practice.

Penner summarizes the impact of this Western methodology on Chinese ELT and characterizes on the existing method - the traditional method (rather an eclectic method) - in this way:

> The Chinese traditional approach has focused on academic study of grammar, literature, and in-depth analysis of literary texts, following traditional Chinese scholarly practice and American and Soviet influences on the structure and content of Chinese education...various traditional Chinese educational strategies, which were inclined toward memorization, discussion, and grammar translation, have combined with Western influences on Chinese education in this century, such as missionary use of total immersion in the foreign language, American focus on the study of literature, phonetic study of English pronunciation, the Direct Method, Soviet traditions of intensive and extensive reading (from French origins), and the audiolingual method. The result of these influences has tended toward grammar translation, intensive reading and the study of literature (Burnaby &Sun, 1989:222 cited 1995 3-4).

This Eclectic Method, the influences from the West, can be reflected in the classroom practice which will be analysed in Chapters 4, 5, and 6.

2.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have traced the roots of the English major Programme and reviewed its historical origins and influences. By analyzing the policy of ELT, we have the idea that the driving force of ELT in China derives from both social and political needs. Due to the functions that ELT has had in different phases, the curricula and teaching materials vary. The changing curricula also reflects the changes in methodology. The introduction of CLT and TBLT is the current need resulting from China's integration into world affairs. However, whereas

audiolingualism was embraced by ELT in China because of its empathy with Chinese values such as 'language is a habit' and 'practice makes perfect', the rejection of CLT, TBLT can be attributed to teachers' beliefs and values, their proficiency, inadequate resources, unsuitable textbooks etc. Their rejection of CLT and TBLT is at odds with students' expectations for their English proficiency and the expected learning process, and it is this topic that will be scrutinized in Chapters 4, 5, and 6, where I will reveal what exactly is being taught and how English is taught as well as elaborating on teachers and students' comments on teaching contents and practice.

Chapter 3 Research methodology and data collection

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter I will discuss the methodology that is being applied in this study. Starting from a broad characterization of qualitative research, I will then elaborate on ethnography, an approach which is drawn upon in this study. Three components related to ethnography will be discussed – time frames of ethnography, insider vs outsider perspectives, and the instruments of data collection adopted for this study. The process behind the decisions made for this research will be elaborated, and subsequently the research questions will be posed. Details of the research context will be discussed, including the institute where my data was collected, the teachers and students observed and interviewed. Other relevant aspects relating to data analysis, i.e. the overall data set, data transcription, data analysis and ethical issues will also be detailed. Finally I shall consider arguments on validity, reliability and generalization related to qualitative research.

3.2 Methods applied in this study

Broadly speaking, educational research can be classified as qualitative, quantitative or a combination of both. Qualitative and quantitative research belong to different paradigms in the research domain. When eliciting information from research participants for instance, quantitative research uses structured questions with the response options predetermined and feedback gathered from a large number of respondents. Researchers who adopt this method tend to apply a measuring instrument to measure their data. Qualitative research, however, has a strong emphasis on exploring the nature of particular phenomena, rather than 'setting out to test pre-defined hypotheses' (Bird et al 2006:12). Denzin and Lincoln argue that 'Qualitative research is a field of inquiry in its own right' and

'Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world' (2005:2).

My methodological approach follows on from the conceptual framework outlined in Chapters 1 and 2. This is both an ontological position, concerned with the way in which the 'real' is perceived i.e. the curriculum, the teaching material and the classroom practice, as well as an epistemological position in which a view of what counts in an efficient ELT methodology in a Chinese context can be obtained by analyzing classroom practice and interview data from teachers and students. The characteristics of the inquiry in this study suggest that a broadly qualitative approach should be adopted. Based on these ideas, quantitative research methods will be excluded from this study, as the aim is to achieve a deeper qualitative understanding rather than making quantitative comparisons about tertiary ELT for English majors in China. Further justification of the choice of research methodology will be elaborated in the next section.

3.3 An ethnographic approach and a data set for this study

Qualitative research exists in many forms, and ethnography is one of them. The characteristics of qualitative research are that it consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that 'makes the world visible' (Denzin and Lincoln 2005:2). Denzin and Lincoln further argue that

> Qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to
>
> the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their
>
> natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena
>
> in terms of the meanings people bring to them (2005:2).

To articulate the relation between qualitative research and ethnography, Hammersley suggests that ethnography is 'a specific form of qualitative inquiry' (2006:3).

Given the purpose of this study (i.e. to reveal the complex attributes of the tertiary ELT phenomenon in China), and the fact that it originates in my own experiences as an English teacher in China now doing research, I can be categorized both as an 'insider' and 'outsider', and therefore I will draw on an ethnographic approach to collect data in China. While my research is not fully ethnographic in the strictest sense of the term, it is consistent with more recent developments in the field which I will detail below.

In a review of the history of ethnography, Taylor summarizes the approach by saying that '...ethnography began within anthropology and sociology and invoked the study of people regarded as **Other**' (2001:11).

Traditionally, ethnographers doing research on a social group with significant characteristics are often in the position of 'stranger' (Schutz 1964). If researchers are to understand the complexities of what is happening in social situations they tend to employ an ethnographic approach. According to Denzin, this approach 'captures and records the voices of lived experience ... contextualizes experience ... goes beyond mere fact and surface appearances ... present details, context, emotion, and the webs of social relationships that join persons to one another' (1994:83). Therefore, the role of an ethnographer is to enter the world of a new group of people, and spend a substantial period of time understanding their customs and ways of life, until total absorption in the community renders this way of life normal and unquestioned.

Although the origins of ethnography lie in anthropology, the development of research in social science has widened its application and it is now one of the more frequently adopted methods of inquiry in the education domain.

Sealey elaborates on a broad spectrum of the application of ethnography as ollows:

Ethnography has long had to come to terms with the heterogeneity and complexity of the urban, bureaucratic, industrial contexts where much of such research is carried out ... The term 'ethnographic' carries in its etymology the notion of an ethnos, a social group with significant characteristics in common so the issue of social categories must somehow be addressed by (linguistic) ethnographers (2007:645).

The widening adoption of ethnography in education can perhaps be attributed to its popularity and success in 'developing understanding of social and cultural processes in educational settings' (Jeffrey and Troman 2004:535). Holliday points to the use of ethnography in a much wider domain, which can be 'any human entity' and he further argues that a pluralistic, broadly-based ethnography has been achieved in general education, including investigation of the hidden curriculum in a school (1996).

Despite the assertion that ethnography can be used in 'any human entity', its application in the study of applied linguistics, particularly in international English language teaching, is comparatively new compared with its application in general education. Taking ethnography from broadening perspectives and its usage in English language education, Holliday argues that:

> The role and value of ethnography ... can be seen in the work which is ... concerned with what many might consider 'exotic' scenarios far away from the 'ideal' classroom .... In reality, they are not exotic at all, but represent contexts found all over the world, where English language education takes place in a melee of problematic attitudes and expectations surrounding relationships between teachers, students, experts, administrators, communities, and large classes (1996:239).

This argument once again suggests that ethnography is a form of inquiry which I should draw on if I am to investigate the relationship between curriculum and teachers' practice from a broad viewpoint and how classroom practice is perceived by teachers and students.

3.3.1 Time frames in ethnography

Following a methodological orientation, Hammersley defines the central plank of ethnography and emphasizes the importance of studying at first hand what people do and say in particular contexts, highlighting that:

> This [Ethnography] usually involves fairly lengthy contact, through participant observation in relevant settings, and/or through relatively open-ended interviews designed to understand people's perspectives, perhaps completed by the study of various sorts of document - official, publicly available or personal (2006:4).

This argument suggests that one crucial component of ethnographic research is time and that traditionally the field work would take place over a period of several years. However, the pace of life in modern society has quickened dramatically. For example, Wolcott notes that 'The intensification of academic life', 'the pressures from funding bodies for quick completion' and most of all 'the time for publication make sustained 12 month minimum research periods a luxury' (1995:77). As a consequence, a contemporary ethnographer now 'links brief visits that extend over a long period of time, so that the brevity of the periods is mollified by the effect of long-term acquaintance' (Wolcott 1995:77).

In the article 'Time for ethnography', Jeffrey and Troman (2004) suggest that, rather than the immersion approach of classical anthropological studies, modern ethnographies adopt a range of different time modes. They identify 'compressed time modes' where ethnographers live with the participants almost permanently for

a short period ranging from a few days to a month, and a 'selective intermittent time mode' ethnography, lasting from three months up to two years, which allows a specific approach to data collection and progressive focusing during the study. They further suggest a 'recurrent time mode' where the sampling is led by 'temporal phases', for example an inspection or examination period in a school. The research is selective and specific about the place and people with whom they spend time. They also suggest that selective time in 'the field' is directed by the focus of the study and the decisions about the analytical categories (2004). The 'selective intermittent time mode', with depth of study its dominant criterion and progressive focusing for a sustained period its main characteristic, will be the mode that I will apply in my research. This allowed me to collect data and reflect on what is happening before deciding what to collect next. During the course of data collection, I went to the university twice in different periods of each term. The first visit lasted four weeks in April 2008 and the second lasted eight weeks starting in October and finishing in December 2008. The focus of the study was finalized in this last trip.

3.3.2 Insider vs outsider

As mentioned at the beginning of this section, the initial application of ethnography is to study the 'other' and the researcher is in a position of a Stranger amongst the researched 'ethnos' or community. However, the widening application of this form of inquiry allows researchers to adopt a wider range of positions. This is particularly common in the field of applied linguistics. Brumfit (1985) notes that in applied linguistics people often embark on research a little later in life than students in other disciplines. Following this view Rampton et al (2004) further suggest that, for 'mature' students of a comparatively senior age, 'the move from work or family commitments into research is often more motivated by interests

generated in practical activity than by a fascination with academic theory per se'. The moving of direction, i.e. 'a shift from the inside moving outwards, rather than a move from the outside inwards' can be associated with Schutz' view of the 'homecomer' (1976) who sees work and family anew, old ways familiar yet strange.

As someone who went through the Chinese educational system from primary school to higher education and has been teaching English at both secondary and tertiary level in China for over ten years, I have a familiarity with what is happening inside the classroom and how the perceived values and beliefs in education shape the models of English teaching and learning. Moreover I am familiar with and sensitive to the circumstances that exist there. My life, education and working experience there make me an complete insider. However, several years of systematic study in the UK on the theories of language, of the development and application of English Language Teaching (ELT) methodology, the roles teachers and students play in the process of teaching and learning and a general review on empirical studies in ELT, allow me to reflect on what influences ELT in general from a more outsider perspective. So by stepping outside the familiar institution and culture of teaching and learning for a lengthy period of time and choosing a university with which I am not familiar, I have a sense of 'stranger' which gives me the analytic distance from which I can better analyse what is happening.

3.3.3 Methods used to collect data and a set of data for this study

Apart from time and the researcher's position, another important component of ethnography is the method used for data collection. When Taylor provides a definition of ethnography, he especially highlights the use of multiple methods:

> Ethnography is a flexible form of research which emphasises the
> empirical and the use of multiple methods, especially observation. It is

concerned with people and their experience and acknowledges the two-sided nature of the research encounter and the different points of view of those involved (2001: 11).

Other commentators have also emphasized the use of multiple data collection methods as a key feature of ethnography (Hammersley 2006: 4). Bird et al (2006) maintain that the use of several methods to explore an issue greatly increases the chances of accuracy. The commonly used methods in ethnography include: observation, interviews and recordings which can lead to 'more valid, reliable and diverse construction of realities' (Gloafshani 2003). Following this view, the instruments of data collection adopted in this study included:

- Classroom observation and audio-recording

Lightbown and Spada (1999) believe that the opportunity to observe teaching can lead to a greater understanding of the complexities of the teaching process as well as to a more critical reflection on our pedagogical practices. Since the focus of my study is the relationship between the curriculum and teachers' practice, I observed classes given by two Chinese teachers with a view to seeing what is taught, how English is taught in Chinese tertiary education and how students participate in classroom activities. I considered the possibility of video recording classroom interaction but rejected this as too intrusive. In consultation with the teachers, I decided to make audio recording. While these did not give me nonverbal information, they were supplemented by observational field notes which allowed me to record significant events in the lessons.

- Face-to-face interview and audio-recording

Following up the classroom observation, interview questions were designed and individual face-to-face interviews were conducted with teachers and a sample of

students to elicit their opinions on classroom activities. The interviews were semi-structured and all interviews were audio-recorded. From these recordings a written record was produced of the interviews and illustrative episodes transcribed. Relevant segments of these interviews were translated from Chinese for the data analysis chapters.

- Focus group and audio-recording

A focus group involves inviting a group of participants, selected by specified criteria, to share their ideas, thoughts, attitudes and feelings on certain subjects (Bloor et al. 2001), and analysis of focus group data can illuminate applied linguistic research (Myers 1998). In this study a group of students from one of the classes observed formed a focus group. Krueger and Casey (2000) note that informants who are familiar with each other and share the same experience are more likely to express their opinions openly if the researcher can create a permissive environment. Bearing this in mind, during the focus group discussion I tried to create a 'permissive environment' by selecting a non-formal meeting room, preparing some snacks for students and starting with casual topics. The questions for the focus group were the same as those used for the individual student interviews. The focus group was also audio-recorded.

- Documents

During the period of data collection, I had access to publicly available documents, for instance, the English curriculum and textbooks used by teachers and students. In addition I made use of documents used internally by the university, such as teachers' work plans and PowerPoint slides made by the teachers I was observing.

Other data includes still photographs of the university and classroom activities, field notes taken during my visits to the university, records of emails and classroom observation. Extra-curricular activities were also observed. While they contributed to my general understanding of the research environment they do not feature in my analysis. The following figure is a summary of the set of data for this study.

Figure 3.1 Summary of data collected for this study

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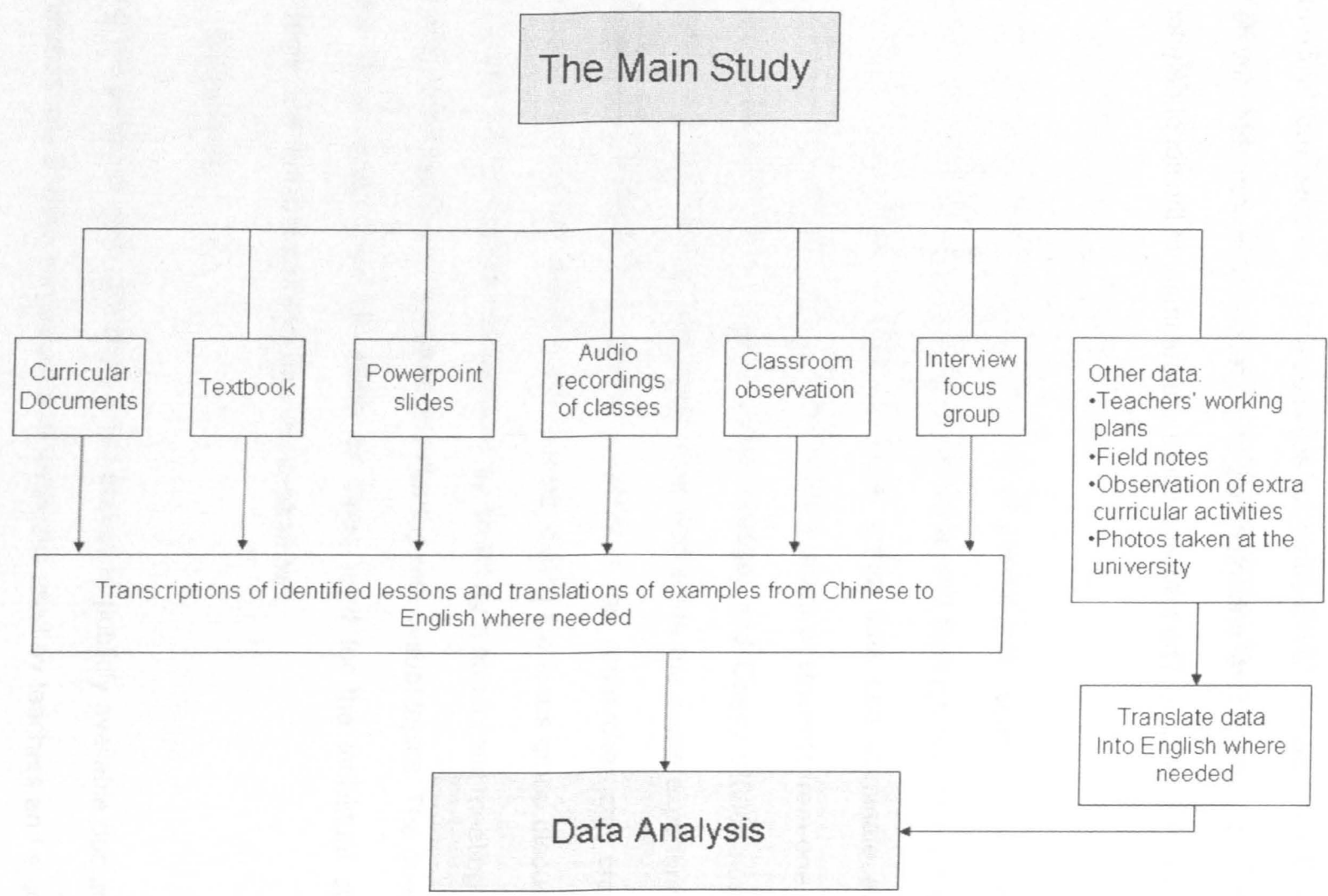
3.4 Access to the research field and research questions

Pegg observes that many accounts of access underplay the nature of personal connections, yet research often relies on this network to generate opportunities for selection of cases, to ease the way into organizations and to smooth the path of the research (2009:73). The advantage of being an insider in the researched culture simplifies the otherwise complicated procedure of gaining access. I accessed the university contact number via their website and was able to speak to the dean to explain the purpose of my research and my wish to collect data at her university. Following up the telephone contact, I emailed her a draft plan of data collection and she agreed that I could observe her classes. When I arrived there, I had a chat with another teacher Ms Wang who showed great interest in what I was going to do and agreed that I could also observe her classes. Once I had the appropriate permissions, I was able to collect what I needed immediately. I chose to collect the data at a university comparatively close to where I lived as I knew some of the daytime classes started very early in the morning and other extra class activities would be delivered in the evening. Choosing this university gave me easier access to data from both formal and informal classes.

As explained in Chapter 1, my research was focused on Intensive Reading (IR). In the English department there are twenty-three English teachers altogether, two of whom are in charge of IR junior students. These students are either in their first year and taught by Ms Wang, or their second year and taught by Ms Li, the dean. IR is classified into two categories, primary and advanced, the latter for advanced level students but due to a lack of teachers, it had been cancelled during the period of my data collection. For this reason I chose to collect data from IR primary level. During the course of this research, I visited China twice, which was mentioned in Section 3.3.1 and spent a total of twelve weeks collecting data. To

avoid students' examination time which normally lasts two weeks at the end of each semester and the military training exercise which is for first year students for the first two weeks before their study starts, I collected data in the middle of each semester. I was also able to avoid the public holidays, which occur twice a year in October and May.

3.4.1 The University

As part of the unprecedented changes in China, higher education has experienced large-scale changes in its size and format. There has been a trend towards either merging or expanding universities and colleges into very large comprehensive universities. The institution I chose for my data collection is located in a coastal southern city with its affiliated university in the province's capital city. Due to economic expansion, no appropriate site for university enlargement had been available within the capital city. This emergent coastal city, which had been a fishing village thirty years previously, was the result of the 'opening up' policy when fourteen cities/areas by the sea were designated as special economic zones. The municipal government then launched a campaign to convert this newly built city into a city of universities and education, and now actively seeks cooperation with prestigious universities in Beijing, Guangdong and other provinces across China. As a result the new campus came into being and had its tenth anniversary in 2008. As a member of the comprehensive university family, the campus enjoys a prestigious reputation inherited from its affiliated university and therefore can recruit top students from key secondary schools within the province and further afield.

The main university in the provincial capital is one of only a few universities established at the beginning of the 20th century and it has experienced unsteady development as a consequence of the turmoil of recent Chinese history. The

university suffered two major disruptions: one from the Japanese invasion of China when it had to become a 'mobile university', the other from the Cultural Revolution when it was forced to close down as a consequence of its connections with overseas Chinese. It was reinstated following the 'opening up' policy. Since then, the university has developed into one of the largest universities in the province with over thirty-five thousand students ranging from undergraduates to PhD students in forty-nine faculties. Although it is one of the top fifty universities in China, the English department, when compared with other universities of the same level in the province, is not strong in terms of teachers' qualifications and students' attainment.

3.4.2 The new campus

As a result of its booming economy, China is now allocating large sums of money to education. Benefitting from this policy, the new campus was established with modern buildings and equipped with modern facilities. Although the new campus is part of the university, the relationship between the two is delicate. For example, the English department is a duplicate of the same department at the main university. The two identical departments follow the same curriculum, use the same textbooks and sometimes students sit the same exams. Student recruitment is controlled by the headquarters and is based on candidates' performance in the National Matriculation Test (NMT). Students' level of English is generally about pre-intermediate level, and those with the best NMT performances tend to be assigned to the main university.

There are over two hundred students in the new English department with ages ranging from 19-24. A bachelor's degree course usually lasts four years, the first two of which include the mandatory modules of intensive reading, extensive reading, listening and speaking. When students reach year three, which is seen as

a senior year, they choose either English linguistics and literature, or business English for their major, depending on their future career plans. The department has yet to recruit postgraduate students but some associate professors are required to supervise students taking their Masters degree at the main university.

The recruitment of new teachers is also determined by the administrators located at headquarters, and although each university will have its own individual selection criteria, more and more universities are now requiring applicants to be PhD holders wherever possible. Younger applicants with a Masters degree have a greater chance of being offered a post if they have both a BA and MA degree from prestigious universities, and in advertisements it is often stated that MA holders should be under 28 years of age and PhD holders under 35. It should be noted that at the present time there are very few PhD holders in linguistics and even at this prestigious university the number is very low. There are twenty three English teachers in the new department and all of them are MA holders while none has a doctorate degree. Some of them have the experience of doing their MA or being a visiting scholar in English speaking countries like the UK, Australia and New Zealand. The younger teachers tend to be in their late twenties and the senior ones in their fifties. When experienced teachers are recruited, their professional title is a prime consideration. Professors and associate professors are mostly welcomed. To gain the title of professor, teachers must provide evidence of published articles in journals with either domestic or preferably international accreditation. This is no easy job for in-service teachers, who generally have heavy workloads and few academic resources.

With its location in the newly built coastal city and the economic privileges offered by the province, universities in this city are highly attractive to teachers from other

areas. As a result the competition amongst teachers for obtaining a position there is strong.

Although the new campus has a good reputation, the public resources provided to both students and teachers are very limited. It is a government regulation that all universities use only the internet server supplied by the National Education Network. Although with an appropriate password both students and teachers can access the public database, no university is willing to share its teaching and research resources and the database building is still immature. There are not enough computers for students to use in the library and not every student can afford to buy one. If they do have a computer, then access to the internet is not without restrictions. Generally six students from the same class share one dormitory room with three bunk beds, and internet facilities to their room are cut off at 11:00pm. In their own homes, teachers have more options and are able to access English websites. Not only are web related resources limited, printed copies of academic books and journals are also rare. There are only two or three types of English journal with Chinese translation on the library shelves but these are for entertainment and relaxation not for academic enhancement. When students go home, they can access websites and watch English TV programmes or even English channels.

The two campuses are well linked by buses that take two hours door to door, but the connection between the two campuses is not strong with respect to pedagogy and academic research. The immediate result is inadequate academic resources and no strong academic atmosphere in the new department. Teachers tend to do research or write academic articles in isolation from their colleagues if they want to progress their career.

3.4.3 The teachers

Although carrying out educational and linguistic research is commonplace in the West, it is not so in China. I was initially worried that the university might refuse or perhaps limit my access, especially as I wanted to observe classes and interview people. Traditionally, Chinese culture values 'silence'. We have an idiom 'Sanjianqikou' (三缄其口)which literally means 'to seal the mouth with three strips of tape', implying that one must be prudent about what one says. The underlying belief is that the more you say the more mistakes you will make. Another proverb, that 'family ugliness should not be aired in public' (家 丑 不 可 外 扬 jiaochoubukewaiyan), also reveals Chinese cultural sensitivities. Considered in an institutional context, these notions can explain why people, when they have problems, tend to hide them away or tackle them on their own regardless of external conditions. Observing classes can always be a sensitive topic since teachers in China are viewed as the embodiment of knowledge and with a mode of conduct that allows no mistakes when delivering lectures. So to be observed is obviously intimidating and nobody would willingly have their class 'scrutinized' so openly. Fortunately the dean with whom I was dealing appeared to understand my objectives and showed great interest in them. She saw my research as an opportunity to raise her teachers' awareness of academic research and as a conduit to current ELT methods outside of China. After some discussion the dean agreed for me to observe the classes of the two teachers: the younger Chinese teacher Ms Wang and the dean herself, Ms Li. (To protect identities, all names are pseudonyms.)

Ms Li

Ms Li, the dean of the English department, is in her early fifties, and has over twenty years of English teaching experience in universities in China. She studied

for a bachelor's degree in English at university just as the Cultural Revolution was about to end. At that time only a minority of the elite had the opportunity to receive higher education and, like most graduates, after her graduation she started working immediately at the same university. She was one of only a small number of students who elected to learn English in the mid 1970s when the Chinese government decided to reinstate English teaching in some universities as a result of improving diplomatic relations with the United States. During her teaching career she worked with the British Council on an English language teaching project in China, and in 1990 she was sent to study for a Masters degree in the UK. She took up her current role as dean in 2005.

Ms Wang

Ms Wang is in her early thirties and has been teaching at the new campus for six years. She was awarded her bachelor's degree in English literature at a prestigious Chinese university and began her English teaching career at a university in inland China. After two years of teaching she took a Masters degree in English language teaching in the UK and started her present job on her return to China. At the present time, educational qualifications and having papers published in journals are key factors that determine teachers' promotion. As sufficient time and resources are not readily available to teachers to do research, young teachers tend to choose further study as a way of improving their prospects. The application procedure for PhD research is quite different in China. Potential candidates are required to sit an entrance exam set by a university that is eligible to recruit PhD students. Each eligible university sets its own exam. Generally if a candidate wishes to take such an exam he/she will obtain the relevant information from the institution and prepare for the exam, using the reading list and examination instructions. Taking applied linguistics as an example, a candidate might need to

read books on Chomsky's or Saussure's theory for subject knowledge, to read relevant reference books on politics, and prepare for a test in the candidates' second foreign language (every English major, in their third year's study, needs to choose another foreign language, i.e. French, German, Japanese etc. When I was a college student, apart from learning English, in the last two years of my study I also learnt French as my second foreign language). Ms Wang sat the PhD entrance exam in 2007 and had an offer from a university in the capital city. She was told that full-time study was her only option which meant that she would have to leave her current job. As the PhD focused on education and not language specifically, her concern was that she would have to change career direction, and since a PhD in education is valued less than a PhD in English, it was possible that after three years' study her career outlook would be little improved. Therefore Ms Wang decided not to take up the offer. This is a dilemma that many teachers in her situation have to face.

The two classes I observed had different numbers of students. In Ms Li's class, there were eighteen, whilst in Ms Wang's class there were thirty. This variance is because students in Ms Li's class are more linguistics and literature oriented, whilst those in Ms Wang's are business-oriented. Despite the different numbers, they are treated equally and cover the same curriculum in the two foundation years.

3.4.4 Students

Public universities in China are classified into two tiers: national and provincial, with the former managed directly by the Ministry of Education (MOE) and the latter by the provincial government. National universities are generally considered superior to provincial ones in terms of reputation, teaching and learning quality, university facilities and environment. The provincial universities normally recruit

students from within the province where they are located whilst the national universities recruit students from across China. The number of students from different provinces is decided by the MOE together with the university with the purpose of achieving a balanced entry from each province, i.e. a policy of positive discrimination. Recruitment is based on students' attainment in the NMT. As a consequence, competition amongst the candidates is kept within each province[4]. As mentioned in Chapter 1, standards in education across China vary enormously due to its imbalanced economy, which means that in a class where students are from different provinces the differentials in students' attainment in the NMT is wide. It is particularly apparent in English classes since students from developed areas or cosmopolitan cities normally have more exposure to the target language than the students from deprived areas. To make the National Matriculation English Test (NMET) fairer, listening and speaking skills account for little or even none of the total scores in the exam. In classes with students from across China, mixed ability is commonplace - as will be evident in the classroom data. Some students are very confident with their English inside the classroom, whist others who have had little previous exposure to English show no confidence at all.

The students I observed are in their foundation years, i.e. year one and year two. Their ages are between 19 and 20. Although they might pursue different directions at the advanced level, possibly to learn either English linguistics and literature or to learn business English, for the two foundation years they study exactly the same modules. Each of the two teachers is in charge of two classes, i.e. English linguistics and literature and Business English. Since students are entitled to choose their future route, there is an imbalance between the two classes. For this reason the class of students intending to do Business English has more students

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[4] Up to now China still has a rigorous registration system to prevent people, especially candidates who are about to take NMT, moving across the country. For instance, I was born in Jilin province and registered in Jilin, and therefore I was only allowed to sit the NMT in Jilin.

than the class of students intending to study English Linguistic and Literature., I had hoped to observe students going on to study English linguistics and literature, as I have personal experience of that route. However, Ms Wang insisted that I observe her business class as she feels comfortable and confident with them. The year two students who are currently taught by Ms Li were taught by Ms Wang when they were in year one when I spent 4 weeks observing them. They are from English Linguistics and Literature class and they are from many different parts of China, including Guangdong, Guangxi, Fujia, Sichuan, Anhui, Inner Mongolia, Hunan etc. As I mentioned in Section 3.4.1, due to the variable quality of secondary education in China, students' English level varies depending on where they are from and what kind of secondary school they attend. Since they are English majors, they will pursue their future careers using English. Potential careers would be English teachers, translators or interpreters in a company, an enterprise or other institutes that have partnership or collaboration with foreign countries. Some of the students I observed also mentioned that they plan to continue their further studies in English speaking countries like the UK and the United States. During the interviews and some informal conversations, I asked the students the following two questions: what is their purpose of learning English and what level of English they wish to attend? Their answers were unanimous: they are learning English in order to communicate with native English speakers and they wish they could speak native-like English. In fact their work is more likely to entail using English as an International language or English as a lingua franca (Jenkins 2007; Seidlhofer 2005, 2012) with others who like them are native speakers of languages other than English.

The number of students in an English department is smaller than in other departments. This is because at tertiary level, foreign language education concentrates on the five skills: i.e. listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation (details of these skills are listed in Chapter 1) and it is believed that a larger number of students would impinge on the students' opportunity to practise the target language. This is very different from Public English as explained in Chapter 1, where the number of students can be as large as sixty or even eighty depending on the number of English teachers available at the university.

3.4.5 Research Questions

As discussed in Chapter 1, my own personal experiences as an English teacher make me want to understand the underlying philosophy that contributes to the ways in which English is taught in the hope of finding methods to improve the classroom practice. Therefore, I always want to find out what is taught and how English is taught in a tertiary English classroom. Since my PhD research is data driven, the research questions of this study were posed after taking the current state of ELT in China into account together with what I have observed and experienced during my visits for data collections. This study, focusing on the tertiary English language teaching curriculum and its delivery, addressed the following broadly posed question:

1. What are the origins and cultural basis of the pedagogic beliefs and principles evident in tertiary English language teaching practice in China?

This question has been partially addressed in Chapters 1 and 2, where I outlined the current social status English enjoys, the development of Specialist College English Course (SCEC) with regard to English curricula, the application of teaching methodology and teacher development. The theme of the origins and cultural basis of the pedagogical beliefs runs throughout the whole thesis.

2. To what extent do teaching resources (textbook, PowerPoint slides) reflect the principles embedded in the New Curriculum?

This question will be answered by analysing the textbooks, PowerPoint slides prepared by teachers, teachers' syllabi, audio recordings of IR classes, and interview data from both teachers and students on the use of textbook and PowerPoint slides.

3. How do teachers use PowerPoint slides to mediate knowledge from textbooks?

This will be addressed by analysing teacher-student interaction that takes place when textbooks and PowerPoint slides are used.

The fact that both teachers in my study used their native Chinese language extensively in the English language classroom gives rise to my fourth question:

4. What is the function of the use of Chinese in class?

Overall the research questions can be answered by addressing what is taught which will be revealed in Chapter 4 and how English is taught which will be addressed in Chapters 5 and 6. When formulating the research questions, I excluded one question commonly posed in education in China, i.e. how do tests affect teaching styles? The reason for this exclusion is that, at tertiary level, tests are normally decided by the teachers, unlike at secondary level where students are required to sit the official National Matriculation Test (NMT). The two teachers I observed design test papers for their students and do not need to prepare them for an external exam, which implies that their teaching style does not have to be constrained or regulated by the pressures of external examinations. With these questions in mind, I will examine the data in preparation for the analysis.

3.5 Data transcriptions and data analysis

The collected material becomes data through a process of selection. While selecting, I take into account the research focus and make decisions about which features of the materials will be relevant to the analysis. After the selection and decisions have been made, I then start transcribing. Before elaborating on data transcriptions, I will list the overall classroom audio recording data as they constitute the primary data in the analysis.

3.5.1 Overall classroom audio recording data

Altogether sixteen classes (In this thesis a lesson refers to a chapter in the textbooks and a class refers to the time that teachers spend together with students.) from Ms Li and twenty-four from Ms Wang's were observed and audio-recorded. Table 3.1 below provides details of the lessons audio recorded in the two teachers' classes.

	Ms Wang	Ms Li
Year	Year one	Year two
Number of students	30	18
Textbook used	Contemporary College English books I & II	Contemporary College English book III
Lessons observed	• *The Nightingale and the Rose* • *Say Yes* • *The boy and the bank officer* • *Angels on a pin* • *The Monsters Due on Maple Street (Parts 1 & 2)*	• *Twelve Angry Men (Parts 1 & 2)* • *The Rivals* • *Diogenes and Alexander*
Total number of classes	24	16
Total duration	1200 minutes	800 minutes

Table 3.1 Summary of lessons observed

3.5.2 Transcription of spoken data

Many scholars (e.g. Cook, 1990, Ochs 1999) argue that transcriptions are value-laden and reflect the transcribers' interests and assumptions. Swann further explains this point: 'Transcriptions necessarily correspond to a researcher's interests and what they see as the analytical potential of their data, as well as their wider beliefs and values' (2010), which are informed by the underlying philosophy. Clearly, the researcher's interests, beliefs and values play an important part in decisions made on transcription. In addition to researcher's beliefs and values, the selection and transcription of data is also affected by other factors, including the goal of research. Ochs puts it as follows: 'transcription is a selective process reflecting theoretical goals and definitions' (1999:168). Transcription also implies certain analytical decisions and in fact it is argued that there is no straightforward cut-off point between transcription and analysis. Taylor, for instance, contends 'Transcription is an important aspect of analysis in itself' (2001:57).

In this section, I therefore elaborate on some decisions I have made regarding the transcription to be adopted in this thesis, and explain the reasons behind these choices.

Before transcribing, I listened to all the recordings several times. Given that both Ms Li and Ms Wang rely heavily on the textbook in their classes, I decided to transcribe one whole lesson from each of them to see how textbooks are used and how each lesson is organized and taught. On average, each lesson consists of 4 classes, each class lasts fifty minutes. The lesson I transcribed from Ms Li is *Diogenes and Alexander* and from Ms Wang *The Nightingale and the Rose*. Due to the genre and the content of the texts, the two texts are viewed as masterpieces, particularly the Diogenes and Alexander text, which has been adopted in different versions of English textbooks for more than twenty years and

is still considered a 'masterpiece'. Ms Li even designed a 'pre-eminent' lesson on it and uploaded it to the university website as a model for other teachers and students to share. The author of *The Nightingale and the Rose*, Oscar Wilde, is viewed as a great writer and aesthete, therefore his works enjoy a high reputation. In contrast to these two literary oriented lessons I also chose a slightly more entertaining one from each of the teachers to compare if different genres of texts may affect teaching styles. The lesson from Ms Li is *The Rivals* which relates a conversation between two 'gentlemen' in a train carriage and is full of twists and counter-twists. Ms Li summarises it as 'verbal fencing and full of wit'. The lesson from Ms Wang is *Angels on a Pin*, a satire mocking education in the USA, in which teachers seek to have closed and right answers to some physics questions and a student who plays a joke on the American education system by proving different answers to an examination question that raises the moral question 'We teachers are always blaming the students for giving wrong answers. Perhaps we should ask ourselves whether we are always asking the right questions'. In many respects it is similar to *The Rivals*.

All the recordings of the interviews and focus group were also transcribed. Since the majority of the data are in Chinese, data were translated where relevant to the analysis. During transcription the following conventions (Table 3.2) were applied:

Notation	Meaning
T	Teacher
S	Student (Ss-more than on student)
Sx (name)	Student x
Underlined	Original words/sentences from PowerPoint slides
Italics	Original words/sentences from the textbook
Time New Roman font	Text or speech translated from Chinese to English
Normal	Utterances originally in English
(xx)	Unintelligible or inaudible speech
--	Silence from student(s) when response expected
(( ))	Comments or description of non-verbal behaviour
[n]	A pause n=numbers of seconds

Table 3.2 Transcription notation used in this study

Like most qualitative research, the analysis of data starts even before the data is collected. In my case, the analysis permeated over three years of my study. While transcribing the data I identified themes for the study but the final direction was only confirmed once all the data had been transcribed. Following Hammersley and Atkinson (1983:178), I engaged in 'a careful reading of the data [...] in order to gain a thorough familiarity with it', which proved to be an important step in helping me identify patterns and themes as well as establishing the connections between them. After familiarizing myself with the recordings and transcriptions, I highlighted relevant excerpts and coded them in broad terms according to themes that emerged as significant and influential in my data analysis chapters, namely, the use of teaching resources, i.e the use of textbook and PowerPoint; teachers' use of PowerPoint slides to mediate knowledge from textbooks; teachers' use of Putonghua. In each of the data analysis chapters, relevant literature and analytical tools will be reviewed locally.

3.5.3 Data analysis

These three areas of analysis will be presented in Chapters 4 - 6. Classroom discourse analysis will be applied in data analysis. When discussing different forms of discourse analyses guided by an ethnographic perspective in theoretically coherent ways, Gee and Green argue the practicality of the combination as such

> Educational researchers often combine discourse analysis with ethnographic approaches to examine questions of what counts as learning in local setting, how and when learning occurs, and how what is learnt at one point in time becomes a sociocultural resource for future learning for both the group and the individual (Gee & Green 1998:119).

'Discourse' has been variously defined. Therefore there are different types of discourse analysis. In the book *A Dictionary of Sociolinguistics*, Swann et al identify three broad meanings of discourse: 1, a stretch of language longer than a single sentence or utterance; 2, a type of language used in particular context, for example the language used by teachers and students in classrooms; 3 a world view and ideologies (2004:83). In my data analysis chapters, I will use the second meaning of the definition of discourse informed by a broad world view and belief to analyse classroom interaction to identify how each teacher draws on the textbook and PowerPoint slides; how teachers use the PowerPoint slides to mediate the knowledge from the textbook and how the teachers draw on a combination of English and Chinese in their teaching.

Considering that the amount of data is manageable manually, throughout data analysis, I have engaged in manual analysis. The benefit from a manual approach is that by manipulating the data intensively and extensively, I have acquired a complete familiarity with the data at both a general and specific level.

3.6 Validity, reliability and generalizability

Ever since the emergence of qualitative research, it has been criticized by opponents as being 'subjective' and lacking in 'scientific rigour'. In response to this criticism, Bird et al argue:

The criticism of quantitative research was that it fails to take account of the very nature of human social life, assuming it to consist of mechanical cause-and-effect relationships: whereas in fact it involves complex processes of interpretation and negotiation that do not have determinate outcomes (1996:15).

Pointing out the 'deep-seated disagreements' between qualitative and quantitative researchers about the nature of human behaviour and how it can be understood, Eisner maintains that disagreement of the arguments would be the different perception of the world we see, 'mainly is the world out there and we see things the way they are or is our view of reality correspondent with reality itself?' (1993:50). Following an ethnographer's philosophy, I reject the idea that there is an objective truth 'out there', and reject the view that qualitative research is merely an assembly of anecdotes and personal impressions. I do however acknowledge the fact that 'people's perceptions of the world (and hence the knowledge constructed about it) reflect factors characterising their particular viewpoints' (Santos 2004:83). This is probably because, 'researchers must put their own selves into the research and interpret what they see or hear' (Bird et al 1996:91). This perhaps implies that the researcher him/herself is a research instrument, which could be viewed as a 'constraint' in qualitative research.

Regarding the perceptions of the world of people related to this study, I recognise that this researcher's background, her prior knowledge and beliefs about the research setting, the theory she draws on to investigate the phenomenon, the

methodology she applies to collect data and the analytic tools she adopts, can all affect her research.

Reliability is a concern that is often discussed by qualitative researchers. LeCompte and Goetz classified reliability as 'external reliability' and 'internal reliability' (1982) with the former 'involving the replicability of the study' and the latter 'concerning the likelihood of having different researchers analyse the data in similar ways' (Santos 2004). Given the dynamic nature of the social world and a research focus that involves teacher and students' interaction, I would not 'expect other researchers in a similar or even the same situation to replicate their findings in the sense of independently coming up with a precisely similar conceptualization' (Schofield 1993: 93). Even in natural science, this kind of replication 'is not always possible' (Hammersley 1994:9). This does not mean that there is no regulation to follow. To make qualitative research plausible, Seale proposes that 'a more realistic alternative is the provision of a fully reflexive account of procedures and methods, showing to readers in as much detail as possible the lines of inquiry that have led to particular conclusions' (1999:157). This is the stance that can be related to the concept of internal reliability, which has always been seriously questioned by quantitative researchers. A qualitative research can be a quality one as long as it has boundaries between academic reports and works of literature and people who share the same framework can get the same perspective or the same knowledge (Eisner 1993).

In conjunction with validity and reliability, qualitative researchers are also concerned with generalizability, and 'in the past decade, interest in the issue of generalizability has increased markedly ... in the study of education' (Schofield 1993:93). The relevant question on generalization relating to my study would be 'to what extent can the findings be applied to other similar contexts'? Following

Schofield's stance (Ibid), I will address this question in the following three themes. First, qualitative research is not to 'generate broadly applicable laws that apply universally' (Schofield 1993:97). I am keenly aware that it will be problematic trying to apply the findings from this study to all ELT contexts in China by virtue of the latter's sheer size and complexity. However, I do agree that 'rejection of generalizability as a search for broadly applicable laws is not a rejection of the idea that studies in one situation can be used to speak to or to help form a judgment about other situations' (Schofield 1993:97). This study aims at developing an in-depth understanding of the current situation of ELT at tertiary level in China. It is appropriate, even desirable, to sacrifice breadth in order to have an in-depth view. I believe that by pointing out the relationship between the curriculum and teachers' practice, this study can be referred to by other studies that address similar issues. Another characteristic about generalizability is 'thick descriptions'. Schofield (1993) argues that 'thick descriptions are vital' and he further explains:

> Such descriptions of both the site in which studies are conducted and of
>
> the site to which one wishes to generalize are crucial in allowing one to
>
> search for the similarities and differences between situations (1993:97).

Similar comments on thick descriptions are also made by Seale who explains: 'Thick, detailed case study description can give readers a vicarious experience of "being there" with the researcher, so that they can use their human judgment to assess the likelihood of the same process applying to other settings which they know' (1999:118). These points have elaborated the purpose of this study, which will be reflected in the following chapters.

3.7 Ethics and conduct of this research

My research follows the ethical principles established by the Open University (Ethical Principles for Research Involving Human Participants), and is also consistent with the BAAL (British Association for Applied Linguistics) recommendations for good practice in applied linguistic (see http://www.baal.org.uk/dox/goodpractice_full.pdf).

An information sheet and consent forms explaining the research, the benefits for participants, and their right of withdrawal were sent out before I collected data and these forms were collected and kept together with my data.

As mentioned above, pseudonyms are used for all research participants. All digital recordings and other data are stored securely in password protected files. Raw data will be anonymised or deleted on completion of the PhD research, depending on its suitability for further research.

Being an insider with an outsider's view, I realize the importance of 'how much it is necessary to tell people' (Cameron 2001:22). Knowing the circumstances in China, I also realize the importance of preserving the teachers' and other informants' right to know about my research and how the data will be used, whilst also being cautious about how much information I share with them to avoid the risk of data 'contamination' by 'informing subjects too specifically about the research question to be studied' (Silverman, 2001/2006:270). As the students were over 18, I was able to talk and make decisions with them directly. Before data collection, I briefly introduced myself and talked about the research I was doing for my doctoral degree. Considering the Chinese tradition that even as a PhD student, my title already included 'Doctor', and that doing a PhD for most students remains merely a dream, particularly if studying abroad in an English speaking country, I always tried not to convey the image of being an 'expert'. Bearing this in mind, during data

collection, I always reminded myself and the informants that I am not the one who has 'expert knowledge', and should not be positioned as someone whose knowledge is superior to those being researched. In terms of the relationship between the researcher and the researched, Silverman argues that 'the role of the social scientist is not to be more knowledgeable than lay people but, instead, to put an analytic method at their disposal' (2001:275), which according to Santos is 'an elegant way out of this conundrum' (2004).

3.8 Conclusion

In this chapter I have elaborated on the methodology applied in this study. A brief description of the origin of ethnography has been given and a justification for drawing on this research methodology has been made. By virtue of my own experience and the pattern of data collection, terms such as 'intermittent mode' and 'insider vs outsider' are detailed. The research setting and the participants of this study are described. Following the elaboration of the research environment, the research questions of this study are posed. The selection of data and transcript conventions are explained. Due to the characteristics of this study, i.e. an in-depth analysis of the ELT classroom practice in China, the use of classroom discourse analysis to analyse teacher-student interaction is justified. Finally, validity, reliability and generalizability related to qualitative research are illustrated. On completion of the literature review and the research methodology, next I will answer the questions posed here in the following three Chapters 4-6.

Chapter 4 The integrated use of textbooks and PowerPoint slides

4.1 Introduction

As the title suggests, this thesis is about the tertiary English language curriculum and its delivery in China. The curriculum delivery can be reflected in what is being taught and how it is taught. The four major research questions posed in Chapter 3 are to reveal the curriculum delivery. This chapter will primarily address the second broadly posed question, to what extent teaching resources (textbooks and PowerPoint slides) reflect the principles embedded in the New Curriculum. This question can be addressed by a close look at the teaching material, i.e. textbooks and PowerPoint slides. Consequently, textbooks and PowerPoint slides will be the foci of the discussion in this chapter.

Most of the data collected for my research is related directly or indirectly to the use of textbooks in teaching. Textbooks are a pivotal part of classes in China. The curriculum recommends 'task-based' and 'communicative' activities for the classroom and teachers are encouraged to produce material with a wide range of topics to get students involved. However, in practice most of the classroom activities are centred on textbooks rather than students as advocated in the curriculum. Given their dominant position in English classes, textbooks were the starting point for my data analysis. In this chapter, I will review how textbooks are perceived generally in the ELT domain and then how they are regarded in China. In the classes I observed, PowerPoint slides are used by both teachers as a means of expanding and delivering knowledge from textbooks. Therefore, in this chapter, I will also elaborate on how PowerPoint slides are used as an extension of the textbook. Interview data of both teachers' and students' comments on the use of textbooks and PowerPoint slides will be analysed. Two lesson maps are included to illustrate this complementary use of textbooks and PowerPoint slides.

Finally I will point out the disparities between the New Curriculum and the use of textbook and PowerPoint slides.

4.2 A brief review of attitudes towards textbooks

Unlike the study of English language teaching (ELT) methodology and curricula, the study of textbooks has attracted little attention, even though their use has a longer history. Over a half century ago Cronbach observed that 'only the teacher - and perhaps a blackboard and writing materials - are found as universally as the textbook in our classrooms' (1955:3). Today's world has changed drastically over the last half century due in no small part to the relentless advance of modern technology. However classrooms appear relatively unchanged with regard to the use of textbooks and textbooks are still universally regarded as a primary source for education across disciplines (Baker and Freebody 1989:263; Venezky 1992:436; Woodward 1994:6368) and particularly in language teaching (Harmer 1991:256; Hutchinson and Torres 1994:315; Richards 1993:1).

Santos' comment on textbooks delineates the commonly-held view - 'Since their early days, then, textbooks have been equated with the existence of a universal objective knowledge' (2004:9). This is particularly the case in the Chinese ELT classroom where textbooks are seen as a reservoir containing a systematic objective body of knowledge. This point will be elaborated in Section 4.4.

Textbooks play a significant role in ELT classes for teachers as they offer a framework of guidance and orientation (Hutchinson and Torres 1994) and for learners, as they are perhaps the most important source of language input apart from contact with the teacher (Lee and Bathmaker 2007:352). The view of textbooks as a source of knowledge for both teachers and students is also shared by Richards who maintains that the extent of English language teaching activities worldwide could hardly be sustained without the help of the present generation of

textbooks. Textbooks, thus play a significant part in the professional lives of teachers and in the lives of learners (1993:1998).

Additionally, textbooks can help to scaffold teaching and learning by providing 'guidance and negotiating points' (Crawford 2002) and so exert considerable influence on the interaction between teachers and learners (Lee and Bathmaker 2007:352). This means textbooks can influence not only the teaching content but also the teaching method.

Apart from their practicality as a classroom resource for teachers, textbooks can also be seen as a lens through which elements related to pedagogy can be reflected, a point noted by Richards who argues that:

> Many textbooks used in the classroom embody the curriculum themselves. They reflect the objectives of the language programme, the kind of syllabus used, the skills being taught and the methodologies espoused (1998:125).

However, despite these improvements, it does not follow that textbooks are the axiomatic models for every teacher nor do they cater for every student. Therefore, it is argued that teachers as stakeholders should be aware of the positive as well as negative aspects of textbooks.

4.2.1 The perceived advantage and disadvantage of textbooks

The positive side of a textbook lies in its practical benefit to both teachers and students. Good textbooks that contain lively and interesting material provide a sensible progression of language items. They also show what has to be learnt and sometimes they summarize what has been studied. Textbooks can be systematic about the amount of vocabulary presented to the students and allow students to study on their own outside the class. These according to Harmer (1991) are the

advantages that textbooks can bring for students. As a result students can revise grammatical and functional points they have been concentrating on. The benefit a teacher can get from textbooks is 'Good textbooks relieve the teacher from the pressure of having to think of original material for every class' (Harmer 1991:257).

Similar appreciation of textbooks, especially commercial materials, is documented by Shannon (1987) who argues that commercially prepared materials are technically superior to those developed daily in classrooms. Meanwhile, these materials follow a sequential plan, therefore, the chance for so called 'gaps in learning' is greatly reduced. By virtue of the rapid development of technology, commercial materials still enjoy this superiority today.

Other positive features of a textbook include: It provides a map that lays out the general content of the lesson and a sense of structure that gives coherence to both individual lessons as well as an entire course (Richards 1998:129-130). On the positive side, Richards especially stresses the value of textbooks and teachers' manuals for inexperienced teachers as they:

> ... serve as teacher training manuals with detailed advice on such things as how to use small group teaching, approaches to grammar teaching in a communicative class, strategies for error correction, or the philosophy of process writing and how to implement it - information that goes well beyond the context of a particular text (1998:130).

Similarly, Hutchinson and Torres (1994:317) highlight the 'informed and positive view' and emphasize 'the need to see textbook creation and teacher education as complementary and mutually beneficial aspects of professional development'.

Cortazzi and Jin give a summary on the overall functions that ELT textbooks can provide (In this case they refer to textbooks in English as a Foreign Language).

EFL textbooks can be analyzed as having important functions on several levels: A textbook can be a teacher, in the sense that it contains material that is intended to instruct students directly about English-speaking culture. A textbook is also a map that gives an overview of a structured Programme of linguistic and cultural elements, showing teachers and learners the ground to be covered and summarizing the route taken in previous lesson (1999:199).

As well as pointing out the positive side of textbooks, scholars also review the flip side of textbooks. Indeed, there is sufficient criticism of textbooks to outweigh the praise. An early criticism from Hilton says textbooks are conservative; they block teachers' and students' creativity, and they are inadequate substitutes for direct experience as a source of learning (1969:1472-3). This is echoed by Sercu who contends that 'textbooks are too rigid, they do not address students' diverse learning needs and styles, they present unilateral views of selected issues, they are too predictable, they offer uninteresting choices and arrangement of texts' (2000:627). Similar concerns are also expressed by Richards who says:

> Since commercial materials are generally intended for a wide audience, they typically focus on very general needs and cannot address the specific needs of individual learners. A teacher who relies primarily on the textbook and thorough coverage of its content is liable to ignore content that is not covered by the book, or give it a lower priority (1993:47).

Another concern about the use of textbooks is that they can produce a dependency culture among teachers and students (Hutchinson and Torres 1994:315); absolve teachers of responsibility (Swan 1992:33); hamper teachers' development and sometime foster teachers' laziness. Since textbooks have

decided what to teach and in most cases how to teach, teachers can just 'sit back, operate the system and secure in the belief that the wise and virtuous people who produced the textbook know what is good for us. Unfortunately this is rarely the case' (Swan 1992:33).

Another perceived disadvantage of the textbook is that 'it may lead to a reduction of the level of cognitive skills involved in teaching if teaching decisions are largely based on the textbook and the teacher's manual' (Richards 1998:132). This disadvantage has been described as 'deskilling' by Apple and Jungck (1990) who see it as a consequence of viewing teaching as a laborious process in which there is a rationalization and standardization of people's jobs.

To sum up what a textbook can offer, one can see the following advantages and disadvantages:

- defining appropriate knowledge and parceling this out to teachers and students

- providing a structure, a map, a trainer and teaching method

- showing what has been studied and provide a sensible progression of language items

- allowing students to study on their own outside class

- deskilling teachers

- producing dependency cultural and even laziness

Taking both the positive and negative aspects of textbooks and accepting the factors of compromise and homogenization and that they cannot be one-size-fit-all, Richards argues that 'teachers should therefore approach textbooks with the

expectation that deletion, adaptation, and extension will normally be needed for the materials to work effectively with their class' (1998:135). Adaptation and extension means less dependence on textbooks, however, in practice, the picture might not be the same as scholars have suggested. In the following section, I will review how textbooks are actually used.

4.2.2 Existing studies on the use of textbooks

There has been very little research on the use of textbooks and existing studies are hard to find. Richards and Mahoney (1996) did a survey of ESL teachers in secondary schools in Hong Kong and found that none of the teachers taught exclusively from the textbook. Similarly Chandran's (2003) investigation into teachers' use of newly prescribed textbooks using a communicative syllabus in English- and Malay-medium schools reveals that teachers chose to use commercially published material rather than the supplied textbooks. This critical adoption of textbooks, and maintaining a reasonable independence from them, was appreciated by Richards and Mahoney who claim that the decision teachers made before and during classroom teaching involved a high level of cognitive skill (1996). In a study of the introduction of an English for Special Purposes (ESP) textbook in the Philippines, Hutchinson and Torres survey students' use of textbooks and reveal that:

> Learners see the textbook as a "framework" or "guide" that helps them to organize their learning both inside and outside the classroom-during discussions in lessons, while doing activities and exercises, studying on their own, doing homework, and preparing for tests. It enables them to learn 'better, faster, clearer (sic), easier (sic), more' (1994:318).

These studies of teachers' and students' use of textbooks were done in different parts of the world, but they all have similar findings: a) teachers take textbooks as

a resource for developing their own innovative plans; b) most teachers use textbooks, supplementing them with materials of their own choice, adapting them to their particular teaching circumstance and teaching groups. These studies of teachers' and students' use of textbook contrast markedly with the teachers and students I observed and interviewed in China. But before analysing how textbooks are used inside the classroom, I will first review how textbooks are viewed in China. Following the line of argument that has been made in this chapter on the use of textbooks, I will elaborate on how books in general and textbooks in particular are valued in the Chinese context.

4.2.3 The perceived value of textbooks in China

Traditionally, Chinese culture respects the value of knowledge, especially knowledge derived from books. The word 'teach' jiaoshu (教书) in Chinese means 'teach the book'. Historically, the Chinese placed great importance on written work - anything that is put down in a book must be true and respectable. The respect for books or written works in China can be attributed to the respect held for scholars at a time in Chinese history when they were the ruling class from Qin Dynasty in the year 221 BC until the end of Qing Dynasty (1644-1911AD). Lin noted that: 'This worship of scholarship has taken the form of a popular superstition that no paper bearing writing should be thrown about or used for indecent purposes, but should be collected and burned at schools or temples' (1948:211). In the Chinese language, there are many sayings, proverbs and idioms used to praise the value of books and knowledge e.g. '万般皆下品，唯有读书高' (wanbanjiexiaping, weiyoudushugao), meaning everything is low; only reading books is high. The imperial examination dated back to the Han Dynasty (206 BC-220AD), and was abolished with the overthrow of the last emperor in the Qing Dynasty in the year 1911. This examination, from which scholars were selected therefore, lasted over

a thousand years. It required memorization of the 'four books and five classics'[5] that were revered as masterpieces by the 'sages' e.g. Confucius. Even today, memorising text from textbooks is still part and parcel of learning in many subjects, particularly humanities, at all levels of education in China (memorization is mentioned by both teachers and students in the interview data). In his review of the use of textbooks in China, Maley maintains:

> For many Chinese students and teachers books are thought of as an embodiment of knowledge, wisdom and truth. Knowledge is 'in' the book and can be taken out and put inside the students' heads. Hence the reverence with which books are treated, the value they are assigned, and the wish to learn by heart what they contain. For many, if not all, foreigners, books may contain facts, opinions and ideas. The facts are open to interpretation, the opinions to dispute and the ideas to discussion. There is nothing sacred about books, which are regarded as tools for learning not the goal of learning. (1990:97).

In Maley's statement, we can get the following contrasts on how textbooks are viewed by audiences from China and the 'foreigners' (mainly people from the West):

- Books are the embodiment of knowledge, they are sacred and need to be learnt by heart.

- Books contain opinions and ideas that need to be interpreted and discussed.

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[5] The four books include The great learning (大学 daxue); The doctrine of the means (中庸 zhongyong); The analects of Confucius (论语 lunyu); The Mencius (孟子 menzi). The five Classics include the classic of changes (易经 yijing); Classic of Poetry (诗经 shijing); Classic of Rites (礼记 liji); Classic of history (书经 shujing); Spring and autumn annals (春秋 chunqiu).

Similar comparison between China and the West is also made by Scollon when she contrasts Confucian and Socratic discourse in the tertiary classroom. Scollon argues:

> While Socratic discourse emphasizes what Goffman (1981) calls 'fresh talk', in which the philosopher rises above even his own text, Confucian discourse is focused on classical text, though the student is expected to appropriate the text to his own circumstances. [Chinese] students often assume that readings are assigned because they have value for their own sake. Just as there is no straw man in Confucian discourse, texts are studied because they have stood the test of time (1999:21).

Hu comments that Chinese people generally hold that 'True knowledge has been popularly held to reside in written texts, especially classics and authoritative works. Thus, learning is equated with reading books' (2002b: 97).

Respect for books in China still has its influence and the textbook is seen as something important since it is an essential element in teaching as well as in learning.

4.3 The development of the series of Contemporary College English

Secru notes that 'Textbook developments appear often to run parallel with developments in [language] learning theory and to be triggered by changes in society' (2000:626). In the Chinese context, textbooks have always been considered to be one of the major elements that affect English teaching and learning, which has been reflected in the literature reviewed in the preceding section and will be supported by the interview data from this study. In line with the implementation of the New Curriculum, which advocates communicative language teaching (CLT), task-based language teaching (TBLT) and student-centredness as reviewed in Chapter 2, Contemporary College English was published in 2001 by

Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, which is regarded as the most authoritative press in areas of English teaching and research. Before it was finally published, researchers on curriculum and textbooks suggested that:

> The textbooks are expected to include writings in different styles, to cover a wide range of knowledge, to reflect recent scientific and cultural developments, to update students' knowledge, to help change teachers' educational ideology and to improve teaching efficiency (South Project Group, 1998:3).

The South Project Group was set up by the Ministry of Education (MOE), with the aims of reforming the Specialist College English Course (SCEC). The scholars worked together on improving the quality of teaching materials, teaching methodology and pedagogy. Their remarks on the new textbooks above are consistent with the functions of textbooks identified by researchers: The textbooks provide models for knowledge, teaching methodology and educational ideology.

4.3.1 The texts

The editorial committee which was made up of scholars who have teaching experience as well as expertise on ELT research, claimed they had read 120 different types of textbook, anthologies and other reading material used in the United States and UK, and an equal number of journals, magazines and newspapers in order to select, modify and simplify core and supplementary texts for the new series of six textbooks. The six textbooks are provided to students from grade one to three and each book contains 15 lessons, each with two texts, A and B. Text A is used as the core teaching resource with exercises and Text B as complementary reading that includes a variety of different styles (see Appendix 2 for the detail of one lesson, *Angels on a Pin*, from *Contemporary College English I*). My data analysis will focus on the core text, Text A, which ranges from 800 to

1200 words for junior students and 1800 to 3000 words for seniors. The textbooks are issued with CDs containing recording of the texts read by native English speakers from the UK. The CD is used as a model for students to learn the pronunciation of individual word and text including stress patterns and intonation. Teachers are provided with reference books with detailed explanations of any complex sentences in the texts and sample sentences demonstrating the usage of new vocabulary.

The texts are dominant in the lesson, with most teaching deriving directly from these. Before studying the text in class, students are advised to study it intensively in their 'Pre-class work'. To give an example from *Angels on a Pin*, the textbook suggests that students:

- first read the text without referring to the glossary or notes provided
- read the 'Notes to the text'
- carry out a comprehension exercise
- re-read the text; learn new words in the glossary; explain other words and expressions through their context or by using a dictionary
- read the text a third time, then think about more comprehension questions
- prepare to ask their own questions on the text
- listen to the recording of the text on the CD

The lesson itself focuses closely on the text, and the textbook includes further exercises derived from the text (discussed in Section 4.5.2). While teachers and students do not carry out all of this work (the balance of activity is discussed in Section 4.7) the text nevertheless provides by far the most important model of English encountered by students in class.

The editorial board pursued the following criteria (My translation from Contemporary College English I 2001: iii):

- Language: the language in the texts should be standard, well chosen and be suitable for students to read, repeat, discuss and even apply as a model of their own language use. Each text should include a certain amount of new vocabulary (about 50 words), be rich in language usage, and its length and degree of difficulty should be geared to the students' level.

- Content: through the texts, students should have a general idea of Western culture, have an awareness of the challenges that human beings are facing, and have their attention drawn to current hotly-debated issues around the world. Texts should encapsulate both cultural and human values that could cultivate students' mind.

- Grammar: Books one and two, used by first year students, aim to consolidate what students have learnt in secondary school. Since most grammar items would have been taught in secondary school, the focus of students' study at university should be on practising their weaker points (e.g. clauses, participles, gerund, infinitive and prepositional phrases and their syntactic functions; the cohesion of person, plurals, cases and genders and the sequence of sentences; the use of different morphemes of verbs) and should highlight the syntactic level; more attention should be paid to the pragmatic functions that grammar plays in communication.

These criteria reflect the textbook's function for both teachers and students in terms of how to approach the language, the language level they should have as well as cultural and ideological values. However, if we look more closely at the texts and the way English is taught, it becomes more apparent that there are disparities between what the editorial committee was supposed to deliver and what is actually delivered, in relation to the three criteria above:

- Language: The language used in the texts is often literary and sometimes dated and arcane. It is therefore, unsuitable for everyday use, nor can it be used as a model for students to repeat or apply.

- Content: The language use discussed above is unsurprising given the origins of the texts themselves. Table 4.1 below provides information on the texts studied in the eight lessons I observed, which are representative of the two textbooks used.

Ms Wang: Contemporary College English I/II			

Text	Author(s)	Year of publication	Note on the author and the text (from Notes to the text)
Angels on a Pin	Alexander Calandra	1968	Alexander Calandra was Professor Emeritus at Washington University. The text is adapted from 'Angels on the Head of a Pin: A Modern Parable'. It becomes a classic case on the problem of American education (Contemporary College English I: 104).
The Nightingale and the Rose	Oscar Wilde	1888	Oscar Wilde was an Irish author famous for his sophisticated and brilliantly witty plays. The story is about pure love and sacrifice (Contemporary College English II: 87).

Ms Li : Contemporary College English III			

Text	Author(s)	Year of publication	Note on the author and the text
The Rivals	Martin Armstrong	1955	Martin Armstrong was a British journalist and novelist. The story is about two gentlemen's strange conversation between them (Contemporary College English III:198).
Diogenes and Alexander	Gilbert Highet	1963	Gilbert Highet was known for his scholarly and critical writing. The story is about the 'doggish' Creek philosophy, Diogenes who made a virtue of extreme poverty (Contemporary College English III:291).

Table 4.1 Texts studied in lessons observed in Ms Li's and Ms Wang's classes

Table 4.1 shows that all texts used in these lessons derive from 'high culture' sources in native-speaking contexts. *The Nightingale and the Rose, Diogenes and Alexander* are literary texts. Others take the form of essays in literary or cultural magazines and their subject-matter is philosophy and novel, all come from British

or US sources. The most recent publication year is 1968. Such texts do not provide models of the genres or types of language use students are likely to encounter in the contexts in which they will eventually need to use English. Even in their own terms, the issues covered are not current. There are no examples of 'current hotly-debated issues around the world' (e.g. nothing on the environment, economics, international political and ideological conflicts, contemporary culture). To quote a student from Ms Wang's class, the textbooks 'disconnect students from the real world'.

- Grammar: The editorial committee made clear its intention to shift the focus of grammar teaching from merely explaining discrete grammatical items to exploring syntactic processes and pragmatic functions in communication. However, in reality the teachers are simply repeating what students have learned in middle school.

Such basic grammar explanation is scattered through each lesson taught by the two teachers. Examples include Ms Li's explanation of 'the modifiers of comparatives', which I consider further in Chapter 5 (Section 5.4.4); and Ms Wang's distinction between 'if' and 'weather' discussed in Chapter 6 (Section 6.5.2).

Further examples are provided in Section 4.5, where I consider how textbooks are used by teachers; in Chapter 5, where I analyse how book knowledge is delivered to students using PowerPoint slides, and in Chapter 6, where I analyse how Chinese is used when knowledge is delivered.

In addition to the texts themselves, exercises based on the texts play an important part in the lessons. I turn to these in the following section.

4.3.2 Notes on the text, glossary and the exercises

The design of the exercises is considered as important as the selection of the texts as it can both consolidate as well as develop the five skills, i.e. listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation, that are practised in the texts as well as ensuring comprehension of the text and the language forms it contains. In each lesson there are about fifteen to twenty pages of exercises. The preface notes 'overall there are 15 tasks in the exercises and each task is suggested to be finished in 5 minutes. Therefore, about seventy minutes should be allocated to the exercises' (Contemporary College English I 2001: iii my translation), although it is not clear if the seventy minutes include students' self-study time or refers just to formal lesson.

Following each text is a section of 'notes to the text' providing detailed background knowledge of the author and other culture issues mentioned in the text and also providing an explanation and interpretation of some difficult sentences from the text. A Glossary of over seventy new words, phrases and expressions with phonetic transcriptions are included along with synonyms or Chinese translation to help students understand the new words. Both the 'note to the text' and the 'glossary' are meant to be read before the lesson to help students prepare for this. Further preparatory self-study is set out in a number of 'Pre-class work'. 'Pre-class work' also includes comprehension exercises. Following exercises are included in a further section on 'more work on the text' (see Appendices 2 and 3 for details). The exercises entail the followings:

- Oral work: questions on the text are listed to help student to 'comprehend and appreciate the text'. Other questions may include general discussions on either philosophical, cultural or social issues arising from the text.

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Further practice includes paraphrasing, summarising and retelling the content of the text.

- Vocabulary exercises: include translation from English to Chinese as well as Chinese to English, distinguishing synonyms and antonyms; testing morphological format of lexis and gap filling.

- Grammar exercises: these are designed to consolidate grammar items that occur in the correspondent texts as well as to reinforce understanding of difficult areas such as articles and prepositions, which are considered problematic and in need of constant practice.

- Writing task: designed according to the genre of the text.

Overall the exercises on each text cover half of the textbook and their purpose is to consolidate knowledge gained from studying the text. As will become clear in Section 4.5, no substantial amount of class time was spent on doing the oral work, vocabulary exercises or grammar exercises included in the textbook under 'more work on the text'. But the teachers did spend time reviewing some 'Pre-class work' as a 'lead-in' to the lesson. The following are two examples.

Figure 4.1 shows part of the 'Pre-class work' from the lesson *Angels on a pin* taught by Ms Wang. Ms Wang did this exercise together with students at the beginning of the new lesson, which will be illustrated in her lesson map in Section 4.5.4.

Choose the statement that best explains your understanding of the text.

Jim, the teacher of physics, decided to give the student a zero for his answer in an examination because _____ .
  a) the student's answer was wrong
  b) the student's answer was not quite to the point
  c) the student did not take the examination seriously
  d) the student had not given the expected answer

The narrator was selected to settle the dispute because _____ .
  a) he was Jim's best friend
  b) he was the student's favorite teacher
  c) he was considered impartial
  d) he was more competent as a teacher

The narrator suggested that _____ .
  a) Jim should let the student try another question
  b) Jim should let the student have another try at answering the question
  c) Jim should give the student full credit since he had answered the question completely and correctly
  d) the student should accept the score the teacher gave him since his answer did not show any knowledge of physics

The student did not give the expected answer the first time because _____ .
  a) he had too many possible answers and did not know which would be the best
  b) he did not know what the teacher expected him to say
  c) he wanted to show how smart he was
  d) he just wanted to show how ridiculous the educational system was

The message of the text seems to be that _____ .
  a) grading systems today often do not allow for creativity
  b) students should always give the expected answers at an examination
  c) teachers should learn how to deal with students whose behavior is unexpected
  d) it is very difficult to set an examination paper

Figure 4.1 Part of the 'Pre-class work' from the lesson _Angels on the pin_

Figure 4.2 is from the lesson _Diogenes and Alexander_ taught by Ms Li. While Ms Li did not go through these questions, she did design a PowerPoint slide with five similar questions, worked through with students at the beginning of the lesson. This will be analysed in Chapter 5.

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1. Questions to help comprehension and appreciation.

   1) How does the author draw his contrast between Diogenes and Alexander? In what paragraph does the focus shift from the former to the latter? Is there any climax in this essay? What is it? Do you find it dramatic?

   2) What has the author told us about Diogenes? What was his philosophy? What did he think was the problem with people? How did he intend to help them? Do you agree with him that the richer one is, the more enslaved one becomes? What did he think of war? What was the thing he valued most? Did he mean it when he said that he was happy, happier than the Shah of Persia? In what way was he different from the great philosophers of his time, such as Plato and Aristotle?

   3) How would you contrast Diogenes and Alexander? What do you know about Alexander? What had he learned from Aristotle? What do you think made him decide to see Diogenes? Why does the essay say that he understood Cynicism as the others could not?

   4) What does the brief dialogue mean to you? Why did Diogenes say that Alexander was blocking the sunlight? Did Alexander know what he meant? Why did Alexander say that if he were not Alexander, he should be Diogenes? Did the two have anything in common?

Figure 4.2 Part of the 'Pre-class work' from the lesson *Diogenes and Alexander*

In both cases, questions focus closely on the text. The questions in Figure 4.1 are multiple-choice, leaving no scope for any discussion, or even for considering the possibilities of alternative answers: answers are either right or wrong. Questions in 4.2 appear in some cases to be more open-ended and to ask for students' own views. However in the main they emphasize direct textual comprehension (the more so when adapted by Ms Li in her PowerPoint slide, as discussed in Chapter 5). Furthermore the teachers are working with teachers' reference books, which contain correct answers to these and other exercises, which again discourages the exploration of other knowledge in the texts beyond finding required answers.

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As documented in Chapter 2, this series of textbook is designed to meet the needs of the new curriculum issued in 2000, in which, student-centredness, communicative language teaching (CLT) and task-based language teaching (TBLT) are strongly advocated. However, within the textbook, the editorial board also suggests that teaching methods need not be strictly limited to these approaches, that they can also include 'structural method', 'translation method' and 'communicative method'. When designing the exercises, the editorial board notes that they endeavoured to 'standardise the language in the sentences to include a wide range of contents'. They comment further:

> The sentences are not only useful and also read well but are easy to recite. Students will be so fond of the sentences that they will not let go of them' (A Chinese idiom 爱不释手 Aibushishou,) (Contemporary College English III 2001:3 my translation).

Here we can see the contradiction between the New Curriculum which advocates 'CLT', 'TBLT' and 'student-centredness' and a textbook which advocates a mixture of these and other methods. The decisions on which methods to apply are in fact left for teachers to make. The way teachers elicit answers does not encourage students to probe for more information or exercise them in creative/critical thinking, a point I will further discuss in Chapter 5. In most cases in my data teachers are unable to strike a balance between using the advocated methodology and the more familiar traditional methods. This can be seen by their use of textbooks, explained in the next section, and the way in which English is taught, which is analysed in Chapters 5 and 6.

4.4 Teachers' and students' comments on the use of textbooks and PowerPoint slides

The way in which textbooks are used is determined by the teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards them. To better understand how textbook and PowerPoint slides are viewed and why they are used in the way described in this chapter, I interviewed both teachers and students based on my observation of classroom practice. The following is a summary of their comments on the use of textbooks.

4.4.1 Teachers' comments on the use of the textbook

A question I asked both Ms Li and Ms Wang was:

G. Cai: I have noted that both you and Ms Wang are following the textbook very firmly. What role do you think textbooks play in English teaching?

This question was asked in English but both teachers answered in Chinese and I give my translation below.

Ms Li provided a very full response to this question, in which she highlights the value of textbooks.

Ms Li: Our teaching is textbook-driven. When students learn English the primary emphasis is language. The texts selected for the textbooks are masterpieces. A lot of comments can be made on them and a lot of language can be learnt from them. Language is not 'hollow' and it has to be affiliated to different types of genres. Both language and content are important.

[...]

The series of the textbooks we are using at the moment is really good. In foreign countries [referring to the West] textbooks do not seem to be important. Teachers tend not to follow the same textbooks all the time,

but to use handouts instead, which, in fact is more challenging. Teachers will spend a lot of time deciding and preparing materials. The contents chosen might lack system. Language should be introduced to students depending on the sequence of its difficulty. Choosing teaching materials on our own will be too demanding. I will be very sceptical if the teacher has the ability to select the best.

[...]

A textbook is not something there just for students to open and flip through but for students to memorize and therefore to internalize. After finishing each unit, students are very familiar with the text. They should have mastered the content of the text, which I believe will cultivate their mind. Meanwhile they should also have a good command of the vocabulary, phrases, collocations and usages. If they know nothing when books are closed it means they have not learnt anything at all.

Ms Li sets a high value on the texts used in the books, which she regards as 'masterpieces' that provide good sources for language learning. Having done her Masters in the UK, Ms Li is aware that teachers make less use of textbooks in the west, but she has concerns about this practice, to do both with practical constraints (the time taken to prepare alternative materials) and pedagogical requirements (the need for systematicity, and to select the best materials). She also focuses on students' need to 'memorize' and 'internalize' texts in order to learn from these. Ms Li's unwillingness to adopt western practices may derive in part from concerns about Chinese teachers' proficiency in English (compared to native speakers), though she does not refer to this explicitly in her response.

Ms Wang's answer to this question is more equivocal and she places a greater focus on practical constraints:

Ms Wang: It would be good if teachers prepared handouts instead of using textbooks, but it means teachers have to spend much more of their time in preparing this. Textbooks will be more economical when teachers already have a heavy workload. From students' points of view, textbooks play a little role in their learning particularly to those students whose English proficiency is high. From my own experience a textbook is not a Bible. Self-study is more important. However to those students who are not clear what they want, if they do not follow textbooks, they would have nothing to rely on. Although a textbook might not be ideal, without a textbook it could be even worse.

There are some contrasts between the two teachers' comments on textbooks. Ms Li's beliefs in the value of textbooks are very much in line with evidence from the literature on how textbooks are viewed in China (reviewed in Section 4.2.3). Ms Wang is quite sceptical about the usage of textbooks for students with more advanced proficiency in English, although she is more convinced of their value to students who are less able to study independently. There are also similarities in the comments from the teachers. They both point out that teachers' heavy workload constrains them from choosing their own teaching material. And despite some differences in their ideas, textbooks are used in similar ways in both teachers' lessons, reflected in their lesson maps discussed in the next section, and in the interactions that take place in their classrooms, discussed in Chapters 5 and 6.

4.4.2 Students' comments on the use of the textbook

I asked students what role they thought textbooks played in their English study? (The question was asked and answered in Chinese.)

Students differed in their views in textbooks. Some were positive, others negative and some referred to both positive and negative sides.

Students who see textbooks positively comment on the expertise of textbook authors, echoing Ms Li's comments, as in the following responses from Chen and Liu (my translation).

Chen: The articles selected for the textbooks were checked by experts. I assume the experts had compared and evaluated the articles before they decided to adopt them. If we look at the textbooks systematically, we can see both texts and vocabulary are organized in the sequence of their difficulties. These articles have broadened our horizon as they cover a variety of topics which open the door to the outside world for us.

Liu: To me textbook is very important. I can't imagine how our classes would proceed without a textbook. The textbooks editors have the expertise to decide example texts par excellence. What we need to do is try to memorize texts as many as we can. That's my experience of learning English.

The five students from the focus group unanimously conceive of textbooks as the cornerstone that they have to rely on in English learning. Zheng, for instance, comments:

Zheng: I am very certain that textbook plays a significant role in my English learning and I am trying to memorize as many things as I can from the text. I would just hope our teacher can somehow change their way of teaching. What they explain in the classes can be found in our reference books. I hope they can provide us with more relevant knowledge.

In all cases, these students have followed textbooks since beginning. The remaining two students interviewed are the female students who changed their

faculty recently from the Chinese department to the English department. Although they took Chinese as their major in the first year, according to university practice in China English is mandatory for everyone. Therefore they both took this course entitled 'Public English'. At the time when they were interviewed, they were following both Ms Wang's and Ms Li's lessons. Their views on textbooks are more negative, which may relate to their experience with different English textbooks when they were doing Chinese in the first year. Huang notes:

Huang: The textbook is one form of assistance to study. We should not rely too much on it. The coverage of the textbook is limited and it puts too much emphasis on literature. To me it disconnects me from the real world. It is a pity that the university assesses us based on textbooks. We are forced to be confined to the textbook. Thinking back, we could only acquired limited knowledge from the textbooks. And we will forget everything once the exam finishes.

Qi added that textbook is just a tool. 'To me reading is more important. The more you read, the faster it becomes'.

Huang and Qi's negative views on textbooks can be attributed to their own learning experience. When they started Chinese for their major in the first year, they devoted the majority of their formal learning time to Chinese as they had to pass the exam to upgrade even if they intended to transfer their study. They both mentioned expanding reading and enlarging their vocabulary is more important then sticking to the textbooks.

Some students pointed out both positive and negative aspects of the use of textbooks, as in the case of Feng:

Feng: I believe inside the classroom we need textbooks but they shouldn't be the only sources for us to rely on. We need to read more outside the

classroom. This is very much like learning Chinese. We learnt how to read and write in primary school but it is not enough. We also need to know how to communicate in the real world. Unfortunately we do not have many opportunities to communicate with native speakers. So we have to remember words and memorize sentences.

Overall, students have mixed views on the use of textbooks. Some of these resonate with Ms Li's comments: the value of expert knowledge and systematicity.

Others see some limitation on the use of textbooks even when they believe textbooks play an important role in learning they caution against over-reliance on textbooks.

4.4.3 Teachers' comments on the use of PowerPoint slides

Following my observation of the use of PowerPoint slides in parallel with textbooks I also asked teachers and students on their views of the use of this technology. The following is an extract from my interview with Ms Li (my translation):

G. Cai: I note that there are many PowerPoint slides in your lessons, how long do you normally spend on the preparation for the slides and where do you get the information?

Ms Li: I spend quite a long time preparing the PowerPoint slides. I normally put down what I need to explain in my note book then type it on to slides. When I search pictures and images online, it takes very long time. I normally don't put everything on the slides, otherwise students will not listen to me. They will simply come to me and copy the slides.

G Cai: What functions do you think PowerPoint slides have in your teaching?

Ms Li: PowerPoint slides act as a blackboard. However, it contains much more information than the traditional use of blackboard. Since we prepare

everything beforehand, slides save a lot of time in the class. They set a theme for us to follow. I normally put the important language points on them for students to copy down. You know intensive reading course is quite a difficult course so if I use pictures and images, they can provide students with vivid pictures to help students understand certain events or people.

I asked similar questions of Ms Wang. While there were some differences in the teachers' comments on the use of textbooks, so are their comments on the use of PowerPoint Slides.

Ms Wang: I spend quite a long time on making the slides. For one lesson, I normally spend one or two days on them. I have reference books to rely on and also I need to get information from the internet, especially when I need pictures or images.

G. Cai: What role do you think slides play in your teaching?

Ms Wang: I can see that it is very convenient for us teachers as we do not need to write on the board. Slides save our time and I can not even write on the board properly now. I am so used to slides that now I find that writing on the board is difficult for me. As to what effect slides have on teaching and learning, I am really not sure and I believe this deserves further investigation.

Interestingly, both teachers see PowerPoint slides as a replacement of the traditional blackboard. Both comment on the use of pictures and images, with Ms Li focusing particularly on the value of these. Both mention that they draw on particular sources in preparation of PowerPoint slides and comment on the time-consuming nature of this preparation. As in her comments of the use of textbooks,

Ms Wang is again not certain about the effects that PowerPoint slides can have in teaching.

4.4.4 Students' comments on the use of PowerPoint slides

Students' views of PowerPoint slides in some ways mirror those of teachers. I asked students:

G. Cai: What role do you think PowerPoint slides play in your English learning? For example how useful do you find these slides? What do you think you learn from them?

Chen provides an example of the positive responses I received (my translation):

Chen: Speaking for myself, PowerPoint slides play a very important role in my English learning. Slides can help illustrate the points clearly in a concise way. They also enable us to save a large amount of time in note-taking. In addition, if the teacher is skilful, then slides can be eye-catching, which is very helpful to arouse students' interests in reading.

Other students point to positive and some negative aspects of the use of PowerPoint slides.

He: PowerPoint slides, as a consequence of modern technology have replaced the traditional blackboard. They serve as guidance helping us follow teachers' thoughts. Slides are also important sources for students to revisit and to prepare for exams. However, sometimes teachers put too much information on slides and students feel frustrated as we feel lost and are not sure what to copy down.

Huang: I believe PowerPoint slides have two functions. Firstly, slides are reflections of teacher's preparation of the lesson. They help us to follow the teachers' thought. Another function is slides are sources for

students' self-study and they are very helpful for the preparation of exams. However, students do not like it when teachers simply copy sentences from their reference books, as we can somehow get similar reference and would rather read reference books.

As well as sharing Huang's comments on the helpfulness of PowerPoint slides, Qi also points to a side effect.

Qi: Many students play truant or show little interest in class because all valuable things related to the final exam are on the PowerPoint slides. It is really not that important if students turn up or not as they can copy the slides. What I really want to say is a large proportion of teachers rely too much on slides.

This is consistent with Ms Li's worry that if she puts too much on PowerPoint slides students will not turn up to class but simply copy the slides. Qi's observation suggests that this may be already happening.

Students share some of their teachers' positive perception of PowerPoint slides. In the same way as slides set a theme for teachers to follow (Ms Li). They also keep students follow teachers' thoughts; they may be useful for students' revision and they be eye-catching, and therefore arouse students' interest. More negatively, students find slides unhelpful if they contain too much information or are over reliant on reference books. There is also a danger of some students relying on PowerPoint slides rather than attending classes.

My discussion so far has focused on the nature of the textbook used in English classes and teachers' views on textbooks and their uses, as well as on the use of PowerPoint slides that, in various ways, mediate the textbook. In the following section, I turn my attention to classroom practices and to what my observations have revealed about textbook and PowerPoint use.

4.5 The teachers' use of textbook and PowerPoint slides

In this section, I will look at closely how textbooks and PowerPoint slides are actually used by the two teachers in the classroom.

4.5.1 Teachers' syllabi on the use of textbooks

Ms Wang is in charge of year one students. The book they are using is *Contemporary College English I.* Every year teachers are requested to write up their teaching syllabus and the syllabi all go to Ms Li, the dean for her to check and file. In Ms Wang's syllabus, she lists her aims:

> The course aims to help first-year students of English to lay a solid foundation in basic linguistic skills, namely listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation. It is also intended to provide students with opportunities to learn to think critically and independently and to contribute to class discussions. In the second term of the first year's learning, students are required to remember the vocabulary in the textbook, be very familiar with the sentences and contents, and be able to appreciate the beauty of the texts (original data in English from Ms Wang).

The specific plan for the lesson *The Nightingale and the Rose* is as the follows

> Lesson Four: The Nightingale and the Rose
>
> - the introduction of a fairy tale
>
> - simple plot
>
> - features of a fairy tale
>
> - introduction to Oscar Wilde
>
> - detail analysis of the story

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- Academic hours: 4

Ms Li, is in charge of year two students and uses the *Contemporary College English III* textbook. At the beginning of her teaching syllabus she states that:

Contemporary College English III is a course for developing students' comprehensive English skills. Its aim is to foster and improve students' ability to use English so as to develop their all-round qualities. Based on Contemporary College English II, the course is intended to further enhance their listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation skills so that they can communicate on hotly-debated social topics and articulate their own ideas. Meanwhile other abilities, such as analysing, comprehending, critical and creative thinking, can also be fostered. On completion of this book students should have a mastery of approximately 5500 words (my translation).

Ms Li's lesson plan for the lesson *Diogenes and Alexander* is as follows: (Ms Li's plan is a mixture of Chinese and English. I have translated the Chinese):

Lesson 10: Diogenes and Alexander

- Teaching content: understanding Diogenes and his philosophy, beware of its positive side; learn how to describe people in English (my translation)

- Key words: possess, roll, appoint, account; form

- Key grammar items: Subject-verb; inversion; the comparative/superlative adjective; determiners (sic)

- Homework: Chinese English translation exercise No. 5; recite some paragraphs in the text.

- Academic hours: 6

Both teachers' descriptions of their teaching aims are based on the requirements of the New Curriculum, particularly when they document the five skills. Their aims are to actualize concepts from the New Curriculum reviewed in Chapter 2. However, in their lesson plans none of these elements is mentioned. Instead, their plans highlight cultural and linguistic knowledge which is the centre of their classroom practice, as we shall see in the following sections and in Chapters 5 and 6.

4.5.2 Typical teaching procedures involving the use of textbook

The two Chinese teachers follow by and large identical procedures in drawing on the textbooks in lessons. The sequence in each lesson is as follows.

- Students are told to prepare for the new lesson before the class takes place by reading Text A, listening to the CD with the texts recorded and referring to dictionaries for unknown words,.

- When new lessons begin, the teacher asks general comprehension questions related to the Pre-classwork to ensure students are familiar with the text.

- The teacher then commences on the explanation of the text: deconstructing complex and composite clauses; guiding students to manipulate phrases and collocations; giving sample sentences illustrating the usage of new vocabulary.

- The detailed explanation is followed by oral work in which students take part in group discussions on the questions listed in the textbook.

- Finally at the end of lessons, exercise questions (the 15 tasks mentioned in Section 4.3.2) are partially checked, answered and explained.

Due to the time limit, not all of these 15 tasks are checked and not a lot of time is spent on doing the exercises. Since the majority of students have reference books that provide answers to the questions. When exercises are carried out, students simply read out the answers when they are called upon.

After each lesson, students are expected to have a mastery of the new vocabulary, phrases and collocations introduced in the lesson, be familiar with the sample sentences provided by the teacher and have a thorough understanding of the text.

In working through these texts, extensive use is made of PowerPoint slides: over 30 slides in each lesson. Below I will discuss the use of PowerPoint slide. I then provide a sample 'lesson map' to illustrate how lessons are structured and how the textbook and associated PowerPoint slides are drawn on in each lesson.

4.5.3 The juxtaposition of textbooks and PowerPoint slides

When teachers conduct teaching in China they are expected to prepare extensively. A Chinese proverb notes that 'to give students a bowl of water, the teacher should have a bucket of water to dispense'. As discussed at the beginning of this chapter, the textbook serves as the primary source for classes but teachers are also expected to expand the spectrum of knowledge from the textbook and PowerPoint slides serve this function. Teachers may, in addition play tapes, CDs, DVDs, but in the lessons I observed, they used mainly PowerPoint slides. In the four lessons that provide a focus for my detailed analysis, 135 slides are drawn on and over 80% of the classroom discourse is based on the content on these PowerPoint slides (Appendices 4 and 5 provide example of slides from two of the four lessons). The New Curriculum emphasizes the need to exploit modern technology as a teaching resource:

Each university should make full use of their existing facilities. They should also explore new teaching resources. The use of the computer and the internet should play a significant role in innovating the teaching content, changing teaching methods, fostering students' self-studying awareness, improving teaching efficiency and teachers' professional competence (2000:21 My translation).

Due to the popularization of educational technology in China, the use of PowerPoint slides in tertiary and secondary classroom is a commonplace and several studies have focused on the use of PowerPoint slides in English classes in China Wei (2000); Cheng (2002); Zhong &Shen (2002) and in the UK Li&Walsh (2011); Zhong &Shen (2002). Wei (2000) and Cheng (2002) discuss the design of PowerPoint slides and what should be included in slides. Cheng also claims that 'the use of slides is changing the traditional pedagogy and teaching styles and provides a solution to the time-consuming and low efficiency English language teaching' (2002:51 My translation). Since there is no data to support Wei (2000) and Cheng's (2002) claim it is hard to say to what extent the use of PowerPoint slides has actually changed traditional pedagogy. Interestingly both Zhong and Shen's (2002) empirical study in secondary English classroom across China and Li &Walsh's (2011) empirical study in secondary English classrooms in Beijing reveal that the use of educational technology, especially the use of PowerPoint slides does not cause any changes in classroom practice. Li and Walsh note that 'Where there is uptake, the technology is simply used as an "add-on" or "digital blackboard", rather than as a fully integrated element of classroom practice' (2011:115). My own data suggest, similarly, that new technology does not have the decided function of fostering innovation and change.

In my data, PowerPoint slides are prepared in order to support all aspects of the lessons: background knowledge, vocabulary, grammar and interpretation. They are derived primarily from three sources: the internet; dictionaries, which can be either online dictionaries or hard-copy dictionaries; and the teachers' reference book. Of these sources, the internet constitutes a major one, providing references, images or further information on the author or the texts under study. Explanation and examples of vocabulary come mainly from dictionaries, whilst grammar and interpretation come from teachers' reference books. Teachers themselves are encouraged to provide web-based resources for others by designing a 'preeminent lesson' and placing this on their university intranet. And lessons are also placed by teachers on the internet for anyone to share. It is possible they simply type in some key words and retrieve an already prepared lesson plan with PowerPoint slides.

To most teachers and students PowerPoint slides are a continuation of the textbook in terms of knowledge and authority. Whilst textbooks are edited by a panel of scholars, PowerPoint slides are composed by teachers themselves based on what is available. Teachers select what they believe is most suitable for students in terms of content and level of knowledge by cutting and pasting text from other sources. However the PowerPoint slide itself is also personalized, i.e. given a specific style to fit in with the whole sequence of slides prepared by teachers. Other texts, or sometimes text fragments, are therefore appropriated and recontextualised in the PowerPoint slides sequence. After preparing their PowerPoint slides, teachers will spend a lot time rehearsing the contents of the slides so that when they teach, they can repeat the contents fluently and accurately.

As well as 'teaching the book' as explained at the beginning of this chapter, due to the use of technology, teachers now also 'teach' the PowerPoint slides. Unlike a textbook that has authority in its own right (see Section 4.2), the PowerPoint slides with the words/sentences predominantly cut and pasted from other sources are endowed with authority when the teachers use them (further elaboration on teacher's authority will be made in Chapter 5). The following photographs show how teachers deliver knowledge from both the textbook and PowerPoint slides. Most often the teachers stand behind a lectern containing their books, and read their notes in the book's margins. Beside them is a computer cupboard with keyboard on top, which they use for their PowerPoint slides and CD recordings.

picture 1

Figure 4.3 Photos taken in Ms Li's (left) and Ms Wang's (right) classes

4.5.4 Examples of using PowerPoint slides to expand knowledge from textbooks

Broadly PowerPoint slides can be classified into two categories according to their contents: background knowledge and the detailed explanation of sentences in the text including vocabulary and grammar. Below I provide examples of how both types of slides are sued to expand knowledge from the textbooks.

The following paragraph comes from 'Notes to the text' (sic) in the lesson *The Nightingale and the Rose* taught by Ms Wang. Ms Wang prepared 11 PowerPoint slides to expand this information about Oscar Wilde.

Notes to the Text

1. About the author:

    Oscar Wilde (1854—1900) was an Irish author famous for his sophisticated and brilliantly witty plays. He studied at Trinity College at Dublin where he was born, and then at Oxford, where he distinguished himself for his scholarship and wit as well as his unusual taste in dress and manners. He wrote many poems, fairy tales and stories, but his creative genius was best displayed through his plays, of which the most famous was *The Importance of Being Earnest* (1895) . His career was shattered by two years of imprisonment for homosexual practices (1895—1897). After his release from prison, he moved to Paris and lived there till he died at the age of 46.

Figure 4.4 Textbook notes for *The Nightingale and the Rose*

biography

- **1854:**Oscar Fingal O'Flahertie Wills Wilde born in Dublin.
- **1871:**began studying classics at Trinity College Dublin
- **1874:**began studies at Magdalen College. Oxford (UK)
- **1878:**won Newdigate Prize for his poem *Ravenna*, takes degree
- **1879:**settled in London
- **1881:***Poems* published
- **1882:**began one year lecture tour of North America
- **1883:***Duchess of Padua* (play) written

- **1884:**married Constance Lloyd and lived in Chelsea (London)
- **1885:**elder son. Cyril, born; writes reviews for *Pall Mall Gazette*
- **1886:** younger son. Vyvyan, born
- **1887** became editor of *Woman's World*. *The Canterville Ghost* written
- **1888:** *The Happy Prince and Other Tales*
- **1889:***The Portrait of Mr. W. H.*
- **1891:***A House of Pomegranates. The Picture of Dorian Gray. Lord Arthur Savile's Crime. Intentions* (essays). meets Lord Alfred Douglas ("Bosie")
- **1892:***Lady Windermere's Fan* produced. *Salomé* (written in French) banned
- **1893:** *A Woman of No Importance* produced. *The Sphinx* written
- **1894:** *Salomé* published
- **1895:***An Ideal Husband* and *The Importance of Being Earnest* produced

Figure 4.5 Ms Wang's PowerPoint slides providing information on Oscar

Wilde

The 11 PowerPoint slides Ms Wang prepared include biographical details on Wilde

(as in Figure 4.5) and some famous quotations. Similar background knowledge is

prepared by Ms Li the dean. Based on the following 'note to the text' Ms Li made

two PowerPoint slides to present the knowledge. Although Socrates was not

mentioned in the text, he was still introduced to students and Ms Li also provided other information about Plato.

4. Plato (427? 347 BC?)

Athenian philosopher, one of the most influential thinkers of all time, and a student of Socrates. Plato's surviving writings are all dialogues except for a few letters. The main speaker is Socrates, voicing Plato's own doctrines. Plato's ideal state in the Republic has three classes: philosopher-kings, guardians (army soldiers) and farmers; and which class one belongs to depends solely upon moral and intellectual qualifications. Plato's world is one which is highly ordered where the supreme idea is the Good. Plato founded the Academy which lasted until 529 AD. It was one of the world's first centers for advanced scientific study. He was also one of the most gifted writers among the great philosophers. His most eminent student was Aristotle.

Figure 4.6 Textbook notes used by Ms Li

= Plato (429 – 347 BC): Athenian philosopher, a disciple of Socrates. He founded the Academy in Athens which was one of the world's first centers for advanced scientific study. His philosophical writings are presented in the form of dialogues. Plato's political theories appear in the Republic, in which he explored the nature and structure of a just society.

= Socrates (?470 – 399BC):
= a Greek philosopher
= He is known for encouraging people to think carefully about ideas before accepting them and for developing a method of examining ides according to system of questions and answers in order to find out truth. This is known as the Socratic method or dialectics (辩证法).

Figure 4.7 Ms Li's PowerPoint slides providing information on Plato and Socrates

Ms Li prepared 10 similar slides containing background knowledge to this text. Background knowledge is seen as an important part of teaching (see the discussion of lesson plan in Section 4.5.1), and both teachers spent a substantial amount of time imparting such knowledge from PowerPoint slides. Ms Wang, for example spent roughly one class, 50 minutes, to introduce Oscar Wilde and his quotations, whilst Ms Li spent about 30 minutes to explain the philosophy and philosophers.

The following two examples show how the teachers expand linguistic knowledge from the text with the aid of PowerPoint Slides. The first comes from Ms Wang's detailed explanation of the text of *Angels on a pin*. Figure 4.8 is an extract from the text showing words and phrases encircled for detailed explanation. In Figure 4.9, the first PowerPoint slide illustrates how Ms Wang sometimes uses prompts to remind herself and the class of important words and phrases, including some that occur in the text in Figure 4.8. The second slide is Ms Wang's paraphrase of the last sentence of the text in Figure 4.8. (Appendix 2 shows the full text of this lesson).

At this point, I asked the student if he really didn't know the expected answer to this question. He smiled and admitted that he did, but said he was fed up with standard answers to standard questions. He couldn't understand why there should be so much emphasis on fixed rules rather than on creative thinking. So he could not resist the temptation to play a little joke on the educational system, which had been thrown into such a panic by the successful launching of the Russian Sputnik.

Figure 4.8 Language points explained by Ms Wang

Figure 4.9 PowerPoint slides used by Ms Wang for detailed explanation

The paraphrase in Figure 4.9 (second PowerPoint slide) shows how two of Ms Wang's highlighted phrases, 'had been thrown into' and 'panic', are rephrased, respectively by 'had got into' and 'a sudden strong feeling of fear and nervousness'. The transcript of this lesson reveals that Ms Wang then provided further explanation and examples of 'panic'.

Figures 4.10 and 4.11 provide similar examples from Ms Li's discussion of *Diogenes and Alexander* (see Appendix 3 for the full text of this lesson). Ms Li spent over 25 minutes explaining the paragraph in Figure 4.10. The encircled words and phrases were explained, exemplified and sometimes translated into Chinese, and the underlined sequences were interpreted and exemplified. The two slides shown in Figure 4.11 were drawn on as part of this process, the first to paraphrase a sentence and the second to provide a definition and examples of a new vocabulary item, 'convert'.

It was not a house, not even a squatter's hut. He thought everybody lived far too elaborately, expensively, anxiously. What good is a house? No one needs privacy: natural acts are not shameful; we all do the same things, and need not hide them. No one needs beds and chairs and such furniture: the animals live healthy lives and sleep on the ground. All we require, since nature did not dress us properly, is one garment to keep us warm, and some shelter from rain and wind. So he had one blanket—to dress him in the daytime and cover him at night—and he slept in a cask. His name was Diogenes. He was the founder of the creed called Cynicism (doggishness); he spent much of his life in the rich, lazy, corrupt Greek city of Corinth, mocking and satirizing its people, and occasionally converting one of them.

Figure 4.10 Language points explained by Ms Li

Paragraph 2

- He thought everybody lived far too elaborately, expensively, anxiously.
- Paraphrase:
- He thought that our life is too complicated, too costly, and gives us too much pressure.

- ... converting one of them
- convert: to change one's belief (to);
- to change from one form, purpose, system to into another.
- John was converted to Buddhism by a Chinese priest.
- The hotel is going to be converted into a hospital.

Figure 4.11 PowerPoint slide used by Ms Li for detailed explanation

From the scanned texts and PowerPoint slides, we can form the idea that teaching is mostly textbook and slide driven and imparting knowledge from these two sources is the predominant classroom activity. In fact, what teachers are doing is to take knowledge out of the textbooks and PowerPoint slides and put it inside students' brain, as commented by Maley (1990:97). Few activities that involve fostering of the five skills, no debate or classroom discussions were observed, which clearly contradicts the teaching aims. It is true that the textbook covers a wide range of topics, but the contents are often out of date. The textbook editorial board hopes that 'the language in the texts are suitable for students to read, repeat, discuss and apply as a model of their own language use' (my translation from Contemporary College English I 2001:3). However, the language used in the

texts and PowerPoint slides are too literary and unsuitable for everyday use. Worse still, due to the belief of needing to provide students with 'a thorough understanding' (from Ms Li's interview data in Chapter 5), teachers delve too deeply into the material for additional knowledge with the result that the language used is far beyond both teachers' and students' level.

After the specific examples given to reveal how book knowledge is expanded by the use of PowerPoint slides, I will next sketch a lesson map for each teacher to better illustrate how textbooks and slides are used in parallel, how much time is used in each teaching procedure and the sequence of their lessons. One lesson generally consists of four to six classes depending on the length, difficulty and the importance of the text and each class lasts 50 minutes.

4.5.5 Lesson maps

As explained in Chapter 3, two of each teacher's lessons have been fully transcribed. Of the two lessons, I will sketch a map of Ms Wang's lesson *Angels on a pin* by Alexander Calandra. The lesson took place on two days: 06/11/2008 and 11/11/2008. Altogether two hundred minutes were used to teach this lesson.

Time	Activities	Interactions	Slides
		06/11/2008 8:00-9:50	
08:00 - 08:14 14 mins	Review of students' homework from last session	Teacher reads out some of students' writing	0
08:14 - 08:20 6 mins	Introduction to new lesson - *Angels on a Pin.* 'Pre-classwork'	Six students nominated to answer questions on 'Pre-classwork' Teacher gives feedback	1
08:20 - 08:32 12 mins	Background knowledge: explanation of the origin of the question 'How many angels can dance on the head of a Pin?' and subsequent commentary	The teacher reads aloud from PowerPoint slides and explains them in Chinese from time to time.	2-7

Time	Activities	Interactions	Slides
08:32 - 08:42 10 mins	Introduction of the theme of this lesson	One student called upon to answer a question. Teacher then gives feedback	0
08:42 - 08:47 5 mins	Multi-choice questions in the text book to help students comprehend the text	Teacher reads out the questions and students answer in chorus. Occasionally teacher explains in more detail	0
08:47 - 08:52 5 mins	Explanation of explain some difficult words from the glossary	The teacher explains three complex words in both English and Chinese	8
Break			
09:00 - 09:50 50 mins	Beginning of detailed explanation of the text. Three paragraphs covered	The teacher explains with students brought in occasionally to answer some questions	9-14
11/11/2008 10:00-10:50			
10:00- 10:50 50 mins	Continuation of detailed explanation of the text	Teacher explains with about 15 minutes allocated for students to discuss, demonstrate, or interpret what happened in the text	15-20
Break			
11:00 - 11:50 50 mins	Completion of detailed explanation of the rest of the text	Students bring in occasionally to answer some questions	21-24

Table 4.2 Ms Wang's lesson map

The next is a lesson map from Ms Li's lesson *Diogenes and Alexander*. It took place over three times on three days: 17/11/2008, 19/11/2008 and 24/11/2008. Altogether 223 minutes were used to teach this lesson.

Time	Activity	Interaction	Slides
17/11/2008 9:27-9:50			
09:27 - 09:50 23 mins	Introducing of background knowledge to *Diogenes and Alexander*	Teacher talked most of the time. Occasionally students were brought in to answer questions	8
19/11/2008 8:00-9:50			

Time	Activity	Interaction	Slides
08:00 - 08:03 3 mins	Completion of background knowledge to *Diogenes and Alexander*	Teacher talked most of the time. Occasionally students were brought in to answer questions	9-10
08:03 - 08:12 9 mins	Pre-classwork: Questions on the text	The teacher chose five students to answer the questions listed on the slide and the teacher made comments, sometimes to develop the answers	11
08:12 – 08:18 6 mins	Structure of the text	Four students were asked to work out the structure of the text Final answers were given by the teacher.	12
08:18 – 08:50 32 mins	Detailed explanation of the text	Teacher talked most of the time. Occasionally students were brought in to answer questions	13-16
Break			
09:00- 09:50 50 mins	Continuation of detailed explanation of the text	Teacher talked most of the time. Occasionally students were brought in to answer questions	17-20
23/11/2008 10:00-11:50			
10:00 - 10:50 50 mins	Continuation of detailed explanation of the text	Teacher talked most of the time. Occasionally students were brought in to answer questions	21-24
Break			
11:00- 11:27 27 mins	Continuation of detailed explanation of the text	Teacher talked most of the time. Occasionally students were brought in to answer questions	25-31
11:27- 11:50 23 mins	Small group discussion of questions from the textbook	Student-student interaction	0

Table 4.3 Ms Li's lesson map

The two lesson maps further suggest that teaching is textbooks and PowerPoint slides oriented. Both teachers rely on textbook and PowerPoint slides heavily. Imparting knowledge from the two resources is the major teaching activities, which

is consistent with the teachers' teaching plan but contradictory with their teaching aims and the New Curriculum. The two teachers follow almost identical procedures. Due to the length of the text, Ms Li spent 223 minutes whist Ms Wang spent 200 minutes. The lessons covered similar *amount of time to the background knowledge and* 'Pre-class work', and Ms Wang skipped the structure of the text section. The detailed explanation section was clearly the most time intensive for both teachers, 160 minutes for the dean, 140 minutes for Ms Wang. Ms Li arranged for her students to do the oral work listed in the textbook and it lasted for 23 minutes. Ms Wang however gave her students 15 minutes to discuss questions that she designed for the lesson. From the lesson map, one could see there are not many opportunities for students to get involved and not many chances for students to improve their five skills apart from absorbing knowledge from the textbooks and PowerPoint slides nor have students been encouraged to do critical or creative thinking.

So far, I have made an elaboration on how textbooks and PowerPoint slides are used by teachers, next I will elaborate on how textbooks are used by students.

4.6 Students' use of textbook

Students' use of textbooks can be linked to their learning strategy. In English classes, students are always encouraged to read texts aloud, memorise sample sentences for new vocabulary and grammar items and even sections of text that are considered 'well-written' (More details on students' learning strategies will be elaborated in Chapter 5). Starting from primary school until the end of tertiary education, each student in China will have their own textbooks on every subject they take. Since textbooks are the students' own property, they can annotate these by adding on marginal notes, highlighting language points and writing down answers to the exercises. Figure 4.12 shows a page from one student's textbook.
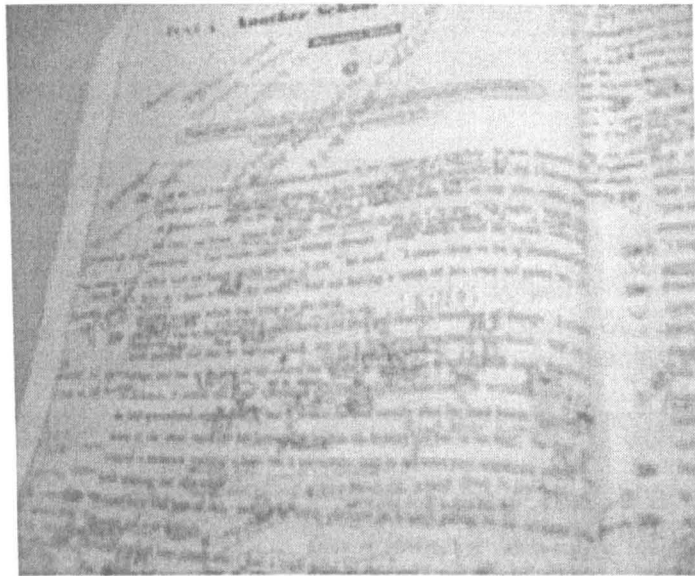
Figure 4.12 Example of a student's annotated textbook

It is common for students to get up early in order to have half an hour or more to read and memorise some English in a quiet corner on the campus. Although students have opportunities to attend extra-curricular English events (for example English speaking contests, the English corner/bar and other types of English contests), the formal classroom setting is still viewed as the principal place where English is learnt. It is there that students are expected to acquire a complete understanding of English texts, the grammar items embedded in the texts and the new vocabulary introduced in the texts. Due to the in-depth explanation of texts, some students are even able to memorize sentences, which is encouraged by teachers as they hope points made about these will be internalized by students. Students are therefore able to quote sentences verbatim, particularly during their final exams. Apart from internalizing important points made in the classroom, students are expected to copy any notes written on the board by the teacher or shown on PowerPoint slides and to take their own notes of anything they think is important and which might aid their revision.

Apart from the textbook and accompanying CDs, reference books with detailed explanations of the texts and answers to the exercises are readily available to the

students. Most students prepare for their lessons with the assistance of these books, using them to save time in understanding texts. Since they include all the answers, the books can also encourage laziness. Students can simply copy answers down beforehand and when picked to answer questions they can simply read out their answers to avoid the embarrassment of not knowing the answer.

Students' use of textbooks reflects teacher's beliefs that absorbing knowledge is their primary goal. With other aspects of classroom practice, the way in which textbooks are used by students stands in contrast to what is advocated in the New Curriculum and the teachers' teaching aims. This is however, in line with the teachers' teaching plans where the absorption of cultural and linguistic knowledge from the textbook is the main focus.

The recent rapid advancement in technology has made TV programmes and the internet available to students. Due to its geographical location, the university can pick up two English speaking channels from Hong Kong. These provide extra sources for students (and in fact for teachers) and may lead make some students take a critical view of their textbooks, a reflected in the interview data. However, students lack guidance, and seem to find it difficult to change their practice.

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter has considered broad patterns of teaching and learning English in the classes of the two teachers contributing to this study, with a major focus on the nature and use of the textbooks and PowerPoint slides that dominate English lessons. I first reviewed the literature on attitudes towards textbooks and their use worldwide and in China, and then discussed the development of the Contemporary College English series of textbooks used by teachers in this study. I drew on interview data to provide evidence of teachers' and students' perceptions on the

use of textbooks and PowerPoint slides, and on observational data to examine their use in practice by teachers and students.

The literature identified a range of views, internationally, on textbooks. In general, however, these are perceived to have some advantages and some disadvantages. Teachers therefore are expected to make an informed decision on their use. This is in contrast with the situation in China, where historically textbooks are seen as a body of knowledge and therefore as the authoritative source for teachers to draw on to impart knowledge to students. This is still reflected in current practices, as in the lessons I observed. The lesson maps, for instance, show that teachers stick to the textbook from the beginning to the end of each lesson, and do not deviate from this.

The Contemporary College English series issued in 2001 is meant to reflect the New Curriculum in which CLT, TBLT and student-centredness are advocated. However, the textbook itself does not encourage teachers to implement this recommended pedagogy. The literature reviewed in Section 4.2 suggests that, in principle, a textbook may provide new methodologies, but Contemporary College English does not do so. Furthermore, the language modelled in the texts does not correspond to the everyday use of English and the texts themselves are restricted to literary and other high-culture genres. The textbook includes several types of exercises, with the purpose of developing students' understanding of points covered in the text, but time limitations preclude many of these being done in the classroom. Whenever teachers and students do complete exercises, this becomes simply a matter of checking prepared answers.

The New Curriculum also states that the use of new technology, including computers and the internet, should 'innovate the teaching content', 'change teaching methods', and 'foster students' self-study' (2000). My observations

however show that none of these aims are realised. Because of a largely text- and knowledge-oriented pedagogy, PowerPoint slides, which reflect the major use of new technology, represent a continuation of, and extension to, book knowledge. New technology does not, of itself, change teaching methods. On the contrary, in this case it perpetuates traditional methods.

The interview data suggest that Ms Li's and some students' views on the textbook are consistent with evidence from the literature on textbook use in China, i.e. textbooks are seen as authoritative sources. However, comments from other students indicate a rejection of the over-reliance on the textbook inside the classroom. Ms Wang also shows some scepticism about the role of the textbook, although in practice she too relies heavily on the textbook, as her lesson map reveals.

Several major disparities between curriculum principles and classroom practice can, therefore, be identified in this chapter:

- The New Curriculum values CLT, TBLT, student-centredness, but inadequate information is given to teachers on their adoption. Furthermore, the texts that are provided in Contemporary College English are not conducive to a communicative approach.

- The use of new technology is expected to change teaching and learning styles, but PowerPoint slides, a product of this technology, serve only to entrench teachers in traditional methods.

- Teachers' teaching aims, which highlight communication and creative thinking, are at odds with their practices, which are based heavily on the textbook and PowerPoint slides, with limited opportunities for the active involvement of students.

- Some students accept current practices, but others have different attitudes from their teachers, commenting that textbooks should not be the only source for their study and that teachers should rely on these less.

This chapter has addressed one of the questions identified in Chapter 3: 'To what extent do teaching resources (textbook, PowerPoint slides) reflect the principles embedded in the New Curriculum', identifying the nature of English teaching as reflected in the content of textbooks and associated PowerPoint slides. I have also begun to address the broad question of 'How is English taught?', focusing on classroom practice at a very general level. The following two chapters continue the exploration of this second question, focusing on classroom practice in greater depth.

In Chapter 5, I begin with an examination of English teaching and learning strategies, analysing how teachers mediate textbook knowledge in their use of PowerPoint slides, and how teachers and students are positioned as teachers/learners in the course of this activity. Chapter 6 turns to the medium of instruction, and specifically how the use of textbooks and PowerPoint is associated with teachers' reliance on their own and their students' first language, Chinese, in the teaching of English.

Chapter 5 Teachers' use of PowerPoint slides to mediate knowledge from textbooks

5.1 Introduction

In Chapter 4, I have demonstrated that English teaching in the class I observed is heavily dependent on the use of a textbook and PowerPoint slides. In this chapter I move from an analysis of textbook lessons and associated PowerPoint slides, and general patterns in their use, to a closer focus on classroom interaction. The chapter addresses my third research question, 'how do teachers use PowerPoint slides to mediate knowledge from textbooks?'.

Close scrutiny of the lessons taught by Ms Li and Ms Wang reveals that most of the classroom interaction is based closely on the textbook or PowerPoint slides prepared by the teachers. As discussed in Chapter 4, textbooks are pivotal parts of the English lessons providing the text that constitutes the main teaching resource, specific learning points and activities. Teachers do not deviate from the lessons specified in the textbook. However, they do need to mediate the textbook lessons to students, and they also offer clarification and expansion on certain points. PowerPoint slides are used for this purpose. PowerPoint slides are a contemporary electronic replacement for two traditional technologies: a notebook, in which teachers put down a detailed plan for the lesson, including teaching points; and the blackboard where teaching points from the notebook would be copied down. Like the earlier notebook and blackboard, PowerPoint slides are an extension of the textbook in terms of the knowledge it contains and its authority, and they also appear to guarantee the accuracy of the knowledge to be delivered to students. PowerPoint slides have had some effects on classroom practice as teachers no longer spend time on writing during classes. Teachers do, however, spend a substantial amount of time in preparation, searching for resources from

the internet and sometimes dictionaries and teachers' reference books, selecting relevant knowledge and examples. Since the knowledge put on PowerPoint slides is new to teachers they need to spend a lot of time before classes to rehearse and familiarize themselves with it.

In this chapter I will focus on an analysis of classroom discourse to illustrate how teachers draw on and mediate the textbook, using PowerPoint slides as a resource for this process. Before discussing my analysis I will provide a review of perceptions of teaching and learning in China and how these perceptions shape the interaction constructed by teachers and students.

5.2 The transmission model of teaching and learning

In Chapter 4, I discussed how textbooks are seen as authoritative sources of knowledge. Teachers' reliance on the textbook may be linked to a transmission model of teaching and learning which has its roots in the teaching of Confucius. Jin and Cortazzi comment on this model in the teaching of English:

> The teacher and textbook are seen as authoritative sources of knowledge: of grammar rules, of explanations of meanings, of what to learn. This learning will take place through dedication and hard work, through close attention to texts and memorisation of vocabulary (1998:98).

This model of transmission is similar to Reddy's 'conduit metaphor' (mentioned in Chapter 1). Under this framework students' task is 'one of extraction' (Reddy 1979: 288). They need to find the meaning in the words and 'it gets into their heads' and as a consequence 'the function of the reader or listener [in the case students] is [are] trivialized' (Reddy 1979:308).

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English teaching at tertiary level in China is portrayed as teacher-centred, grammar-focused and test-oriented, emphasizing structure, grammar and translation, text analysis, vocabulary, rote memorization, and reproduction of knowledge and Chinese students are described as reluctant to adopt active speech (Anderson, 1993; Campball and Zhao 1993; Lee 2000; Li 1984; Penner 1995; Wang 1999; Zou 1998; H. Wang 2008), and are projected as reserved, reticent and passive learners (Hu 2002b; H. Wang 2008; Gao 1998). In the next section I will discuss the prevalent views of teaching and learning styles that underpin the transmission model.

5.2.1 Teaching styles

Some studies have pointed to particular classroom practices that are associated with the transmission model. Scollon, for instance, describes a Hong Kong woman's experience of her education in early 20th century China when the last emperor was reigning:

> According to the Chinese custom, ...[a] child would started his [schooling] day with Kowtow to a portrait of Confucius and then to his teacher and be taught passages from the beginning and ending of the *Three Character Classic*[6], repeating after the teacher several times and listening to his explanations...The teacher used narratives of personal experience to teach traditional virtues, calling students in small groups to his desk to explain each lesson, beginning the *Analects* at an early stage, marking punctuation and tone [neither punctuation nor Pinyin-romanized Chinese were introduced into the Chinese language system by then] and writing definitions, introducing two or three lines a day,

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[6] Three Character Classic (三字经 sanzijing) is a three metrical rhyme, which was a textbook for every child when they started their school education.

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then reviewing longer passages. Each lesson was recited from memory before progressing to the next (1999:25).

In this type of teaching style, teachers are revered as the embodiment of knowledge and their job is to transmit knowledge to students, which again can be attributed to both Confucius himself and the teaching of Confucius. In her article 'Confucian and Socratic discourse in the tertiary classroom', Scollon contrasts Confucius (viewed as 'messenger') with Socrates (viewed as 'midwife'):

Rather than a midwife who helps give birth to a truth that lies within, [Confucius] is a messenger who transmits the wisdom of the ancients. Instead of invoking an internal authority, he has been seen as providing his students with an external authority, though he frequently tells them to think for themselves (1999:20).

Scollon's 'internal authority' and 'external authority' can be associated with Bakhtin's 'internally persuasive discourse' and 'authoritative discourse' (1981) which will be used as the framework to analyze the discourse produced by teacher and student interaction in this chapter.

Given the deep-rooted conceptions of teaching, i.e. transmitting knowledge, the teacher's role in China has been seen as that of cultivating good citizenship, therefore a teacher must be a role model of socially desired behaviour or even a 'paragon for his/her students to emulate' (Yu 1984). Confucius contended that a good teacher should teach with endless zeal (诲人不倦 hui ren bu juan) and should teach students in accordance with their aptitude (因材施教 yin cai shi jiao). One of the most outstanding scholars and educators in the Tang Dynasty (618-907 AD), Han Yu, said: 'What is a teacher? A teacher is the one who shows you the way of being human, teaches you knowledge and enlightens you while you are confused'. To date, various honorific titles have been given to teachers, such as

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'the people's teacher', 'engineers of the human soul' and 'sculptors for the future' and a teacher is expected to be a virtuoso of learning.

Hu summarizes a model of a good teacher in this kind of teaching style:

> ...a good teacher is one who knows what is useful and important to the students, has an intimate knowledge of the students' level, carefully prepares lessons, has all the correct answers at all times, and dissects, presents and explains knowledge in a masterly manner to ensure ease of learning by the student (2002a:36).

To make sure that knowledge can be transmitted correctly and appropriately, a teacher must have already mastered a profound body of knowledge and have effective skills to impart his/her knowledge in the most accessible way. This kind of transmission model 'is essentially "mimetic" or "epistemic"' (Hu 2002b:98), by which it is meant that the transmission of knowledge is principally imitative and repetitive (Paine 1992; Tang and Absalom's 1998). Hu further relates this model to contemporary English classroom practices in which:

> The teacher selects points of knowledge from authoritative sources (usually textbooks and classics), interprets, analyses and elaborates on these points for the students, helps them connect the new points of knowledge with old knowledge for the students to memorise, repeat, and understand (2002b:98).

The value of respect for teachers and authoritative texts evident in this type of teaching and learning style still permeates Chinese culture and has moulded and shaped classroom practice in ways which are still prevalent in today's schooling system.

Hu's (2002b) illustration is truly a concise summary of the teachers' practice I observed. However, in my data a more complex picture emerges if we look closely

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at practice and the features associated with the transmission model cannot simply be attributed to traditional Chinese culture. But before presenting my analysis, I discuss briefly how learning is accounted for in the transmission model.

5.2.2 Learning styles

In line with the transmission model of teaching styles, students are exhorted to be receptive and to embrace knowledge wholeheartedly from both teachers and books. Some scholars, i.e. Hu (2002a; 2002b); Paine (1991);Watkins (1996) and Rao (1996) note that the process of learning can be characterized by four Rs and four Ms (Hu 2002a:37): reception, repetition, review, reproduction; meticulosity, memorization, mental activities and mastery.

Hu (2002b:100-101) explains these processes as follows:

Reception: Students are expected to receive and retain, with an open mind and without preconceptions, the knowledge imparted by their teachers and textbooks.

Repetition: It is believed that to acquire knowledge and understanding, students need to repeatedly study what they do not understand.

Review: Confucius exhorted, 'by reviewing the old, one learns the new' (温故知新 wengu zhixin)

Reproduction: Students are expected to be able to accurately reproduce and transmit textual knowledge on demand from the teacher or test.

Meticulosity: Refers to attention to the smallest details of knowledge.

Mental activities: Successful learning and understanding are believed to be attainable through active mental analysis, questioning, discriminating, and reflection; hence the dictum, 'learning without

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thought is labour lost; thought without learning is perilous' (学而不思则

罔，思而不学则殆 xueerbusizewang, sierbuxuezedai).

Memorization: this is the most valued learning strategy of any Chinese

learner.

Mastery: Learning is never considered complete until full mastery is

achieved.

Although the four Rs and four Ms cannot provide the whole picture of students' learning styles and it seems impossible that students can have a command of knowledge transmitted to them immediately. The four Rs and four Ms are said to aid the internalizing of knowledge and are essential for further understanding and reflective thinking. The underlying belief behind the four Rs and four Ms is that learners should master the basics first. They are then in a position to use what they have mastered in a creative manner. In the transmission model and the four Rs and four Ms, study is perceived as something bitter and painstaking but with unremitting diligence one can be successful. As a Chinese saying goes, 'with diligence you can grind an iron bar into a needle' (只要功夫深，铁杵磨陈针 zhiyaogongfushen, tiechumochenzhen). Physically, students should have fortitude, perseverance and persistence; mentally, they should be analytic, reflective, questioning and deep thinking. Ambiguity and a smattering of knowledge is scorned. This is particularly true when a textbook is used for study.

Most of the literature on learning strategies in the ELT context in China echoes the aforementioned arguments and suggests that Chinese students' learning strategies consist of many of the following features: concentration on intensive reading as a basis for language study; a preoccupation with the careful, often painstaking examination of grammatical structure and a corresponding lack of attention to more communicative skills; the use of memorization and rote learning

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as basic acquisition techniques; a strong emphasis on the correction of mistakes, both written and oral; the use of translation as a learning strategy (Barlow and Lowe 1985; Harvey 1990; Maley 1990; Rao 2002).

Other pictures of Chinese students' learning styles have been depicted by scholars who take a different perspective. Cortazzi and Jin for example, suggest that 'students are not passive but reflective, ... the Chinese students value thoughtful questions which they ask after sound reflection, ...less thoughtful questions may be laughed at by other students' (1996:191). Similarly, Kennedy observes that "'Chinese learning styles" are more subtle and complex than they appear to be ...' (2002:434).

While there is a small body of literature has documented on teaching and learning styles in ELT in China, few studies look in any detail at classroom practices and those that exist have focused on students' beliefs and attitudes. Littlewood for example, conducted a survey comparing students from eight Asian universities and three European universities and argued that 'the stereotype of Asian students [some are from Hong Kong] as "obedient listeners" whether or not it is a reflection of their actual behaviour in class does not reflect the role they would like to adopt in class' (2000:33). Another survey carried out by Rao on Chinese university students' perceptions of communicative and non-communicative activities in EFL classrooms, suggesed that most students favour a combination of both kinds of activities (2002:97).

My own study provides further evidence of both teachers' and students' attitudes as well as detailed observation of classroom practice. I discuss each in turn below.

5.3 Teachers and students' views on classroom practice

I first asked teachers about their views of their teaching practices and their potential effects.

5.3.1 Teachers' views on classroom practice

In several places in this thesis I refer to the teaching procedures and contents and during my interviews with the teachers my question on teaching procedures and contents was:

G. Cai: When you start new lessons you first introduce the background knowledge then outline the structure of the text and your major focus is to give detailed explanations of the text. What effect do you want to have?

Ms Li provides great detail on why her teaching practice should be as it is, as illustrated in the following extract (my translation).

Ms Li: Our procedure of teaching is following a top-down direction. Students need to know the frame and structure of each text then they should know the theme of the text. The last step is to have a deep understanding of the text. We translate, paraphrase and explain the grammar with the purpose of helping students to have a thorough understanding of the text. Therefore they can memorize the points without any mistakes. If they do have misunderstandings then their knowledge will be wrong. You know for us Chinese Intensive Reading (精读 Jingdu) literarily means to read meticulously. We need to read and analyze word by word and sentence by sentence. To me this is the most efficient way of learning. Intensive reading is to exhort students to practise over and over again therefore they can memorize a lot. Learning a language is a type of 'deposit'. You cannot withdraw without making a deposit. All the items like sentence structures, expressions and lexis are input therefore students can produce the output when they have a chance to use these. Learning follows the same mechanism as a

machine. Where can you get all the output without any input? You must have a good mastery of language before you are able to use it. I wonder in a communicative language teaching (CLT) class, what on earth students can talk about in such a chaos. Maybe they have something to say at the beginning. In the long run, if students do not have a big enough corpus in their brain, what will they rely on?

Ms Li's account of her practice is consistent with traditional conceptions of teaching and learning in China, considered in Section 5.2. She highlights a thorough understanding of the text, memorization and accuracy. All these elements can be attributed to meticulous explanation. Ms Li draws on the metaphor of banking to explain her views: students need to deposit knowledge before they can withdraw this. Unlike Ms Li, who is very confident about the traditional methods she is applying, Ms Wang has thought about change, but she was unable to implement this:

Ms Wang: When I explain the background knowledge, my intention is to give students more time to familiarize themselves with the text. I know many students haven't done the preview as requested. And the knowledge cannot be poured into their brain at one go so this part leads students in. As to the detailed explanation, I believe this is the most important section. Up to now, we don't know any better methods to teach so we have to explain a lot of vocabulary.

[....]

In fact I do not want to risk departing from the traditional definition of a teacher. I tried to change the focus of teaching several times but found it difficult and failed. Students felt frustrated as well as they could not understand the teacher's intention. I felt a type of invisible

force regulating me to teach this way. My creative ability is limited. I
was not able to change to new activities all the time. It would be safe
if I follow the routines.

In a follow up response, she comments on resources she consulted.

Ms Wang: All the reference books I could access tell us that knowledge is
structured. Students' knowledge should be accumulative based on
what they have got. They could not absorb new knowledge all of a
sudden. Knowledge should be introduced step by step. Since all the
professionals say so, I could not do otherwise but to follow.

Ms Wang's responses reveal certain perceived constraints and limitations on her
practice. She refers to the 'risk' of departing from tradition and the safety in
following routines. Ms Wang's comments on her teaching also suggest a lack of
knowledge of the full range of available research that might help her to make an
informed decision on her teaching.

Since Ms Li highlighted the importance of memorization I asked for Ms Wang's
views on this:

G. Cai: Do you think it is useful to recite texts?

Ms Wang: I know it sounds cruel but I do hope students can memorize the
whole textbook.

G. Cai: Why? Do you think it really useful?

Ms Wang: Oh, yes, I think it is most useful for their writing. Now I suggest that
my students memorize as much as possible, so they can vomit it out
when they need it. They can choose to memorize whatever they are
fond of, be it from the textbook or elsewhere. The most dreadful thing
would be that they have nothing to be fond of.

From my discussions with her on several other occasions I know Ms Wang is keen to change the situation relating to her teaching skills and her own education. However, a heavy workload and limited access to research resources is likely to deprive her of the chance to realize this change. As a consequence, she can only duplicate her own teachers' or sometimes colleagues' procedures and there are no fundamental differences in the two teachers' practice.

A lot of similarities can be seen in the two teachers' answers. They both value the knowledge that may be derived from textbooks, which suggests that students should have a thorough understanding of these. They comment that they rely on detailed explanation as their primary teaching practice. To both teachers memorization is the most important means of learning English and accuracy is also stressed. Overall, their answers resonate with the transmission model described in the previous section. Ms Li rejects CLT and sees it as a 'chaos'. Ms Wang seems to have less conviction, but has been unable to find successful alternative approaches.

There is no doubt that whatever method(s) a teacher is applying, their intention is to optimize students' learning within that context. However, the students I interviewed did not all seem to agree with their teachers' perceptions.

5.3.2 Students' views on classroom practice

I first asked students what they wanted to achieve from proficiency in English. Students' answers from both interview and focus group were unanimous and unequivocal. They hope to have a command of native-like English. When students from China say native-like English they are mainly referring to people from America, the UK, Canada and Australia. They all hope they can communicate with native speakers in natural conversations and understand English films and other entertainment programmes. Another commonly shared idea from the students is

they wish to get involved in more activities and welcome more opportunities to practise their English, which contrasts markedly with how Chinese students are depicted in the literature from Bond (991); Anderson (1993); Campball and Zhao (1993); Tang and Biggs (1996); Zou (1998); Hu (2002a, 2002b) and H. Wang (2008) where Chinese students are portrayed as reticent and reluctant to participate in classroom activities.

I also asked students for their views on the teaching practices evident in their lesson:

G. Cai: In the intensive reading classes, the teacher often starts new lessons with background knowledge, then outlines the structure of the text. Detailed explanations on language points and complex sentences are the foci. Could you please make some comments on the classroom practices?

There were several positive comments from both interview and focus group discussions, for example (My translation):

Chen: What I can get from the intensive reading classes is collocation and vocabulary. You know in the lessons the teacher gives us examples with the word used in different contexts. I find it very useful.

Qi: I think the teacher has been teaching this book for many years and she is so familiar with the text and so she can pick up main language points and remind us of the key words.

Zhang: (From the focus group) To me language points are very useful. I feel that I have truly learnt something from this part. I believe I can use the example sentences when I need to write something. Sometimes, on our way to our dormitory, several friends and I try to put what we have learnt into actual use for fun.

However, some negative comments were also given by the students and these outnumbered the positive comments.

Feng: In the intensive reading, memorizing is far from enough. To be honest, I am absent-minded when the teacher is introducing the background knowledge. I am reading on my own. Overall I think the lesson is too inflexible, futile and not interesting at all. I would imagine it would be better if the teacher asked students to search the information and then present it during classes.

Liu (From the focus group) In fact, all the explanation of grammar and vocabulary and parsing sentence by sentence is just what the teachers do in the secondary school. Being a university student, I wish to know more than that.

Huang: The intensive reading class is just too formal. It's a typical Chinese traditional class. Most of the time, we receive the knowledge from the teacher. When the lesson is over, we are expected to be able to use it. The teacher always explains the knowledge in the textbook and it is so boring that we all want to sleep in class. To me what the teacher explains is from reference books. There is nothing new in classes. It's very routine and not interesting. We all fall asleep easily.

Since other students had mentioned the usefulness of teaching vocabulary I asked this last student for her views on this. She gave me an example which she regarded as unsuccessful:

Huang: When the teacher told us how to identify the difference between two words, I did not think she did it well. After I listened to her explanation, I still did not know how to distinguish the differences. I can get the knowledge from the dictionary correctly.

Huang's view was shared by another student, Qi who complained that the classes are too boring and wished to have more activities to get students involved. Students from focus groups made similar negative comments.

Due to the tight control of the classroom discourse and teacher-student interaction, which will be analyzed in the following section, students do not have many chances to voice their ideas. However my interviews provided the opportunity for them to spell out what they expect.

Several disparities can be identified in the responses from teachers and students:

- *Students' needs*: accurate book knowledge (from teachers' interviews) vs native-like English proficiency suggesting that teachers should not rely on textbooks (from students' interviews). To adopt a distinction made by Widdowson, teachers stress language 'usage' whilst students hope to acquire language 'use' (Widdowson 1978).

- *Students' involvement*: more involvement (from students) vs the danger of 'chaos' in a communicative approach (from Ms Li) and the risk of failure (from Ms Wang).

- *Current practices*: this is the most suitable way for students to learn (from teachers) vs traditional practices are boring (from students).

There are also some similarities:

- Memorization as an effective means of learning English mentioned by both teachers and some students.

- Vocabulary constitutes to the major part of learning English, although some students say teachers' explanations are not enough.

Where discrepancies occur between students' and teachers' perceptions, these can be related to a broad distinction between a communicative approach (favoured by many students) and the greater reliance on the transmission of knowledge espoused by teachers. I elaborate this further in Chapter 7. In the next section I turn from perceptions of practice to an analysis of classroom discourse in the classes I observed to illustrate how knowledge derived from textbooks and PowerPoint slides is actually delivered.

5.4 An analysis of classroom discourse

In the reminder of this chapter, I analyse the discourse produced by teacher-student interaction when teachers deliver knowledge from textbooks and PowerPoint slides. This model of interaction may be attributed to the influence of the transmission model of teaching and learning that has been reviewed in Section 5.2.

Chapter 4 showed that textbooks cite authoritative texts, and that teachers construct PowerPoint slides that include citations from textbooks and other sources. In this section I show that, in their transmission of knowledge in the classroom, teachers rely heavily on citation from textbooks and, particularly, PowerPoint slides. Students also cite textbooks and PowerPoint slides, to the extent that these last often provide a near-script for classroom interaction. This process of citation and re-citation can be related to Bakhtin's concept of 'voice', where language is seen as 'polyphonic' or multi-voiced, and where any particular use of language (words, phrases or discourse) carries the voices of prior users of language. For Bakhtin, this is not simply a matter of reproducing words and phrases: voices are imbued with sets of interests and values, derived from prior usage, and speakers align themselves with these, or distance themselves from them. These ideas can be drawn on to articulate the relationship between

teachers, textbooks and PowerPoint slides that are seen as a body of knowledge, and students who are treated as recipients and whose role is to receive the knowledge transmitted to them.

In Section 5.3, I quoted Scollon's (1999:25) analogy of teachers in China, who are seen as messengers transmitting knowledge to students. A close scrutiny of the classroom discourse from my data reveals that the predominant activity inside the classroom is teachers' transmission of knowledge from the textbook via PowerPoint slides.

The textbook drawn on by teachers is seen as an authoritative source of knowledge and the teachers are also revered as authoritative figures (as reviewed in Section 5.2.1) inside the classroom. PowerPoint slides that have been designed by the teachers carry teachers' authority within them as well as the authority of the textbook and other sources cited. This reproduction of powerful, authoritative voices through citations from prior texts may be related to another concept from Bakhtin, that of 'authoritative discourse', which is characterized as follows:

> the authoritative word demands that we acknowledge it, that we make it
> our own; it binds us, quite independent of any power it might have to
> persuade us internally, we encounter it with its authority already fused
> to it (Bakhtin 1981:342).

Bakhtin further contended that 'The authoritative word is … organically connected with a past that is felt to be hierarchically higher. Its authority was already *acknowledged* in the past. It is a *prior* discourse' (1981:342: italics as in the original). For Bakhtin, the words of teachers serve as an example of authoritative discourse (1981:342). In contrast with 'internally persuasive discourse', which may be adapted by speakers, and reproduced 'in their own words', such authoritative discourse is underpinned by the assumption that utterances and their meanings

are fixed, not 'modifiable when they come into contact with new voices'. Therefore, the meaning structure of authoritative discourse allows no 'interanimation with other voices' (Wertsch 2001). In a commentary on Bakhtin, Wertsch notes: 'an authoritative text "demands our unconditional allegiance" and it allows "no play with its borders, no gradual and flexible transitions, no spontaneously creative stylizing variants on it"' (Wertsch 2001:227). In Bakhtin's own words 'one must either totally affirm it, or totally reject it' (1981:343).

By its nature, 'authoritative discourse' silences other voices and resists communication by 'seeking to extinguish competing voices and all differences between the group and the individual' (Nystrand 1997:12). It is a kind of communication characterized by Bakhtin as 'monologic' (Bahktin 1984):

> Monologism, at its extreme denies the existence outside itself of another consciousness with equal rights and responsibilities.... Monologue is finalized and deaf to the other's response, does not expect it and does not acknowledge in it any decisive force.... Monologue pretends to be the ultimate word (292-293).

Bakhtin's concepts of voice and authoritative discourse can help to explain how teachers deliver book knowledge through the mediation of PowerPoint slides, and I therefore use these concepts below in providing a detailed analyse of the classroom discourse constructed by teachers and students. I discuss, in turn, four main components of the lesson: how teachers paraphrase the text in the textbook, with the help of PowerPoint slides; how teachers review 'Pre-class work' in the textbook, with the help of PowerPoint slides; how teachers use PowerPoint slides to transmit culture knowledge and finally how teachers use PowerPoint slides to transmit linguistic knowledge.

In Table 3.2 in Chapter 3, I have listed transcription notations for this study. However, I will recap some of these here for the convenience of readers. In this chapter and Chapter 6, in the transcribed excerpts:

Italic font is used to indicate original texts from textbooks;

Underlining indicates texts from PowerPoint slides;

I provide translations for the Chinese uttered by teachers and student in Times New Roman font;

Plain text is used for spoken discourse uttered originally in English;

(xx) refers to inaudible utterances;

(--) indicates silence from students when a response seems to be expected;

[1.0] indicates the duration of a pause (time given in seconds).

5.4.1 Paraphrasing the text with the help of PowerPoint slides

As described in Chapter 4, textbooks are a pivotal source of information for teachers and their contents determine the design of the PowerPoint slides used in the classroom. I will start the discourse analysis with the use of textbooks but since they are used in conjunction with the slides it is not possible to mention one without the other.

The lesson map in Chapter 4 showed that detailed explanation of the text under study constitutes the majority (more than 80%) of the teaching activity inside the classroom. This includes paraphrasing sentences, modeling the usage of new vocabulary and explanation of grammar items. The data show that paraphrasing, sometimes also known as interpreting, is by far the most common method of teaching. The teachers explain some new or difficult language points by using comparatively easier or already known words/phrases. When teachers paraphrase

the text, they construe and dissect sentences and then re-assemble them again. This kind of teaching style is similar to Johnson's description of incrementalism:

'incremental' means 'building up'. In language-teaching terms shaping involves dividing the language into structures and then into sentence patterns. You then teach the patterns one by one, only moving to the next when the previous one has been mastered. An important reason for teaching in small bits is to avoid errors. In behaviourism 'practice makes perfect' and errors performed might become engrained (2001:175).

Incrementalism is comparable to the meticulous explanatory style that is popular in China (see Section 5.2). Meticulous explanation of the text so that students have a thorough understanding of it is the primary goal of English classes, as clearly borne out by the teachers' interview data, The following is the transcript of how a sentence is paraphrased with an explanation of vocabulary embedded within this. The abstract is from the lesson *The Rivals* and occurs in the middle of the first class. The original sentence is:

Then the two men exchanged a sharp glance and immediately Mr. Crowther continued his reading, while Mr. Harraby-Ribston resumed his seat and sat for a while puffing a little and with a heightened colour as a result of his exertion.

After reading this sentence, Ms Li asked if any one would like to paraphrase it in English. As nobody replied, Ms Li started paraphrasing herself. Five language points were explained by Ms Li - 'exchange', 'sharp glance', 'resume', 'puffing', 'heighten' and 'exertion'.

Turn	Speaker	Original utterances
1	T	... Exchange a sharp glance. Quick look at each other. Yes, they look at each other quickly and sharp. Sharp means quickly, swiftly and severely, not friendly. OK. Mr Harraby-Ribston resumed his seat. Resume means return back to his seat. Resume this word means you start again the things you did before.

Table 5.1 Ms Li's class: example of paraphrasing

After this utterance Ms Li showed this slide.

☀ Detailed Discussion of the Text

- .... while Mr. Harraby-Ribson resumes his seat ...
- resume: to start again after a pause;
- He stopped to take a sip of water and then resumed speaking.
- heightened colour:
- His face looked redder; increased colour
- as a result of his exertion:
- because he had made such an effort

Figure 5.1 Ms Li's class: PowerPoint slide on 'Detailed Discussion of the Text'

Turn	Speaker	Original utterances	My translation
3	T	<u>Resume, to start again after a pause. He stopped to take a sip of water and then resume speaking.</u> Start again after a pause what you did before. After a break, usually, after the first period, at the beginning of the second period, I would say can we resume our class? Did you hear about this word before? I did say this but because you did not know this word. Now let's resume our class. It means after ten minutes break we'd start our class again. Now the second point is after *a while puffing a little*, puffing a little means smoking?	
4	Ss	breathing	
5	T	Ok, breathing briefly. 有 ·点喘 Breathing quickly or with difficulty and *heightened color as a result of his exertion*. Can you ah heightened color means what?	Out of breath
6	S	flourished	
7	T	With color on his face. Heightened colour means with his face getting ((teacher was waiting for an answer))	
8	Ss&T	*redder*	
9	T	满脸涨红 Ok, *as a result of exertion*. Exertion means?	A heightened colour
10	S	Efforts.	
11	T	Ok effort, Physical, ah, physical labour because he has put a lot of efforts to throw a heavy box out of a train. Ok, Let's look at next sentence.	

Table 5.2 Ms Li's class: example of paraphrasing

The original sentence is not long, but a substantial period of time was spent in explaining, modeling and substituting the language points identified by Ms Li. The main focus of the sentence is the word 'resume'. The PowerPoint slide reproduces the original sentence from the text and provides a definition and a further example. Ms Li repeats the words on the slide that provides a further example from the

students' classroom experience. The next phrase to be explained 'puffing a little' is not on the PowerPoint slide, but subsequent words/phrases are. This provides a prompt not only for Ms Li but also for students, who repeat 'redder' and 'efforts' from the slides in response to questions (Turns 8 and 10).

The purpose of paraphrasing is to guarantee students a correct and thorough understanding of a sentence, which will render an easy memorization of the text (from teachers' interview data in Section 5.3). Memorization is conceived of as an important learning strategy especially by the two teachers and the students (see Sections 5.2 and 5.3).

In paraphrasing, teachers blend their own voice with voices from the textbook and PowerPoint slides, therefore three sources of authority are in play. The characteristic pattern of the interaction has the teachers doing most of the talking while students act as rather passive responders and followers of directions. Students only become involved when teachers check their understanding or elicit information. They have very restricted opportunities to participate in the talk. This polarization of the roles derived from the transmission model of teaching determines that students do not take the initiative. However, they do have more chances to interact with teachers when the textbook is used directly rather than mediated by the slides, either when reading the text aloud or providing a paraphrase. The participation is of course, still 'arranged' by teachers. The following excerpt from Ms Wang's class illustrates students' involvement when textbooks are used. It comes from the middle of the second class when Ms Wang was interpreting the text *Angels on a Pin*.

Turn	Speaker	Original utterances	My translation
1	T	... Ling (nominating one student), could you please read it?	
2	SL	*Take the barometer to the top of the building, tie a long rope to it, lower the barometer to the street, and then bring it up and measure the length of the rope. The length of the rope will be the height of the building.*	
3	T	OK. Now could you please interpret it?	
4	SL	(--)	
5	T	Paraphrase.	
6	SL	In Chinese	
7	T	No, in English.	
8	SL	First *take the barometer to the top of the building.*	
9	T	Yes *to the top of the building.* Top floor of the building and	
10	S	Then use a rope to tie it.	
11	T	Use a rope to tie it.	
12	SL	Tie it, Tie it.	
13	T	Tie it to the rope.	
14	S	Tie the rope to it.	
15	T	Yes?	
16	S	Then throw.	
17	T	Throw 把它扔下去 Or drop it. Drop it down.或者 Drop it ...or ... 是 lower carefully, throw with care, throw carefully. So OK, then *bring it up.*	
18	SL	Then they will know the length.	

Table 5.3 Ms Wang's class: example of paraphrasing

The long utterance in turn 2 is done by a student reading aloud from the text. Ms Wang then asks the same student to paraphrase the two sentences. Ms Wang lets the student do the talking and gives feedback by either using the confirmation word 'yes' or by repeating or re-articulating the student's utterance. Although the

student is doing the interpretation, Ms Wang sets a line to regulate the student's talk by using discourse markers like 'and' and 'yes'.

Unlike PowerPoint slides, which are new to students in each lesson, each student has a copy of the textbook and they are expected to familiarize themselves with the lesson before it starts. However, because of the compliant role that students are placed in within the framework of interaction, even when they are reading aloud, they still can not take up the textual authoritative voice as the teachers do, as shown in the two excerpts. In fact, students' reading aloud is a phonological test. Rather than sharing the authoritative voice in the text, students are requested to distance themselves from it and accept it together with the teachers' authoritative voice when they are doing interpretation. When students are asked to do interpretation, they are aligned to the text as a code to be broken, while the teachers know if they have done it correctly since they have all the answers to hand. Teachers' authority is expressed through a monologic voice and the discourse produced under such a transmission model is monologic in Bakhtin's terms. Teachers retain tight control of the content of the interactions, and who has the right to speak. Students' opportunities to exercise initiative or to develop a sense of control and self-regulation, i.e. a sense of ownership of the discourse are extremely restricted. The voice that students produce in the interaction is a subordinate and passive one.

This kind of interaction is certainly not conducive to fostering students' five skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation documented in Chapter 1 Table 1.3. Nor is it likely to encourage the creative or critical thinking that is required by the New Curriculum and listed in the teachers' teaching aims. Students' participation is further restricted when PowerPoint slides are used.

5.4.2 The use of PowerPoint slides in reviewing 'Pre-class work'

As discussed in Chapter 4, teachers have prepared a large number of PowerPoint slides for each lesson, and in many cases the lessons start and end with the PowerPoint slides. When I described the exercises in the textbooks in Chapter 4, I mentioned 'Pre-class work', which includes questions that are designed to test students' understanding of the texts. Teachers often design their own questions based on this 'Pre-class work'. In this section I will analyse how questioning is applied by the two teachers at the very beginning of the lesson, drawing on PowerPoint slides.

Young asserts that 'questions are a very important part of classroom discourse. More than 80 years of classroom research has shown the persistence of questioning as a favourite teacher methodology' (1991:90). Young further summarizes the functions of questioning as such:

> ... It can be used to test or assess. It can be used to control. It can be used to explore, explain or explicate. A question which seeks to assess a pupil's knowledge (by seeing if the answer matches the teacher's view of the correct answer) may have a similar surface form to a question which seeks to interest a student or find out something a teacher doesn't know but it is fundamentally different educationally (1991: 99).

The first example of questions is from Ms Wang's lesson. When she teaches *Angels on a Pin*, she starts with the question 'How many angels can dance on the head of a pin?'. This question comes from the textbook under study and is cited by Ms Wang on a PowerPoint slide (Figure 5.2). In the 'notes to the text' in Ms Wang's textbook, it says:

The title of the text 'Angels on a Pin' comes from the much-talked-about question: 'How many angels can dance on the head of a pin?', which is used to ridicule those people who asked meaningless questions about the Bible in the Middle Ages. It is also used ironically to describe the kind of questions that philosophers ponder (Original English from Contemporary College English I 2001:104).
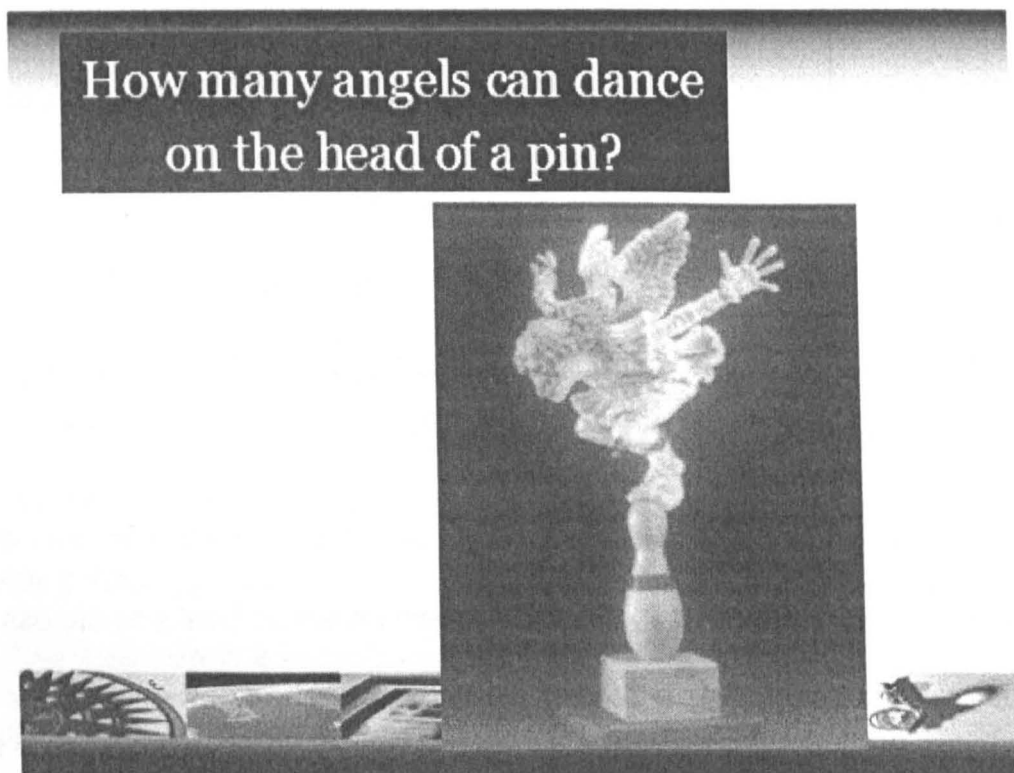
Figure 5.2 Ms Wang's class: on 'How many angels can dance on the head of a pin?'

This is the teacher-student dialogue that ensues.

Turn	Speaker	Original Utterances
1	T	… So there are countless angels. And students have very different ideas. <u>So how many angels can dance on the head of a pin?</u> Zheng how many?
2	SZ	I don't know.
3	T	You don't know. You have no idea, why?
4	SZ	I don't know how to answer this question.
5	T	Haven't you seen angels before?

6	SZ	I don't know the meaning of this question.
7	T	I think the meaning is very simple. How many angels, ((laughing)), you know the word angels, which dancing, dancing, you know dancing or standing standing head xx
8	SZ	I have no idea
9	T	You have no idea, Zheng
10	SZ	I don't know how to answer this question.
11	T	In fact there is not a correct answer to this question. Next I will explain the origin of this question ((Showing another slide to students)).

Table 5.4 Ms Wang's class: interaction on 'How many angels can dance on the head of a pin?'

Before this extract begins, Ms Wang has called upon two students to answer her question. The first student replies 'one angel', and the second adds 'countless angels'. In turn 1 above, Ms Wang provides feedback on these answers, then addresses her question to Zheng. When Zheng answers 'I don't know', Ms Wang wants to know why this student does not know. After Zheng repeats several times that he does not know how to answer the question, in turn 11 Ms Wang finally agrees that 'In fact there is not a correct answer to this question'.

The question on this slide is not designed for students to think differently though Ms Wang mentions in turn 1 that students have very different ideas. In fact the question is to draw students' attention to the subsequent slides designed by Ms Wang, which elaborate on the origin of the question, which will be analysed in Table 5.7 in Section 5.4.3.

Pre-class questions are also prepared by Ms Li and put on slides. Figure 5.3 shows the slide she used after finishing the 'background knowledge' section of her lesson. It comes from the beginning of the second class when she teaches the lesson *Diogenes and Alexander*.
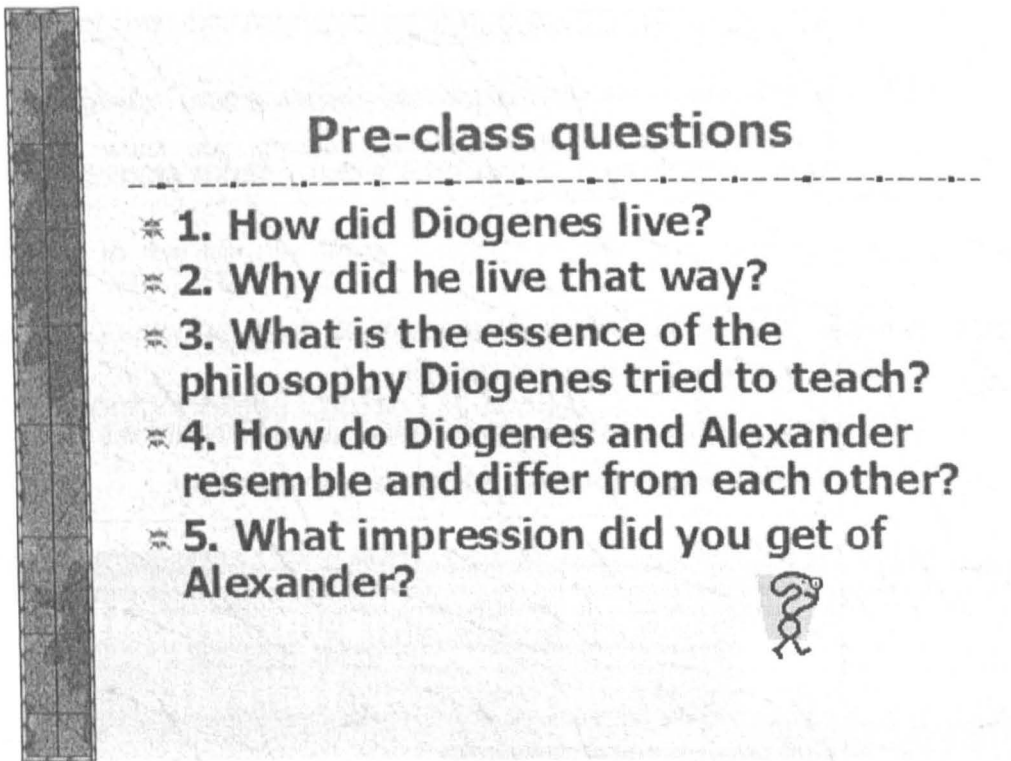
Figure 5.3 Ms Li's class: PowerPoint slide on 'Pre-class questions'

The following is an extract from the interaction based on this slide. Ms Li asks a student, Cheng, the first question.

Turn	Speaker	Original utterances
1	T	OK. Pre-class questions. The first one is How did Diogenes live? In what way do he live? [3.0] Based on the story. [2.0] In what way did he [2.0] Cheng. Did you read this story? Of course, yes, In what way did he live?
2	SC	You mean Diogenes?
3	T	Diogenes
4	SC	He always lives, she's in rags. In xx for the rags.
5	T	OK,
6	SC	He lived like a dog.
7	T	So he lived like a begger, OK he lived like a dog, yes? Yes? Do you agree? Yes, OK.

Table 5.5 Ms Li's class: 'Pre-class questions'

The five questions on the slide in Figure 5.3 are designed based on the comprehension questions from the textbook (see also Chapter 4 Figure 4.2), reproduced here as: 'Pre-class questions'. Ms Li has shortened and simplified the

original four questions and reformulated them into five. They are designed to test if students have done any preparation beforehand and if they have the gist of the text. In Turn 1 Ms Li reminds students that this question should be answered based on the story. Her repetition of Cheng's answer in turn 7 ('He lived like a dog') suggests that she agrees with Cheng, and subsequently she assumes that all students agree with her and continues with the next question.

That the questions asked by both Ms Li and Ms Wang are based on the textbooks further suggests teachers' assumption of the centrality of texts and textual knowledge. The excerpts in Tables 5.4 and 5.5 reveal that when questions are asked and answered, teachers have ultimate control in the interaction. They decide on the type of questions to be asked, who is going to answer them, and what the answers should be. Nystrand sees such questioning, in Bakhtinian terms, as a form of monologism. 'Teachers often strive for monologism when they prescript both the questions they ask and the answer they accept, as well as the order in which they ask the questions' (Nystrand 1997:12). Nystrand argues that this aspect of monologic instruction consistently short-circuits the development of ideas (1997:12). In fact in Ms Li's question, there is no space for students to develop their ideas as their answers should be 'based on the story', so students can only recall what someone else thought. Ms Wang's question would appear to examine students' own thoughts, however, if students have read 'notes to the text' in their textbook, they will know that the question is 'meaningless'. Therefore, whatever number of angels they suggest can dance on the head of a pin will not be accepted as is revealed in the next PowerPoint slides (see Appendix 4 slides 2 and 3).

With the scripted answers in the texts, (in Ms Wang's case the answer is in 'notes to the text'), these questioned are not designed to explore more information or

encourage group discuss. In fact they are designed for the transmission model of teaching, where teachers test and assess students' knowledge based on textbooks.

Both teachers start and often end their lessons with the use of PowerPoint slides, suggesting that slides establish a path for the teachers to follow and are used to mediate knowledge from textbooks. In Ms Wang's case the first slide is also used to orient students to subsequent slides.

5.4.3 PowerPoint slides used for transmission of cultural knowledge

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the intensive reading (IR) course in China, particularly at secondary and tertiary level, is a combination of linguistic, literature and sometimes other subject matter, i.e. philosophy or culture knowledge. The background knowledge required to understand each text varies depending on the text's content. The lesson *Diogenes and Alexander* is mostly about Diogenes' philosophy. Therefore, both knowledge of philosophy and philosophers become important in this lesson. Altogether 34 slides have been prepared for this lesson, ten of which are for background knowledge with information on the philosophers: Diogenes, Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, and other figures of legend like Alexander, Hercules and Achilles, and a map of the time showing the vast territory that Alexander conquered.

The following is an excerpt at the very beginning of the *Diogenes and Alexander* lesson when the second slide summarising Diogenes' life and philosophy is used. The first slide includes a portrait of Diogenes and the tub where he lived (see Appendix 5).

Diogenes (412---324 BC):

Greek philosopher. The most famous of the Cynics. According to legend, he lived in a tub, and was accordingly nicknamed "dog", from which the Cynics derived their name.

Figure 5.4 Ms Li's class: PowerPoint slide giving background knowledge on

Diogenes

The following extract shows the talk between Ms Li and her students around this slide.

Turn	Speaker	Original utterances	My translation
1	T	<u>Diogenes</u> is a <u>Greek</u>	
2	Ss	Philosophy.	
3	T:	<u>Philosopher</u>. Ok, <u>philosopher, the most famous of the Cynics</u>, Cynics Chinese	
4	Ss:	犬儒学	Cynics
5	T	什麼？	What?
6	Ss	犬儒学	Cynics
7	T	犬儒哲学, <u>according to legend, he lived in a tub.</u> I showed you just now. Ok, this [an image on the first slide] is a tub. He lived in tub, a place which dogs live in. Because of his life style and living place so he <u>was accordingly nicknamed dog, from which the cynics derived their name</u>. OK. So in the text, the text talks about his philosophy and his life style so we will learn more about him by reading the text.	Philosophy of Cynics

Table 5.6 Ms Li's class: interaction on background knowledge on Diogenes

The utterances come predominantly from Ms Li. Students are invited to answer questions in chorus on three occasions and all the answers are a single word. In the first case (turn 2) students are invited to complete a sentence they can see on the PowerPoint slides, although they make an error here. All students own their own copy of the textbook so they have the chance to prepare beforehand for lessons. But the PowerPoint slides are new to them and no such preparation is possible, so even if the answer is shown on the slide, students are still likely to make a mistake. Though this part of the lesson is primarily used to explain the background or cultural knowledge to the text, the teacher also presents linguistic knowledge: the origin of the word 'cynic' and its Chinese meaning. This manner of teaching, i.e. repeating and explaining sentence by sentence is a significant characteristic of IR course.

Background knowledge is transmitted to students by Ms Wang in a similar manner. The following is the second slide Ms Wang has prepared to help her with the explanation of background knowledge at the beginning of her lesson *Angels on a pin*. A total of 33 PowerPoint slides (see Appendix 4) were prepared for this lesson, ten of which are on background knowledge. Although in the text itself there is no discussion of philosophy, to explain the origin of *Angels on a pin* Ms Wang uses this slide.

- The question "How many angels can dance on the head of a pin?" is associated with medieval theology of the Scholastic school, the best-known representative being Saint Thomas Aquinas, the 13th-century Christian philosopher (and a Dominican monk).
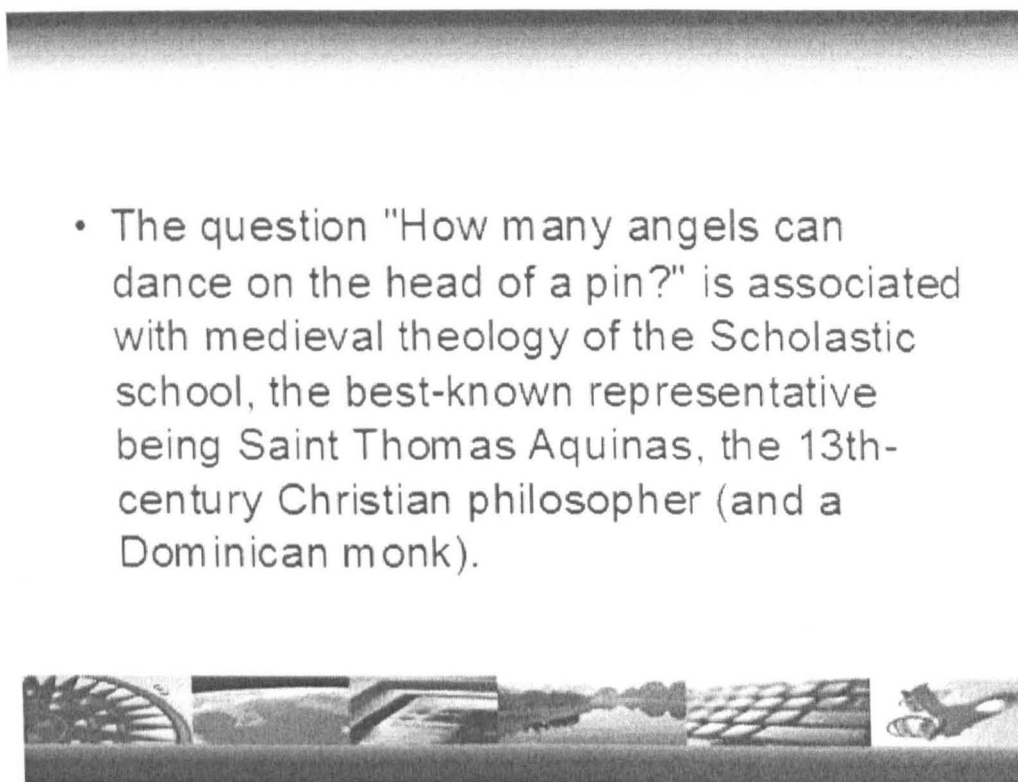
Figure 5.5 Ms Wang's class: PowerPoint slide on explaining background knowledge

The following is the talk between Ms Wang and her students based on this slide.

Turn	Speaker	Original utterances	My translation
1	T	how many angels can dance on the head of the pin is a very old question discussed by, this question is associated, associated with medieval, medieval, medieval 中世纪的，中世纪的 theology, theology, theology, theo, theo, theo, you know of god theology saint saint of the religion 神学，神学. So it is associated with medieval theology of the scholastic school, the best known representative, representative	Medieval, Medieval Theology, theology
2	Ss	代表	representative
3	T	Being Saint, Saint, Saint Chinese translation 圣人，指有智慧的人 智者 非常著名的魔法师。Saint Thomas Aquinas 托马斯阿奎纳。如果你学习西方哲学史的话，就会知道他。他是哲学家，也是神学家，他用毕生的精力去证明上帝是存在的。	Saint refers to people with wisdom. Versatile or very famous magician. Saint Thomas Aquinas. Saint Thomas Aquinas. If you have learnt Western history of philosophy, you would know him. He is a philosopher as well as a theologian. He spent his whole life trying to prove that God exists.
		... This is endless or infinite. 有人说这个问题有什么好讨论的。的确是，它的确是有很多问题可讨论啊。	Some students are sceptical about the point of the discussion of this question. Indeed, it has a lot of points of discussion.

Table 5.7 Ms Wang's class: background knowledge on 'How many angels can dance on the head of a pin'

After Ms Wang asks students 'how many angels can dance on a head of a pin', which was cited on the first PowerPoint slide, she starts to explain the origin of this question. She in fact reads from the slide and stops to explain where she assumes

students would have problems in understanding terms such as 'medieval' 'theology', 'saint', which are all new words for students and perhaps for the teacher as well. Apart from introducing background knowledge, explaining new words used in the slide and checking students' understanding of the word 'representative', Ms Wang also provides her justification for posing the original question 'how many angels can dance on the head of the pin', commenting that some students may be sceptical about its usefulness. Most of the talk is carried out by Ms Wang. Students are asked on one occasion (turn 2) to provide a Chinese translation of 'representative'. Repetition and explanation are also applied by Ms Wang when she teaches the background knowledge.

In the book, *Opening dialogue*, Nystrand (1997) draws on the Bakhtinian contrast between monologic and dialogic discourse, together with Gutierrez's concept of instructional scripts (Gutierrez, 1994), to develop the notion of conversation/dialogic instruction. Contrasting with dialogic instruction is monologic recitation, which can reflect Bakhtin's notion of 'reciting by heart' (1981). Nystrand does not offer an explicit definition of recitation. However, he relates teachers' and students' practices and remarks that

> Although the term recitation usually refers to students' oral presentation
> of previously learned material, this excerpt [from his classroom data]
> demonstrates how completely the teacher can do the actual reciting
> (1997:5).

Skidmore points out, in that monologic 'recitation' 'classroom talk is closely controlled by the teacher, with the aim of transmitting knowledge which students are required to remember' (2006:504). Nystrand's further description of teachers' practices in a monologic recitation ('schooling is organized for the plodding transmission of information through classroom recitation'; 'Teachers talk and

students listen' (1997:3) suggests that recitation is also an appropriate term for the discourse produced by teacher-student interaction in the excerpts in Tables 5.6 and 5.7. As suggested by Skidmore, recitation, in these extracts is concerned with the transmission of knowledge. Utterances were predominantly made by the teachers, with students being invited to provide single-word answers in chorus three times during Ms Li's talk and just once during Ms Wang's talk. Students' involvement is therefore minimal.

Students' limited involvement can perhaps be related to the teachers' reliance on PowerPoint slides. The slides themselves play a dominant role in classroom discourse but they are designed and 'owned' by the teachers.

By virtue of the PowerPoint slides being prepared and used by teachers, their authority has naturally transferred to the slides. The discourse produced around the slide is consequently 'authoritative discourse' and is monologic recitation. As students do not have any ownership of the slides their involvement is minimal when slides are the major source for talking. Students are positioned as recipients who should accept the discourse 'totally'. Neither teachers' 'internally persuasive discourse' nor their students' actual 'speech sound' can be heard. This kind of discourse, according to Bakhtin is monologic at its extreme and it denies the existence outside itself of another consciousness with equal rights and responsibilities (1984).

As is reflected in the slides and the two excerpts, there is not much actual language teaching in this section when background knowledge is introduced. The teaching function is mainly for teachers to pass on information to students. There is little student involvement and teachers' talk rarely departs from the PowerPoint slides. So it is clear that PowerPoint slides are used as scripts for teachers to follow and not for students to interact. There are not many chances for students to

get involved, which is not a suitable way to foster students' five skills. Once again, students' own thoughts are not encouraged, let alone thinking creatively or critically. In the extract from Ms Wang's class (Table 5.7), Ms Wang departed from the slide but her departure is mostly in Chinese, a topic that will be analysed in Chapter 6.

5.4.4 PowerPoint slides used for transmission of linguistic knowledge

Vocabulary has always played an important role in English teaching and learning. The College English textbook stipulates 'after four years of study, students should recognise 10,0000 to 12,0000 words, amongst which 5,000 to 6,000 words and their collocations can be used correctly and familiarly' (College English I 2000: 3, my translation). It is assumed that newly recruited students should have a command of 2000 words and the guidance stipulates that further vocabulary should be mastered incrementally: 2000 words and their collocations in the first year of study and a further 2000 words and collocations in their second year (Ibid).

During the interview, Ms Li mentions that teaching vocabulary is her priority. She further explains that the previous title of the intensive reading module was 'etymology', which made explicit the importance of vocabulary.

Approximately 70 new words are introduced in each lesson, and teachers make a decision on which are to be exemplified and expanded. The chosen words are normally verbs, nouns and sometimes other word classes such as conjunctions.

Normally, teaching vocabulary occurs during the detailed explanation process, as in Tables 5.1 and 5.2 when Ms Li teaches the word 'resume'. Similar procedures are followed: teachers read sentences from the text then focus on new lexis, with the aid of PowerPoint slides. The following example comes from Ms Wang's lesson *The Nightingale and the Rose*. It occurs in the middle of the first class, where Ms Wang provides a detailed explanation of the sentence.

"….. But with me she will not dance, for I have no red rose to give her," and he flung himself down on the grass, and buried his face in his hands and wept.

Words and Expressions

- **fling**

1) to throw violently, with force

   Don't fling your clothes on the floor.

2) to move violently or quickly

   She flung herself down on the sofa.

   She flung back her head proudly.

3) to devote to

   He flung himself into the task.

Figure 5.6 Ms Wang's class: PowerPoint slide on explaining vocabulary

The following is the talk between Ms Wang and her students based on this slide.

Turn	Speaker	Original utterances	My translation
1	T	... *And now he flung himself down on the grass.* Flung himself down on the grass. Fling oneself? Fling oneself, fling oneself down on the grass.	
		他一下子就怎么样了呢，就倒在草地上了，一下子就爬在上面，	What actually is he doing? he falls down to the grass, fling himself down on the grass
		let's look at the word fling fling down oneself OK, <u>fling to throw violently with force</u> and for example <u>don't fling your clothes on the floor</u>. Don't throw your clothes on the floor. Don't throw and <u>to move violently or quickly</u> show here in this sentence <u>she flung herself down on the sofa</u> she moved violently or quickly down on the sofa, <u>flung back her head proudly. Flung back her proudly</u>	
		她猛地把头一甩，好像很酷的样。	She flung her head and made herself look cool.
		third meaning <u>to devote to</u> something <u>He flung himself into the task</u>. He spend all his time carrying on the research working on the task. Yes here meaning of to fling oneself into something fling oneself down to something.	

Table 5.8 Ms Wang's class: explaining vocabulary

The word 'fling' has been listed in the glossary as ' *fling /flɪŋ/ v. (flung, flung) to move (oneself) quickly with a lot of force'*. No further explanation of it is provided.

Expanding vocabulary is an overriding and yet enduring task in English teaching and learning, and a challenging one. In this case the teachers try to provide an exhaustive list of meanings in the hope that students will have a thorough command of a word. Examples are imported by the teachers either from dictionaries or reference books and the PowerPoint slide then becomes an

authoritative text transmitting knowledge to students. Bakhtin points out that 'language is not a neutral medium that passes freely and easily into the private property of the speaker's intentions; it is populated - overpopulated - with the intension of others' (1981:294). These examples are populated by Ms Wang as authoritative examples. The students' job here is to simply copy them down and internalize them. When circumstances arise where they can use them, they are expected to 'pour' them out appropriately (from teachers' interview data). The way vocabulary is taught can be associated with the Chinese way of learning words/characters (zi 字), which means:

> acquired with well defined practices of learning including demonstration, modelling, tracing, repeated copying and ultimately active memorisation of the precise movement, direction and order of strokes to consolidate the linguistic skill to produce several thousand characters of the Chinese script... (Jin and Cortazzi 2006:9).

Clearly this type of character/word teaching technique has been transferred into English classes, though modified according to the features of the language.

Another major type of linguistic knowledge is grammar and its teaching is an indispensable part of primary, secondary and tertiary ELT in China. By the time they have finished secondary school education, students are expected to know all the grammar items. The curriculum and textbook specifies which grammar items are to be taught for every academic year (see Chapter 4). They also stress a higher level of grammar use, i.e. the syntactic level and the textual level. However, the explanation of grammar focuses predominantly on individual discrete items explained as part of the detailed explanation of the text. Sometimes PowerPoint slides are used to provide a list of related examples.

The following slide comes from Ms Li's lesson *Diogenes and Alexander* and was used near the end of the fourth class.

- the modifiers of comparatives:
- far, even, many, much, still, a lot, a (little) bit, rather, slightly...
- He came even earlier than I asked.
- He is far more truthful than most people.
- You've been working much harder than I have
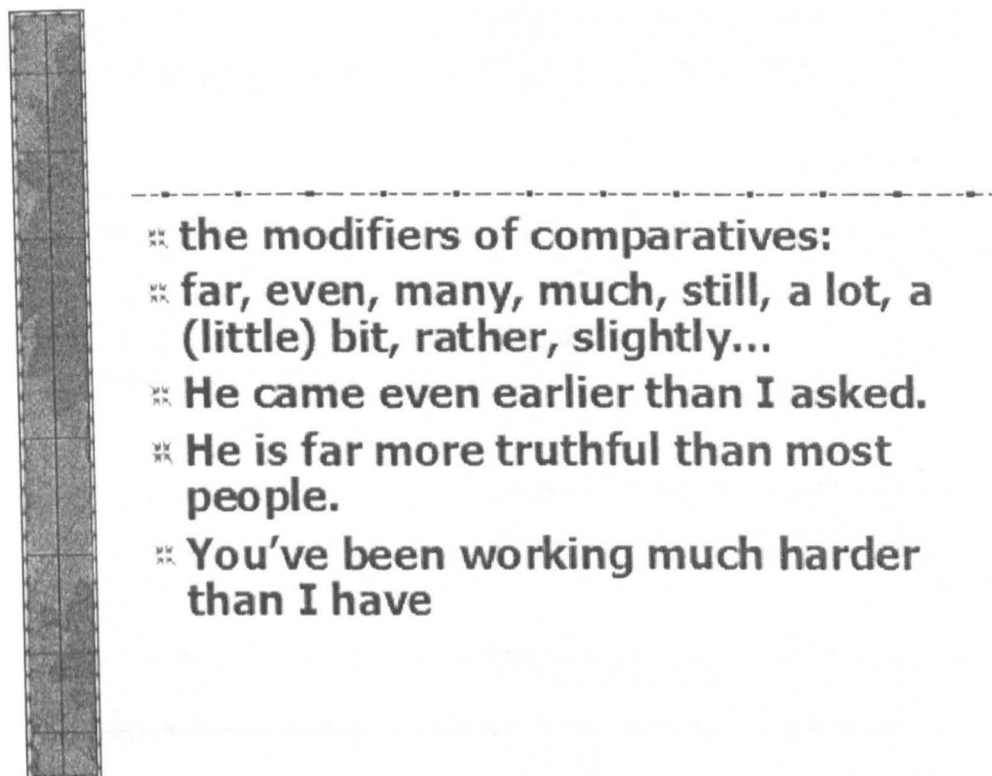
Figure 5.7 Ms Li's class: PowerPoint slide on explaining grammar

The following is the talk based on this slide.

Turn	Speaker	Original utterances	My translation
1	T	...*only twelve Alexander far older and wiser than his years. far older and wiser* 那么这种修饰 the modifiers of comparatives	So, this type of modification,
		就是我们说比较级的时候，前头一定不用什么了，在不用修饰语了是吧？但有一些修饰语可以在什么比较词啊比较级前面，比如	This is what we call comparative, generally no modifiers are needed before them. However, certain words can appear before the comparatives, for example:
		<u>Far, many, even, much, still, a lot</u> 啊这些词可以用在什么比较级前面比如说啊:	They can all be used before comparatives. For example:
		<u>He came even earlier than I asked.</u> Even 修饰什么？Earlier 是吧这是一个比较级是吧，那么 even 修饰 earlier 比如说:	What does even modify? Earlier, isn't it, a comparative, then even is used to modify earlier. For example:
		<u>he is far more truthful than most people.</u> Far 修饰什么？more 是吧，他呢比大多数都更加诚实，是吧比如说:	What does far modify? More is not it? He is far more truthful than most people. Is not it? For example:
		<u>you have been working much harder than I have</u> 你比我工作努力多了是吧，much 修饰他的啊这样一些词可以修饰其他的一些词就不要，不能修饰。	You have been working much harder than I have, much is used to modify, ah, only this type of words can be used as a modifier. Others can't be used, can not modify.

Table 5.9 Ms Li's class: explaining grammar

Teaching comparatives and superlatives is on Ms Li's teaching plan as described in Chapter 4 and this slide identifies words and phrases that can be used to modify a comparative. The way Ms Li teaches this grammatical point is the same as the way she teaches cultural knowledge - she reads out all the modifiers, then gives

specific examples and stresses the modifier in each one. Again, repetition and explanation are applied to pass on knowledge to students. In this excerpt Ms Li uses a great deal of Chinese to provide explanations, a topic that will be further discussed in the next chapter.

The striking commonality between the excerpts in tables 5.8 and 5.9 is that they are both monologic. There is no student involvement at all. This kind of talk is called 'theatrical monologue' by Bourdieu and Passeron (1997). This again can be explained by the ownership of the PowerPoint slides as documented in Section 5.4.3. Unlike background knowledge which is used to help students understand texts, linguistic knowledge is supposed to be the major part of student's English proficiency but it is still treated as something that can be 'poured into' students, seen as vessels. Teachers consistently apply the familiar technique of repetition and explanation.

Again, this is a one-sided flow of communication. Teachers are unequivocally in charge and assume an assertive tone; they establish an overt polarization of power between themselves and the students.

When analyzing 'authoritative discourse' or 'monologic recitation', Nystrand points out that classes where these are employed are 'orderly but lifeless' (1997:3). In such lessons, 'teachers tend to avoid conversational topics, simplifying complex issues into bite-sized pieces of information distilled into countless worksheets and continual recitation' (Nystrand 1997:3). The examples of classroom interaction discussed above, where an authoritative voice is drawn on by teachers to teach background knowledge, paraphrase text and teach linguistic knowledge, support Nystrand's argument. There is no space for students to make their speech especially when PowerPoint slides are used. When the textbook is used students have more involvement but this is limited to brief responses to the teachers'

periodic questions or sometimes reading aloud. Nystrand argues that 'This attempt to control text meaning by excluding the reader - and in the classroom, of course, this means students - from any role in its meaning represents an extreme monolgism' (1997:13). And Holquist characterizes the monologic discourse as 'totalitarian'-'autism for the masses' (1990:34).

5.5 A summary of the use of PowerPoint slides

In this section, I focused on seven PowerPoint slides, a small fraction of the total 135 slides, to illustrate how PowerPoint slides are used to help teachers paraphrase the texts, carry out 'Pre-class work' and deliver cultural and linguistic knowledge. The analysis of the use of slides reveals the following functions that these play in the classroom:

- PowerPoint slides have set a line for teachers and students to follow as teachers always start and frequently finish their lessons with slides.

- PowerPoint slides are used to expand book knowledge and also to act as teachers' scripts. The majority of teachers' talk is either reading aloud or repeating what is put on the slides. Therefore PowerPoint slides authenticate the English that teachers have used and prepared. Much of the speech that is not on the slides is uttered in Chinese, which will be analysed in the next chapter.

- PowerPoint slides are used to perpetuate teachers' authority, in line with traditional teaching methods. Since slides are owned and used by the teachers, the teachers' authority together with the authority of the knowledge source, i.e. internet, dictionaries and reference books, is conferred on to the slides. There is no room for student involvement. Often the content and language on the slides are well above the students and

teachers' level of English, so neither students nor teachers can manipulate the language freely. As a consequence, teachers have to apply a traditional method to deliver the knowledge and students can only act as recipients.

That the use of PowerPoint slides has in fact excluded students' involvement is very much at odds with the intention of adopting new educational technologies as anticipated in the new curriculum. No activities that involve the CLT, TBLT or fostering students' five skills have been observed when slides are used. The use of slides has, then, not changed teaching styles but on the contrary, has consolidated the traditional method.

I have suggested in this chapter that authoritative discourse is the prevalent discourse produced by teachers when they deliver knowledge from textbooks and PowerPoint slides. When slides are used, students' involvement is minimal; with textbooks, the shared property of both teachers and students, students have greater involvement, but students' talk is still very limited. The only significant utterances made by students occur when they are reading text. The combined voices of the teachers, textbooks and PowerPoint slides occupy a dominant role in the orchestration of classroom discourse while the students are viewed as a collective mass of undistinguished individuals who should act following the orientation of the conducting voices.

The features of discourse produced using the model of transmission applied by the two teachers can be characterized as follows:

- The classroom is totally under the teachers' control in terms of what and how to teach so the relationships between teacher and students are: controller vs. controlled; knowledge giver vs receiver; initiator vs. responder; tester vs. testee.

- Monologism is the main character of classroom discourse.

- The content of lessons is strictly confined to textbooks and PowerPoint slides, focusing on prescribed texts, background knowledge and language usage. There is little opportunity for students to put their language into use.

- Students' talk is syntactically reduced, occurring only in the response slot, sandwiched between teacher's turns (van Lier 1996).

- Teachers initiate test-like questions with prescribed 'correct' answers and no development of ideas is encouraged.

The silencing of student voices determines that classroom talk is monoligic, in contrast to dialogic discourse, where 'one might expect interaction to be multi-voiced, versatile and playful with the "authority" of generic forms' (Haworth 1999:101). The nature of 'internally persuasive discourse', i.e. not finite and open, determines that it can provide a space for students to respond by 'accommodating and frequently intermingling teacher-student voices' (Nystrand 1997:18), therefore it is indispensable in the language teaching classroom, where CLT or TBLT needs to be applied.

The answer to 'how is English taught' is partially provided in this chapter by analysing the discourse produced by teacher-student interaction when teachers use PowerPoint slides to mediate book knowledge. The way that knowledge is delivered, and the discourse produced during the process of transmission are a reflection on the teachers' beliefs about what constitutes the knowledge that students need to have and how learning is perceived. Teachers' belief that knowledge is there in the textbook and PowerPoint slides for them to implant into students' heads so it is readily available whenever needed (from Ms Li's interview data, Ms Wang uses the Chinese word for 'vomit') informs them to act as

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messengers with an 'authoritative voice'. This is very much in line with traditional teaching styles in China. Such practices are, however, not always appreciated by students, a fact which reflects that the learning styles depicted by researchers, e.g. Anderson (1993); Campball and Zhao (1993); Tang and Biggs (1996); Zou (1998); Hu (2002a, 2002b) and H. Wang (2008), is not all consistent with the students I have observed. Although students' voices are silenced inside the classroom, they do not always follow the teachers' practice as expected. Their resistance to and rejection of the voice of authority is demonstrated by their occasional 'absent-mindedness' or 'falling asleep' in the classroom, as they mentioned in the interview data.

The teaching practice of transmitting knowledge has put students into a passive and controlled position and together with the latter's muted voice, is very much in conflict with the New Curriculum that advocated CLT, TBLT and student-centredness. It is at odds too with teachers' own teaching aims, which focused on CLT, communication, creative and critical thinking, and finally with students' own aspirations for more native-like English, more opportunities to practise what was taught and less teacher dependence on textbooks and PowerPoint slides.

Further disparities between the New Curriculum, students' expectations and teachers' practices will be considered in the next chapter, where I continue to answer the question 'how is English taught' by looking at how Chinese, the shared native language between teachers and students, is used.

Chapter 6 The use of Chinese alongside English in the English classroom

6.1 Introduction

In Chapter 4, I examined teachers' use of textbooks and PowerPoint slides. The lesson maps and interview data from both teachers and students suggested that teaching is textbooks and PowerPoint slides based. In Chapter 5, I attempted to answer the question 'how is English taught' by analysing the discourse produced by teacher-student interaction to reveal how the knowledge from textbooks and PowerPoint slides is delivered. The discourse analysis reveals that 'authoritative voice' and 'monologic recitation' is the prevalent mode of instruction. The relationship between teachers and students is that of messenger and subordinated, controller and controlled. These themes that teaching is textbooks and PowerPoint slides based and teachers' 'authoritative voice' is the dominant one in the classroom can further be reflected in this chapter, where I continue to address the question 'how is English taught' by focusing on how the shared first language (L1), in this case Putonghua, is used when teachers deliver knowledge from textbooks and PowerPoint slides.

A striking feature that emerged during the transcription of the classroom data was the frequency with which Chinese was used alongside English. This pattern of language use was particularly noteworthy given the following factors:

- The New Curriculum views that English should be used both as the medium of instruction and interaction in the classroom, and that teachers should create an English learning environment so that students are immersed in the language (The New Curriculum 2000);

- Widespread agreement among educational administrators in China that L1 should not be used in the foreign language (L2) classroom and the 'tacit

policy of universities favouring the immersion mode' (Van Der and Zhao 2010).

- The teachers' own perceptions in the interview data that they made only limited use of Chinese. Ms Li, for instance, reported that about five percent of her utterances were in Chinese whilst Ms Wang reported using less than five percent (The interview data on teachers' use of Chinese will be analysed in a later section of this chapter).

However, it is apparent from the extracts of classroom language presented in Chapter 5 that the teachers routinely switched between English and Chinese and over half of the discourse produced by the teachers is in fact in Chinese.

The use of students' (and, in this case, the teachers') first language (L1) has been a controversial topic in the literature on foreign language teaching. In this chapter, I first consider arguments about L1 usage, particularly with respect to English language teaching (ELT). I then analyse teachers' and students' interview data on their comments on L1 use. Following their comments, I present an analysis of the use of these two languages, and codeswitching between them, evident in English lessons taught by the two Chinese teachers. And finally I end the chapter with a discussion of how the teachers' choice of language is bound up with the text-oriented pedagogical practices analysed in the earlier chapters and delineate the major factors that affect teachers' language choices.

6.2 The use of L1 in English Language Teaching: arguments and debates

The use of L1 in language teaching has been a controversial topic. Starting from the early 20th century till now, there have been numerous arguments and debates for and against L1 use. In the next section, I will review how L1 use is viewed in the past century from 'Reform Movement' to the implementation of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT).

6.2.1 Monolingualism from the 'Reform Movement' to Task-Based Language Teaching

Stern notes that 'Crosslingual techniques have been employed for centuries in language instruction in an unselfconscious manner' (1992:208), referring to the time when students' mother tongue is habitually used. The deliberate abandoning use of L1 can be traced back to the 'Reform Movement', when a group of phoneticians and linguists from Europe formulated ideas based on 'the latest linguistics and psychology of the time', i.e. 'the relatively new science of phonetics and the idea of the "primacy of speech" and "associationism" from psychology' (Cook 2010:4). It was about the same time that the 'Berlitz Method', a focus on speaking rather than writing and rejection of L1 use emerged in the USA. Although the 'Reform Movement' and the 'Berlitz Method' are two streams, one academic and one commercial, the ideas and practices of the two merged to yield a strong and coherent new programme, which became known as the Direct Method. Since the emergence of the Direct Method, L1 use has been more negatively perceived in foreign language teaching. In the book, *History of English Language Teaching* (1984), Howatt points to the emergence at this period of what he terms the monolingual principle. For him, this principle is 'the unique contribution of the twentieth century to classroom language teaching, [it] remains the bedrock notion from which the others ultimately derive' (1984:289). Cook further summarizes two language teaching theory revolutions in the 20th century, one being the shift from cross-lingual teaching to intra-lingual teaching and the second (still under that heading of intra-lingual approaches) a shift away from form-focused to meaning-focused teaching from 1970 onwards (2010:21). Language teaching theories generated during the two revolutions have in common the same tenet: that L1 use should be eliminated. For teaching oral language, Direct Method advocates 'never translate: demonstrate'; 'never explain: act' (Richards and Rogers 2001:11).

Proponents of this method argue that a foreign language could be taught without translation or the use of the learner's L1 if meaning was conveyed directly through demonstration and action (Richards and Rogers 2001:12). The monolingual principle is also reflected in subsequent approaches. Audiolingualism, for example, recommended for English speakers learning another language, 'rendering English inactive while the new language is being learnt' (Brooks 1964:142). Later on, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and TBLT methods do not include such explicit prescriptions but, as Cook notes 'the only times that the L1 is mentioned is when advice is given on how to minimize its use' (2001:404). Meanwhile content-based language teaching and early Canadian immersion schooling all see specific attention to language form as an 'auxiliary activity, while code-switching and translation are seen as activities which will - and should - wither away'(Cook 2010:31). In the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) arena, the implicit objection of L1 use is based on the assumption that L1 is detrimental to both fluency in communication and to learner's development of a new language (Cook 2010: 88). From direct method to TBLT, it is almost taken for granted that the target language should be the medium of instruction. In a summary of the use of L1 in various teaching methods, Cook remarks that: 'Most descriptions of methods portray the ideal classroom as having as little of the L1 as possible, essentially by omitting any reference to it. Perhaps the only exception is the grammar/translation method, which has little or no public support' (2001:404). Alongside monolingualism, there are dissenting voices, which will be reviewed in the next section.

6.2.2 Dissenting voices against monolingualism

20th century language teaching was dominated by monolingualism as a result of the 'Direct Method'. However, there were dissenting voices in defence of L1 use, particularly during the second revolution in language teaching theory. Widdowson,

for instances, advocates the association between the target language and L1 in his book *Teaching Language as Communication*, arguing for the use of translation so the learner can 'conceive of the foreign language in the same way as he conceives of his own language and to use it in the same way as a communicative activity' (1978:159). Other dissenting voices include more general pleas for reassessment (Atkinson 1987; Cook 2001; Cook 1991, 1997, 2010; Hummel 1995; Butzkamm and Caldwell 2009).

More recently, however, a greater acceptance of, or even support for, the use of L1 has emerged. Empirical studies of classroom practice suggest that code-switching between the L1 and the target language is a widely observed phenomenon in language teaching contexts. Furthermore, the potential methodological usefulness of code-switching or of students' L1 use in English language classrooms has been recognized and has attracted much scholarly attention in recent decades and a 'principled, systematic and judicious way of using the mother tongue' (Ferrer 2005) is suggested.

Proponents of the use of L1 note that arguments against L1 are not based on firm evidence. Auerbach, for instance, suggests that 'the rationale used to justify English only in the classroom is neither conclusive nor pedagogically sound' (1993:15), Cook refers to the 'direct-method dogma' which precludes L1 use (2010:46).

Those who advocate a more positive acceptance of student's L1 see this as a potential resource. Atkinson called for the 'judicious use' of the mother tongue in ELT, arguing that 'at early levels a ratio of about 5 per cent native language to about 95 per cent target language may be more profitable' (1987:242), though he did not indicate how this ratio may actually be implemented or measured. However, he also warned of the disadvantage of excessive use of L1. Atkinson

identified several advantages of limited L1 use: '[the first is that] translation techniques form a part of the preferred learning strategies of most learners in most places; another important role of mother tongue is to allow students to say what they want to say, which is seen as a valuable 'humanistic' element in the classroom; furthermore, techniques involving use of mother tongue can be very efficient as regards the amount of time needed to achieve a specific aim' (1987:242-243). A further argument for the use of translation in language teaching was made by Widdowson who proposes that translation should be applied at the 'level of use', which means 'the learner would recognize that acts of communication, like identification, description, instruction and so on' as opposed to 'the level of usage', in which 'translation involves relating two languages word for word or sentence for sentence' (1978:18). Assessing the role of translation from a broader perspective, Cook argues that 'translation has pedagogical advantages both for teachers and learners' (2010:xvi). Drawing on Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1983; 1996), van Lier notes that teachers' use of the learner's L1 helps to create more salient input for the learner hence promoting intake (1995:205). Turnbull and Arnett similarly argue that '[students' first language] can be used judiciously to help facilitate the intake process, allowing input to more readily become intake' (2002:205).

More recently, Butzkamm (2003) has pointed to the value of students' L1 as a reference base for the new language they are learning:

> Using mother tongue, we have (1) learnt to think, (2) learnt to communicate and (3) acquired an intuitive understanding of grammar. ....It is the greatest asset people bring to the task of foreign language learning. For this reason, the mother tongue is the master key to foreign

languages, the tool which gives us the fastest, surest, most precise, and most complete means of accessing a foreign language (2003:31).

Cook further develops the idea of using L1 from the pedagogical point of view and stresses that own language use enables faster and more efficient explanation. Therefore it is more motivating and less alienating. It has an affective function as it fosters good relationships between teacher and learner. Above all own-language use will occur as a natural teaching and learning strategy, so should be harnessed rather than rejected (2010:52).

6.2.3 L1 use in English Language Teaching in China

As reviewed in Chapter 2, there are numerous studies of primary and secondary school English curricula and pedagogy in China (Adamson 2001, 2004; Hu 2002a, 2002b). However, none of these studies mention L1 use. In fact unlike the bilingual programmes in China that has attracted much scholarly attention (see Chapter 1), up to now as I am writing this thesis, there are still no government documents issued in China on L1 use in ELT. When I review the history of ELT in China, particularly in higher education, I separate it into three phases. What follows will be an elaboration on L1 use in each of the phases.

The first phase started in the early seventeenth century when the first English speakers arrived in China and lasted until the late nineteenth century when missionary schools and Western Christian institutions multiplied. Although no historical documents can be traced on how English was taught, one must assume English was taught monolingually unless the missionaries were bilingual. After the People's Republic of China was founded in 1949, until the Cultural Revolution, due to the pedagogy prescribed and teacher's language proficiency which has been reviewed in Chapter 2, one would imagine L1 being used in ELT classroom. When 'English only' started to emerge in post-colonial settings in the 1960s, China was

in isolation from the West. Similarly, when language teaching theory developed in the West, China was not a party to the debates. However, China tended to follow the Western theory in ELT curriculum design and methodology, which has been elaborated in Chapter 2. Rather than the 'English only' tenets being imposed on it, China actively chose to adopt 'English only' pedagogy which was reflected in the talk given by then Foreign Minister Chen Yi (see Chapter 2) when he advocated that 'translation should be replaced by thinking in the foreign language' (Price 1971:72). This is the second phase of ELT history occurring during the Cultural Revolution. In the late 20th century, roughly at the time when the second language teaching theory revolution happened (Cook 2010:26), China opened its doors to the outside world. Subsequently, a mission has been conferred on English: to change the nation's future. At this stage still no government document can be found on L1 use, but one can have an idea of how English should be taught or rather learnt through one lesson in the textbook. The lesson is entitled *How Marx learned foreign languages* and was in the Senior Middle School Textbook issued in the year 1984. I learnt this text when I was in senior middle school in the year 1985. Five years later, after I became an English teacher myself, I started to teach this text. In the text, it told a story of how Karl Marx used languages as weapons and started to learn Russian even in his fifties. Marx gave the following advice on how to learn a foreign language:

> When people are learning a foreign language, they should not translate everything into their own language. If they do this, it shows that they have not mastered it. When they use the foreign language, they should try to forget all about their own. If they cannot do this, they have not really learned the spirit of the foreign language and cannot use it freely (From Senior Middle school textbook 1984:3).

This lesson remained in the textbook until the year 1995 when new textbooks were issued to replace it. The tenet of forgetting your own language when you are learning English has impacted both teachers' and students' attitudes towards L1 use, although in reality it is impossible. Since CLT has been adopted in the curricula, no explicit statements on L1 use in language teaching and learning can be found. However, the general belief in China is still that English should be the major language of instruction in ELT classes, which is evident in Van Der and Zhao's study (2010) and also from my interview data on L1 use, which will be analysed later in this chapter.

6.3 Patterns of language choice in the English Language Teaching classroom

As discussed in Chapter 1, the status that English enjoys in the outer circle and expanding circle is different, which has consequences for ELT contexts. Although there are some differences in orientation between empirical studies carried out in different contexts, several consistent patterns emerge across different studies.

Firstly, in a review of studies in variety of contexts, Cook notes that 'codeswitching is more frequent than expected - even by teachers ostensibly opposed to it' (2010:47). Kim and Elder (2005) found this in lessons in four different languages in New Zealand secondary schools and Edstrom (2006) in US university -level foreign-language teaching. In Van Der and Zhao's (2010) study of codeswitching in English classes in Chinese universities, their data suggest that teachers' actual codeswtiching practice was 7 times more frequent and 10 times longer than the teachers believed.

A second strand of research has focused on the identification of the communicative functions of codeswitching. In this case four broad functions have

been identified although there is a measure of overlap between the first 3 in particular.

- Pedagogical functions

Ferguson (2003) documents the widespread use of code-switching in English-, French, and Portuguese-medium classroom in post-colonial Africa, and argues that it should be more effectively exploited by language planners as a communicative and pedagogical resource. Canagarajah's research (1995) in Jaffna, Sri Lanka; Guthrie's (1984) study of two bilingual teachers working with Chinese learners of English in the U.S., and Liu's (2003) study of Chinese university teachers in an EFL class in Beijing report the similar findings that L1 is used to clarify meaning, to check on understanding, and to interpret unfamiliar lexis.

- Interpersonal/affective functions

In addition to Canagarajah's (1995) research, further studies on the teaching of English, i.e. Addendorff's (1996) on South Africa high schools, Camilleri's (1996) on Maltese secondary school, and Cromdal's (2005) on collaborative word processing in a fourth-grade class in Sweden, all found code-switching to promote a sense of unity in classroom and shared identity. Nikula's (2007) investigation of content-based classes in Finland saw code-switching as having positive emotional effects.

- Instruction/classroom management

Lin's (1996) study of Hong Kong secondary schools and Liu's (2003) study of a university in Beijing reveal that switching was for instructions that are directed to the whole class and which relate directly to the conduct of teaching and learning and they both point out that codeswitching is also used to regulate discipline. In

managing discipline, Canagarajah (1995) points out that using L1 can frame these utterances as different from the ongoing pedagogical activities, therefore L1 is used to distinguish teacher's intermittent disciplinary comments from the discussion of content

- Teacher's linguistic competence and insecurity

The majority of the empirical studies I review in this chapter were conducted in contexts where teachers' proficiency was not an issue in their choice of language. When discussing teachers' code-switching in classrooms, Butzkamm and Caldwell argue that teachers themselves should be 'reasonably fluent speakers of both the target language and the language of their pupils' (2009:25). However the very limited empirical studies conducted in China, for example Liu's (2003) study in Beijing and Van Der and Zhao's (2010) study in Jilin on Chinese teachers stress that codeswitching is mostly a reflection of teacher's relative linguistic incompetence, or security. Lack of linguistic competence and insecurity is also the major reason why teachers rely on L1 in my data.

Before analysing the two teachers' language use, I will discuss teachers' as well as students' comments on teachers' language choices in order to have some idea of teachers' beliefs why L1 should be used and the way in which students perceive L1 use.

6.4 Teachers' and students' perceptions of the use of Chinese

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, my attention was drawn during transcription to teachers' use of Chinese. Since analysing teachers' use of Chinese was not my initial plan, therefore neither teachers nor students' perceptions on the use of Chinese were elicited in the interviews carried out during data collection. Due to the geographical distance, it was impossible for me to go

back to interview teachers and students. Instead, I made telephone calls to both teachers and emailed my questions to the students I had interviewed. The following is teachers as well as students' comments on teachers' use of Chinese.

6.4.1 Teachers' comments on their use of Chinese

The questions prepared for the teachers are: Do you have any policy towards the use of Chinese? Did you intend in your lesson plan to use Chinese? To this question, Ms Li, responds as follows (The original was in Chinese and the following is my translation).

Ms Li: There is no regulation anywhere on the use of Chinese, but I believe in principle we should use English. However, in my class, I do use Chinese. I have to teach students to do translation. Meanwhile some lexis is difficult to explain in English. I normally use Chinese directly to explain. I choose to use Chinese in places where translation and efficient explanation is needed. Overall, the amount of Chinese is minimal. Another reason I have to use Chinese is because of students' proficiency and the language level of the text. Take the lesson Alexander and Diogenes for example, if I use English to explain the philosophy, students won't understand. Also philosophical terms are difficult for me as well.

Ms Li claims that her use of Chinese is minimal when I asked her about the proportion of the Chinese she reckoned to use in her classes, she answered that it was five percent.

To the same questions Ms Wang's answers are as follows. (Again the following is my translation.)

Ms Wang: There is no policy on the use of Chinese. There might be some when translation is taught. In my classes, I very rarely use Chinese. If I use it, it will be in places where special terminology occurs. Sometimes, I choose to use Chinese deliberately when I notice students feel dull. I hope by using Chinese I can create a more conducive atmosphere for learning English.

When I asked Ms Wang if she made any preparation to use Chinese beforehand she responded:

Ms Wang: I generally don't make preparation of using Chinese before classes and I tend to minimize the use of Chinese, since teachers play a leading role in classes and for us English teachers, using English has an unshakable position in the classes.

Following on Ms Li's estimation that 5% of her talk is in Chinese, I asked Ms Wang about the percentage of her use of Chinese and Ms Wang is pretty sure that her use of Chinese is less than 5%.

The two teachers share the perception that English should be the predominant language for instruction, especially when Ms Wang argues that 'English has an unshakable position'.

However they have different ideas on the functions and reasons for using Chinese. Ms Li's comments can be categorized into the following functions:

- Translation

- Explain new lexis

- Students' and her own proficiency

- Compensation for the content of English in the textbook.

Ms Wang's comments can be categorized into:

- Explanation of special terminology

- Create a conducive atmosphere for English learning.

All the functions that the two teachers identify are evident in the transcription which will be analysed in the next section. The transcription also reveals the discrepancy between the percentage of Chinese that teachers claimed to use and the real amount that is used. Due to the morphological differences between the two languages, it is hard to measure accurately the proportion of the two languages and there are various complex ways of comparing the length of the two languages, for example, timing and morphing prepositional contents. However, it is very complicated and in this thesis, my major focus is on the functions of the use of Chinese. I have not precisely measured the quantity, but based on my observation, and taking into account that it generally takes less space on paper to cover the same information in Chinese than in English, I would estimate over fifty-percent of the classroom discourse is in Chinese. Given that fact that a large amount of Chinese is used in classes, I also elicited students' ideas on teachers' use of Chinese.

6.4.2 Students' comments on teachers' use of Chinese

The questions designed for students on teachers' use of Chinese are: I also noted that in Ms Li's classes, she uses Chinese from time to time. What are your ideas on the use of Chinese? Do you have a preference as to how much and when the teacher should use Chinese?

Students' overall answers can be summarized as follows:

- English should be the dominant language in English classes.

- The use of Chinese is unavoidable but should be limited in quantity.

Student Hee's answer elaborates when the two languages should be used. Again the data is in Chinese and the following is my translation.

Hee: It is important to use both languages in the classroom. In cases where the content is too difficult and even a lengthy English explanation can't indicate its real meaning, whereas several Chinese sentences can articulate them clearly, then Chinese should be used. However, in some cases, when there are no such obstacles, English should be used 100%.

This comments echoes Cook's argument that L1 can provide 'faster and more efficient explanation' (2010:52). Similar ideas are also expressed by another student Chen, who believes English should be the prevalent language in classroom. However, in actual practice he observes that the use of Chinese is unavoidable due to students' English level.

Chen: In general, I don't agree with the idea that teachers should use Chinese in the classroom. Firstly, we are now university students and have been learning English for over ten years. I hope at university level, particularly for us English majors, English should be the only medium of instruction. However, in actual practice, there is misunderstanding due to the English used by teachers and students. Then Chinese explanation is necessary. If Chinese is used at the right time then it can help us understand the language better. Chinese should not be used to communicate very obvious things. If everything is translated, it is truly a waste of time and is jeopardizing the university English learning environment.

Another student, Pang, who is also in favour of English-medium instruction, made similar comments on teachers' use of English.

Pang: Basically, I prefer no use of Chinese in English class unless it is a course of English and Chinese translation. As far as I'm concerned, English-only can improve our speaking and listening skills, which will ultimately be helpful in fostering our logical thinking in English. Besides, we can learn more from the teachers, who are our major sources of English learning. However, by virtue of the mixed ability in our class, sometimes teachers have no choice but to use Chinese to cater for students with lower proficiency. Personally, in such a key university in China, teachers should reduce the amount of Chinese in English classes.

As well as agreeing that teachers have to use Chinese from a pedagogical point of view, Huang, another student, also argues that 'I think the teacher should not go through everything in Chinese. She speaks too much Chinese from beginning to the end. I think she should not explain everything in such detail. Teachers should not go too far, otherwise it truly tarnishes the profession'.

In general students comments' on teachers' use of Chinese include:

- a judicious use of Chinese is necessary from a pedagogical point of view, i.e. explanation, clarification and translation;

- teachers sometimes have no choice but to switch to Chinese due to students' proficiency;

- too much Chinese in English classes has jeopardized the English learning environment and it does not save time;

- it is not professional that too much Chinese is used in English classes.

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Student's interview data reveals their expectations of teachers' L1 use, which is in huge contrast with how L1 is actually used in the classroom. In the following section I will analyze how L1 is used.

6.5 The use of L1 alongside English in the two Chinese teachers' classes

Due to the 'craze' for English (see Chapter 1) high expectations are placed on teachers by students, parents and indeed the wider society to enable students to gain native-like proficiency in English. Although the literature discussion of academic studies has become more sympathetic to L1 use (Widdowson 1978; Atkinson 1987 Cook 1991, 1997, 2010; Cook 2001), the curricula issued in 1990 and 2000 both advocate the adoption of Communicative Language Teaching CLT (see Chapter 2), indicating maximum use of English, which is consistent with Cook's (2001) point that there is no explicit discussion of the use of L1 but the assumption is teachers need to use more English. As discussed in Chapters 4 and 5, lessons are tightly prepared and teachers do not deviate from their plans. The teachers work closely through the textbook with some elaboration or support from the PowerPoint slides. Both the textbook chapters and the PowerPoint slides are in English (some slides have Chinese translation) and they provide a source that the teachers read or paraphrase. The lessons are meant to be in English and teachers do start and end a new lesson in English. This use of English is to 'set a boundary marker of the conventionalized kind' and to 'mark off from the ongoing flow' of the use of Chinese and can be associated with Goffman's framing (1974:251). However, when the lessons get underway, the teachers frequently switch into Chinese. Occasionally, the teachers use English in a departure from the script but such instances are rare. The incorporation of Chinese, however, allows teachers to extemporise to a greater extent, literally to put things into their own words, i.e. 'fresh talk' (Goffman 1981:172). Specific functions of these

switches into Chinese are broadly consistent with evidence from other contexts where teachers and students share an L1.

Although the extent of such switching into Chinese differs between the two teachers, with Ms Li using more Chinese than Ms Wang in total (as reflected in my transcriptions), the functions of switching are the same in each case and some are consistent with the evidence from empirical studies documented in Section 6.3. Some other reasons for codeswitching are not discussed by the existing empirical studies (Kim and Elder 2005; Liu 2003), but they are prominent in the data I collected, i.e. compensation for inappropriate text and maintenance of teacher authority. Teacher's competence is a big issue which determines their language choices and it can be reflected in many of the excerpts to be analysed later on, therefore I will not pull it out as a separate category.

In the following analysis of teachers' codeswitching patterns, I distinguish: 1) pedagogical functions, i.e. translation and exemplification 2) instructional functions 3) affective functions including maintenance of teacher authority.

6.5.1 The use of Chinese for translation

As discussed in Chapter 2, both the New Curriculum and the textbook suggest the target of this intensive reading (IR) course is five-fold, namely, listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation. The editors' preface to the textbook for second year students notes 'as well as harnessing listening and speaking, the teaching task should also include writing and translation skills'. The editors also note that the proportion of translation should be increased for second year students 'in order that students can have an awareness of the differences between the two languages, i.e. the metalinguistic awareness, which would eventually enhance their translation skill'(Contemporary College English III 2001:2 my translation). However, the editors are also concerned that translation should not detract from

the broadly communicative approach adopted in the curriculum: 'teachers should not misunderstand and make the teaching a return to the traditional teaching method' (Contemporary College English III 2001: 5).

Ms Wang teaches first year students. The texts in her books are comparatively shorter and easier, therefore she relies less on Chinese. She sometimes uses non-scripted English. Ms Li teaches second year students. The texts in her books are longer and more difficult and translation occurs more frequently in her classes. In order to teach translation, she selects complex sentences from a set listed in the reference book.

The following excerpt is from the lesson *Diogenes and Alexander*, towards the end of the fourth class where the focus is on detailed explanation of the text. Ms Li selected a sentence describing the scene when Alexander visited Diogenes:

With his handsome face, his fiery glance, his strong body, his purple and gold cloak, and his air of destiny, he moved through the parting crowd toward the Dog's Kennel.

After one student read this sentence three students were called to translate it. Ms Li then gave her version of the translation.

Turn	Speaker	Original utterances	My translation
1	T	炯炯的目光，然后 his strong body 他强健的体魄或者是体格。魁梧，健壮都行，魁梧的身材，就是翻译汉语习惯用的词，然后身披紫色的斗篷，紫色，金色，是不足，这个加一句啊。 purple and gold especially purple is associated with king and Queen in Roman Empire 在西方的这些文化里他们君主穿着 purple，我们中国的皇帝穿着什么呢？Gold 是吧？...OK 带着，要加一个字，要不然怎么翻呢，带着好像气宇轩昂的气势或者主宰命运的气势，或者气度非凡，都是差不多，这个意思，穿过就是,你们没把 parting crowd 翻出来，	His fiery glance then, his strong body his strong body, or his strong physique. You can use strong, sturdy or strong-built body, any word that is used in Chinese will do. Then with his purple cloak, purple and gold right? I will add one sentence here. According to the Western culture, the monarchs normally wear something purple; what about the emperors in China? Gold, right? ... OK, here we need to add one word wearing/having, having his air of destiny or having the control of destiny, or impressive in bearing, they by and large have the same meaning. Passing through, neither of you [i.e. the two students who offered translations] have translated parting crowd
2	S	分开的人群	parting crowd
3	T	分开的人群是怎样的人群，我们汉语不说分开的人群，夹道欢迎的是不是，夹道欢迎的人群，是吧，夹道欢迎的人群，什么是分开的人群？就是人挤人太多了，他过来了以后都分开了，夹道欢迎的人群，走到什么，狗窝边上。最后和前面不大配。有的时候一定要看需要加字的时候要加字，但不能加太远，走得太远。	What is a parting crowd, in Chinese we don't say 'parting crowd', lining the streets to welcome, do we? Welcoming crowd lining the streets. What is a parting crowd? It is used to describe crowds of people parting when he came, welcoming crowds lining the streets, where did he go? The dog Kennel. It is not a good match between the beginning and the ending. When we translate, we have to decide when to add words. However, we can't make it too far away from the original.

Table 6.1 Ms Li's class: doing translation

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Altogether ten minutes were devoted to a discussion of Ms Li's selected sentence. English was used to re-articulate the meanings of the two words 'fiery' and 'fierce', after that Chinese was used to give students instruction and to comment on their translations. The extract above begins when Ms Li offers her own translations for certain phrases, initially 'his fiery glance' and 'his strong body'. She provides near synonyms for 'body' and 'strong', in each case selecting terms to match the literary tone of the original passage. However, Ms Li does not simply use Chinese to provide translation equivalents of English words and phrases. She switches more fully into Chinese as a teaching medium. Thus, Chinese is used to provide a commentary on the translation of these terms. Later she provides a similar commentary on translation possibilities for 'air of destiny', and on a student's suggestion of a translation for 'parting crowd', in each case considering the meaning of alternative phrases and, in relation to 'parting crowd', the extent to which one may depart from the original. 'Parting crowd' has been repeated many times both in its literal and metaphorical meanings in Chinese. That is because none of the students have translated it correctly. Therefore it has been identified as a difficult point by the teacher and she explains and repeats until she believes students have fully understood it. Chinese is also used to give associated background historical and cultural information – here contrasting Western and Chinese colours associated with monarchs and emperors.

As reviewed in Chapter 1, an ad hoc module of translation is designed for senior students. IR is a comprehensive course, therefore, the five skills elaborated in Chapter 2 should all be included. The New Curriculum suggests that translation should enhance students' metalinguistic awareness, which perhaps can be realized by drawing students' attention to the use of language rather than translating 'word for word and sentence for sentence' (Widdowson 1978:18). However, lacking translation theory and the awareness as to when and where L1

should be used, teachers can easily slip back into traditional grammar translation methods.

It might be suggested that Chinese is 'called up' here because the teacher is dealing with a translation exercise (so that translating into Chinese provokes a longer-term switch into Chinese for pedagogical purposes). However, other functions of the use of Chinese also occur in this excerpt: giving a commentary on the translation, expanding more information and teaching cultural knowledge, which reflects the fact that Chinese is in fact used as the medium of instruction. Similar uses of Chinese occur throughout the lessons as the teachers work through the main teaching texts with students. Below I will discuss examples from both teachers' classes when Chinese is used for explanations.

6.5.2 The use of Chinese for explanation

As discussed in Chapter 5, detailed explanation of vocabulary, phrases and sentences constitutes the primary classroom discourse and both teachers often switch into Chinese for this purpose as in the translation examples above. Chinese is used both for linguistic explanation – usually of the meaning of words and phrases; as well as for the provision of background (cultural and historical) information.

The following is an example of the explanation of the word 'paradox' from the lesson Alexander and Diogenes and the excerpt starts from the beginning of the fourth class when the dean is explaining the word paradox in this sentence: *Alexander was still silent? To those nearest him he said quietly, "If I were not Alexander, I should be Diogenes." They took it as a paradox.* Ms Li shows the following slide for the explanation. The utterance around this slide is quite long and Ms Li explained the two examples in the same manner. Therefore, I will start the analysis from Turn 8 when Ms Li has finished the first example.

- paradox: a statement that seems impossible because it contains two ideas that are both true.
- 似非而是的隽语
- The more haste, the less speed.
- People often say that many hands make light work. But the paradox is, in some cases, too many hands spoil the broth.
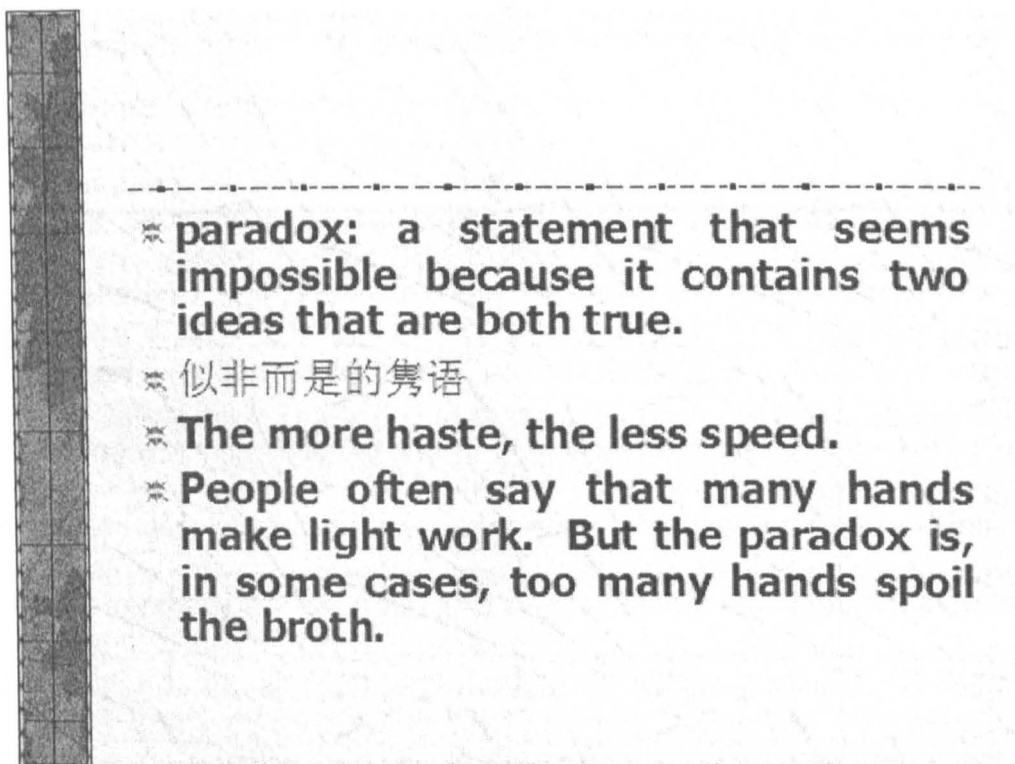
Figure 6.1 Ms Li's class: PowerPoint slide on teaching the word 'paradox'

Turn	Speaker	Original utterances	My translation
8	T	... <u>many hands make light work</u>	
		人多了，这个工作就轻了，是吧？众人抬柴火焰高.	If there are more people, the workload will become lighter, won't it? If many people pick up firewood, the flames can get bigger.
		<u>but the paradox is in some cases,</u>	
		那么在有些时候呢，又是一个成语,	But in some cases, here is another idiom,
		<u>Too many hands spoil the broth,</u> broth,	
		是肉汤。就是人多，厨子多了. 这个应该是怎么翻译呢，用的是，<u>many cooks</u>, 这个地方啊， <u>hands</u> 可以是 <u>cooks</u> 就是厨子多了坏了汤，就这样啊翻译成,	(Broth) is meat soup, many people, many cooks, how should this be translated, <u>many cooks</u>, should be used here. <u>Hands</u> can be <u>cooks</u>. That is to say too many cooks spoil the soup. So this can be translated into
		<u>too many cooks spoil the broth,</u>	
		<u>broth</u> 是汤，肉汤，那么人多了呢，就是把这个汤给做坏了啊。	<u>Broth</u> is soup, meat soup. Because too many people are involved in it, the soup is spoiled
		<u>some times in some cases, the paradox is</u>	
		好像，似是而非的事情，是吧，这样子的,	It seems to be something but in reality, it might not be the case, might it?
		<u>the statement seems impossible</u>	
		看起来是不可能的啊,	It seems impossible, right.
		<u>superficially, impossible because it contains two contradictory ideas.</u>	
		这个地方呢看来, ... 对吧，所以这是一个看起来是个什么，他们认为这是一个 <u>paradox.</u>	Here, in this place it looks,... right, Therefore what does it look like? They take it as a <u>paradox</u>.

Table 6.2 Ms Li's class: explaining the word 'paradox'

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Overall three minutes were spent on explaining and exemplifying the word 'paradox'. Following her usual procedures, Ms Li first read the original sentence from the textbook then focused on the lexis. 'Paradox' was a new vocabulary item and was listed in the glossary in the textbook with an English explanation. This was copied on to the slide.

The word 'Paradox' is a fairly difficult word for Chinese students in terms of its morphemic structure, semantics and pragmatics. In order to help students understand the term and perhaps apply it in other contexts, Ms Li selects two examples of paradox. First the aphorism 'more haste, less speed', is itself apparently paradoxical. And secondly, two further aphorisms that appear mutually contradictory: 'many hands make light work', 'too many cooks spoil the broth'. After finishing the first example, Ms Li displays her second example, expanding particularly on the second half of it (Turn 8), which has a new word 'broth' for students. Thus Ms Li translates it several times into Chinese. Another focus is 'cooks' and 'hands'. As on the slide 'hands' was put down, perhaps mistakenly, so Ms Li tried to correct it by saying 'hands' can be used as 'cooks' in Chinese with the two English words slotted in. Translation is used a lot when the two aphorisms are explained. The translation is a repetition of the English meanings which can serve the purpose of clarity and meanwhile it is valuable in reinforcing the information.

In spite of the fact that the examples were listed on the slide to exemplify the word 'paradox', Ms Li's explanation goes beyond that. And the improvised utterance was mostly made in Chinese. It entails translation, explanation and a study of new word 'broth'. Finally Ms Li returns to the original scenario where paradox is used in the textbook, a comparison between Alexander and Diogenes.

As I mentioned in Chapter 4, the lesson Alexander and Diogenes has been in the English textbook for nearly three decades. It has been regarded as a piece of excellent text both with regard to the content and the language, although the language is well above students' level and is very contrived and archaic. From the interview data analysed in Chapter 4, Ms Li is quite happy with the textbook as it can provoke a lot of comments and provides a lot of language points to learn. In Section 6.4.1 Ms Li also points out that this particular lesson is difficult for students as there is a lot of philosophical terminology. The examples chosen to exemplify the word are even more complicated. In this context, teachers have to rely on L1 to provide explanation, although one would question the effectiveness of teaching new words like 'paradox' and 'broth' in such a manner.

A further example of using Chinese for explanatory purposes comes from Ms Wang's lesson when she is explaining the word 'sweet'. The extract is from the lesson The Nightingale and the Rose, towards the end of the first class when Ms Wang is working in detail through the text. The sentence under discussion here is: "Give me a red rose", she cried "and I will sing you my sweetest song."

Turn	Speaker	Original utterances	My translation
1	T	... Sweet song, please give me a red rose I sing this and my sweetest song. A sweet song	
		啊非常美妙的歌曲，美妙的歌声... sweet 可以用来修饰很多东西，所有的吃的都可以用吃的都可以用 sweet 来形容，sweet cake, sweet cake, sweet wine...其它的有很多的表达也可以用 sweet. 比如说：	Oh a very sweet song, sweet song. ... sweet can be used to modify many things, anything edible can be modified by sweet. sweet cake, sweet cake, sweet wine... Many others things can also be expressed by sweet. For example:
		A sweet, have you ever seen any sweet girl? A sweet girl, a sweet girl. 指的是什么呢...实际上说她的性格非常好，她脾气很好... Sweet smile，甜甜的笑声，非常好听的，好甜的...	What does it refer to... In fact it means the girl has good temper, she is good-tempered... sweet smile, sweet smile, sound pleasant, very sweet...
		and a xxx sweet sweet blood. Sweet blood say the girl got a lot of mosquito bites. Got a lot of mosquito bite. I think mosquito likes me because my blood is very sweet.	
		((laughing)) 蚊子喜欢我的血，我的血有香味。	Mosquito likes my blood. My blood is very fragrant.

Table 6.3 Ms Wang's class: explaining the word 'sweet'

Ms Wang first reads the sentence from the text, then paraphrases the sentence under discussion in English before focusing on the word 'sweet'. Ms Wang made a long utterance and many examples chosen are in fact a replication of the two usages of the word sweet: literal and metaphorical meanings. I omit some examples for the convenience of analysis. Ms Wang starts with 'sweet' in the metaphorical sense, which is used in the text 'sweet song' which means pleasant, attractive and excellent. She then gives examples of the use of 'sweet' in different

collocations with sweet in its literal meaning and providing alternative Chinese translations in each case. Another example of sweet in its metaphorical meaning is 'sweet girl'. Ms Wang's last example, 'sweet blood' doesn't correspond with English collocations of 'sweet' but is a commonly used Cantonese expression, in this case articulated in Putonghua. Chinese is used throughout the extract to exemplify and discuss these different meanings of 'sweet'.

The word sweet and the example sentences/expressions were not put down on PowerPoint slides. However, it is most likely that Ms Wang has put notes in the book margin. Both teachers mentioned this practice in the interview data. Unlike the word 'paradox', which is new and infrequently used, the word 'sweet' is a simple and frequently used daily word. After having learnt English for over ten years, students should have already known its literal as well as metaphoric meanings. Due to the characterization of IR, teachers identify every possible language point and expand it.

Ms Wang has prepared some phrases in English that exemplify the use of 'sweet' and she cites these in her discussion of the text; however, her explanation of it is mostly in Chinese. Ms Li has prepared supplementary material on PowerPoint slides and by and large she is citing or paraphrasing this in the second excerpt. The use of English normally relies on such scripts, or near-scripts. Both excerpts suggest one or two bursts of switching from Chinese to English, like 'superficially impossible because it contains two contradictory ideas' from Ms Li's talk and 'A sweet, have you ever seen any sweet girl?' from Ms Wang'. However, the burst is really short compared with the use of Chinese. In Myers-Scotton's terms (1993) Chinese serves mainly as the matrix language for such textual explanation, with English words and phrases slotted into this matrix.

As suggested in the excerpts analysed so far, teachers rely on PowerPoint slides, the pre-fabricated script, heavily. Any departures from such scripts, where teachers extemporise or at least discuss points 'in their own words', are made in Chinese. This practice is associated with this particular teaching context – with factors such as teachers' competence. When scholars argue for L1 use, they assume that teachers' language proficiency is not an issue. Although Butzkamm and Caldwell put it that teachers themselves should be 'reasonably fluent speakers of both the target language and the language of their pupils' (2009:25), in the teaching context, the register is very different from daily English. Considering that both Ms Li and Ms Wang have got their master's degree in the UK, they should be categorized as 'fluent speakers of both the target language and the language of their pupils' but it is not adequate for teachers to switch flexibly particularly when philosophy and meta-language is involved. The following example, where English is used in explanation in place of Chinese by Ms Wang, shows this inadequacy. In Ms Li's classes no such example can be found. The example below occurs in the lesson *Angels on a Pin*. Ms Wang is trying to distinguish two conjunctions 'whether' and 'if'. She asks students to give examples of instances where 'whether' may not be replaced by 'if'.

Turn	Speaker	Original utterances
1	S	Whether Jack comes or not doesn't matter.
2	T	((Writing this sentence on the board)). Doesn't matter. So here so whether can't be replaced by if. Yes? Why is that?
3	Sx	I don't know. We use this kind of pattern in our daily life. I don't know how to explain.
4	T	What is the secret? Secret is. OK, the secret?
5	Sx	You mean if can't match or not?
6	T	That's right.
7	Sx	But if I cross out 'or not'? Cross this phrase, this sentence is also OK, but I still can't replace whether with if, if jack comes doesn't matter. This sentence is still not right. I still have to say whether Jack comes doesn't matter, right?
8	T	Whether Jack comes or not doesn't matter.
9	Sx	'or not' can be crossed out. Whether Jack comes doesn't matter. This sentence is also right?
10	T	En, So you will say if Jack comes or not is not right.
11	Sx	If Jack comes doesn't matter, this sentence, is it right?
12	T	OK, what about that one ((writing on the board)). He didn't know whether he should go or not.
13	Sx	If or not is crossed out here, this sentence is if whether can be replaced by if, that means he didn't know if he should go.
14	T	Enh
15	S	I don't know the reason.
16	T	So you are considering if go or not, then you should use whether instead of if
17	Sx	Yes, most of the time.

Table 6.4 Ms Wang's class: making distinction between 'if' and 'whether'

This extract is unusual both for the large amount of unscripted English and also because a student begins to challenge and question the teacher (turn 3, 7, 9, 11,13). Further details of this class and the students have been elaborated in Chapter 3. Ms Wang insisted that I observe this class because she likes the students' reactions and responses during the class interaction. Several students in this class are particularly dynamic and confident with their English including this

girl who insists on a clear answer or explanation as to why 'Whether Jack comes doesn't matter' is correct. Ms Wang's English here is not effective as she could not provide a satisfying answer to the student and she tries to shy away from this interrogation. Interestingly, after several turns of challenges and avoidances, this impasse finishes with the student's compromise (turn 17) by agreeing with the teacher's point that 'whether should go with or not'. Three points can be drawn from this series of interactions: a) extemporised English is not always effective which can explain why the two teachers rely on Chinese most of the time when they depart from the prepared script; b) explicit metalinguistic knowledge needs Chinese; c) both teachers and students know tacitly that the teachers' authority cannot be shaken. Even if this student has not got the answer requested, she has to stop challenging and agree with the teacher in the end.

6.5.3 The use of Chinese for instruction

Chinese is also used for instructional purposes: to add points to the class when the teachers are allocating the tasks to students. The following example comes towards the end of Ms Li's lesson *Diogenes and Alexander* lesson. Ms Li is setting homework for the students, asking them to prepare questions for discussion. These questions are listed in the textbook as homework.

- Would you dismiss Diogenes' philosophy altogether since it seems to be against progress and civilization? Have you learned anything from this essay?

- Does Diogenes remind you of any ancient Chinese philosopher? Would you like to make a comparison between them?

After reading these questions out in English the teacher switched to Chinese.

Turn	Speaker	Original utterances	My translation
1	T	... 现在想想...可能上网查一下，可能查点什么资料，查一下资料，因为这个其实他的这个思想啊很跟我们，比较生僻一些但它的内涵有比较深远而且其现实这种思想在这种社会风气可以挖掘一下，考虑一下，思考一下，不是简单的读一下故事，这个故事的语言很简单是吧，就读完了，到底是它的意义，就是怎样的含义 要看一下，好。	... Now think about it...You should search online, or you can use some reference books. Although his philosophy is a bit unpopular with us, it is so profound that it can have implications for us particularly in relation to our current ethos. Think about it. The language used in this story is fairly easy. You should not leave it aside after reading it. What's the meaning of it? You should know its hidden meanings, alright.

Table 6.5 Ms Li's class: advising students of new homework assignment

As mentioned in Chapter 5, this text has been considered to be so important that it has been in the English textbook for over two decades. The importance lies in its philosophical ideas. While the focus of the lesson is English language, Ms Li's instruction suggests that learning and applying this philosophy in contemporary society is equally important. Her comment that the language in the text is easy implies here that it is comparatively easy when compared with the philosophy that is embedded in the text. To understand the philosophy, particularly to abstract its implications for the Chinese contemporary society, students need to put in extra effort.

Chinese is used here to explain the tasks to students and to suggest sources they should draw on to prepare the discussion questions.

Similar use of Chinese can also be found in Ms Wang's classes. The following is an abstract from the beginning of the new lesson: Angels on a Pin. After giving the feedback on students' writing which was allocated as their homework from the previous classes, Ms Wang guides students with the new task.

Turn	Speaker	Original utterances	My translation
1	T	…下一次，我要求你们写一篇议论文。议论不是我们中国人的特长。所以下次写的时候你们要小心一点，议论是要求有逻辑性的…	… Next time, I will ask you to write an argument. We Chinese are not good at argumentation. Therefore you need to be careful. Argumentation requires logic…

Table 6.6 Ms Wang's class: advising students of new homework assignment

The new task according to Ms Wang is to write an argument and she draws students' attention to this particular genre as 'we Chinese are not good at argumentation'. Therefore she warns students to be careful about this type of writing, especially its 'logic'. The other use of Chinese which is omitted includes instructing students on the correction of the errors they have made in their English writing.

Unlike the use of Chinese for the medium of instruction which occurs quite frequently during the classes where Chinese is mixed with English, such a lengthy use of Chinese for this function is quite rare. It usually occurs either at the beginning or the end of a class when teachers are allocating homework for students. Due to the importance of homework, the use of Chinese is to give clarity to the task so as to avoid any misunderstanding. Using Chinese in such a manner can again contribute to teachers' and even perhaps students' English language proficiency.

6.5.4 The use of Chinese for affective function

In general, the atmosphere in both teachers' classes is quite solemn. However, jokes, humour and sometimes playful effects were produced due to the switch of code, which was evidenced by Ms Wang in her interview data when she

mentioned that she deliberately used Chinese to make the teaching not so dull. Although Ms Li didn't specifically mention the affective function in her switch, the following extract shows that the switch has achieved an affective effect.

The first example is from Ms Wang's lesson *Angels on a Pin*. It is extracted from the middle of the fourth session when she is doing detailed explanation of this sentence:

From the difference between the two values of 'g' the height of the building can, in principle, be worked out.

Turn	Speaker	Original utterances	My translation
1	T	Then the height can in principle, in principle theoretically,	
		或者是说怎么说,	or what should we say,
		with regard to, with the regard to the basic,	
		…另外一个词语 principal. 不是有这样一个词, principal, al 结尾的,	…another word is principal, there is such a word, right, principal, which ends with al
2	Ss	headmaster	
3	T	Right, 校长, headmaster, 当然, 它可以指什么呢? The most important 埴重要的, principal, 当然了校长肯定是埴重要的了!	Right, principal, headmaster, of course, it can also mean? The most important, the chief one, principal, of course a principal is the most important one at school!
		He is the most important in the school, principal...	

Table 6.7 Ms Wang's class: playing with words in Chinese

This segment of transcript is uttered predominantly by Ms Wang to explain the set phrase 'in principle'. As usual, Ms Wang reads the original sentence first then focuses on the phrase. After the explanation and translation of the phrase, she introduces the homophonic word 'principal'. To highlight the difference, Ms Wang stresses that 'principal ends with al'. But Ms Wang does not stop there. She uses

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a playful way to introduce another meaning, which is 'the most important', when she says in a satirical tone in Chinese, 'of course a headmaster is the most important one in school'. Ms Wang's utterance aligns herself with students by distancing them from the 'principal'. Although inside the classroom, Ms Wang is the most important person, however, the situation will change when they are with the 'principal'. Again, Chinese is used in an extempore manner and English is embedded in the Chinese sentence. When Edstorm reflects her own use of L1, English in her Spanish lessons, she puts that 'I guess that one of the ways I try to connect with students is through humour and just trying to relate on a human level. I seem to rely on English for that' (2006:284). Ms Wang's ironic remarks mark this human level.

Another example of affective function is from Ms Li's lesson, when she switched from Chinese into English to tease the student as he was absent-minded. This extract was from the middle of the third session of the lesson *Diogenes and Alexander* when Ms Li was doing detailed explanation.

Turn	Speaker	Original utterances	My translation
1	T	....Now this time I'd like you to explain this bit 来解释 OK try to explain it in great detail or in any way, you'd like to use [15.0]	explain
		好谁来解释一下？你们说什么？	Who would like to explain? What are you talking about?
		[15.0] Feng tell us your understanding	
2	SF	哪一句？	Which sentence?
3	Ss	((Laughing))	
4	T	This is a cute question. Chen would you please tell him 哪一句？	Which sentence?
5	SC	----	
6	T	陈庆连, 哪一句？他也不知道!	Chengenlian, which sentence? he doesn't know either!
7	Ss	((laughing))	

Table 6.8 Ms Li's class: teasing absent-minded students

As usually, after Ms Li finished reading the sentence from the text she asked students to interpret it and the instruction was made in both Chinese and English. Then she paused for nearly 15 seconds to allow students to prepare. Before she called one student's name, she had noticed that two students were having a private chat, therefore she said in Chinese 'Who would like to explain, what are you talking about?'. By asking the question, she was trying to evoke attention from the inattentive students and get them back to their task. After another 15 seconds pause, she called student Feng and said 'tell us your understanding'. Although the students have been given nearly half a minute to prepare the task still Feng does not know what the task is, therefore he asks 'which sentence' in Chinese. Normally the teacher would feel annoyed and tell the student off, particularly in primary and secondary school. But Ms Li contains herself and teases the student in English:

'This is a cute question'. This is probably because of the way in which the student asks the question 'which sentence' or maybe because the rest of the students have started laughing. It has been observed several times that when the student whose name is called out does not know the task due to a lapse of attention, the rest of the students will laugh. Although the teacher is not happy with this, still she teases the student and her use of the word 'cute' produces the intended effect. Further on Ms Li's switch to Chinese to repeat the student's question '哪一句?' (which sentence) in turn 4 is a playful way of using the same language to mock the student.

The switch and use of the English sentence 'this is a cute question' together with the repetition of the student's question leads students to another 'frame'(Goffman 1974) where teachers and students are equal and can play jokes on each other. Interestingly, she then asks the second student, Chengenlian, to tell Fengming which sentence. Funnily enough Chen does not know which sentence either. This time the teacher switches to Chinese and complains 'he doesn't know either'. This exclamation '他也不知道', he doesn't know either sounds more serious than 'this is a cute question'. The two utterances suggest different attitudes. Fengming has been doing well in his study so his absence of mind is forgivable, as the language, the word and the tone suggests, while Chengenlian is comparatively weak in his study therefore he should pay more attention in class. The switch from 'this is a cute question' in English to 'he doesn't know either' in Chinese is a sharp contrast. The latter shows the teacher's frustration and the use of Chinese can serve to express strong feelings. In Canagarajah's study, he observes that when teachers were disappointed with students they chose Tamil, as Tamil has come to be symbolically associated with advice, admonitions and moralising since this is the preferred code for these purposes by authority figures in the community (1995:

183). Putonghua, which is the shared L1 by teachers and students, has a similar status in China. Therefore this switch reinforces the teacher's authority and its seriousness. In the end it was Fengming who did the interpretation of the text after he realized what the task was.

6.6 Conclusion

The result of data analysis of teachers' use of Chinese is in line with other empirical studies (Kim & Elder 2005; Van Der & Zhao 2010) which suggest that teachers generally use L1 more frequently than the TL to perform pedagogical functions. Close scrutiny of the teachers' use of Chinese reveals different functions: framing; as a pedagogical device for teaching translation; simplifying explanations; issuing instructions; and for an affective function. The lesson transcriptions suggest that very few lengthy English utterances occur in teachers' talk. The example extracted for analysis in table 6.4, where English is used for explanatory purposes reveals that the teacher's command of English is not sufficient to convey her ideas.

Based on the analysis in this chapter, several disparities can be identified between what is required by the New Curriculum, what is expected by students, and teachers' claims of L1 use vs its actual use:

- The recommanded purpose of using L1 to enhance metalinguistic awareness vs its actual use, i.e. returning to a traditional teaching method, as evidenced by many of the excerpts analyzed in this chapter.

- The low level of L1 usage claimed by the teachers, i.e. just 5% by Ms Li, even less by Ms Wang, contrasts markedly with the higher level actually used.

- Teachers' excessive use of L1 vs students' expectations of judicious use of L1, i.e. using L1 in the right place at the right time.

Teachers' excessive use of L1 can be attributed to the following factors:

1. Textbook-oriented pedagogy

The two teachers have sufficient confidence to use English in daily conversation. However, the teaching content of the textbook is far more complicated than everyday speech. The topics of the lessons range from culture to philosophy, to literature and other wide ranging subjects, thus a much broader and deeper knowledge is needed to mediate the contents within the Chinese culture of teaching and learning. PowerPoint slides designed by the teachers have become an essential teaching aid. However, due to the nature of knowledge-oriented teaching, these same slides present teachers with even more difficult English as they struggle to explain background knowledge or vocabulary. In a text and knowledge-oriented teaching context, teachers' use of Chinese ensures accurate knowledge and thus safeguards their authority.

2. Teachers' English proficiency

The lesson transcripts do show examples of extempore use of English, but they are relatively rare and most departures from the 'script' are in Chinese, suggesting that teachers continue to rely on L1 as a medium of instruction.

3. Students' English proficiency

As noted in Chapter 3, students at the university come from all over China and an unbalanced education system ensures that their English abilities vary dramatically. Even if teachers had the proficiency to apply 'English only' instruction, it might not

be acceptable or practical for all students, particularly when topics like philosophy are involved.

4. Teachers' lack of awareness

The interview data from the teachers suggests that they do not have a proper awareness of their L1 use. Their claim of a low 5% usage can only reflect their best intention. However, lack of research and even self-reflection deprives them of a clear view on their own practices. This resonates with Liu's study when he notes that:

> On the whole, however, there seems to be a lack of awareness on the part of Chinese teachers as to how, when and the extent to which they actually code switch in their English teaching practice (2003).

In the ELT arena in China as a whole it is the juggernaut of English only that is valued (which is reflected in the curriculum and interview data). Due to students' high expectations of English learning, 'English only' as a medium in China must remain desirable but in reality unattainable. Sharing the same L1 as their students allows teachers to retreat to it unconsciously as a last resort. In the ELT context in China both the quality and quantity of L1 use deserves a systemic study in order to provide a conducive English learning environment to students.

This chapter has continued to answer the question 'how is English taught' by looking at how L1 is used by the two teachers within the English classroom. Broadly the discourse produced by teacher and student interaction when textbooks and PowerPoint slides are used is consistent with what has been analysed in Chapter 5. All the excerpts in this chapter indicate that teachers are messengers transmitting the knowledge that is to be found in the textbooks and on the PowerPoint slides. 'Monologic recitation' is the prevailing means of instruction. Student participation is minimal, though there is a small exception in excerpt 6.4

where a student challenged Ms Wang on the explanation of the differences between 'if' and 'whether' before being stifled by Ms Wang imposing her ideas. Again these excerpts reflect monologism in the extreme. Broadly, the discrepancies between the curriculum and teacher's practices can be identified as follows:

- Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) together with students' creative and critical thinking vs students' minimal participation

- Target language use vs L1 as a medium of instruction.

Using the analyses from Chapter 4 (how textbooks and PowerPoint slides are used), Chapter 5 (how PowerPoint slides are used to mediate knowledge from texts) and this chapter (how L1 is used by the teachers when delivering knowledge from textbooks and slides), I will weave the themes of the thesis together in Chapter 7 to make suggestions on how English teachers, practitioners, researchers and policy makers might improve ELT at university-level in China.

Chapter 7 Conclusions

7.1 Introduction

The main objective of this chapter is to weave together the central arguments developed in this study and to discuss their implications. To begin, I will follow the line of data analysis in Chapters 4, 5 and 6, where I point out the disparities between the New Curriculum and teachers' actual practices by investigating the tertiary English language curriculum in China and its delivery. Based on the findings in each of the chapters, I will then draw out implications for the stakeholders who are involved in English Language Teaching (ELT) in China, namely teachers, teacher educators, material developers, and policy makers. Limitations of this study and suggestions for future research will be elaborated. Finally I point to some of the contributions this study makes to ELT and to applied linguistics.

7.2 A summary of this study

Focusing on the tertiary English language teaching curriculum in China and its delivery, this study has investigated some of the practices evident in intensive reading (IR) classrooms, looking closely at the teaching resources, i.e. textbooks and PowerPoint slides, and classroom teaching practices. I have suggested that English teaching is dominated by textbooks and PowerPoint slides and that 'transmitting knowledge' from the two resources is the predominant teaching activity inside the classroom. The textbook and PowerPoint slides provide the teachers with a script with which they are comfortable, and content to adhere to. If they need to deviate from the script, they rely heavily on the mother tongue they share with their students. Although the purpose of using PowerPoint slides, introduced as a consequence of new educational technology, is to encourage

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changes in teaching methods, of the kind required by the New Curriculum, they in fact perpetuate traditional teaching methods because of their dated content (based on the textbook) and the way knowledge is delivered. Both the teaching sources (textbooks and PowerPoint slides) and teaching styles adopted in the classroom are in conflict with the New Curriculum that emphasizes Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), and student-centredness. Furthermore, they are also in conflict with students' expectations of more connection with the real world, native-like English proficiency and more involvement. The discrepancies between principles of the New Curriculum and classroom practices evident in my data analysis in Chapters 4, 5.and 6 are summarised in table 7.1:

Focus of analysis	Curriculum principles	Classroom practice
Patterns of use of textbooks and PowerPoint slides	1. Students should be exposed to wide range of genres. 2. Topics covered should be of contemporary interest. 3. The use of ICT can transform teaching and learning styles.	Textbooks include mainly literary texts. Topics are relatively dated. The use of ICT perpetuates traditional teaching methods.
Teachers' use of PowerPoint slides to mediate knowledge from textbooks	1. There is an emphasis on CLT, TBLT, Student-centredness. 2. Teaching should focus on language 'use' (Widdowson 1978).	Teachers tend to dominate the interaction and students' voices are silenced Teaching focuses on 'usage' (Widdowson 1978)
Teachers' use of L1	1. English should be used as the medium of instruction so as to create an effective English learning environment.	L1 is the dominant language used by teachers as the medium of instruction.

Table 7.1 Summary of this study

Central to the disparity between the New Curriculum and teachers' classroom practice is how the students are positioned. In the New Curriculum, student-

centredness is referred to frequently so in the interviews I asked questions related to student-centredness. Since Chapters 4, 5 and 6 on data analysis do not involve this topic explicitly therefore I will use this broad concept, i.e. student-centredness as a way of drawing together the early findings and highlight the disparity between the New Curriculum and teachers' practice on as well as the disparity between teachers and students' views of the point of student-centredness through interview data in the following section.

7.2.1 Teachers' comments on student-centredness

My question for the teachers was: As well as task-based language teaching, the New Curriculum stresses that traditional teacher-centred methods should be replaced by a more student-centred approach. Could you please make some comments on the two points? (The original question was in Chinese)

The following is my translation of the teachers' responses to this question.

Ms Li: My understanding of student-centredness is studying-centredness. Well I think whatever methods we adopt need to be suitable for our situation. I guess the situation in China won't allow us to adopt student-centredness completely. If more time were allotted for students to practise instead of just accumulating knowledge, my concern would be that students would by and large speak in an identical fashion or perhaps ultimately would have nothing to say. What a teacher does should be driven by 'studying' (xue 学) and further by 'students' (xuesheng 学生). But student-centredness should not be a format, which will lead to teachers idling about. Teachers should take the lead and explain. If teachers do not explain, students will grope in the dark and take a lot more time to approach the goal. That is most probably the

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reason why we need schools and education. Knowledge needs to be summarized and synthesized before passing on to students.

Ms Wang's answer to this question is brief. Again the following is my translation.

Ms Wang: I actually do not want to polarize these two approaches. I need a combination of the two. Also I know I should not think too much of the approaches when I am giving the lessons. I know it is important to foster student-centredness and I am trying my best to integrate it into my teaching. I only hope students can be aware of my intention.

The two teachers' answers to this question suggest a misunderstanding or a reinterpretation of the terminology 'student-centredness' based on their own practice and experience. Ms Li shifts the focus from 'students' to 'studying'. The word 'student' in Chinese is '学生' xuesheng and 'studying' is '学习' xuexi. They share the same root, '学' xue, which on its own can mean study. Therefore Ms Li emphasized the word 'xue'. This represents a radical shift in meaning in the belief that her styles of teaching are the most suitable ones for Chinese students. Ms Li's belief in 'studying centredness' has informed her teaching practice, but her belief that her style is the most suitable one is not shared with students, as is reflected in the students' interview data. Ms Wang, on the other hand, believes she has already adopted a student-centredness approach, which is not consistent with her practice. As is analysed in Chapters 5 and 6 where Ms Wang also applies a more traditional approach in her teaching and there are not many differences between the two teachers classroom practice although they seem to have different beliefs.

The two teachers' answers to this question yet again reveal that they do not seem to understand or accept in Ms Li's case the theories that guide the New Curriculum, i.e. the underlying philosophy of CLT, TBLT and student-centredness.

7.2.2 Students' comments on student-centredness

The questions posed to the students were: Are you familiar with the concept of student-centredness? Do you like activities such as group discussion, role play? Why? (The original questions, and the students' answers, were in Chinese)

Students' answers suggest that they may not be familiar with the concept of 'student-centredness', but most of them appreciate the opportunities to do group and pair work in the Listening and Speaking module. The following responses are representative (again this is my translation).

Zhang: I generally like the student-student talk. I can get the chance to practise, I can have a deep impression after I have used English and therefore I can remember expressions.

Cheng: I don't like the fact that the teacher dominates the whole talk during the lessons. A teacher should really be a facilitator who gets students involved rather than conducts the talk all the time. We students need opportunities to practise.

Pang: My purpose in learning English is to use it. If you can't use it you are not a good learner. I like group work or other discussion, there we can exchange ideas and we can get a better understanding of the text. I know we argue sometimes, but it is a way to increase our understanding of each other. What the teacher has taught us is just something static and lifeless. We can only make it alive by using it. Therefore we need the chance to use English. Only if I start to use it does it become mine.

Like students Zhang, Cheng and Pang who emphasise the participation in discussion, another student, Feng places more important on the topic.

Feng: As a matter of fact, I don't always like the group discussion. Sometimes

the topics are so tedious. Maybe girls like the topics but we boys feel it

is not suitable and talk about something else. I like topics for boys and

the topics should be challenging. I don't like the texts from the textbook

and I like topics closer to our life. I spend a lot of time reading English

newspapers and find it quite interesting. I know that to learn English is to

use it. If I read newspapers on the American election, then I know how

to use the sentences in real life.

Although only student Feng pointed out the issue of topics of discussion, however,

his point is very thought-provoking when he suggests that the topic for discussion

is also important. He argues that students need tasks that can trigger involvement

and discussion.

The students' opinions are consistent with those they articulated in the interview

questions in Chapters 4, 5, where students' position in the classroom interaction is

discussed implicitly: students hope teachers to be flexible in terms of teaching

content and methods (Chapter 4); students hope the teachers guide them to

search relevant information and in the classroom it should be students who share

it with their peers rather than teachers do it for them; they also express that they

would welcome more opportunities to put what they have learnt to use (Chapter 5).

7.3 Implications for teachers, teacher educators, material developers and
policy makers

To sum up all the findings in this study, it reveals that not only are there disparities

between the New Curriculum and teachers' practice, but also between teachers'

and students' beliefs, perceptions and comments on what counts as good teaching

practice and what roles each party should play in the process of teaching and

learning.

In this section, I set out some implications of the findings in this study for English teachers, teacher educators, material developers and policy makers.

7.3.1 Implications for teachers

In a classroom setting no teaching can be conducted without students' participation. Therefore, when suggestions are made to teachers, the needs of the students should be taken into account. Student interview data reveals that they are not happy with their roles or the position they are placed in with regard to classroom interaction. They project a different image from that portrayed in much of the literature about Chinese students, which depicts them as reticent and obedient (Bond 1991; Anderson 1993; Campball and Zhao 1993; Tang and Biggs 1996; Zou 1998; Hu 2002a, 2002b; H. Wang 2008). The students I interviewed long for more involvement. They are not happy with being treated as recipients. Students' expectations of more involvement so as to make what they have learnt 'alive' can perhaps be attributed to China's engagement in world affairs and the market need. As revealed by the interview data, they know from their predecessors what is expected from them, and what levels of English are required if they wish to secure a decent career. Furthermore, students now have more media channels with which to access English: for instance, the use of the internet and English TV programmes from Hong Kong. It is not uncommon for some students' oral English to be more fluent than their teachers'. All these factors pose challenges to teachers and changes seem to be inevitable if teachers wish to satisfy their students' demands.

Jin and Cortazzi note that in China

> Recently, this culture of learning has been changing, partly as a result
> of general social and economic developments and partly under the

influence of communicative approaches to language learning (1998:102).

It is perhaps difficult to pin down what exactly has triggered the changes to the learning culture in China. However it requires a corresponding change to the teaching culture if students' learning is to progress. If teachers were to take heed of the students' wishes for more involvement, acquiring 'native-like' English and engaging in more up-to-date topics, they would need to change their practices in the following three areas:

1. Pedagogy

Both teachers in this study are using Western methodology but in their own way. Ms Li, for example, while rejecting the CLT approach, embraces the student-centredness concept, although her understanding of 'student-centredness' is 'studying-centredness' -- indicating a very significant appropriation of the concept and adaptation of it to more traditional Chinese ideas. Ms Wang believes she has already adopted CLT and a student-centred approach. However, the data analysis in Chapters 4-6 reveals a more traditional approach when knowledge from the textbooks and PowerPoint slides is delivered. Teachers are seen as the authority in the classroom and knowledge from textbooks and PowerPoint slides is canonical. The current classroom practice of both teachers suggests that students are considered as empty vessels instead of being treated as people who comes into the classroom with their own perceptual frameworks and learning strategies and expectations. Richards and Rogers remark that to stress learner-centredness is to acknowledge

> (That) learners bring different learning styles and preferences to the
> learning process, that they should be consulted in the process of

developing a teaching programme, and that teaching methods must be flexible and adaptive to learners' needs and interest' (2001:247).

A 'student-centred' approach suggests that students should be encouraged to decide and participate in the classroom activities. To consult with students in the teaching process is an important step to move away from the traditional methods. Some students I interviewed, for example, suggest that teachers could perhaps direct students to English websites and leave the task of information gathering to them. And during classes, it should be students who share their information with each other rather than the teachers being the sole owner of the knowledge to be poured into the students' empty vessels. Students' wishes to do some tasks that are now being done by teachers suggest that they no longer see teachers as an embodiment of knowledge and instead hope to take the initiative in classroom activities. In line with these changed expectations, teachers would need to consider not being just a 'messenger' (Scollon 1999) but also a facilitator whose work is to foster effective learning.

If students' expectations is taking on board, it would involve changes of both the principles of teaching and views of language. Widdowson, for instance, summarizes the shift in views of language over recent years from the 'medium' to the 'mediation' and argues that students should change their roles of being 'recipients' to 'agents' (1990:121). These changes can be actualized by changing the discourse pattern. Practice which 'embodies the status quo' (van Lier 2001:96), should be displaced or replaced by dialogic discourse, where 'one might expect interaction to be multi-voiced, versatile and playful with the 'authority' of generic forms' (Haworth 1999:101). The nature of 'internally persuasive discourse', i.e. not finite and open, determines that it can provide a space for students to respond by 'accommodating and frequently intermingling teacher-student voices'

(Nystrand 1997:18). Therefore it is indispensible in a language teaching classroom where CLT or TBLT and student-centredness need to be applied.

To move away from the traditional method to a more student-centred approach does not mean that students do not need direct interaction with teachers. Students would still need explicit guidance, lectures and explanation of rules of grammar and vocabulary, i.e. form-focused teaching (Widdowson 1978; Cook 2000, 2004, 2010) is a necessary part of language teaching. Therefore, teachers in China, as elsewhere, would need to strike a balance between lectures and students' involvement.

2. Textbooks and PowerPoint slides

Textbooks should be used as a springboard for both teachers' and students to explore what they are interested in rather than as the only source of knowledge. During the interview, one student reflected that he read English news online about the American general election and was able to use the English learnt there when similar topics were raised during discussion with his peers. This again suggests the channel of English learning should not be confined to textbooks. Teachers should facilitate student exploration of a broader source of English with different topics and different genres to improve their overall English proficiency. The internet, English websites, films and topics related to popular culture and current issues should be explored as a complement to teaching materials. It is important that both teachers and students are comfortable with the material so both parties can be fully involved during the classroom interaction.

PowerPoint slides should not be viewed as the only product of educational technology nor should they be regarded as an extension of textbooks or teachers' authority as is analysed in Chapter 5. They should be truly used as an aid to change teaching practices as expected in the New Curriculum. However, this

change can not occur by merely applying the technology. It has to occur alongside the changes of teachers' beliefs in, and attitudes towards, principles of what counts as efficient teaching strategies. A lot of education and training is needed as to how to use the new technology to foster teaching efficiency rather than perpetuate traditional methods.

3. The use of L1

Teachers' use of L1 in English classes is inevitable and sometimes even advisable due to the functions this may serve, outlined in Chapter 6. However, my analysis of classroom practices in Chapter 6 demonstrated that excessive use of L1 may jeopardize the English learning environment, i.e. it is not English but Putonghua that is used as a medium of instruction and over half of teachers' talk is in Putonghua. Therefore, teachers should be aware of the frequency and reasons for their L1 use, and adopt this judiciously. Two significant factors that contribute to the use of L1 are the inappropriate texts in the textbooks and a teaching focus that is too knowledge driven. So a change of teaching materials, and the shift of focus from knowledge to language in use, could perhaps change the proportion of L1 use. From the teacher's perspective, if the language level in the materials were more appropriate, then they would be able to manipulate the target language more freely and thus reduce the level of L1 use. Students too would also be more likely to become involved if the topics and language level were geared to them. Reducing L1 and increasing target language use is an effective way of improving English language teaching and learning (Atkinson 1987; Van Der & Zhao 2010). Butzkamm &Caldwell, despite their general advocacy of L1 use, express this point by saying that 'a language teaches itself' (2009:25), by which they mean one can learn the language through using the language.

7.3.2 Implications for teacher educators

Many factors contribute to the disparities between the requirements of the New Curriculum and teachers' practice. In order to implement the New Curriculum and to improve classroom practice teacher educators should consider the following:

1. Introduce applied linguistics courses to both in-service and prospective teachers

As documented in Chapter 2, there are few in-service teacher training programmes available in China. Even for prospective teachers, courses on applied linguistics and teaching methodology are not always available. To be able to change their practices in the ways stipulated by the New Curriculum, teachers first need to understand the theories of language and pedagogy that underpin CLT and TBLT, and the roles of teachers and students in teaching and learning. The two teachers I observed had never attended any course or training related to the implementation of the New Curriculum, nor had they received any formal training relating to the use of textbooks. The interview data suggests that teachers have misconceptions of the real meaning of CLT, TBLT and student-centredness, and are ignorant of debates about them, despite being familiar with the terminology.

Richards and Rogers note that:

> Curriculum changes are of many kinds. They may affect teachers' pedagogical values and beliefs, their understanding of the nature of language or second language learning, or their classroom practices and uses of teaching materials (2001:246).

Lack of education and training in the New Curriculum has resulted in none of the changes required by it (i.e. new pedagogical values and beliefs, classroom practices and teaching materials) being realised in the classroom I observed.

Widdowson argues that 'Teacher education provides for the initiative of invention whereby actuality can be variously interpreted and changed.... It means only that ideas both given and new will be subjected to scrutiny and not simply accepted on trust' (1990:62). Had the teachers been provided with information and training on what is given and what is new then they would be better equipped to show the required initiative and make informed decisions on what to teach and how to teach it.

2. Enabling teachers to carry out research

As reviewed in Chapter 2, a significant number of tertiary English teachers in China have not received any formal training on doing research, and as a consequence have no experience of conducting or writing up research. Worse still, teachers have access to very few academic research articles and are deprived of cutting-edge knowledge and debates on ELT and English learning. As a result they have to strategically follow what they are most familiar with. The undertaking of research is an important aspect of teacher development, but a serious lack of resources and time hampers teachers from doing pedagogical research. This is a challenge to teacher educators in China, who need to seek out opportunities for research and help teachers identify any practical problems, or as Widdowson puts it, 'what issues are from her/his point of view in need of clarification and resolution' (1990:66), and then give guidance to teachers to actively undertake research. For example, during the interview, Ms Wang showed scepticism about the use of PowerPoint and remarked that this 'is truly a topic worth exploring'. If teacher research focuses on problems they themselves identify, it enables teachers to reflect on their own practice, and thereby develop theories of language learning and teaching that are relevant to their own classroom contexts. Doing action research in this way would lead to teachers improving their own teaching practice.

3. Applying new educational technology

The purpose of adopting new educational technology is to change classroom practice and teaching methodology as is specified in the New Curriculum. PowerPoint slides, adopted as part of this new technology, should not be seen as a continuation or extension of the textbook or teachers' authority. Care should be taken to ensure their design provides prompts that trigger discussion amongst students and teachers. PowerPoint Slides should encourage students to explore relevant topics that interest them rather than acting as an authoritative source for both teachers and students to follow. However, changes will not happen until the perceptions of teaching and learning, and the roles teachers and students play inside the classroom, change. Therefore training in the use of new technology should be included as part of the training covering the implementation of the New Curriculum and teaching methodology.

4. Improving teachers' language proficiency

Even though English enjoys a special status in China, as highlighted in Chapter 1, it is still a foreign language. Consequently there are limited opportunities to use English in daily life, apart from in places like international companies and tourist resorts in cosmopolitan cities. Even English teachers feel that their English level starts to deteriorate once they start work. If the current English language teaching situation in China is to improve then any future courses designed for in-service and prospective teachers must also provide them with clear opportunities to improve their English proficiency through the subject matter. Social networking could perhaps also be encouraged and used by teachers to create opportunities to improve their English and share their experiences.

7.3.3 Implications for material developers

The current textbooks do not espouse the methodology advocated in the New Curriculum. The content is too literature driven, the language archaic and often well above students' and teachers' levels, as shown in the data analysis chapters. New textbooks that espouse the advocated methodology, i.e. CLT, TBLT and student-centredness, with more up-to-date topics that can involve both teachers and students, should be introduced. Perhaps the scholars who designed the New Curriculum understand the theories underpinning CLT and TBLT, but the textbooks fail to deliver that knowledge to the teachers. Nor do they 'embody the curriculum' or 'espouse the methodology' as scholars such as Richards (1998) and Hutchinson and Torres (1994) argue they should. For example, 'tasks' are needed to implement TBLT, but in the textbooks there is no piece of work that can be characterized as a 'task', in any of the senses surveyed and explained by, for example, Samuda and Bygate (2008). What we find are only 'exercises'. Considering the fact that English teachers in China are generally lacking in opportunities to attend teacher training programmes, textbooks, as one of the media for implementing the New Curriculum, should fill this gap. This requires that material developers in general and textbooks editors in particular should themselves understand the philosophy that underpins the curriculum. Additionally they should make clear how certain content should be taught, what kind of activities should be carried out and what learning outcome is expected.

The content in the textbooks is one aspect that can affect the pedagogy but ultimately, the pedagogy applied inside the classroom is decided by teachers' attitudes as well as their beliefs, principles and experiences of certain methods. However, data analysis reveals another factor that impedes teachers from implementing the advocated methodology, namely their own language proficiency. Much of the ELT methodology has been developed in countries where teachers'

language proficiency is not an issue, e.g. CLT originated and was developed in the UK and USA. The linguistic environment in China, where English is not an official language, is not conducive to keeping teachers' English skills at an optimum level. Thus, material developers should take teachers' language proficiency into account when they compile teaching materials and textbooks, thus enabling the teachers to be more able to implement the methodology the textbooks espouse. They should also guide teachers towards other relevant sources to widen the range of teaching materials. The material should also have other functions, for example, to help teachers improve their skills and to create chances for teachers and students to learn jointly.

7.3.4 Implications for policy makers

Arguably the design of new curricula is intended to meet a social need, and it is understandable that policy makers should be sensitive to what is happening in the global ELT domain. However, this does not mean that they should simply copy or follow the trend. Any policy made should be practical and applicable locally. Further policies made for ELT in China should perhaps also take the following aspects into account:

1. Students

As has been pointed out in Chapter 2, the New Curriculum has set the bar too high in terms of the level of English proficiency expected from students. For most students the level is simply unattainable. This implies that policy makers need to have knowledge of what level students can be expected to achieve before entering tertiary education, and then set a realistic goal for them. Another element that policy makers have to bear in mind is the uneven educational levels in China. For this reason any future policy should perhaps set different levels according to different student starting points.

2. Teachers

The *New Curriculum has prescribed the teaching* methodology for teachers to apply. However, this curriculum can never be fully *implemented, as shown in the* data analysis chapters, because a) teachers' are unaware of the theory that underpins the curriculum and b) their English proficiency hampers them in implementing it. Therefore, any future curricula should take into account the teachers' level of English, their education and what kind of support they have available to them. Greater efforts should be made to explore a pedagogy that can be realistically implemented in China.

7.4 Limitations in this study and suggestions for future research

As I prepare to finish this thesis, I am now able to reflect on my research journey and identify some limitations in this study. These limitations lead me to offer some suggestions for any future research.

As mentioned in Chapter 3, I considered making video rather than audio recordings when I gathered classroom data, but unfortunately the teachers involved rejected this idea. The audio recordings I made were relatively unobtrusive and arguably had less effect on the interaction that video recordings would have had. However future research on classroom interaction may consider having video recordings as supplements and thus could have analysed the data from additional perspectives.

As discussed in Chapter 3, this research is to present an in-depth understanding of the current ELT at tertiary level in China. Therefore my data was collected at one university. Further study on ELT in China can perhaps gathered data from several universities in order to compare how the New Curriculum is implemented in each university.

Since this study is about the tertiary English language curriculum and its delivery, the data would have been richer had I the chance to interview the policy makers who designed the curriculum and the textbook composers. Anyone doing further research on the curriculum should consider interviewing these stakeholders to have an insight into the principles and beliefs that guide their decisions.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, the number of expatriate English teachers in China is increasing. At the tertiary level, within the Specialist College English Course (SCEC), these teachers are usually in charge of the listening and speaking course. To date there has been no study of the impact that expatriate English teachers have on English teaching and learning in China. This is a topic that is truly worth investigating.

In the interview data, I asked both teachers and students about student-centredness. When students answered this question they mentioned 'group work' and 'pair work' as activities they enjoyed. In the two teachers' classes there are a few occasions when students can interact amongst themselves, but the topics being discussed are too academic and not likely to enthuse the students. For instance, in Ms Li's class, the topic is 'Does Diogenes remind you of any ancient Chinese philosopher? Would you like to make a comparison between them?' This kind of subject matter is very unlikely to trigger long utterances and animated conversation, due to the students' limited knowledge of philosophers and philosophy, and the complex language skills needed to make meaningful comments. Anyone who embarks on research into ELT in China in the future should perhaps seek or create opportunities to examine student-student interactions. This would provide an interesting insight into how far students can actually go and what they can achieve during the interactions.

Unlike secondary school students in China who need to sit the competitive National Matriculation Test (NMT), university students in China enjoy comparatively more freedom to choose what to do in their free time. It is now very common for English majors to have many extra-curriculum activities to practise their English, for example, English corner, English bar, English speaking contests and English parties. Future research could focus on what students achieve through these activities and what impact they have on the more formal teaching and learning methods.

7.5 Contribution of this study

This study of the tertiary English language curriculum in China and its delivery, investigating what is taught and how English is taught, has provided an insight into what is happening inside the classroom and the complex influences upon this. It contributes to ELT and applied linguists in the following three domains:

1. The detailed analysis of teachers' use of textbooks, their use of PowerPoint slides to mediate texts, and their use of the shared L1, has filled a gap in the international ELT literature, by providing an empirical study from China.

2. The existing literature, e.g. Hu (2002b); Maley (1990); Wu (2001) attributes the prevailing English language teaching and learning styles predominantly to aspects of Chinese culture and Chinese ideology which are at odds with Western methodology. My study suggests a more complex picture with regard to the factors that contribute to the teaching and learning styles. Teachers' lack of knowledge of the theories of language, of methodology, of pedagogy, of the roles teachers and students play in the process of teaching and learning, their lack of resources for ELT research and their inadequate English proficiency, contribute to their maintenance of the status

quo. However, the status quo is now being challenged by students who wish to have a higher command of English to meet the market demands.

3. The study contributes to the applied linguistic understanding of cross cultural phenomena in English language teaching, by showing how Western methodologies like CLT, TBLT and student-centredness, developed in countries whose situation is very different to China, have been transferred into different styles in the Chinese contexts.

7.6 Concluding remarks

This thesis, has reviewed the development of the SCEC and how it is actually realised in a specific context. A review of the teaching methodology and the most recent curriculum suggests that China tends to follow the West in the ELT domain. However, classroom data analysis reveals several disparities between the New Curriculum and teachers' practice, which implies that this borrowing of Western methods will not always work in a Chinese context. During the interviews, students voiced their wishes for a change from the traditional method to a more student-centred approach so that they can have a good command of English to meet the market needs. Their demands pose great challenges to their teachers and change would seem to be inevitable. However, there seems to be a long way to go before that change can actually happen. I hope this thesis can make teachers, policy makers, curriculum designers and material developers reflect on what has gone before and what needs be done in the future to make the innovation possible.

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Appendices

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Informed Consent Letter

You are invited to participate in a research study that is looking into English language teaching in China.

Your participation is entirely voluntary and to help you decide whether or not to take part, the details of the study are outlined below.

The purpose of the study is to investigate the tertiary English language curriculum in China and its delivery.

Participants in the study will be observed during class sessions and also interviewed, either individually or in small groups.

Your identity will not be revealed in any publications that result from this study. The information in the study will be kept strictly confidential.

The potential benefits to you from participation in this study are:

a) You will have opportunity to reflect on your teaching and learning experiences.

b) You will be contributing to our knowledge about the relationship between the new curriculum and teachers' practices at university English classes so as to improve English teaching and learning.

There are no known risks to you in the study. Participation is voluntary. You may choose not to participate and you may withdraw at any time during the study. You may also choose not to answer any questions with which you are uncomfortable.

If you have any questions or concerns at any time about the study, you are welcome to contact the researcher by emailing S.cai@open.ac.uk

Name of project

> The tertiary language curriculum and its delivery: a critical study

Agreement to Participate

I,

agree to take part in this research project.

I have had the purposes of the research project explained to me.

I have been informed that I may refuse to participate at any point by simply saying so.

I have been assured that my confidentiality will be protected as outlined in the letter.

I agree that the information that I provide can be used for educational or research purposes, including publication.

I understand that if I have any concerns or difficulties I can contact:

Guozhi Cai	at	Level 3, Stuart Hall Building The Open University Walton Hall Milton Keynes Mk7 6AA Tel: +44 1908 659849

If I wish to complain about any aspect of my participation in this project, I can contact the supervisor

Professor Guy Cook	at	Level 3, Stuart Hall Building The Open University Walton Hall Milton Keynes Mk7 6AA Tel: +44 1908 653393

I assign the copyright for my contribution to the Faculty for use in education, research and publication.

Signed: _____ Date: _____

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Lesson Five

Text A Angels on a Pin

Alexander Calandra

I

(Read the text once for the main idea. Do not refer to the notes, dictionaries or the glossary yet.)

Some time ago, I received a call from Jim, a colleague of mine, who teaches physics. He asked me if I would do him a favor and be the referee on the grading of an examination question. I said sure, but I did not quite understand why he should need my help. He told me that he was about to give a student a zero for his answer to a physics question, but the student protested that it wasn't fair. He insisted that he deserved a perfect score if the system were not set up against the student. Finally, they agreed to take the matter to an impartial instructor. And I was selected.

I went to my colleague's office and read the examination question. It said: "Show how it is possible to determine the height of a tall building with the aid of a barometer." The student had answered: "Take the barometer to the top of the building, tie a long rope to it, lower the barometer to the street, and then bring it up and measure the length of the rope. The length of the rope will be the height of the building."

I laughed and pointed out to my colleague that we must admit the student really had a pretty strong case for full credit since he had indeed answered the question completely and correctly. On the other hand, I could also see the dilemma because if full credit were given to him it could mean a high grade for the student in his physics course. A high grade is supposed to prove competence in the course, but the answer he gave did not show his knowledge on the subject. "So, what would you do if you were me?" Jim asked. I suggested that the student have another try at answering the question. I was not surprised that my colleague agreed, but I was surprised that the student did, too.

I told the student that I would give him six minutes to answer the question. But I warned him that this time his answer should show some knowledge of physics. He sat down and picked up his pen. He appeared to be thinking hard. At the end of five

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minutes, however, I noticed that he had not put down a single word. I asked him if he wished to give up, but he said no. He had not written anything down because he had too many possible answers to this problem. He was just trying to decide which would be the best one. I excused myself for interrupting him and asked him to go on. In the next minute, he dashed off his answer, which read: "Take the barometer to the top of the building and lean over the edge of the roof. Drop the barometer and time its fall with a stopwatch. Then, using the formula $S = 1/2\ at^2$, calculate the height of the building."

At this point, I asked my colleague if he would give up. He nodded yes, and I gave the student almost full credit.

When I left my colleague's office, I recalled that the student had said that he had other answers to the problem. I was curious, so I asked him what they were. "Oh, yes," said the student. "There are many ways of getting the height of a tall building with the aid of a barometer. For example, you could take the barometer out in a sunny day and measure the height of the barometer, the length of its shadow, and the length of the shadow of the building, and by the use of a simple proportion, determine the height of the building. The beauty of this method is that you don't have to drop the barometer and break it."

"Fine," I said. "Any more?"

"Yes," said the student. "There is a very basic measurement method that people will like, because it is so simple and direct. In this method, you take the barometer and walk up the stairs. As you climb the stairs, you mark off the length of the barometer along the wall. You then count the number of marks, and this will give you the height of the building in barometer units. The only trouble with this method is that it doesn't require much knowledge of physics."

"Of course, if you prefer a more sophisticated method, a method that will really show some knowledge of physics, you can tie the barometer to the end of a rope, swing it as a pendulum and determine the value of 'g' at the street level and at the top of the building. From the difference between the two values of 'g' the height of the building can, in principle, be worked out."

Finally, he concluded that while there are many ways of solving the problem, "Probably the best and the most practical in a real-life situation is to take the barometer to the basement and knock on the superintendent's door. When the superintendent answers, you speak to him as follows: Mr. Superintendent, I have here a fine barometer. If you will tell me the height of this building, I will gladly give you this barometer!"

At this point, I asked the student if he really didn't know the expected answer to this question. He smiled and admitted that he did, but said he was fed up with standard answers to standard questions. He couldn't understand why there should be so much emphasis on fixed rules rather than on creative thinking. So he could not resist the

temptation to play a little joke on the educational system, which had been thrown into such a panic by the successful launching of the Russian Sputnik.

At that moment I suddenly remembered the question: How many angels can dance on the head of a pin? We teachers are always blaming the students for giving wrong answers. Perhaps we should ask ourselves whether we are always asking the right questions.

Notes to the Text

1. About the author and the text:

   Alexander Calandra is now Professor Emeritus (retired professor) of Physical Sciences at Washington University in St. Louis, Missouri. The present text is adapted from "Angels on the Head of a Pin: A Modern Parable" which first appeared in *Saturday Review*, Dec. 21, 1968, and has, since then, become a classic (or an often quoted) case on the problems of American education.

2. Angels on a Pin:

   The title of the text "Angels on a Pin" comes from the much-talked-about question: "How many angels can dance on the head of a pin?", which is used to ridicule those people who asked meaningless questions about the Bible in the Middle Ages. It is also used ironically to describe the kind of questions that philosophers ponder (冥思苦想).

3. ... who teaches physics. (para. 1)

   "Physics" is a science concerned with the study of matter and natural forces such as light, heat, movement, etc. Notice that "-s" in the word is not the plural form of a noun. "Physics" is used as a singular noun. Similar nouns are "politics" (政治), "economics" (经济学), "mathematics", "statistics" (统计学), and "ethics" (伦理学).

4. ... using the formula $S = 1/2 \ at^2$ ... (para. 4)

   This is a well-known formula in physics. S stands for "distance", a for "acceleration", and t for "time".

5. "... the two values of 'g' ..." (para. 9)

   "G" stands for gravity (引力；重力).

6. "Russian Sputnik" (para. 11)

   It was the first man-made satellite in the world sent into space by Russia in October 1957. It set off a fierce competition between the US and former USSR as each took the other as the No. 1 enemy in the world. It also caused a lot of criticism of the American educational system within the United States.

7. If you will tell me the height of this building, I will gladly give you this barometer! (para. 10)

   The word *will* in the if-clause does not indicate the future tense. Instead, it is used as a modal verb and carries the meaning of "willingness". The word *will* in the main clause expresses intention. More examples:

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If you *will* map-read, I'll drive.

I'll wash up if you'll dry.

I'll buy the tickets if you *will* make supper after the show.

8. **We teachers are always blaming the students for giving wrong answers. (para. 12)**

The present continuous is often used with adverbs of frequency (频率) to emphasize how often an action takes place and to express feelings of disapproval (不赞同), annoyance (不高兴), or appreciation (赞赏). More examples:

He's always finding fault.

It's always raining.

Granny's always giving us little presents.

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - **Pre-class Work** - →

II

Choose the statement that best explains your understanding of the text.

▶ Jim, the teacher of physics, decided to give the student a zero for his answer in an examination because _____.

a) the student's answer was wrong

b) the student's answer was not quite to the point

c) the student did not take the examination seriously

d) the student had not given the expected answer

▶ The narrator was selected to settle the dispute because _____.

a) he was Jim's best friend

b) he was the student's favorite teacher

c) he was considered impartial

d) he was more competent as a teacher

▶ The narrator suggested that _____.

a) Jim should let the student try another question

b) Jim should let the student have another try at answering the question

c) Jim should give the student full credit since he had answered the question completely and correctly

d) the student should accept the score the teacher gave him since his answer did not show any knowledge of physics

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➤ The student did not give the expected answer the first time because _____.

    a) he had too many possible answers and did not know which would be the best

    b) he did not know what the teacher expected him to say

    c) he wanted to show how smart he was

    d) he just wanted to show how ridiculous the educational system was

➤ The message of the text seems to be that _____.

    a) grading systems today often do not allow for creativity

    b) students should always give the expected answers at an examination

    c) teachers should learn how to deal with students whose behavior is unexpected

    d) it is very difficult to set an examination paper

Pre-class Work

(III)

Read the text a second time. Learn the new words and expressions listed below.

Glossary

aid /eɪd/ n. & v.	help
angel /'eɪndʒəl/ n.	a messenger and attendant of God, often shown as a person dressed in white with wings 天使
barometer /bə'rɒmɪtə/ n.	an instrument that measures air pressure and shows when the weather is going to change 气压计；晴雨表
basement /'beɪsmənt/ n.	a floor built partly or wholly below ground level 地下室
calculate /'kælkjʊleɪt/ v.	to work sth. out by using numbers 计算
colleague /'kɒliːg/ n.	someone you work with, esp. in a professional job 同事
competence /'kɒmpɪtəns/ n.	the ability and skill needed to do a particular job 能力；胜任；称职
course /kɔːs/ n.	a series of lessons or lectures on a particular subject 课程
creative /krɪ'eɪtɪv/ adj.	able to develop or use new ideas; imaginative 有创造性的
credit /'kredɪt/ n.	approval or praise for sth. that is done
dash off	to run away from a place very quickly; Here: to write in a hurry or very quickly

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deserve /dɪ'zɜːv/ v.	该得；应受
dilemma /dɪ'lemə/ n.	a difficult choice to be made between two courses of action （可采取的行动） which seem to be equally bad 进退两难
educational /ˌedjuː'keɪʃənəl/ adj.	connected with education
formula /'fɔːmjulə/ n.	公式
grade /greɪd/ n.	esp. (AmE) a mark given for a particular piece of work in school or for your work in the whole or part of the year
v.	esp. (AmE) to give a mark to an examination paper or a piece of school work
impartial /ɪm'pɑːʃəl/ adj.	fair in giving judgements, unbiased etc. 不偏不倚的
inner /'ɪnə/ adj.	on the inside; close to the centre
instructor /ɪn'strʌktə/ n.	a teacher
launch /lɔːntʃ/ v.	Here: to send into space 发射
lean /liːn/ v.	倾斜；倚；靠
panic /'pænɪk/ n.	fear; scare
pendulum /'pendjuːləm/ n.	钟摆
principle /'prɪnsəpl/ n.	原则
proportion /prəu'pɔːʃən/ n.	比例
recall /rɪ'kɔːl/ v.	to bring back from memory 回想起
referee /ˌrefə'riː/ n.	sb. in charge of a game in sports; Here: a person who is asked to settle a disagreement
resist /rɪ'zɪst/ v.	struggle against 抵抗
select /sɪ'lekt/ v.	to choose carefully what you think is the best or most suitable; to pick out
solve /sɒlv/ v.	to find a way of dealing with a problem 解决
sophisticated /sə'fɪstɪkeɪtɪd/ adj.	complex 复杂的
Sputnik /'sputnɪk/ n.	前苏联人造地球卫星
stopwatch /'stɒpwɒtʃ/ n.	a watch to time speed 记秒表
string /strɪŋ/ n.	a piece of thread
superintendent /ˌsjuːpərɪn'tendənt/ n.	Here: a person in charge of an apartment building 楼房管理处负责人员
swing /swɪŋ/ v. (swung, swung)	to move from a fixed point 摆动
system /'sɪstəm/ n.	系统；制度
temptation /temp'teɪʃən/ n.	诱惑
unit /'juːnɪt/ n.	（计量的）单位
warn /wɔːn/ v.	提醒；警告；告诉某人（不要）做某事

to be about to (para. 1):

a perfect score (para. 1):

lower (para. 2):

case (para. 3):

on the other hand (para. 3):

to time its fall (para. 4):

beauty (para. 6):

in principle (para. 9):

as follows (para. 10):

to be fed up with (para. 11):

fixed (para. 11):

Pre-class Work

IV

Read the text a third time for a better understanding.
Then think over the following excerpts.

1) He asked me if I would do him a favor and be the referee on the grading of an examination question. (para. 1) What does this sentence mean?

2) He insisted that he deserved a perfect score if the system were not set up against the student. (para. 1) What does this sentence mean? Why is "were" used here instead of "was"? Can you find another example from the text?

3) ... I could also see the dilemma because if full credit were given to him it could mean a high grade for the student in his physics course. (para. 3) What was the dilemma? Why didn't the professor want to give him full credit?

4) I suggested that the student have another try at answering the question. (para. 3) Why is the word "have" used in its present tense in this sentence?

5) He couldn't understand why there should be so much emphasis on fixed rules rather than creative thinking. (para. 11) Can you put this sentence into Chinese?

6)   So he could not resist the temptation to play a little joke with the educational system, which
     had been thrown into such a panic by the successful launching of the Russian Sputnic.
     (para. 11) What was the joke that he had played with the system? Did it work? Why would
     a Russian Sputnic throw the American educational system into panic?

Pre-class Work

(V) Prepare to ask your own questions on the text.

Pre-class Work

(VI) Listen to the recording of the text, paying special
     attention to Paragraphs 1—3.

More Work on the Text

I Oral Work

1. Read aloud Paragraphs 1—3.

2. Discuss the questions in Item II and IV in Pre-class Work.

3. Ask each other questions on the text.

4. Answer the following questions:
    1) How was the author asked to deal with the case?
        (1) Who was Jim? Why did he need help?
        (2) Why did he want to give the student a zero for that question in the examination?
        (3) Did the student accept the score? What did he do? What was his argument?
        (4) Could they reach an agreement? What did they decide to do?
        (5) Why did they ask the author to settle the dispute (争论)?
    2) How did the author finally settle the matter?
        (1) What was the first thing the author did when he learned about the case?
        (2) What was the question that caused the disagreement? What did it say?

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(3) How did the student answer the question?

(4) Did the author think that the student deserved a zero?

(5) Did the author think that Jim was completely wrong?

(6) How did he propose to settle the matter? Did Jim and the student agree? Why was the author surprised at the student's ready agreement?

3) How did the student answer the question during his second attempt?

(1) How long did the author allow the student to give his answer?

(2) What did he think when five minutes passed and the student had not put down a single word? Why did it take the student so long? Did he find the question so difficult to answer?

(3) What was the answer the student gave finally? Was it correct?

(4) How did the author score the student? Did Jim consider it fair?

4) What other answers could the student give to the question?

(1) Why did the author ask the student to give all the other answers he had in mind? What did the student say?

(2) What was the second possible way of measuring the height of the building? Do you think it was a good method?

(3) What was the third way the student had in mind? Why did he believe that students would generally prefer this method? Do you think that the author would regard it as a perfect answer? Why or why not?

(4) What was the more sophisticated method the student offered? Would you say that it was a better answer? Why or why not?

(5) What was really the best way of determining the height of the building according to the student? Do you think he was serious?

5. Piece together all your answers to questions in Exercise 4 and try to retell the story in your own words.

6. Discuss the following:

1) What kind of student is depicted(描写) in this story? Could you use your imagination a little bit and give a description of him? Give your opinion about the two professors in the text. Have you ever had teachers like them?

2) What do you think of the educational system in general and the examination system in particular? Do you agree with this student that there is something terribly wrong with the way the system works? In what way do you think we could improve our own educational system?

II Vocabulary

1. Word Formation

   1) *Write out the noun forms of the following adjectives and vice versa.*

Adjective	Noun
anxious	_____
basic	_____
competent	_____
dead	_____
deep	_____
favorable	_____
high	_____
long	_____
effective	_____
foolish	_____
horrible	_____
free	_____
patient	_____
curious	_____

Adjective	Noun
_____	absence
_____	music
_____	nature
_____	north
_____	economy
_____	day
_____	color
_____	use
_____	lust
_____	education
_____	creation
_____	meaning
_____	greed
_____	fertility

2) *Complete the following definitions.*

(1) A person who bakes is called a _____ .

(2) A person who educates people is called an _____ .

(3) A person who invents something is called an _____ .

(4) A person who acts in plays or films is called an _____ .

(5) A person who turns what someone has written into another language is called a _____ .

(6) A person who enjoys growing flowers and vegetables in a garden is called a _____ .

(7) A person who works on a ship as a member of its crew (全体船员) is called a _____ .

(8) A person who spends a lot of time thinking deeply about important things is called a _____ .

(9) A person who creates something is called a _____ .

(10) A person who is kept in prison as a punishment is called a _____ .

(11) An apparatus (设备) on which food is cooked is called a _____ .

(12) The part of a telephone that you hold near to your ear and speak into is called a _____ .

(13) A person who is visiting sb. or some place is called a _____ .

(14) A person who runs a business, a company, etc. is called a _____ .

3) *Complete the sentences with the translation of what is given in the bracket in the proper form.*

(1) The window remained _____ (紧锁着).

(2) He looked _____ (失望).

(3) Don't get too _____ (激动).

(4) The village is _____ (环绕) by mountains.

(5) Everything is _____ (解决了) now.

(6) The report is _____ (完成了).

(7) We should pay attention to the _____ (变化了的) situation.

(8) Please keep us well _____ (了解情况).

(9) We walked along the fields _____ (种植了) with crops, pear trees and date trees.

2. **Give the opposite of the following.**

1) simple
2) possible
3) wrong
4) different
5) inside

6) carefully
7) strong
8) to agree
9) quietly
10) to deposit (money in a bank)

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11) soft
12) true
13) more
14) ungrateful
15) special
16) peace
17) absence

18) scarcity
19) employment
20) colorful
21) aware
22) slowly
23) to vanish

3. **Pick out idiomatic expressions in the text.**

4. **Complete the sentences, using the expressions listed below.**

in principle	on the other hand	rather than
to be about to do ...	to be fed up with	to blame ... for
to dash off	to mark off	to point out
to set up	to throw into (panic)	to work out

1) The video show _____ to begin. Will you please take your seats?

2) I'll have my room painted pale blue _____ white because it matches the color of my furniture.

3) An office has been _____ recently to examine the tourism industry.

4) I can't make up my mind whether I should buy it or not. This suitcase is expensive but, _____ , it is good quality.

5) To my surprise, the clerk to whom I had handed over the form _____ that it had not been properly filled in.

6) They _____ a plan to cut costs, improve quality, and increase sales.

7) _____ city life, the young couple moved out to live in the suburbs (郊区) a month ago.

8) The government issued a warning that there might be a massive terrorist attack in the next few days. It _____ the people _____ a great panic.

9) The piece of land next to the open market has been _____ as a future sports ground for the neighborhood.

10) Just before we got on the train, my wife _____ a note to our son.

11) Many people _____ the captain _____ the sinking of the ship.

12) I _____ to send them an E-mail when their letter of acceptance came.

13) _____ men and women have equal opportunities in our country.

14) Soon after they passed the resolution, they _____ themselves _____ the preparation of the project.

15) The job doesn't pay much but, _____ , it gives me quite a lot of freedom.

16) _____ allow the apples to go rotten, Joe sold them at half price.

5. **Rewrite the underlined parts in the sentences using the expressions listed below.**

   1)   • to agree on   • to agree to   • to agree with

     (1) He said there are other things in the world that are more important than money. I <u>share his view</u>.

     (2) Joan feels upset because her mother doesn't <u>want her to marry a businessman</u>.

     (3) I saw the new manager today and found we <u>were of the same opinion on the basic policies</u>.

   2)   • to bring about   • to bring down   • to bring in   • to bring up

     (1) My mother was born in New York, but <u>grew up</u> in her grandparent's home in Chicago.

     (2) I hope you don't mind my <u>raising the question</u> again.

     (3) The doctor gave me two kinds of pills. One was to <u>make the high fever come down</u> and the other to improve my appetite(胃口).

     (4) The countries finally <u>settled the border issue</u> peacefully.

     (5) Please <u>keep to the point; don't drag in</u> things that have nothing to do with our discussion.

   3)   • to give back   • to give in   • to give off   • to give out   • to give up

     (1) Some flowers <u>send out</u> their richest fragrance at night.

     (2) We kept telling our grandmother to have an operation, and finally she <u>agreed</u>.

     (3) The wallet was <u>returned to</u> Mr. Bell when he proved that it belonged to him.

     (4) We saw the two men <u>giving every voter who entered the hall a set of written materials</u>.

     (5) All the students and teachers climbed to the top of the Fragrant Hills, except for two who <u>stopped</u> half way.

6. Give the meaning of the underlined words or expressions in the sentences below. Note how the meaning is different in a different context.

1) Please put the violin into its case when you stop playing.

2) If that is the case, you are excused.

3) Take their present case for example; they need to develop a new railway system that connects the important cities in the region.

4) The most serious cases are always Professor Zheng's responsibility.

5) In the first few days I worked for the law firm, I was asked to handle a divorce case.

6) Could you pick your things up before someone falls over them?

7) Sam picked up some knowledge of the computer just by watching others working on it.

8) I didn't know you smoked. Where did you pick that up?

9) His health and spirits picked up wonderfully after two weeks at the seaside.

10) At last, the bus came and picked up the six kids who had been waiting for so long.

11) As soon as it got on the expressway, our car picked up speed.

12) Business began to pick up after the shop changed hands.

13) I have a terrible headache. I've probably picked up the flu (流感).

7. Examine the meanings and uses of "agree" and "wish" in the sentences below. List other ways of using these words, and then make up sentences after the models.

Finally they **agreed to take** the matter to an impartial instructor. (para. 2)
    (to agree + to-infinitive [phrase])

I was not surprised that my colleague **agreed**... (para. 3)
    (to agree vi.)

I asked him if he **wished to give up**... (para. 4)
    (to wish + to-infinitive)

Other uses of "**agree**" and "**wish**":
    agree:

    wish:

1) I asked him to teach me how to swim, and he **agreed**.

2) We all **agreed to put more emphasis on** the students' ability to work independently.

3) The three of them agreed that they would share the flat and split the rent.

4) I wish you all a peaceful and prosperous new year.

5) Which do you wish to buy, *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary* or *The Longman's Dictionary of Contemporary English*?

6) We wish we knew him.

7) How I wish I could work 24 hours a day without getting tired!

8. Give the verb pattern of the underlined part in the sentence below, and then complete the sentences, using the pattern.

... the most practical way in a real life situation <u>is to take the barometer</u> to the basement... (para. 10)

Verb pattern:

1) My suggestion _____

2) Their task _____

3) Her life ambition _____

4) One of our goals _____

5) The best solution to the problem _____

6) The aim of the practice _____

7) The purpose of holding this seminar (研讨会) _____

8) The key to an improvement in living conditions _____

9) The most important thing for you at present _____

10) The plan we have in mind _____

11) The decision they made at the end of the meeting _____

12) The first thing he did after he got the prize _____

9. Put in the missing words.

The Fox and the Goat

A fox fell into a well and couldn't get out again. Finally, a (1) _____ goat came along and saw the fox (2) _____ the well.

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"Is the water good?" the goat asked.

"Good?" said the fox. "It's the (3) _____ water I've ever tasted in my whole life. (4)_____ don't you come down and try it?"

The goat was very thirsty, (5) _____ he jumped into the well. When he (6)_____ drinking, he looked for a way to get (7)_____ of the well, but, of course, there (8)_____ any. Then the fox said, "I have an excellent (9)_____ . Stand on your (10)_____ legs and place your front legs firmly (11)_____ the front side of the wall. Then I'll (12)_____ onto your back and, from there, I'll step (13) _____ your horns and be able to (14) _____ out. When I'm out, I'll (15)_____ you get out, too." The goat (16)_____ this was a good idea and followed the (17)_____ .

(18)_____ the fox was out of the well, he (19)_____ and quietly walked away. The goat called loudly (20) _____ him and reminded him of the (21)_____ he had made to help him out. (22)_____ the fox turned and said, "You should have (23) _____ much sense in your head as you (24) _____ hairs in your beard. You jumped into the well (25)_____ making sure you could get out again."

Moral: Look before you leap.

More Work on the Text

III Grammar

1. **Understand how grammar helps to create meaning in context.**

    1) Observe how the passive is formed and used.

        (1) He insisted that he deserved a perfect score if the system *were not set up* against the student. **(para. 1)**

        (2) On the other hand, I could also see the dilemma because if full credit *were given* to him it could mean a high grade for the student in his physics course. **(para. 3)**

        (3) From the difference between the two values of 'g' the height of the building can, in principle, *be worked out*. **(para. 9)**

        (4) So he could not resist the temptation to play a little joke on the educational system, which *had been thrown* into such a panic by the successful launching of the Russian Sputnik. **(para. 11)**

2) Note how the that-clauses present the reported speech, thought or attitude. Give their structural patterns.

    (1) He *insisted that* he deserved a perfect score if the system were not set up against the student. (para. 1)

    (2) I laughed and *pointed out* to my colleague *that* we must admit the student really had a pretty strong case for full credit since he had indeed answered the question completely and correctly. (para. 3)

    (3) I *suggested that* the student have another try at answering the question. (para. 3)

    (4) But I *warned him that* this time his answer should show some knowledge of physics. (para. 4)

    (5) At the end of five minutes, however, I *noticed that* he had not put down a single word. (para. 4)

    (6) . . . I *recalled that* the student *had said that* he had other answers to the problem. (para. 6)

    (7) Finally he *concluded that* while there are many ways of solving the problem . . . (para. 10)

    (8) He smiled and *admitted that* he did, but *said* he was fed up with standard answers to standard questions. (para. 11)

Pattern 1:

Pattern 2:

Pattern 3:

2. **Complete the exercises on the passive form.**

  1) Make the sentences passive, using "by" only where necessary.

    (1) Shakespeare wrote *Hamlet*.

    (2) They caught her shoplifting.

    (3) Mark is repairing your bicycle now.

    (4) They don't sell stamps in university bookstores.

    (5) They have just found a Roman pavement under Oxford Street.

    (6) Have you invited Peter to supper tonight?

    (7) The board of directors is still considering your application.

(8) Somebody will show you how to run this machine.

(9) He found that somebody had stolen his wallet.

(10) They have sent the driver to jail for 90 days for drunk driving.

2) Choose the better way of continuing after each sentence.

    (1) English is worth learning.

        a. People speak it in many countries.

        b. It is spoken in many countries.

    (2) Anita got a motorbike, but she didn't like it.

        a. So she sold it again.

        b. So it was sold again.

    (3) In this exam, you don't pass or fail.

        a. You are given marks.

        b. Marks are given.

    (4) Mr. Asher came out of the court.

        a. In two minutes, he was surrounded by reporters.

        b. In two minutes, reporters surrounded him.

    (5) It made him feel mad having to go to several phone booths.

        a. Somebody had smashed all the phones.

        b. All the phones were smashed.

    (6) I have no objection to any of the suggestions.

        a. They were well presented.

        b. People presented them well.

3) Complete the text with the proper form of the given verbs.

    I'll never forget my first day at that office. I (1 tell) _____ to arrive at 8: 30, but when I (2 get)_____ there the whole place seemed to be empty. I didn't know what to do, because I (3 give)_____ no information about the building or where I (4 go) _____ to work, so I just (5 wait) _____ around until some of the secretaries (6 begin)_____ to turn up. Finally I (7 show)_____ a dirty little office on the fifth floor, where I (8 give)_____ a desk in a corner. Nothing (9 happen)_____ for an hour; then I (10 give)_____ some letters to type on a computer by one of the senior secretaries. This wasn't very successful, because I (11 not teach)_____ how to use a computer. In the letter I (12 receive)_____ when I (13 offer) _____ the job, I (14 promise)_____ computer training, but

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they'd obviously forgotten about this. By lunchtime things (15 not get) _____ any better, and I decided that I (16 not pay)_____ enough to put up with all this nonsense, so I (17 walk)_____ out and didn't go back.

3. **Turn the sentences into direct speech.**

   1) He asked me if I would do him a favor and be the referee on the grading of an examination question.

   2) I asked him to tell me why he needed my help.

   3) So, what would you do if you were me, Jim asked.

   4) I asked him if he wished to give up.

   5) I asked my colleague if he would give up.

   6) The student had said that he had other answers to the problem. I was curious, so I asked him what they were.

   7) I asked the student if he really didn't know the expected answer to this question.

   8) He couldn't understand why there should be so much emphasis on fixed rules rather than on creative thinking.

   9) Perhaps we should ask ourselves whether we are always asking the right questions.

4. **Complete the exercises on the that-clause.**

   1) Pick out all the verbs in the text that often take a that-clause.

   2) Group the verbs you picked out.

      (1) Mental verbs: (e. g. believe, feel, find, etc.)

      (2) Communication verbs: (e. g. show, prove, argue, etc.)

3) Make up sentences of your own, using the three mental verbs and three communication verbs above, followed by that-clauses.

(1) _____

_____

(2) _____

_____

(3) _____

_____

(4) _____

_____

(5) _____

_____

(6) _____

_____

5. Do the exercises on nouns.
   1) Rearrange the nouns into four groups.

air	advice	anger	army
art	audience	beauty	coffee
country (乡村)	clothes	coal	comfort
company	confidence	drink	earth
enemy	expenses	family	food
fruit	fun	furniture	goods
gloves	government	hair	homework
jeans	knowledge	liquid	love
mathematics	money	moon	news
paint	physics	police	press
public	salt	sea	shorts
silver	sky	socks	staff
teeth	traffic	trousers	unhappiness
wealth	wind	wine	wood

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The grouping:

      a. Singular nouns(通常指世上仅有事物和现象的名词): e. g. sun

      b. Plural nouns(通常以复数形式存在的名词): e. g. sunglasses

      c. Collective nouns(集合名词): e. g. committee

      d. Uncountable nouns(通常作不可数用的名词): e. g. sadness; sugar

  2) Give the plural of the nouns.

baby:	book:	boy:
bus:	buzz:	dish:
echo:	fox:	holiday:
kilo:	leaf:	life:
match:	monkey:	piano:
potato:	quiz:	roof:
tax:	time:	video:
wish:	worry:	zoo:

6. **Put in prepositions where necessary.**

  1) I didn't meet her _____ the concert, but on my way _____ it.

  2) _____ my opinion he's unreasonable.

  3) Nobody entered _____ the room.

  4) Don't approach _____ the dog. It's dangerous.

  5) He agreed to go _____ one of the kids.

  6) He's terribly tight-fisted. He simply hates to part _____ money.

  7) You cannot understand it until you've looked _____ the matter.

  8) A beautiful river runs _____ the city and divides it _____ two parts.

  9) You need to keep the cat _____ the road.

  10) Eliza sent in congratulations _____ their success.

  11) At the funeral, people were all dressed _____ black.

  12) The soup lacks _____ salt.

  13) It sounds convincing, but we need proof _____ your story.

  14) Can you shout _____ Mingming and tell him it's supper time?

Imagine yourself to be the student in the story and describe your experience of the exam in about 100 words.

Memorable Quotes

Creativity is so delicate a flower that praise tends to make it bloom, while discouragement often nips it in the bud.

—Anonymous

Every human being is intended to have a character of his own; to be what no others are, and to do what no others can do.

—William Ellery Channing

We Should Cherish Our Children's Freedom to Think

Kie Ho

(Kie Ho, who grew up in Indonesia and is now a Southern California business executive, argues in the following article that the educational system in the United States is good because it teaches students to think and to experiment with ideas. The author criticizes educational systems that rely solely on memorization and rote learning, because those methods stifle creative impulses.)

1   Americans who remember "the good old days" are not alone in complaining about the educational system in this country. Immigrants, too, complain, and with more up-to-date comparisons. Lately I have heard a Polish immigrant express dismay that his daughter's high school has not taught her the difference between Belgrade and Prague. A German friend was furious when he learned that the mathematics test given to his son on his first day as a freshman included multiplication and division. A Lebanese boasts that the average high-school graduate in his homeland can speak fluently in Arabic, French and English. Japanese businessmen in Los Angeles send their children to private schools staffed by teachers imported from Japan to learn mathematics at Japanese levels, generally considered at least a year more advanced than the level here.

2   But I wonder: If American education is so tragically inferior, why is it that this is still the country of innovation?

3   I think I found the answer on my short trip to the Laguna Beach Museum of Art, where the work of schoolchildren was on exhibit. Equipped only with colorful yarns, foil paper, felt pens and crayons, they had transformed simple paper lunch bags into, among other things, a waterfall with flying fish, Broom Hilda the witch and a house with a woman in a bikini hiding behind a swinging door. Their public school had provided these children with opportunities and direction to fulfill their creativity, something that people in this country tend to take for granted.

4   When I was 12 in Indonesia, where education followed the Dutch system, I had to memorize the names of all the world's major cities, from Kabul to Karachi. At the same age, my son, who was brought up a Californian, thought that Buenos Aires was Spanish for "good food". However, unlike many children of his age in Asia and Europe, my son had studied creative geography. When he was only 6, he drew a map of the route that he traveled to get to school, including the streets and their names, the buildings and traffic signs and the houses that he passed.

5   American parents forget that in this country their children are able to experiment

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freely with ideas; without this they will not really be able to think or to believe in themselves.

6   In my high school years, back in Indonesia, we were models of dedication and obedience; we sat to listen, to answer only when asked, and to give the only correct answer. Even when studying word forms, there were no alternatives. In similes, pretty lips were always as red as cherries, and beautiful eyebrows were always like a parade of black clouds. Like children in many other countries in the world, I simply did not have a chance to choose, to make decisions. My son, on the contrary, told me that he got a good laugh—and an A—from his teacher for creating his own simile "the man was as nervous as Richard Pryor at a Ku Klux Klan convention."

7   There's no doubt that American education does not meet high standards in such basic skills as mathematics and language. And we realize that our youngsters are ignorant of Latin, put Mussolini in the same category as Dostoevski, cannot recite the Periodic Table by heart. Would we, however, prefer to stuff the developing little heads of our children with hundreds of geometry problems, the names of rivers in Brazil and 50 lines from "the Canterbury Tales"? Do we really want to retard their impulses, frustrate their opportunities for self-expression?

8   When I was 18, I had to memorize Hamlet's "To be or not to be" speech flawlessly. In his English class, my son was assigned to write a love letter to Juliet, either in Shakespearean or modern language. (He picked the latter; his Romeo would take Juliet to an arcade for video games.)

9   Here in America a history student can take the role of Lyndon Johnson in an open debate against another student playing Ho Chi Minh. But it is unthinkable that a youngster in Japan would dare to do the same regarding the role of their Hirohito in World War II.

10   Critics of American education in this country cannot grasp one thing, something that they don't truly understand because they take it for granted: freedom. This most important measurement has been omitted in the studies of the quality of education in this century, the only one, I think, that extends even to children the license to freely speak, write and be creative. Our public education certainly is not perfect, but it does have its advantages.

Notes

1. Broom-Hilda the witch (para. 4)

comic strip character

(para. 7)

Afro-American film actor

(para. 7)

secret organization of white men begun in the South after the Civil War to maintain white supremacy

(para. 8)

the arrangement of the chemical elements according to their atomic numbers

Lesson Ten

Text A Diogenes and Alexander

Gilbert Highet

I

Read the text and listen to the recording. Try to understand as much as possible with the help of the notes, glossary, dictionaries and reference books.

Lying on the bare earth, shoeless, bearded, half-naked, he looked like a beggar or a lunatic. He was one, but not the other. He had opened his eyes with the sun at dawn, scratched, done his business like a dog at the roadside, washed at the public fountain, begged a piece of breakfast bread and a few olives, eaten them squatting on the ground, and washed them down with a few handfuls of water scooped from the spring. (Long ago he had owned a rough wooden cup, but he threw it away when he saw a boy drinking out of his hollowed hands.) Having no work to go to and no family to provide for, he was free. As the market place filled up with shoppers and merchants and slaves and foreigners, he had strolled through it for an hour or two. Everybody knew him, or knew of him. They would throw sharp questions at him and get sharper answers. Sometimes they threw bits of food, and got scant thanks; sometimes a mischievous pebble, and got a shower of stones and abuse. They were not quite sure whether he was mad or not. He knew they were mad, each in a different way; they amused him. Now he was back at his home.

It was not a house, not even a squatter's hut. He thought everybody lived far too elaborately, expensively, anxiously. What good is a house? No one needs privacy; natural acts are not shameful; we all do the same things, and need not hide them. No one needs beds and chairs and such furniture: the animals live healthy lives and sleep on the ground./ All we require, since nature did not dress us properly, is one garment to keep us warm, and some shelter from rain and wind. So he had one blanket—to dress him in the daytime and

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cover him at night—and he slept in a cask. His name was Diogenes. He was the founder of the creed called Cynicism (doggishness); he spent much of his life in the rich, lazy, corrupt Greek city of Corinth, mocking and satirizing its people, and occasionally converting one of them.

His home was not a barrel made of wood; too expensive. It was a storage jar made of earthenware, no doubt discarded because a break had made it useless. He was not the first to inhabit such a thing. But he was the first who ever did so by choice, out of principle.

Diogenes was not a lunatic. He was a philosopher who wrote plays and poems and essays expounding his doctrine; he talked to those who cared to listen; he had pupils who admired him. But he taught chiefly by example. All should live naturally, he said, for what is natural is normal and cannot possibly be evil or shameful. Live without conventions, which are artificial and false; escape complexities and extravagances: only so can you live a free life. The rich man believes he possesses his big house with its many rooms and its elaborate furniture, his expensive clothes, his horses and servants and his bank accounts. He does not. He depends on them, he worries about them, he spends most of his life's energy looking after them; the thought of losing them makes him sick with anxiety. They possess him. He is their slave. In order to procure a quantity of false, perishable goods he has sold the only true, lasting good, his own independence.

There have been many men who grew tired of human society with its complications, and went away to live simply—on a small farm, in a quiet village, or in a hermit's cave. Not so Diogenes. He was a missionary. His life's aim was clear to him: it was "to restamp the currency": to take the clean metal of human life, to erase the old false conventional markings, and to imprint it with its true values.

The other great philosophers of the fourth century B.C., such as Plato and Aristotle, taught mainly their own private pupils. But for Diogenes, laboratory and specimens and lecture halls and pupils were all to be found in a crowd of ordinary people. Therefore, he chose to live in Athens or Corinth, where travelers from all over the Mediterranean world constantly came and went. And, by design, he publicly behaved in such ways as to show people what real life was.

He thought most people were only half-alive, most men only half-men. At bright noonday he walked through the market place carrying a lighted lamp and inspecting the face of everyone he met. They asked him why. Diogenes answered "I'm trying to find a *man.*"

To a gentleman whose servant was putting on his shoes for him, Diogenes said, "You won't be really happy until he wipes your nose for you: that will come after you lose the use of your hands."

9   Once there was a war scare so serious that it stirred even the lazy, profit-happy Corinthians. They began to drill, clean their weapons, and rebuild their neglected fortifications. Diogenes took his old cask and began to roll it up and down. "When you are all so busy," he said, "I feel I ought to do *something!*"

10 And so he lived—like a dog, some said, because he cared nothing for the conventions of society, and because he showed his teeth and barked at those he disliked. Now he was lying in the sunlight, contented and happy, happier (he himself used to boast) than the Shah of Persia. Although he knew he was going to have an important visitor, he would not move.

11 The little square began to fill with people—page boys, soldiers, secretaries, officers, diplomats, they all gradually formed a circle around Diogenes. He looked them over, as a sober man looks at a crowd of tottering drunks, and shook his head. He knew who they were. They were the servants of Alexander, the conqueror of Greece, the Macedonian king, who was visiting his new realm.

12 Only twenty, Alexander was far older and wiser than his years. Like all Macedonians he loved drinking, but he could usually handle it; and toward women, he was nobly restrained and chivalrous. Like all Macedonians he loved fighting; he was a magnificent commander, but he was not merely a military automaton. He could think. At 13 he had become a pupil of the greatest mind in Greece, Aristotle, who gave him the best of Greek culture. He taught Alexander poetry: the young prince slept with the *Iliad* under his pillow and longed to emulate Achilles, who brought the mighty power of Asia to ruin. He taught him philosophy, in particular the shapes and uses of political power. And he taught him the principles of scientific research: during his invasion of Persia, Alexander took with him a large corps of scientists, and shipped hundreds of zoological specimens back to Greece for study. Indeed, it was from Aristotle that Alexander learned to seek out everything strange which might be instructive.

13 Now Alexander was in Corinth to take command of the League of Greek States, which his father Philip had created. He was welcomed and honored and flattered. He was the man of the hour, of the century; he was unanimously appointed commander-in-chief of a new expedition against old, rich, corrupt Asia. Nearly everyone crowded to Corinth in order to congratulate him, to seek employment with him, even simply to see him. Only Diogenes, although he lived in Corinth, did not visit the new monarch. With that generosity which Aristotle had

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taught him, Alexander determined to call upon Diogenes.

14   With his handsome face, his fiery glance, his strong body, his purple and gold cloak, and his air of destiny, he moved through the parting crowd toward the Dog's kennel. When a king approaches, all rise in respect. Diogenes merely sat up on one elbow. When a monarch enters a place, all greet him with a bow or an acclamation. Diogenes said nothing.

15   There was a silence. Alexander spoke first, with a kindly greeting. Looking at the poor broken cask, the single ragged garment, and the rough figure lying on the ground, he said: "Is there anything I can do for you, Diogenes?"

16   "Yes," said the Dog. "Stand to one side. You're blocking the sunlight."

17   There was an amazed silence. Slowly, Alexander turned away. A titter broke out from the elegant Greeks. The Macedonian officers, after deciding that Diogenes was not worth the trouble of kicking, were starting to guffaw and nudge one another. Alexander was still silent. To those nearest him he said quietly, "If I were not Alexander, I should be Diogenes." They took it as a paradox. But Alexander meant it. He understood Cynicism as the others could not. He was what Diogenes called himself, a "citizen of the world." Like Diogenes, he admired the heroic figure of Hercules, who labored to help mankind while all others toiled and sweated only for themselves. He knew that of all men then alive in the world only Alexander the conqueror and Diogenes the beggar were free.

Notes to the Text

1. About the author.

    Gilbert Highet (1906—1978) was born in Glasgow, Scotland, educated at Glasgow and at Oxford, and became a naturalized American citizen in 1951. He was known for his scholarly and critical writing.

2. Diogenes (412 - 324 BC)

    Greek cynic philosopher, called "the Dog" by his contemporaries for his public behavior in disregard of social conventions and his self-denial.

3. Alexander III, the Great (356 - 324 BC)

    King of Macedonia, son of King Philip II, a pupil of Aristotle. At the age of 18, Alexander played an important role in the Macedonian conquest of Greece. When Philip was assassinated

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(336 BC), Alexander became the head of Philip's Greek League. In 334 BC he conquered Asia Minor, defeated the Persian fleet, marched as far as India, and as far south as Egypt. He died in the year 324 BC at the age of 32. As a brilliant and versatile strategist and tactician, Alexander changed the history of the world by making Hellenic Greek civilization dominant in the Near East for about a thousand years.

4. Plato (427 - 347 BC?)

Athenian philosopher, one of the most influential thinkers of all time, and a student of Socrates. Plato's surviving writings are all dialogues except for a few letters. The main speaker is Socrates, voicing Plato's own doctrines. Plato's ideal state in the Republic has three classes: philosopher-kings, guardians (army soldiers) and farmers; and which class one belongs to depends solely upon moral and intellectual qualifications. Plato's world is one which is highly ordered where the supreme idea is the Good. Plato founded the Academy which lasted until 529 AD. It was one of the world's first centers for advanced scientific study. He was also one of the most gifted writers among the great philosophers. His most eminent student was Aristotle.

5. Aristotle (385 - 323 BC)

Alexander's teacher and Plato's student, one of the greatest philosophers in ancient Greece. He wrote about 400 books, which include works on logic, language, art, ethics, law, psychology, zoology, biology, chemistry, astronomy, mechanics, mathematics, philosophy of science and the laws of motion, space and time. We can perhaps say that no other person has ever influenced the thinking of so many people for so long in western civilization.

6. Hercules

The son of Zeus and Alcmene, a hero of extraordinary size and strength in Greek and Roman mythology, who won immortality by performing the 12 feats (tasks) demanded by Hera.

7. Sometimes they throw bits of food, and got scant thanks; sometimes a mischievous pebble, and got a shower of stones and abuse. (para. 1)

a mischievous pebble: a pebble thrown at Diogenes from a mischievous person. Here "mischievous" is what is called a transferred epithet, which is an adjective used to qualify a specific noun that does not usually collocate with it. Transferred epithets are used to achieve a rhetorical effect.

8. He was not the first to inhabit such a thing. (para. 3)

the first n.: (pl. first) the first person or thing to do sth or to be mentioned. Like certain adjectives, ordinal numerals such as first, second, etc. proceeded by the definite article can be used as nouns. But "first" is used like this more than the other ordinals. More examples:

She was the first in her village to go to college.

He was the first to play Western pop music with a Chinese instrument.

9. Live without conventions, which are artificial and false; escape complexities and extravagances; only so can you live a free life. (para. 4)

In formal, written English, when a sentence/clause begins with "only" or "only if", subject-verb inversion occurs. More examples:

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Only for some very good reason would Professor Li speak in public.

Only if all their conditions are met will the strikers go back to work.

10　to restamp the currency (para. 5)

Diogenes and his father had once been convicted for counterfeiting, long before he turned to philosophy, and this phrase was Diogenes' bold, unembarrassed joke on this event.

11　He knew that of all men from ...

Diogenes the beggar were ... (para. 17)

Alexander the conqueror and Diogenes the beggar: in which "the + noun" is a type of apposite to the proper noun proceeding it.

More examples: Jules Verne the writer; John Smith the lawyer

Glossary

acclamation /ˌæklə'meɪʃən/ n.	a loud expression of approval or welcome 欢呼
automaton /ɔː'tɒmətən/ n.	machine, esp one in the shape of a human being who moves without anyone controlling it
barrel /'bærəl/ n.	a large curved container with a flat top and bottom, made of wood or metal
cask /kɑːsk; (US)kæsk/ n.	a round wooden container used for storing wine or other liquids
chivalrous /'ʃɪvəlrəs/ adj.	behaving in a polite, kind, generous and honorable way, esp towards women
cloak /kləuk/ n.	斗篷
commander /kə'mɑːndə/ n.	an officer of any rank who is in charge of a group of soldiers or a particular military activity
commander-in-chief n.	someone in control of all the military organizations in a country or of a specific military activity
contented /kən'tentɪd/ adj.	happy and satisfied
convert /kən'vɜːt/ v.	to change or make someone change their opinion, belief or habit
corps /kɔː/ n.	a group of people who work together to do a particular job
corrupt /kə'rʌpt/ adj.	very bad morally
creed /kriːd/ n.	a set of beliefs or principles
currency /'kʌrənsɪ/ n.	the system or type of money a country uses
diplomat /'dɪpləmæt/ n.	someone who officially represents his/her government in a foreign country
discard /dɪs'kɑːd/ v.	to get rid of something because it is useless

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doctrine /ˈdɒktrɪn / n.	a belief or set of beliefs that form the main part of a religion or system of ideas
earthenware /ˈɜːθənweə / n.	陶器
elaborately /ɪˈlæbərɪtlɪ / adv.	in a way that is intricate, complicated or painstaking
elbow /ˈelbəʊ / n.	the joint where your arm bends
elegant /ˈeləgənt / adj.	very beautiful and graceful
emulate /ˈemjʊleɪt / v.	to try to be like someone else, because you admire them
erase /ɪˈreɪz / v.	to remove marks or writing; to get rid of or destroy something so that it no longer exists
expedition /ˌekspɪˈdɪʃən / n.	a long journey, esp one made by a group of people, to a place that is dangerous or that has not been visited before
extravagance /ɪksˈtrævəgəns / n.	the act of spending a lot of money on things that are not necessary
fiery /ˈfaɪərɪ / adj.	flaming, glowing, passionate like fire
flatter /ˈflætə / v.	to praise someone in an insincere way in order to please or get something from him/her
fortifications /ˌfɔːtɪfɪˈkeɪʃənz / n.	towers, walls, etc. built around a place in order to protect or defend it
garment /ˈɡɑːmənt / n.	a piece of clothing
guffaw /ɡəˈfɔː / v.	to laugh loudly
hermit /ˈhɜːmɪt / n.	someone who lives alone and has a simple way of life, usually for religious reasons
hollow /ˈhɒləʊ / v.	to make a hole or empty space
Iliad /ˈɪlɪəd / n.	《伊利亚特》,描写特洛伊战争的古代希腊英雄史诗。相传为荷马所写
imprint /ɪmˈprɪnt / v.	to print the mark of something on
inhabit /ɪnˈhæbɪt / v.	to live there
kennel /ˈkenəl / n.	a small hut where a dog sleeps
lunatic /ˈluːnətɪk / n.	someone who behaves in a crazy or very stupid way; a mad man
Macedonian /ˌmæsɪˈdəʊnɪən / n. & adj.	马其顿人;马其顿的
magnificent /mægˈnɪfɪsənt / adj.	wonderful; very impressive; extremely big and beautiful
Mediterranean /ˌmedɪtəˈreɪnɪən / adj.	地中海的
mighty /ˈmaɪtɪ / adj.	very strong and powerful or very big and impressive
mischievous /ˈmɪstʃɪvəs / adj.	playing tricks on people or doing things to annoy or embarrass them
mock /mɒk / v.	to laugh at people and try to make them look stupid by making unkind remarks about them or by copying them

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monarch /ˈmɒnək; -nɑːk / n.   a king or queen

neglect /nɪgˈlekt / v.   to pay too little attention to something that you should do

nudge / nʌdʒ / v.   to push someone gently, usually with your elbow in order to get their attention

occasionally /əˈkeɪʒənəlɪ / adv.   sometimes

olive /ˈɒlɪv / n.   橄榄

page boy   a servant to a person of high rank

paradox /ˈpærədɒks / n.   a statement that seems impossible because it contains two opposing ideas that are both true

pebble /ˈpebl / n.   a small smooth stone found on the beach or on the bottom of a river

perishable /ˈperɪʃəbl / adj.   easy to fall into decay if not kept under specific conditions

poetry /ˈpəʊɪtrɪ / n.   the art of writing poems

privacy /ˈpraɪvəsɪ / n.   the state of being able to be alone, and not seen or heard by other people

procure /prəˈkjʊə / v.   to obtain something, esp something that is difficult to get

purple /ˈpɜːpl / n. & adj.   a dark color that is a mixture of red and blue

quantity /ˈkwɒntətɪ / n.   an amount or number

ragged /ˈrægɪd / adj.   torn and in bad condition

realm / relm / n.   (literary) a country ruled over by a king or queen

restrain /rɪˈstreɪn / v.   to prevent someone from doing something harmful or stupid

satirize /ˈsætəraɪz / v.   to use satire to make fun of people's faults 讽刺

scant / skænt / adj.   not enough

scoop / skuːp / v.   to pick something up with a scoop (a long deep spoon for holding food), spoon or your curved hand

scratch / skrætʃ / v.   to rub your skin with finger nails, esp because it itches

Shah of Persia /ˈʃɑː əv ˈpɜːʃə / n.   波斯国王

sober /ˈsəʊbə / adj.   not drunk

spring /ˈsprɪŋ / n.   a small stream of water flowing naturally from the earth

storage jar   a round container used for keeping food or drinks in

stroll / strəʊl / v.   to walk somewhere in a slow relaxed way

titter /ˈtɪtə / v.   to laugh quietly esp when you are nervous

toil / tɔɪl / v.   to work very hard for a long period of time

tottering /ˈtɒtərɪŋ / adj.   walking or moving unsteadily from side to side as if you are going to fall over

unanimously /jʊˈnænɪməslɪ / adv.   without anyone who does not agree

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Diogenes /daɪˈɒdʒəniːz/ — — — — — — — — — — 戴奥真尼斯（又译：第欧根尼）

Athens /ˈæθənz/ n. — — — — — — — — — — — 雅典（希腊首都）

Alexander /ˌælɪɡˈzɑːndə/ — — — — — — — — — 亚历山大（本书指亚历山大大帝）

Macedonia /ˌmæsɪˈdəʊnɪə/ — — — — — — — — 马其顿

Aristotle /ˈærɪsˌtɒtl/ — — — — — — — — — — 亚里士多德

Plato /ˈpleɪtəʊ/ — — — — — — — — — — — — 柏拉图

Hercules /ˈhɔːkjʊliːz/ — — — — — — — — — — 赫尔克里斯（又译：大力神）

Pre-class Work

I

Paraphrase.

1) He had opened his eyes with the sun at dawn, scratched, done his business like a dog at the roadside, … (para. 1)

2) Live without conventions, which are artificial and false; escape complexities and extravagances; … (para. 4)

3) They possess him. He is their slave. In order to procure a quantity of false, perishable goods he has sold the only true, lasting good, his own independence. (para. 4)

4) His life's aim was clear to him: it was "to restamp the currency": to take the clean metal of human life, to erase the old false conventional markings, and to imprint it with its true values. (para. 5)

5) He was the man of the hour, of the century; … (para. 13)

2. Learn to use reference books.

1) Find the proper definitions of the following in the text.
   (1) spring (para. 1) _____
   (2) Cynicism (para. 2) _____
   (3) missionary (para. 5) _____

2) Look in an encyclopedia for more information about Alexander and report to the class.

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3. Word-building.

1) Give the corresponding nouns of the following.

(1) to conquer _____   (2) to guffaw _____   (3) to satirize _____

(4) to emulate _____   (5) to block _____   (6) to restrain _____

(7) to flatter _____   (8) to procure _____   (9) to convert _____

(10) to inhabit _____   (11) complex _____   (12) generous _____

2) Give the corresponding verbs of the following.

(1) inquiry   (2) squatter   (3) sweat

(4) storage   (5) perishable   (6) fortification

(7) acclamation   (8) elaborate

3) Observe how these words are formed and make your own discoveries of rules of word-building.

(1) earthenware   software   hardware

glassware   silverware   kitchenware

(2) automobile   automatic   autonomy

automation   autobiography   auto-focus

(3) reddish   greenish   yellowish

fiftyish   thirtyish   eightyish

foolish   childish   boyish

snobbish   selfish   bookish

English   Irish   Scottish

publish   accomplish   astonish

4. Study how these words are used.

1) to **possess**

(1) (formal) to own or have something valuable, important, or illegal

He could not explain how he came to possess all these valuable things.

He was arrested because he was found to possess two kilos of drugs.

(2) (*fml*) to dominate or control somebody

I don't know what possessed him to do such a stupid thing.

For a moment, strong jealousy possessed him. He lashed out at her.

He looks like a man possessed.

possession *n.* to be in possession of something; to have something in one's possession

possessive *adj.* wanting someone to have feelings of love or friendship only for you

Some fathers are too possessive towards their daughters. They wouldn't let them out of their sight.

2) **form** *n.*

(1) type, shape

This new form of communication has changed our life profoundly.

Cheating may take many forms. And advertising, I think, is one of them.

Life exists on the earth in many different forms.

(2) a paper (with spaces for you to fill out)

Please fill out this application form and send it off before May 1st.

(3) (in art and literature) structure

"She has form. That cannot be denied. But has she got feeling? I'm afraid not."

(from "The Nightingale and the Rose" by Oscar Wilde)

In art and literature, both form and content are important.

to form   v.   make; produce; establish; (cause to) take the shape of

His discovery formed a very important part of the modern physicist theory.

This government was formed three years ago.

Their policy will force other nations to form an alliance against them.

I can't do it alone. We have to form a team.

3)   to **roll**

(1) (to cause to) move along a surface by turning over and over or on wheels

Diogenes took his old cask and began to roll it up and down. (Text)

All the peasants came out to see the new tractor when it rolled into the village.

(2) (figurative usage)

He rolled a cigarette and offered me one.

Tears rolled down her cheeks.

My home village is surrounded by beautiful rolling hills.

roll   n.

He slipped a roll of money into my hand. He was like that to all his friends when they were badly in need.

I just had a couple of rolls for lunch.

By that time, we could already hear the rolls of guns in the distance.

The professor usually calls the roll at one minute before class begins.

4)   to **appoint**

(1) to choose someone for a position or job

to appoint somebody

The university president will appoint a new dean for the School of Business.

to appoint somebody as something

He appointed Smith as his chief-of-staff.

to appoint somebody to a certain position

He appointed many of his relatives to important positions.

to appoint somebody to do something

Professor Qian has been appointed to design a new course on international finance.

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(2) to arrange or decide a time or place for something to happen.

We appointed the date for the next meeting.

Finally he really turned up at the appointed time and place.

appointment *n.*

The general manager is at a meeting. Do you have an appointment?

I'd like to make an appointment with Mr. Zheng sometime this Thursday.

Sorry I can't keep the appointment this Wednesday.

5) to **account**

(1) to be or to give the reason for something

The polluted water from the river may **account for** these strange diseases.

How do you **account for** the recent success in our economic development?

(2) to make up a particular amount

Our exports to that country **account for** 40% of the national total.

We will increase our budget for education which now only **accounts for** a very small

percentage of our GDP.

account *n.*

(1) to give an **account** — to give a description

She was the only person who could give us a first-hand account.

(2) to take something into **account** — to take something into consideration

(3) bank account; checking account; savings account; accounting; accountant

on one's account   for one's own benefit

on this/that account   for this/that reason; because of this/that

on no account   not for any reason

More Work on the Text

I Oral Work

1. Questions to help comprehension and appreciation.

1) How does the author draw his contrast between Diogenes and Alexander? In what paragraph does the focus shift from the former to the latter? Is there any climax in this essay? What is it? Do you find it dramatic?

2) What has the author told us about Diogenes? What was his philosophy? What did he think was the problem with people? How did he intend to help them? Do you agree with him that the richer one is, the more enslaved one becomes? What did he think of war? What was the thing he valued most? Did he mean it when he said that he was happy, happier than the Shah of Persia? In what way was he different from the great philosophers of his

time, such as Plato and Aristotle?

3) How would you contrast Diogenes and Alexander? What do you know about Alexander? What had he learned from Aristotle? What do you think made him decide to see Diogenes? Why does the essay say that he understood Cynicism as the others could not?

4) What does the brief dialogue mean to you? Why did Diogenes say that Alexander was blocking the sunlight? Did Alexander know what he meant? Why did Alexander say that if he were not Alexander, he should be Diogenes? Did the two have anything in common?

1) If the world were to follow Diogenes, what would be the results?

2) Would you dismiss Diogenes's philosophy altogether since it seems to be against progress and civilization? Have you learned anything from this essay?

3) Does Diogenes remind you of any ancient Chinese philosopher? Would you like to make a comparison between them?

4) If you also think of yourself as a person with a mission, a mission to serve the people, would you rather be Diogenes with his philosophy or Alexander with his power?

More Work on the Text

II Vocabulary

1) into English.
    (1) 互相挠背(串通一气做互相有利的不正当的事情)
    (2) 和那个国家做生意
    (3) 不出版,就完蛋。(西方学界口号)
    (4) 建立一个新的宗教
    (5) 将人民币换成外币
    (6) 寻找真理
    (7) 抛掉旧的传统
    (8) 讽刺人的虚荣
    (9) 在那岛上住人
    (10) 钦佩他们的勇气
    (11) 玩忽职守
    (12) 逃避后果
    (13) 从记忆中消除
    (14) 负责指挥
    (15) 挡路
    (16) 毁掉名誉

2) into Chinese.
    1) neglected fortifications
    2) a squatter's hut
    3) a storage jar
    4) perishable goods
    5) conventions of society
    6) tottering drunks
    7) a hermit's cave
    8) the man of the hour
    9) heroic figures
    10) an air of destiny

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11) a fiery glance 12) war scare

13) a shower of stones 14) a handful of trouble-makers

2. Give synonyms and antonyms of the following.

1) Give synonyms

(1) lunatic (2) scant (3) garment (4) to inhabit

(5) to discard (6) to convert (7) creed (8) chiefly

(9) to procure (10) to toil (11) to erase (12) elegant

(13) to restrain (14) to titter

2) Give antonyms

(1) quantity (2) sober (3) false (4) contented

(5) complexity (6) bare (7) elaborately (8) expensively

(9) artificial (10) lasting (11) conventional (12) extravagance

3. Translate.

1) 你对他的这种古怪行为怎么解释?

2) 我们来围成一个圈吧,这样大家说话时互相就能看得见了。

3) 他任命了五个人处理这个案件。

4) 她自称她具有一种特异功能,就用她神奇的手就能治病。

5) 在这故事里,这个妖怪常常以美女的样子出现。

6) 我在哪儿能买到一卷胶卷?

7) 他把画卷了起来说, 50 万以下他绝对不卖。

8) 一位女律师最近被任命到最高法院工作。

9) 仅仅是贫困还不能解释犯罪率上升的原因。

10) 一块大石头突然从山上滚了下来。

11) 他就像哲学家一样眼珠滴溜溜转了转,笑了。

12) 让我们卷起袖子开始干吧。

13) 他希望他会被任命为副总经理。

14) 你就给我们简单说了说事情发生的经过。

15) 警察发现他拥有的很多贵重物品都无法说明来源。

16) 我们两国不论什么原因都永不再战。

4. Complete these sentences.

1) Of all the people who went there, only he _____.

2) Of all the girls in our class, only Li Yin _____.

3) Of all the places I have been to, I _____.

4) Of all the jobs available, he _____.

5) Only by disguising herself as a man was she able to _____.

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6) Only by relying on our own efforts can we _____ .

7) Only so (in this way) can the population _____ .

8) Only when our country is modernized can we _____ .

9) He behaved in such a way as to _____ .

10) She talked in such a way as to _____ .

11) He could _____ as the others could not.

12) There was a man, so poor that _____ .

13) She came across a book, so interesting that _____ .

14) In ancient times, a good king was to the people _____ a good father was to his kids.

15) The transportation is to our economy _____ blood vessels are to our body.

5. Fill in the blanks with the appropriate words.

1) He is showing _____ again. He is afraid that there might be someone in the world who still does not know his talent.

2) She never showed _____ that night. We all wondered why. Later on, we were told that she was sick that day.

3) I was touched by their hospitality. The first day I arrived they showed me _____ the whole city.

4) He is the very person I'm waiting for. Show him _____ .

5) Much of that construction project is only _____ show. One heavy rain, and everything will be washed _____ .

6) If you are interested in traditional Chinese art, let's go to the National Art Museum. They have some really good things _____ show right now.

7) He refused to hand _____ his power to the democratically elected government.

8) It would be a disaster if a nuclear device should fall _____ the hands of terrorists.

9) You remember how our first car was made? It was made _____ hand.

10) Once we have too much power _____ our hands, we'll be tempted to abuse it.

11) The situation in this area may get _____ _____ hand and develop into a bloody war.

12) It was an interesting situation. _____ the one hand, we were all very poor, _____ the other hand, we all believed that a paradise on earth was near _____ hand.

6. Choose the right words in their proper forms.

1) • matter • affair

(1) Some doctors believe that obesity is simply a _____ of genes.

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(2) We are not at all happy with the present state of _____ .

(3) In handling _____ of state, we shouldn't forget that 70% of our people are still peasants.

(4) Tell me what you think of this _____ . What do you think I should do?

(5) This is my personal _____ .

(6) Are you following current _____ closely? What's going on in the Middle East?

2) • hollow   • empty   • vacant   • bare

(1) They burst into the door and found the room was _____ .

(2) It was just a(n) _____ room, no furniture, no nothing.

(3) We could hardly recognize him. With his _____ cheeks and sunken eyes, he looked more dead than alive.

(4) We have had enough of those _____ promises. This time they will have to deliver.

(5) Let's go and ask if that hotel still has a(n) _____ room.

3) • to convert   • to change

(1) Many churches were involved in missionary activities at that time. They wanted to _____ all people to their religion.

(2) I'll have to ask the bank to _____ my 100-yuan bills into something smaller.

(3) RMB will soon be freely _____ .

(4) This sofa can be _____ into a bed.

(5) I've _____ my plan. I'll go there by air.

4) • to laugh   • to grin   • to smile   • to guffaw   • to titter   • to chuckle

(1) I heard people _____ and singing upstairs until midnight.

(2) When she saw me, she _____ faintly and said that she was feeling better.

(3) The old man was friendly. He stood there _____ at me toothlessly.

(4) The students first _____ when the professor entered the classroom. Then they _____ when the professor realized his mistake and began to laugh himself.

7. Translate with special attention to the different meanings of the same word or words which happen to have the same spelling.

1) It has nothing to do with us. He's barking up the wrong tree.

2) We all know that it isn't easy to break away from conventions.

3) The bark of the tree is said to contain something that has some effect on cancer.

4) The Republican Convention is going to be held in Chicago.

5) They plan to drill a hole deep down in that place for the nuclear waste. But that can be dangerous.

6) Language training requires a lot of drill. But it means much more than that.

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7) They prepared a very **elaborate** meal for him, hoping that it might help them to get the contract.

8) We have only a general idea about the plan. Could you **elaborate** on it a little bit?

9) The **pupil** dilates in a dim room to let in more light.

10) The man was tall and thin, with **sharp** eyes and a **sharp** nose.

11) She's got a **sharp** wit and a **sharp** tongue.

12) The cyclist took a **sharp** turn and lost her balance.

13) These **pupils** are young of course. But they are very **sharp.** Don't underestimate them.

14) "Stop that nonsense!" she said **sharply.**

15) The boy bought this **sharp** knife at 10 **sharp** according to the testimony, and the murder took place 20 minutes earlier. So he could not have been the murderer.

16) You look pretty **sharp** today. Where did you get this new jacket?

8. Choose the best word or phrase for each blank from the four supplied in brackets.

Most researchers agree that the loneliest people are between the ages of 18 and 25, so a group of psychologists decided to (1) _____ (observe, research, study, watch) a group of college freshmen. They found that more than 50 percent of the freshmen were situationally lonely at the beginning of the semester (2) _____ (as, because of, for, upon) a result of their new circumstances but had (3) _____ (adapted, adjusted, changed, transformed) after a few months. Thirteen percent were still lonely after seven months. (4) _____ (Thanks, Due, As, Driven) to shyness and fear, they felt very (5) _____ (ill, restless, uncomfortable, weak) meeting new people, even though they understood that their fear was not (6) _____ (conventional, national, rational, situational). The situationally lonely freshmen (7) _____ (beat, held, mastered, overcame) their loneliness by making new friends, but the chronically lonely (8) _____ (remained, retained, restrained, reversed) unhappy because they were afraid to do (9) _____ (it, so, such, that).

Psychologists are trying to find (10) _____ (drugs, means, remedies, ways) to help habitually lonely people (11) _____ (for, out of, owing to, with) two reasons. First of all, they are unhappy and (12) _____ (feasible, impossible, incapable, unable) to socialize. Secondly, researchers have found a (13) _____ (connection, distinction, gap, similarity) between chronic loneliness and serious illnesses such as heart disease. (14) _____ (As, If, Since, While) temporary and situational loneliness can be a (15) _____ (common, good, favorable, normal) healthy part of life, chronic loneliness can be a very sad, and sometimes dangerous condition.

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1. **Grammar in context: Study these sentences and point out the pattern of inversion in each.**

    1) Not only are they being introduced to new people and new knowledge, but they are also acquiring new ways ... **(para. 10, Lesson 1)**

    2) Not only do we want it now; we don't even want to be kept waiting for it. **(para. 5, Lesson 9, Book 2)**

    3) In no other city in the whole world are there such beautiful girls.

    4) Not once had Versuvius stopped hurling pumice stones and ash into the air through the night.

    5) Galileo return to his native town a famous scientist. No longer were his lectures greeted with sneers and catcalls.

    6) During the German occupation, the French scientist refused to work for the Nazis. So did his wife and grownup children.

    7) Scarcely had he finished speaking when police officers rushed onto the platform.

    8) Half way up the hill was a power station that supplied electricity to the surrounding villages.

    9) At the head of the parade marched the guards of honor.

    10) In the middle of the room was a table; behind it stood a screen of a light blue color.

    11) Hardly had the professor finished his presentation when warm applause rose from the audience.

    12) Saturday meant that most adults were at home. So were school-age children.

    13) Never shall I forget the days when we were together.

    14) In no other city in the whole world are there such beautiful gardens.

    15) Robert never forgot that blessed Christmas. Neither did his father.

    16) Only in spring and summer is the lake warm enough for us to have a swim.

    17) Only after much persuasion did Lao Liu agree to be our coach.

    18) Only for the good of the community would he pick up his old trade.

2. **Put the italicized word at the beginning of the sentences and make necessary changes.**

    1) There have *never* been so many people learning English *before*.
       Never before _____

    2) He *neither* gave me a definite answer then *nor at* any other time.

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He didn't give me a definite answer then. Nor _____.

3) We tried *in vain* to persuade him to change his mind.

   In vain _____.

4) She did *not* leave her lab *until* she had got everything ready for the experiment the next day.

   Not until _____.

5) The two girls *little* suspected that the woman who drove them home was the governor herself.

   Little _____.

6) They had *no sooner* left the house than it collapsed.

   No sooner _____.

7) I shall *never* trust that fine-sounding man again.

   _____.

8) He *not only* finished the reading assignment, but he also wrote a report on his findings.

   Not only _____.

9) He began to work earnestly *only after he failed the first time*.

   Only after he failed the first time _____.

10) The old woman would part with her collection of rare stamps *neither for love nor for money*.

    Neither for love nor for money _____.

11) You can *only* find cave houses *in the countryside of some northwest provinces*.

    Only in the countryside of some northwestern provinces _____.

12) Towns where the air is clean and the scenery is beautiful are *lying in deep valleys*.

    Lying in deep valleys _____.

3. Complete the following sentences by translating the Chinese in brackets, using the + comparative/superlative adjective (+ of phrase) construction.

   Examples: At 13 he had become a pupil of the greatest mind in Greece, Aristotle, who gave him *the best of* Greek culture. (para. 12)

   But now, as he spoke, that memory faded. His was *the truer* (of the two memories).

   1) He was born with a weak heart, but he is lucky to have _____ (世界上最好的母亲) who has given him _____ (最深的爱).

   2) As a business person, Larry is more successful than his twin brother Joe, but the latter is by far _____ (人缘更好).

   3) There are two airports in the city, _____ (其中较大的那个) lies in the western suburbs.

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4) All those terrorists are ferocious and their leader is _____
（他们中最残忍的一个）.

5) Both the sisters are talented artists, but _____ （妹妹
看起来前景更好）.

6) I've heard all kinds of fantastic stories; Ms. Clayton's is _____
（最不可信）.

7) A nation's strength does not lie in size. _____
（最大的国家不一定是最强的，最小的不一定是最弱的）.

8) I advise you to buy this type of laptop. It is _____（目前最先进的）.

9) Whatever he buys, he seldom chooses _____（最贵的）. Not that he
cannot afford it. He does not believe that _____
（最贵的的东西总是最好的）.

10) They are often too poor to buy even _____（最便宜的蔬菜）.

11) He is _____（这伙人中最卑鄙的一个）.

12) The job didn't go to _____（两个应聘者中更能干的一位），
because he proved to be incapable of teamwork.

4. Translate the sentences into English.
1) 历史上这个国家从来都没有这样繁荣过。
2) 在整个半天的辩论中，他居然一言未发。
3) 走在游行队伍最前面的是仪仗队 (guards of honor)。
4) 那天他们俩一碰见就互相开起玩笑来了。
5) 直到刘备三顾茅庐诸葛亮才同意出山。
6) 她不仅拒绝接受最佳导演奖，也不愿作任何解释。
7) 在全国任何地方我都没有见到像苏州那样美的园林。
8) 房间的一端是一张 CEO 型的办公桌，它后面立着一个大书柜。
9) 出席毕业典礼 (commencement) 的有教师、家长还有一位教育部副部长。
10) 虽然他经常旅行并到过许多国家，但只有在家里他才感到自在。

5. Put in appropriate determiners where necessary, using a "/" when one is needed.
1) Green Earth is _____ private, charitable foundation, set up to promote _____
awareness of _____ importance of _____ environment. It aims to develop
_____ healthier environment by setting up _____ projects in which _____
people can take _____ practical action to improve _____ aspect of _____
own environment.

2) _____ best of _____ friends, I still believe, totally love and support and trust
each other, and bare to each other _____ secrets of _____ souls, and run to
help each other, and tell _____ harsh truths to each other when they must be told.

3) In _____ poll conducted by _____ local newspaper, 2000 families were asked about _____ standards practiced in _____ families _____ generation ago and now. _____ responses show how much change _____ modern world is experiencing. Over 80 per cent of _____ parents are less strict about _____ politeness of _____ children than _____ own parents had been. Parents recalled having to stand up when _____ adult entered _____ room and having to greet _____ person who came to visit.

6. Complete each of the following sentences with the most likely answer.

1) H. G. Wells' energy _____ enormous, for he wrote an astonishing number of books.

    A. should be   B. must be   C. should have been   D. must have been

2) We are lucky to have _____ scientists in the country to teach us nuclear physics.

    A. the best of   B. best of   C. better   D. the better

3) In no other place _____ such friendly and hospitable people as in your country.

    A. do I see   B. I saw   C. have I seen   D. I have seen

4) She was offered two jobs and her friends all advised her to choose _____ .

    A. the challenger   B. the more challenging

    C. the most challenger   D. the most challenging

5) _____ she saw him again did Vera realize how well he understood her inner shelf.

    A. As soon as   B. When   C. Not until   D. Until

6) _____ people's behavior in the downtown area of a major city leads to the question "What has happened to common courtesy?"

    A. To observe   B. Observing

    C. To be observant on   D. Being observant on

7) There are _____ things more enjoyable than a good discussion with someone you like and respect, _____ you disagree.

    A. some, though   B. a few, however

    C. some, even though   D. few, even if

8) It _____ be realized that football, in its modern form, was _____ organized and given rules in Britain.

    A. must, first   B. has to, initially

    C. should, firstly   D. ought to, initial

9) Basketball is one of the few sports that are just _____ satisfying playing by yourself as it is _____ a team.

    A. very, for   B. equally, on   C. as, with   D. so, in

10) Most technology, _____ for good purposes, can also be used for evil.
    A. if to be designed   B. though designed
    C. when to be designed   D. until designed

11) In this age of information, it is doubtful that a single profession or occupation _____ that does not utilize a computer system in some way.
    A. has existed   B. has been existing
    C. is to exist   D. exists

12) _____ a broad field of study, but it also involves intensive research into instinctive behavior of humans and animals.
    A. Psychology not only is   B. Not only psychology is
    C. Is psychology not only   D. Not only is psychology

13) _____ he needed money for his mother's operation, the driver resisted the temptation to keep the fat wallet a customer had left behind in the car.
    A. Much as   B. So much   C. As much   D. Much so

14) _____ both keys are inserted in the lock can the door of the bank-safe be opened.
    A. Until   B. No sooner
    C. Only when   D. Hardly ever

15) Mr. and Mrs. Brown _____ love their child; they often go out and leave him alone in the cold dark house.
    A. mustn't   B. can't   C. shouldn't   D. needn't

More Work on the Text

IV Written Work

Describe Alexander's visit to Diogenes in about 150 words and end the account with a sentence or two commenting on the behavior of both.

You may begin with something like "While in Corinth, Alexander the Great ..." and end with "The meeting between the Conqueror and the Dog shows ..."

My Heart Leaps Up

William Wordsworth

My heart leaps up when I behold

A rainbow in the sky:

So was it when my life began;

So is it now I am a man;

So be it when I shall grow old,

Or let me die!

The Child is father of the Man;

And I could wish my days to be

Bound each to each by natural piety.

About the poet

William Wordsworth (1770—1850) was an English poet. Owing mainly to his father's influence, he early became acquainted with the works of the best English poets, learning to repeat long passages by heart. Wordsworth lived a calm, quiet life. He was in comfortable circumstances, and lived to his eightieth year.

In 1798, Wordsworth and his friend Coleridge (1772—1843) published a slim volume of Lyrical Ballads. This volume gave a new direction to English poetry, turning away from the artificial and formal verse of the eighteenth century and moving into a new romantic field, described either as "The Return to Nature" or "The Romantic Revival."

Wordsworth aimed at simplicity in his subjects and in his manner of presenting them, choosing commonplace incidents and trying to express the poetry in them in the language of ordinary people. He composed a large part of his poetry out of doors.

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"每当我看见天上的虹"

每当我看见天上的虹
我的心就跳。
初生时这样，
长成人也这样，
老了也不会不同——
否则不如死掉！
婴儿是成人的父亲。
但愿我一生的时间
前后有天生的虔诚贯串！

"每当我看见天上的虹"

每当我看见天上的虹
我的心就跳。

A Horseman in the Sky

Ambrose Bierce

1 One sunny afternoon in the autumn of the year 1861, a soldier lay in a clump of laurel, by the side of a road in western Virginia. He lay at full length upon his stomach, his feet resting upon the toes, his head upon the left forearm. His extended right hand loosely grasped his rifle. But for a slight rhythmic movement of the cartridge box at the back of his belt he might have been thought to be dead. He was asleep at his post of duty. If detected he would be dead shortly afterward, death being the just and legal penalty for his crime.

2 The clump of laurel in which the criminal lay was in the angle of a road which went zigzagging downward through the forest. At a second angle in the road was a large flat rock, jutting out northward, overlooking the deep valley from which the road ascended. The rock capped a high cliff; a stone dropped from its outer edge would have fallen sheer downward one thousand feet to the tops of the pines. The angle where the soldier lay was on the same cliff. Had he been awake it might well have made him giddy to look below.

3 The country was wooded everywhere except at the bottom of the valley to the northward, where there was a small meadow, through which flowed a stream scarcely visible from the valley's rim. This open ground looked hardly larger than an ordinary backyard but was really several acres in extent. Its green was more vivid than that of the enclosing forest. Away beyond it rose a similar line of giant cliffs. The valley, indeed, from this point of observation, seemed entirely shut in, and one could not but have wondered how the road had found a way into it.

4 No country is so wild and difficult but men will make it a theater of war; concealed in the forest at the bottom of that military rattrap in which half a hundred men in possession of the exits might nave starved an army to submission, lay five regiments of Federal infantry. They had marched all the previous day and night and were resting. At nightfall they would take to the road again, climb to the place where their unfaithful sentinel now slept, and descending the other slope of the ridge, fall upon a camp in the rear of it. In case of failure, their position would be perilous in the extreme; and fail they surely would, should accident or vigilance apprise the enemy of the movement.

5 The sleeping sentinel in the clump of laurel was a young Virginian named Carter Druse. He was the son of wealthy parents. His home was but a few miles from where he now lay. One morning he had risen from the breakfast table and said, quietly but gravely: "Father, a Union regiment has arrived at Grafton. I am going to join it.

6 The father lifted his head, looked at the son a moment in silence and replied: "Well, go

sir, and whatever may occur, do what you conceive to be your duty. Virginia, to which you are a traitor, must get on without you. Should we both live to the end of the war, we will speak further of the matter. Your mother, as the physician has informed you, is in a most critical condition; at the best she cannot be with us longer than a few weeks, but that time is precious. It would be better not to disturb her."

7   So Carter Druse, bowing to his father, who returned the salute with a stately courtesy, left the home of his childhood. By conscience and courage, devotion and daring, he soon commended himself to his fellows and his officers; and it was to these qualities and to some knowledge of the country that he owed his selection for his present duty at the extreme outpost. Nevertheless, fatigue had been stronger than resolution, and he had fallen asleep. What good or bad angel came in a dream, to rouse him, who shall say? He quietly raised his forehead from his arm and looked between the masking branches of the laurels, instinctively closing his right hand about the stock of his rifle.

8   His first feeling was a keen artistic delight. On the cliff, motionless at the extreme edge of the rock and sharply outlined against the sky, was a statue of impressive dignity. The figure of a man sat on the figure of a horse, straight and soldierly, but with the repose of a god carved in marble. The gray uniform harmonized with its background, softened and subdued by the shadow. A carbine across the saddle, kept in place by the right hand grasping it at "grip"; the left hand, holding the bridle rein, was invisible. The face of the rider, turned slightly away, showed only an outline temple and beard; he was looking downward to the bottom of valley.

9   For an instant Druse had a strange feeling that he had slept to the end of the war and was looking upon a noble work of art. The feeling was dispelled by a slight movement of the horse which had drawn its body slightly backward from the verge; the man remained immobile as before. Broad awake and keenly alive to the significance of the situation, Druse now brought the butt of his rifle against his cheek by cautiously pushing the barrel forward through the bushes and, glancing through the sights, covered a vital spot on the horseman's breast. A touch upon the trigger and all would have been well with Carter Druse. At that instant the horseman turned his head and looked in the direction of his concealed foe—seemed to look into his face, into his eyes.

10   Carter Druse grew pale; he shook in every limb, turned faint. His hand fell away from his weapon, his head slowly dropped until his face rested on the leaves in which he lay.

11   It was not for long; in another moment his face was raised from the earth, his hands resumed their places on the rifle, his forefinger sought the trigger; mind, heart, and eyes were clear, conscience and reason sound. He could not hope to capture that enemy; to alarm him would but send him dashing to his camp. The duty of the soldier was plain: the man must be shot dead from ambush—without warning. But no—there is a hope; he may have discovered nothing—perhaps he is but admiring the landscape. If

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permitted, he may turn and ride carelessly away. It may well be that his fixity of attention ... Druse turned his head and looked downward. He saw creeping across the green meadow a sinuous line of blue figures and horses—some foolish commander was permitting his soldiers to water their beasts in the open, in plain view from a dozen summits!

12 Druse withdrew his eyes from the valley and fixed them again upon the man and horse in the sky, and again it was through the sights of his rifle. But this time his aim was at the horse. In his memory rang the words of his father at their parting: "Whatever may occur, do what you conceive to be your duty." He was calm now; not a tremor affected any muscle of his body; his breathing, until suspended in the act of taking aim, was regular and slow.

13 He fired.

14 After firing his shot, private Carter Druse reloaded his rifle and resumed his watch. Ten minutes had hardly passed when a Federal sergeant crept cautiously to him on hands and knees. Druse neither turned his head nor looked at him.

15 "Did you fire?" the sergeant whispered.

16 "Yes."

17 "At what?"

18 "A horse. It was standing on yonder rock—pretty far out. You see it is no longer there. It went over the cliff." The man's face was white, but he showed no other sign of emotion. Having answered, he turned away his eyes and said no more.

19 The sergeant did not understand. "See here, Druse," he said, after a moment's silence, "it's no use making a mystery. I order you to report. Was there anybody on the horse?"

20 "Yes."

21 "Well?"

22 "My father." The sergeant slowly rose to his feet and walked away.

How many angels can dance on the head of a pin?

Slide 1

- The question "How many angels can dance on the head of a pin?" is associated with medieval theology of the Scholastic school, the best-known representative being Saint Thomas Aquinas, the 13th-century Christian philosopher (and a Dominican monk).

Slide 2

- Nowadays the question often appears when someone is ridiculing theologians, the Drift of the original discussion about angels and pinheads concerned infinity and different kinds of being.
- Something like this: Angels aren't spatial, and so an infinite number of them could occupy a point.

Slide 3

Numerous answers since the middle age......

- It is impossible for two distinct causes to each be the immediate cause of one and the same thing. An angel is a good example of such a cause. Thus two angels cannot occupy the same space.

Slide 4

- If an infinite number of angels could fit on the head of a pin, the an angel had no material substance and was definitely a purely spiritual, non-material entity.

- If, instead, some finite number of angles could fit on the head of a pin, then the spiritual universe was not much different from the physical universe.

Slide 5

Cultural note

- This is a scornful description of a tedious concern with irrelevant details; an allusion to religious controversies in the middle ages. In fact, the medieval argument was over how many angels could stand on the point of a pin.

Slide 6

What is the author's point?

- A demonstration that exam questions can be subject to multiple interpretations
- An example of how a clever student can find ingenious way to answer a question
- An illustration of applying philosophical approach to a practical problem

Slide 7

What is the author's point?

- An argument against a particular kind of pedantry in teaching
  - Free *vs.* pedantic teaching
  - thinking about the methods for solving a problem *vs.* applying a method for solving a problem
  - Exploring the inner logic of a subject *vs.* the structure of a subject

Slide 8

Some criticism......

- Callandra seems to be suggesting that "exploring the deep inner logic of a subject in a pedantic way is similar to the empty arguments of scholasticism. He compares this to the 'new math', so much in the news in the 60s, which attempted to replace rote memorization of math with a deeper understanding of the logic and principles of mathematics, and he seems to be deriding that effort, too.

Slide 9

Word study

- impartial
- Aid
- Barometer
- Admit
- Credit
- Be supposed to
- competence

- Calculate
- Recall
- Sophisticated
- Superintendent
- panic

Slide 10

Word study

- To prefer A to B
- To prefer to do sth.
- To prefer doing sth.
- Preferable
- E.g. *A dark suit is preferable to a light one for evening wear.*

Slide 11

Useful Phrases

- To be about to
- To set up a system
- To take sth. to sb.
- With the aid of
- To point out
- To have a strong case for/against

- On the other hand
- To dash off
- To lean over the edge
- To time its fall
- To mark off
- In units

Slide 12

Useful Phrases

- The trouble with sth.
- At a certain level
- In principle
- To work out sth.
- As follows
- To be fed up with
- To play a joke with sb.
- To throw sb. Into a panic
- To blame sb. for sth.

Slide 13

Word Study

take sth. to sb.: leave sth. to be solved by sb.

with the aid of: with the help of

Admit

be supposed to do

Slide 14

Paraphrase

- We must **admit** the student really had a pretty strong case for full credit.

Slide 15

Paraphrase

- The height of the building can **in principle** be **worked out**.

Slide 16

Paraphrase

So he could not resist the temptation to...,
which had been <u>thrown into such a panic</u> ....

Paraphrase: so he could not help playing a joke with the educational system, which had got into a sudden strong feeling of fear and nervousness because of the successful launching of the Russian Sputnik.

Slide 17

How it is possible to determine the height of a tall building with the aid of a barometer?

- "Go to the top floor, tie a long piece of string to the barometer, let it down 'till it touches the ground and measure the length of the string."

Slide 18

How it is possible to determine the height of a tall building with the aid of a barometer?

- "Sure, go to the top floor, drop the barometer off, and measure how long before it hits the ground......"

Slide 19

How it is possible to determine the height of a tall building with the aid of a barometer?

- "Measure the length of the barometer, then mount it vertically on the ground on a sunny day and measure its shadow, measure the shadow of the skyscraper....."

Slide 20

How it is possible to determine the height of a tall building with the aid of a barometer?

- "walk up the stairs and use the barometer as a ruler to measure the height of the walls in the stairwells."

Slide 21

How it is possible to determine the height of a tall building with the aid of a barometer?

- "Make a pendulum of the barometer, measure its period at the bottom, then measure its period at the top......"

Slide 22

How it is possible to determine the height of a tall building with the aid of a barometer?

- "Find where the janitor lives, knock on his door and say 'Please, Mr Janitor, if I give you this nice Barometer, will you tell me the height of this building ?"

Slide 23

Other answers

- "The less polite alternative is to threaten to wallop the caretaker with the barometer unless they tell you how high the building is."
- "Use the barometer as a paperweight while examining the building plans. "
- "Sell the barometer and buy a tape measure. "

Slide 24

Other answers

- 1) Beat on the foundation o the building, using the barometer, until the building comes crashing down.
- 2) Any sizeable pieces should be pulverized into pebbles and dust.
- 3) The height of the building should be zero. If not, repeat step 2).

Slide 25

Language practice: back translation

1. 走到顶楼，用 根长绳**绑住**气压计，把气压计从顶楼**放下**，然后**测量**绳子的长度。
- Go to, tie...to, let down / lower, measure

2. 走到顶楼，让气压计**自由落**下，测量气压计落到地面所化的时间。
- Go to / take... to, drop, measure / time

Slide 26

3. 在有太阳晒的时候，先测量气压计的长度，然后让气压计**垂直**于地面，测量地面上气压计影子的长度。再测量地面上建筑物的长度。使用简单的**比例**计算，就可以得出建筑物的高度。
- Measure, length, height, mount, vertically, proportion, determine.

Slide 27

- Measure the length of the barometer, then **mount it vertically on the ground** on a sunny day and measure its shadow. Measure the shadow of the building. Then by the use of a simple **proportion**, determine the height of the building.

Slide 28

4. 手拿气压计走上楼梯。爬楼梯的时候，**以气压计的长度为一个单位**，顺着墙每升高一个单位做一次记号。然后数这些记号的数目，这样就得到了**以气压计的长度为计算单位**的建筑物的高度。
- Mark off, along, count, this will give..., in ... units.

Slide 29

- Take the barometer and **walk up** the stairs. As you climb the stairs, you **mark off** the length of the barometer **along** the wall. You then **count** the number of marks and **this will give you** the height of the building **in barometer units**.

Slide 30

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Puzzles

- Lateral Thinking Puzzles, unlike most puzzles, are inexact. In a sense, they are a hybrid between puzzles and storytelling. In each puzzle, some clues to a scenario are given, but the clues don't tell the full story. Your job is to fill in the details and complete the story. Obviously, there is usually more than one answer to any given puzzle, but, in general, only one solution is truly satisfying.

Slide 31

- Usually it will be funny if you involve the puzzle with other people.
1. You look at the answer (maybe you want to try the puzzle on your own first!)
2. Then read just the clues to your friends.
3. Your friends must determine the answer by asking questions about it, which you may answer only with *yes, no,* or *doesn't matter*. You can adjust the difficulty of the puzzle by varying the initial clues, throwing in red herrings, and so forth.

Slide 32

Background information

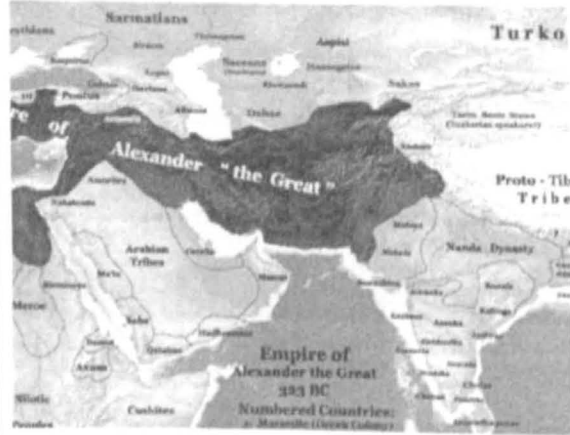- Diogenes: (412---324 BC)

Slide 1

- Diogenes (412---324 BC):
- Greek philosopher. The most famous of the Cynics. According to legend, he lived in a tub, and was accordingly nicknamed "dog", from which the Cynics derived their name.

Slide 2

- Alexander the Great (356-324BC)

Slide 3

Slide 4

- Socrates (?470 – 399BC):
- a Greek philosopher
- He is known for encouraging people to think carefully about ideas before accepting them and for developing a method of examining ides according to system of questions and answers in order to find out truth. This is known as the Socratic method or dialectics (辩证法).

Slide 5

- Plato (429 – 347 BC): Athenian philosopher, a disciple of Socrates. He founded the Academy in Athens which was one of the world's first centers for advanced scientific study. His philosophical writings are presented in the form of dialogues. Plato's political theories appear in the Republic, in which he explored the nature and structure of a just society.

Slide 6

- Aristotle (385 – 323 BC): Greek philosopher and scientist. He is a student of Plato and a tutor of Alexander the Great. He is one of the most influential thinkers in the history of Western thought. His surviving works covers a vast range of subjects, including logic, language, ethics, politics and natural science and physics.

Slide 7

- Hercules:
- Labour of Hercules （赫丘利的苦差):
  Augean Stable:
- "to clean the Augean Stable"

- Pillar of Hercules (赫丘利之柱):
- Strait of Gibraltar (直布罗陀海峡)
- The western end of the Mediterranean (地中海西端)
- Rocks had been moved apart by Hercules.

Slide 8

- Achilles: A hero of Trojan War
- a greatest Greek warrior
- plunged in the Styx (冥河)
- invulnerable body except for the heel
- killed Hector, a greatest Trojan warrior
- wounded in the heel by an arrow
- Paris: Hector' brother

Slide 9

- 阿基里斯：出生后被其母倒提着在冥河水中浸过，除未浸到水的脚踵外，浑身刀枪不入
- Achilles heel: a weakness or vulnerable point.
- 唯一致命的弱点

Slide 10

Pre-class questions

- 1. How did Diogenes live?
- 2. Why did he live that way?
- 3. What is the essence of the philosophy Diogenes tried to teach?
- 4. How do Diogenes and Alexander resemble and differ from each other?
- 5. What impression did you get of Alexander?

Slide 11

Structure of the Text

- Part 1: para 1 – 10
- describes Diogenes the beggar;
- Part 2: 11 – 13
- describes Alexander the conqueror;
- Part 3: 14 – 17
- their dramatic encounter

Slide 12

Detailed Discussion of the Text

- ...or a lunatic
- lunatic: a mad man
- lunar: connected with the moon.
- Insanity was once believed to be controlled by the moon
- Compare: lunar calendar / solar calendar

Slide 13

- ... done his business like a dog.
- he had emptied his bowels or passed water like a dog at the roadside.
- do one's business: euphemism
- old people: senior citizens;
- a stupid student: a slow learner

Slide 14

- a mischievous pebble:
- transferred epithet
- 英语移就格
- "Amazed silence" (17)
- We spent an anxious night.
- I cannot forget the happy days of my childhood.

Slide 15

Paragraph 2

- He thought everybody lived far too elaborately, expensively, anxiously.
- Paraphrase:
- He thought that our life is too complicated, too costly, and gives us too much pressure.

Slide 16

- ... converting one of them
- convert: to change one's belief (to);
- to change from one form, purpose, system to into another.
- John was converted to Buddhism by a Chinese priest.
- The hotel is going to be converted into a hospital.

Slide 17

Paragraph 3

by choice
- I hope you took the language study as your major by choice, and like to learn English.

Slide 18

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out of:
- **She was silent out of embarrassment.**
- out of curiosity
- out of respect
- out of interest

Slide 19

Paragraph 5

- ... " to restamp the currency": to take the clean metal of human life, ...
- to restamp the currency": **to change human values**

Slide 20

Paragraph 6

- ... by design: intentionally
- She arrived just as we were leaving, but whether this was by accident or by design I'm not sure.

Slide 21

Paragraph 14

- **fiery glance: passionate or fierce look** 目光炯炯
- **air of destiny: the air of someone who has the power to determine the course of events in future**
- 气度非凡

Slide 22

Paragraph 17

- Do you think the use of "blocking the sunlight" here has any symbolic meaning?
- Why do you think Alexander say so?
- What did ordinary people think of him?
- Why could Alexander understand him?

Slide 23

- **paradox: a statement that seems impossible because it contains two ideas that are both true.**
- 似非而是的隽语
- **The more haste, the less speed.**
- People often say that many hands make light work. But the paradox is, in some cases, too many hands spoil the broth.

Slide 24

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Discussion and Appreciation

¤ 1. Is Diogenes' philosophy out of date?

¤ 2. Would you rather be Diogenes with his philosophy or Alexander with his power?

Slide 25

Practice

¤ convention: generally accepted standards of behavior

¤ women taking their husbands' names;

¤ shaking hands when you meet with friends;

¤ marrying within your own religion, or in a particular way...

Slide 26

custom: something that has been done for a long time by a whole society

¤ using chopsticks,

¤ wearing black in mourning...

Slide 27

¤ habit: something regularly done by a single person

¤ biting one's nails,

¤ going to bed late...

¤ tradition:

¤ eating a particular kind of food on a particular festival;

¤ respecting the old ...

Slide 28

¤ the modifiers of comparatives:

¤ far, even, many, much, still, a lot, a (little) bit, rather, slightly...

¤ He came even earlier than I asked.

¤ He is far more truthful than most people.

¤ You've been working much harder than I have

Slide 29

¤ smile, laugh, giggle, grin, titter, chuckle, guffaw

¤ grin: 露齿而笑, 咧嘴而笑

¤ The child grinned with pleasure.

¤ titter: to give a nervous little laugh, 嗤嗤地笑, 窃笑

¤ chuckle: to laugh quietly to oneself

¤ 低声笑, 抿嘴轻笑

Slide 30

Slide 31

- guffaw: to laugh loudly
- 高声笑，捧腹大笑
- giggle: (esp. girls)
- 咯咯地笑

Slide 32

Speech contest

Modernization and Traditions

Slide 33

- Requirements:
- 1) Everyone is required to prepare a 3-minute speech;
- 2) You should memorize your speech;
- 3) All class will take part in grading each speech;

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- 4) The grade for each speech will be given according to pronunciation and intonation, fluency, use of language, rhetoric, organization of ideas, content, body language, etc.

1. The curriculum advocates that teaching should be task-based orientated and blended with various teaching activities. The pedagogy should include training as well as fostering students' abilities in discussing, discovering and research. Students should be motivated to participate in activities throughout the lesson. Could you please make some comments on these points?

2. As well as task-based language teaching, the New Curriculum stresses that traditional teacher-centred methods should be replaced by a more student-centred approach. Could you please comment on these two points?

3. The curriculum emphasizes that the purpose for learning English is to improve the students' general ability to acquire knowledge, to make them think more critically and have a better sense of innovation. What do you think about this?

4. I have noticed that you follow the text book very rigidly. What role does the text-book play in your English teaching?

5. How do you assess your students in this module?

6. What freedom and constraints do you have in choosing your teaching style and content?

7. In your lesson, you start with introducing background knowledge then help students to understand the text by summarizing the structure; giving detailed explanations of complex sentences or reinterpreting sentences in different ways, and doing a lot of drilling on language points. What effect do you want all this to have?

8. You ask students to work in pairs to discuss some certain topics. What do you hope students can achieve through these activities? How often do you plan to have these activities?

9. I note that there are many PowerPoint slides in your lessons. How long do you normally spend on the preparation of these slides and where do you get the information?

10. Do you have any policy towards the use of Chinese? Did you intend in your lesson plan to use Chinese?

1. What do you want to achieve through English learning in terms of proficiency and career?

2. In the Intensive Reading classes, the teacher often starts new lessons with background knowledge and then outlines the structure of the text. Detailed explanations on language points and complex sentences are the foci. Could you please make some comments on the classroom performance?

3. What role do textbooks play in your English learning?

4. What role do you think PowerPoint slides play in your English learning? For example how useful do you find these slides? What do you think you learn from them?

5. Are you familiar with the concept of student-centredness? Do you like activities such as group discussion or pair work ? Why?

6. What freedom or constraints do you feel you have in English learning?

7. I also noted that in the Intensive Reading classes, the teacher uses Chinese from time to time. What are your views on the use of Chinese? Do you have a preference as to how much and when the teacher should use Chinese?

8. Is your English learning style affected by the exams you need to take?