AN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER TRAINING CURRICULUM MODEL FOR THE BEIJING COAL MINING MANAGEMENT COLLEGE, BEIJING, PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA

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Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate College
of the Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Degree of
MASTER OF ARTS
July, 1985

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PREFACE

When a populous giant such as the People's Republic of China takes up an interest--this one being English--with such fervor, it is no small venture. In fact, one finds it difficult to know where to begin in describing circumstances and prescribing solutions concerning EFL in China. And since China has only in the last seven years opened its doors for serious Western interaction, there has not yet been time to probe extensively with statistical studies about English teaching progress in China, nor to make other than wide-sweeping generalizations about inconsistencies encountered. There is a joke we often heard during our six-month teaching term in Beijing, which I found repeated in my reading. . . "those who stay in China for a week write a book about it. Those who stay a month write an article. And those who live a year or more there, write nothing" (Maley, 1983, p. 97). Appropriately then, I might add: those who stay in China six months write a thesis.

As I have indicated, the primary basis for the following curriculum modification I am proposing is a spring 1984 teaching experience in Mainland China. A colleague, Linda Stark, and I, through the recommendation of a visiting scholar to Oklahoma State University, received an assignment to teach in a small college on the outskirts of Beijing. My personal assignment was to provide native English instruction for middle school English teachers from small coal mining towns throughout Northeastern China. In a cooperative effort with the Chinese EFL teachers of these teacher trainees, I taught on alternate weeks two

classes (41 students) of secondary teachers.

Though later rewarding, initially the teaching experience was frustrating. A major problem identified by Chinese and Westerner alike concerns the conflicting perspectives and approaches expected of the foreign teacher working in China (J. Scovel, 1982; Maley, 1983; Wu, 1983). The students I taught expected me to expound upon antiquated textbook passages, to provide expert answers to all questions of grammar, and to give informative lectures on American and British literature. I, on the other hand, felt my function to be one of structuring a communicative classroom stressing all skill areas, informing these teachers of up-to-date methods and techniques, and providing them with cultural information on the United States. Though these objectives clearly stood in opposition, our ultimate goal was shared: increased skill in the teaching of English.

What evolved, through a mutual reshaping of expectations, was a compromise. I began to explicate more completely on the textbook and to give lectures on English literature, while involving the students in highly structured communicative activities. Later, after returning to the United States and pondering this evolution in my teaching, I have now developed what is a personally satisfying proposal for a curriculum revision.

Given the transitory role of the foreign teacher in China, ever-changing TEFL practices and materials availability there, this model functions primarily as a foundation easily adapted in actual use. It is hoped that this proposal suggests a more efficient and pleasant experience for the foreign teacher, while respecting the tradition and pedagogical thought of the Chinese.

I remain deeply grateful to several individuals at Oklahoma State University who have helped me in this and other endeavors at OSU. I wish to thank Dr. Ravi Sheorey, my major adviser, for his organizational direction, useful suggestions, and enthusiastic input. I also thank the other members of my thesis committee--Dr. Bruce Southard and Dr. John Deveny--for their apt remarks and criticisms. And for their assistance and encouragement in the preparation of this manuscript, I am grateful to Drs. Mark and Natalie Rockley.

I also am appreciative to Linda Stark, Melissa Stephenson, and Amelia Kreitzer for their many relevant insights concerning this shared EFL teaching experience in the People's Republic of China. Particularly, I wish to thank Yang Tongwei, my Chinese colleague at the Beijing Coal Mining Management College, for her consistent support and worthwhile reflections.

My father and mother, Dr. Lewis Ford and Mrs. Anne Lide Ford, my sister Rachel Ford, and my dear friend Dr. George Wittmer also deserve my thanks for their encouragement and constant support. And most deeply felt of all is my appreciation to my grandfather Dr. Francis Pugh Lide, whose work in the Shandong province of Northeastern China inspired my interest, travel, and now-shared appreciation of China and her people.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Significant Influences on English Teaching in China

One of the key considerations in initiating any change must be assessing the probable future effectiveness of the revision. Many outside factors determine the final usefulness of a development in education. Studies in history, sociology, and anthropology aid educators in determining bases for present action and causes of future reaction. Moreover, it is clearly evident that any English as a Foreign Language instruction in China must be prefaced with an examination of its historical and cultural influences. A brief overview is provided here.

For the Westerner, China is often a paradox. Bonavia (1982) reflects upon the seeming contradictions in agriculture, politics, religion, and social structure in Mainland China. These contradictions appear on a smaller scale as well. For instance, though the Beijing Coal Mining Management College supplies a dust-cover for the rarely used Xerox machine in a special office, light bulbs in the classrooms are dim and inadequate. Often, the contrasts are not easily diagnosed and reflect deep-seated differences between the Chinese and the American; Francis L.K. Hsu (1981) devotes an entire book to an explanation of them. Probably the most significant aspects for a Western understanding of the Chinese include (a) the role of the individual in Chinese society, (b) the politicization of education in China, and (c) the historical

influences on English education thought and practice.

Function and Society

One's function within society and the individual's relationship to his fellows is decidedly more important in Chinese society than in the United States. Though Westerners value individual initiative and freedom of expression, the Chinese value conformity and functional membership within the group. Hsu (1981) makes the following observation:

> The Chinese and American ways of life may be reduced to two sets of contrasts. First, in the American way of life the emphasis is placed upon the predilections of the individual, a characteristic we shall call individual-centered. This is in contrast to the emphasis the Chinese put upon an individual's appropriate place and behavior among his fellowmen, a characteristic we shall term situation-centered (p. 12).

Bonavia (1982) concurs with Hsu's assessment that personal validation in China is seen in terms of function. The most stringent punishment a Chinese kindergartener can receive is to be separated from the rest of the group. He feels a threatening loss of identity. To the Westerner, even a Chinese adult seems dependent and somewhat cautious.

In education, a teacher's function is validated by student and administrative relationships. A teacher in China rarely questions the theoretical underpinnings of a method or approach he uses. Rather, he examines the contribution his students feel he has made and his contribution to the teaching group in his department or section. Moreover, there is little in Chinese society to support independent innovation, unless it is clearly shown to support the group, be that family, school, unit, or country. In the classroom, this is translated into an overwhelming conformity to the traditional approaches and common teaching practices (J. Scovel, 1982).

Politicization of Education

Politics play a significant role in day-to-day affairs (J. Scovel, 1982; Bastid, 1984). Though political decisions concerning funding and large-scale policies are made in American education, we cringe at the term "propaganda" and the imposition on education in areas of religion, ethics, political persuasion, and personal opinion. "Propaganda," however, is not a dirty word for the Chinese (Xiu-Bai, 1983). Education, the Chinese believe, should provide directives in matters of ethics, social conduct, and, particularly, matters political. Political themes in the Chinese classroom are commonplace, and censorship is an expected element in textbook development and classroom discussion.

During the Cultural Revolution, political influences became primary. English textbooks, which formerly had provided Western literature selections, now consisted of political speeches of Mao and other leaders translated into English and abridged biographies of Lenin and Marx. The U.S. Information Agency (1975), in an early research memorandum, finds that "it is not enough to be able to quote the thoughts of Chairman Mao in Chinese; a student is required to learn them in English or whatever other foreign language he may be studying" (p. 10). Even words such as beauty, stroll, and scenery were banned as bourgeois and therefore unfitting to the revolutionary cause. The memorandum notes that only two lessons in one textbook they reviewed did not propagandize views of the communist party.

Even in currently used textbooks, political and ethical issues have still been addressed as recently as 1981. Service to the party and deprecation of other "imperialistic" countries are common themes in Chinese-published English textbooks. In the textbook series used in

English section at the Beijing Coal Mining Management College, some of the titles suggest this perspective: "Reminiscences of Marx," "Homeland for My Soul," and "Reminiscences of an Interview with Chairman Mao Tse-Tung on the Paper Tiger" (P.R.C. Ministry of Education, 1981).

Historical Influences

Much of current Chinese pedagogical practice can be traced to the long-standing Confucian tradition (Light, 1980; J. Scovel, 1982, 1983; Xia, 1984; Zhuang, 1984). This philosophy is reflected in several continued emphases in the Chinese classroom: teacher-centered lectures, passive student roles, analytical approaches to language through grammar, memorization and recitation of vocabulary and reading passages, and a distinct love of classical study (in language study, the literature of the target language). A typical sight in the early evenings on a Chinese college campus is a student strolling and reciting the morning lecture or assigned passage for the week.

Some Westernization of higher education and secondary education occurred in China during the late 1800's and 1900's. Tertiary institutions comparable to comprehensive universities in the United States were begun. In addition, many Chinese went abroad to study and brought back ideas which were mapped out on paper for a large scale redesign of higher education in China (J. Scovel, 1983; Zhuang, 1984). However, the communist revolution in 1949 thwarted these plans. Yet, some of the best English speakers in China today are those from the older generation trained in the language immersion missionary schools of this period (J. Scovel, 1983).

After Liberation, the next major historical influence with major

ramifications in education resulted from the Sino-Soviet exchanges of the 1950's. J. Scovel (1982) observes that hundreds of Russian books were translated into Chinese during the period, and that literally thousands of Soviet experts came to China to aid in socialist growth. Dickey (1980) notes that due to Soviet influence, comprehensive universities were converted into institutes specializing in science and technology, medicine, and language. English teachers studied Russian because of government directives, the popularity of Russian during this time, and the disfavor into which English had fallen due to the Korean War. In addition to its presence in the specialization of tertiary education, Russian influence is seen primarily in present day "teaching groups" in China and the popularity of the Intensive Reading method. J. Scovel (1982) explains the former:

> Teaching Groups were to prepare lectures collectively, discuss teaching programs and materials, work out central or difficult points in a lecture, watch demonstrations by master teachers, study teaching methodology, and collect and study questions or opinions raised during or after the demonstration or class (p. 42).

Though teaching groups today may not always carry out all of these functions, instructors of a common subject in colleges and universities in China work collectively on matters of classroom preparation.

Central to EFL teaching in China is the in-depth analytical study of reading selections called "Intensive Reading" (Morris, 1972), and first borrowed from the Soviet system (J. Scovel 1982, 1983). Intensive Reading is readily accommodated by the classics study of the Confucian tradition. The method involves dissecting a passage of a few pages into segments, which are then analyzed for grammar points and independent word meaning. Little attention is given to comprehension or criticism of the overall passage.

Historically, the most dramatic and chaotic upheaval was the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976), occurring after the Sino-Soviet split of 1959 and a short period of equilibrium in the 1960's. Despite Mao's continuing pronouncements that revolution must be a constant and never-ending struggle--one without resolution in stability--no period after Liberation in 1949 was as violent as the Cultural Revolution. In a dramatic gesture to reclaim some of his waning power, Mao called for students to learn from the peasants, and schools were closed for the first three years of the Cultural Revolution so that students could return to the countryside. Intellectual pursuits were branded as self-serving, and English study was abridged significantly and politicized. Bonavia (1982) describes the classrooms of the day as having continual upheaval and providing little in the way of serious academic study. Teachers, and particularly those teaching the "decadent" and "imperialistic" language of English, were severely criticized. Zhuang (1984) reflects that teachers of English were "overly cautious" and more "concerned about avoiding political mistakes than realizing any academic achievements" (p. 7). Students in Beijing remember their secondary education during the Cultural Revolution as an erratic schedule of criticism sessions, recitations of Mao's writings, and labor in nearby farms and factories. Because of this major interruption in their young lives, adults in their late twenties and early thirties today often refer to themselves as the "Lost Generation."

Since 1976 with the death of Mao and the demise of the "Gang of Four" and with 1978 normalization of relations initiated by President Jimmy Carter's visit to China, East-West exchanges have increased over three-hundred-fold. The influx of foreign experts from the English-

speaking nations of the United States, Great Britain, and Australia have brought both important advances and concurrent problems. China is concerned about making a smooth yet brisk transfer into the modern scientific and technological world, and English is viewed as the vehicle in this movement. However, unlike China's highly successful response as a socialist nation to the population problem of nearly a billion people, the conflicts arising from Western interaction are less easily controlled.

Assumptions

Contradictory perspectives exist among native-speaking EFL teachers concerning the teaching of English in a foreign country. However, it is possible to identify two broad classifications when discussing EFL pedagogical perspectives on the teaching of EFL overseas (Alpetekin and Alpetekin, 1984). One opinion argued is that English instruction should be provided within a context of the sociocultural norms and values of English-speaking countries if communicative competence is expected to result. The other perspective in opposition to it is that the teaching of English should be independent of the target language culture, and a native cultural context should be used. Scott (1980) makes the point that China produces its own English textbooks in a manner styled after earlier British textbooks with one decided difference: a changed cultural context, one emphasizing Chinese sociopolitical values and norms. Xiu-Bai (1983) and Zhuang (1984) both identify problems in the application of ESL classroom activities and textbooks in the Chinese EFL classroom. The problems include semantic misconstruing, conflicting reactions to the morality views expressed,

and inappropriate activities for practical application in the educational environment of China. A conflict also arises when a critical, though not anti-ethical, and independent approach is expected of the Chinese student, one common to Western methodological models.

The perspective taken in this proposal is conciliatory to the two angles of EFL viewpoint here identified. In order for a language student to achieve communicative success, he must have an understanding of the culture underlying the target language. Culture provides the basis for idiomatic formation and usage, the connotative value assigned to words, and the context supplied even in short discourse. However, an EFL student is not meeting the same goal as that pursued by the integratively-motivated ESL learner; rather, he uses English as an instrument or tool for success in his own culture. In the case of the middle school teacher trainees at the Beijing Coal Mining Management College, they returned at the finish of the program not to an American context, but to small towns which might receive foreign visitors but once every two or three years. An insight into Western culture might prove interesting and beneficial to their teaching, but not essential to their teaching success.

Also, the model I am proposing makes certain assumptions about the nature of innovation. Change rarely results from one factor, as in this case from an independently formulated curriculum revision. Though it is extremely valuable to have traveled to China and participated first-hand in a teacher training program in Beijing, I represent only one studied opinion on problems which necessarily require more substantial input from experimental study and the collective opinion of Chinese educators at the college if conclusive innovation is to be made.

Limitations

This proposal is limited in several ways. First of all, it is necessarily limited to the middle school teacher training classes in English at the Beijing Coal Mining Management College and the existing circumstances of 1984. Second, the model is not based upon an experimental study at the college, nor upon extensive use of questionnaires. Rather, it is based upon personal experience and reflection, one informal questionnaire, discussions with Chinese colleagues and other foreign teachers in China, and available literature on the subject.

More significantly, this proposal is limited in that it is written for the foreign expert or teacher working at the college with the class of middle school teachers. Though the Chinese teacher of the same might find useful input, this paper is written to a presumed Western audience of prospective EFL teachers. As a foreign teacher at this particular college, one is excluded from large-scale curriculum decision-making, from the teaching group meetings, and from long-overdue materials selection. Therefore, the proposal necessarily exists within the parameters of a situation governed by administrative decisions of the Ministry of Education, the Bureau of Education in the Coal Mining Ministry, and the college itself. Given those conditions, the model is individually applied and indirectly effecting of permanent changes. Its best function is as an aid to the successful participation of the foreign teacher in an assignment outlined by administration, teachers, and students.

Finally, this model is limited to English studies, and those of a secondary nature. Though I have drawn extensively from Janene Scovel and others who have made in-depth primary studies, the data are not from Chinese-written primary sources.

In spite of the limitations mentioned above, this proposal serves a unique function. It is the outgrowth of an existing circumstance and the application of ideas in a living situation. The model also draws upon the thoughtful and conciliatory suggestions forwarded by others who have studied EFL teaching conditions in China from both English and Chinese perspectives (J. Scovel, 1982; Maley, 1983; T. Scovel, 1983; Wu, 1983; Xia, 1984; Zhuang, 1984). And finally, the model offers a possible solution as input to other solutions proposed in answer to the multiple curriculum problems of EFL teaching in China.

Definition of Terms

One of the continuing difficulties in the relationship of the foreign teacher with his Chinese colleagues, administrators, and students concerns semantics. Connotations of English words are often confused, but the denotative values of many American and British English words, as well as English translations of Chinese words, are also misconstrued. A peculiar national vocabulary has evolved. Xiu-Bai (1983) discusses the semantic misunderstandings the Chinese learner makes when hearing English and those the native English speaker makes when hearing English translations of Chinese:

> Chinese learners of English are often puzzled over such terms as hippies, yippies, and "me" generation, etc., while a native speaker of English would certainly frown on the word-for-word translations of some Chinese terms such as barefoot doctor (chijiaoyisheng: a type of doctor working in China's rural areas who is not paid by the state but by the local production team). . . (p. 55).

Students in my classes would often question my daily schedule for jogging: "Why do you train at night?" This usage always bothered me until I realized that a particular aspect of "training" was misapplied

in their usage. To the word "train," we attach the notion of a goal or end purpose. The only denotative value they gave the word was comparable to "practice," "work," and "exercise."

Maley (1983) explains, too, that several key terms used in teaching duty descriptions are interpreted differently by Chinese leaders and foreign teachers. Clarification of underlying meanings is imperative if communication is to take place in China. The partial listing of terminology which follows is useful in understanding this thesis and for the successful venture of the foreign teacher in China:

Cadre: the typical meaning used in English-speaking countries refers to the borrowed French term for a member of a military unit. This term has evolved after the communist revolution in China to mean "leader" or "administrator" in current usage there.

Liberation: this refers to the communist takeover in 1949, when China was "liberated from imperialism" and is referred to often in conversation in China.

Cultural Revolution: a radical sociocultural upheaval initiated by Mao in 1966 and continuing until his death in 1976. The decade has been characterized by all unfavorably; the official policy is that Mao made a "mistake," and much of the blame is placed on the "Gang of Four," an inner circle of Mao's wife and fellow higher-ups. Urbanites were sent to the country to work with the peasants, schools were closed and then reopened for political education, and every authoritarian structure was open to harsh criticism. Violence was common during the period.

Foreign Expert: a visiting instructor hired by the Chinese government usually through the Foreign Experts Bureau of the Ministry of Education. His status is more prestigious than that of the foreign

teacher. Pay is better, accommodations are provided, return airfare is guaranteed. Normally, "expert" status is given to a native English speaker with an M.A. or Ph.D., preferably in English, English Literature, or ESL.

Foreign Teacher: an instructor position also held by a native speaker of English, but qualifications vary. Though hired by the government as well, he usually gains the assignment through an independent ministry, often by the recommendation of a scholar studying abroad. Pay is usually half that received by the Foreign Expert, but adequate; housing is normally provided, though airfare may not be. "Clout" in business, teaching, and administrative dealings is less than that for the expert.*

Ministry of Education: the major bureaucratic agency which implements general educational policy and outlines curriculum guidelines. Specifically, it approves budgets, prepares national examinations, and hires and assigns personnel. It is the educational arm of the party. (J. Scovel, 1983)

Coal Mining Ministry: the administrative arm of the party for this industry. Other ministries direct trade, steel, agriculture. Within the Coal Ministry, there is also a Bureau of Education, to which the Beijing Coal Mining Management College is directly responsible.

Middle School: this refers to lower and upper secondary education. A large number of students attend Junior Middle School, which runs for three years. After Junior Middle School, students may be placed in a vocational school, join the work force, or attend Senior Middle School, which runs for two more years.

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*"Foreign Expert" and "Foreign Teacher" are used interchangeably in this paper.

Teacher Training: though appearing to the Western eye as a reference to the presentation of methodology, materials, and evaluation procedures, as well as the giving of classroom demonstrations to future teachers, in China, teacher training refers to skills development of the discipline or speciality to be taught, English teacher training, for the Chinese, involves language skill development in reading, speaking, grammar, and translation. (Maley, 1983)

Intensive/Extensive Reading: the former refers to in-depth study of textual passages for the discovery of the "total" meaning of the passage. The textual analysis is one which dissects paragraphs, sentences, phrases, and words into their basic grammatical functions and relationships. Extensive Reading is the complementary approach, which is more global and involves comprehension goals. However, in China, Extensive Reading is most often a modification of Intensive Reading. (Morris, 1972)

Curriculum: the distinction among terms such as curriculum, methodology, and techniques is unclear; but for the purposes of this proposal, it is the course content and planned learning experiences of a course with a structured series of intended learning outcomes. It includes long-term goals, objectives, materials, and an indication of teaching-learning activities to be used. Zais (1976) explains that "the curriculum provides direction for classroom instruction, but it does consist of a series of lesson plans" (p. 13). The teacher has the prerogative to apply the curriculum plan in the most appropriate and useful manner for the students. Student evaluation is not addressed in this model.

ESL/EFL: though English as a Second Language instruction and English

as a Foreign Language instruction share many attributes and overlap in methodology and materials, an explanation of the dichotomy is useful here. Rivers and Temperley (1978) define ESL as "the teaching of English in an English-speaking environment or in an area where English is widely spoken" (p. ix). India is a prime example of a nation where ESL is the appropriate designation for the English language use there. EFL is retained by Rivers and Temperley (1978) "for areas where the student of English will not often hear or have opportunities to use English for communication" (p. ix). EFL instructional goals and ultimate applications vary from country to country and even among individuals (Croft, 1980). Communicative skill with sociocultural appropriacy may be sought in various degrees by EFL students.

CHAPTER II

SELECTED LITERATURE RELATED TO TEFL CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN CHINA

Representative Chinese Perspectives

Seemingly as a result of recent Western input, divergent perspectives have emerged among Chinese EFL educators as to the most appropriate direction English instruction should take in China. Wu (1983) addresses the reasons why such questions are being raised from a Chinese standpoint. First of all, he contends that though the Chinese were cut off for many years from Western interaction, English teachers in China are now trying to learn from "their colleagues from other countries and have been trying to incorporate what they think is suitable to the Chinese situation in their own work" (p. 111). Sometimes, the new ideas are rejected. Richard Light (1980), reporting on a project at the Peking University designed to provide university-level Chinese teachers of English with insights into current TEFL methodology in the United States, noted that some of their pedagogical notional remained unchanged at the program's end. Despite three months of exposure to methods such as Community Language Learning, the Silent Way, and other eclectic models, the "participants continued to highly value such activities as 'listening to lectures'" (p. 5).

In contrast, Li Xiaoju of the Guangzhou Foreign Language Institute finds that many of the traditional approaches to foreign language

instruction in China are passé; she notes that the laborious Intensive Reading method currently used by Chinese language educators might actually "fossilize the reading style of the students so that they are hindered from ever reading efficiently" (Li, 1984, p. 9). Li prefers communicative approaches which require creative and active language processes, but indicates that communicative approaches have seemed to "meet with continued and protracted resistance in China" (p. 12).

A more moderative view is promoted by the Shanghai Foreign Language Institute. They observe that attention to the teaching of form (explicit grammar instruction) is a necessary prerequisite to the development of communicative skills. Zhuang (1982) contends that the classroom structure in China should be one of presentation of grammar points followed by the use of those forms in communicative situations. This perspective retains the Chinese preference for the study of grammar while providing a Western-fostered addition of communicative activities.

Underlying Factors

Actually, the Chinese philosophy of education, which is teacher-centered, may not be as flexible as the more learner-centered designs of Western English-speaking countries from which current TESL/TEFL methods have sprung. Modern Western educational philosophy views the teacher as more of a facilitator instead of the all-knowing transmitter of information.

Probably the most extensive and comprehensive study of Chinese curriculum development to date is that of Janene Scovel (1982). She examines the forces in China which have strengthened the status quo or brought about change in English language teaching curriculum. In

brief, those factors contributing to curriculum development in China are the politicization of education, a slow and laborious bureaucracy, and the traditional Confucian approaches which have governed Chinese education for centuries and are still revered today. While the former has contributed to change, the latter two have contributed to stability. In addition, stability in curriculum continues because teachers in China rarely feel comfortable initiating new ideas from the West since Chinese EFL teachers lack English proficiency and most modern methods require a high proficiency level. J. Scovel (1982) notes that the Soviet-borrowed system of teaching groups also "inhibits motivation by limiting opportunities to explore" (p. 53). In a separate article, J. Scovel (1983) alludes to perhaps another factor inhibiting curriculum change in China: the lack of independent control the Chinese individual has in his career decisions. During politically unfavorable times to the West, English teachers in China were sent off to learn Russian; now they are directed to learn English again. State control thwarts career consciousness, and Chinese teachers rarely think in terms of career goals and long-term professional planning.

Obviously, a major contributing factor for curriculum change in EFL instruction in China has been the rather recent influx of foreign experts. Sometimes serious transformations have resulted, but mostly among only certain individuals, such as Li Xiaoju at the Guangzhou Foreign Language Institute. However, evidenced at this same institute are traditional approaches. Huang (1984), while investigating the oral strategies of Chinese students studying English at the Guangzhou Foreign Language Institute, identified "a large number of learning strategies of a functional and formal nature such as talking to oneself and

and memorizing lists of words" (p. 167). Yet, he also notes some changes, such as communicative activities being used and Extensive Reading being done outside of class.

What has been evidenced in China is a shift, rather than a complete transformation of EFL pedagogical thought. Thomas Scovel (1983) notes that some foreign teachers misperceive, after short teaching visits, that their Western ideas have met with agreement by their Chinese students, "mistaking quiet graciousness for loud acclaim" (p. 89). Zhuang (1983) believes that change is occurring gradually in China. He observes that slowly Chinese EFL teachers are "cultivating students' ability to use the language rather than to know about the language" (p. 12). The change is slow because, in the past, grammatical acuity for the Chinese was the "symbol of a well-educated scholar" (Zhuang, 1983, p. 11).

Most writers on China concur with Zhuang that change in the country's educational thinking has not been nor will be achieved quickly. Even given the pedagogical limitations the visiting instructor encounters, Maley (1983) thinks that "it is a mistake for the foreign teacher to arrive thinking he has brought the good news in the form of his up-to-date methods and materials" (p. 102). Part of the frustration the foreign teacher experiences in China, however, is watching displaced energies of his hard-working students who seem to be "digging a hole in the wrong place" (Maley, 1983, p. 103).

Principled Compromise

Wu (1983) contends that a negotiation of positions on pedagogy between the Chinese and foreign teacher is both needed and possible, though without the "relinquishment of principles by opposite parties"

(p. 113). Instead of discarding the Chinese proclivity to memorize, recite, and analyze, the foreign teacher can put these preferences to good use (Maley, 1983). T. Scovel (1983) gives some practical insight as to ways the Chinese explicit, formal approach to grammar, the Intensive/Extensive Reading method dichotomy, and their love for literature can be used to further the development of communicative competence. He suggests, for example, using an explicit grammatical presentation of two-word verbs to expose the Chinese student to modern idiomatic usage so necessary in current speech. Modern language learning theorists note learner variables play an important role in the grammatical approach taken in an EFL or ESL classroom. A formal, explicit approach to grammar works well with learners who have an analytical learning style.

Reading in ESL and EFL is now thought to be an active process of constructing meaning through the selection of as few language cues as are necessary from the printed page (Goodman, 1967). The Intensive Reading method rarely allows this efficient a process, and the method is usually unable to provide full meaning of a passage. T. Scovel (1983) notes that Extensive Reading (as it is theoretically defined) is more in keeping with the modern EFL view. At least, the Extensive Reading method provides a much better starting point in developing reading skills.

Literature-loving Chinese are not quick to give up their love for the tradition of classics study. As J. Scovel (1983) explains, there is a belief in China that ultimate truth can be realized through the memorization of good writing. Moreover, the reading of literature is simply an enjoyed hobby in China. However, infrequently used vocabulary and artful variations of sentence structure make what is now referred

to as the "literary dialect" unproductive and perhaps harmful in the development of "natural" speech and style (Chapman, 1983). Literature is also skewed culturally, because the material is often dated. T. Scovel (1983) contends that literary study offers little benefit in preparing China for the modern, technological English-speaking world. Yet, Scovel finds that the British have traditionally been able to weld language skill instruction with linguistics and literary study effectively in their teacher training programs.

Widdowson (1983) suggests that language learners can profit from both normal (current and informative) discourse and literary discourse. He also indicates further justification for the widespread appeal of literature in EFL. Widdowson notes that authors usually choose aspects of human interest and timeless appeal that are shared by the literary tradition in any country. Also, literary study requires not the same extent of cultural background that normal prose study does: "Literary schemata are created internally, within the literature itself" (Widdowson, 1983, p. 30). Thematization is an aspect of language that literature strengthens, in that the predictions necessary to guessing a story's end are the kinds of guesswork which strengthen the cohesion language skills in the reader (Chapman, 1983).

Compromise Realization

The consensus among observers of EFL in China seems to be that there is a decided need for better communication and a shared cooperation between the Chinese and the foreign teacher in ascertaining student needs, planning curriculum, and preparing materials (Marley, 1983; Wu, 1983; Zhang, 1983). Yet, there seems to be an unwritten and

somewhat mysterious barrier between the two sides which still persists, and which T. Scovel (1983) predicts will worsen the unrealistic expectations and misunderstandings existing already with the influx of new teachers. Part of this isolation persists due to sociopolitical fears of Western corruption (learn the language, not the lifestyle of the foreigner), and the tendency of the Chinese to put the foreigner on a pedestal (Wu, 1983). This explains only part of the breakdown in professional cooperation, however.

Clearly, as indicated in the definition of terms (see p. 11), one of the communication barriers is caused by semantic misinterpretation. An example of this miscontruing is found in the definition of "teacher training," which for the Chinese contains no reference to the study of pedagogy or methodology specifically. Maley (1983) states that host institutions refer to language improvement for their teachers when they discuss teacher training: "no notions of methodological improvement enters into their calculations" (p. 97). However, when given the term, a foreign teacher often plans to present methods and techniques to the trainees, who then only stare back politely.

One solution bridging the gap between the Chinese lack of formal pedagogical training background and the teacher training guidelines in the West is that proposed in a model by Mahon and Grabe (1982). In fact, their program of teacher training through skills development carried out during the 1980-81 year at the Shanghai Foreign Language Institute was pivotal in providing a precedent for future teacher training in China by foreign experts. The goal of the program was to upgrade the four major skill areas of the teacher trainees while using demonstrations of contemporary teaching methods to accomplish it. The

hypothesis was that once the teachers saw themselves successfully learning English through these methods, they would be more inclined to use them in their own classrooms. Topics of theory were also addressed in additional bi-weekly lectures. The skills development itself was successful, and many students reported adopting some of the methods in their own classes.

Imitative practice, however, does not alone provide the "incentive value" needed in teacher training. Widdowson (1984) contends that teachers must also have a theoretical orientation to the task. Teachers are unable to adapt, plan, or consistently use methods and techniques that they choose unless they understand the underlying bases for them. DiDonato (1980) finds that successful teachers are involved in a constant dialogue between what they know and what they practice, continually re-evaluating their teaching predecisions.

Curriculum Impact

In China, most of the curriculum design is not directed by teachers or even qualified administrators; rather unfortunately, it is in the hands of the largely undereducated bureaucrats of the Ministry of Education (J. Scovel, 1983; Bastid, 1984). Bastid (1984) observes that middle-level cadre committees are unable to make considered opinions about curricula:

> Very few members of the committees in charge of designing the new curricula are competent to draw up imaginative programmes that meet even present requirements, let alone future needs, and their proposals have frequently been defeated by colleagues who either failed to understand their importance or thought that they could not be applied given the existing teaching resources (p. 199).

Actual teaching methods employed are understood to follow the

traditional model; in language teaching, this includes Intensive Reading, memorization, recitation, and vocabulary/grammar study (J. Scovel, 1983). In "key" institutions, such as important language institutes in major cities, more funding is provided, as well as resources and numbers of foreign teachers. In these institutes, curricula and materials are being drafted independently, but on the larger scale, little in the way of thoughtful innovation is being carried out.

During the 1983-84 school term, one foreign expert at the Second Foreign Language Institute in Beijing developed, with Chinese colleagues, a textbook based on the "notional" syllabus prescribed by Brumfit and others (See Brumfit, 1979). The textbook was particularly designed to promote communicative competence in conversation skills around notions of greetings, small talk, giving directions and locations, describing likes and dislikes, making appointments, giving requests, and asking permission; it seems particularly geared to Chinese students going abroad to study in an English-speaking country (Kreitzer, 1984).

This exceptional book, however, is not the norm. In fact, Maley (1983) asserts that if there were more cooperative ventures between foreign and Chinese teachers, such as the above textbook project, then many of the existing EFL teaching problems in China could be solved. However, "in most cases, there the foreign teacher is simply left to his own salvation without clear guidance as to what it is precisely he is aiming at" (Maley, 1983, p. 101). Without given particulars concerning curriculum, the foreign EFL teacher finds himself with an "anything goes" situation.

Though little specific support for this view is mentioned in the

available literature, the textbook itself in China does offer a type of syllabus, though an inadequate one, for the foreign teacher. R.F. Price (1979), who taught in China during the historical beginnings of the Cultural Revolution and returned afterward, notes the "domination of the texts" reflected in "the somewhat stilted and unEnglish forms used by all but the most fluent speakers we encountered" (p. 315). In the textbooks used at the Beijing Coal Mining Management College, each lesson contains a bilingual vocabulary list, grammatical notes for the text, a word study section, phonetic and grammar exercises, and a short series of comprehension questions. Translation exercises are also provided (See Appendix A). These lessons indicate objectives coinciding with the Grammar-Translation method and the Intensive Reading method. However, the textbook's implied objectives are not in any way adequate to meet the broad goals given by Chinese cadres and teachers, such as "improve student's oral English." The textbook fails to provide a complete and specified curriculum plan which can be realized in a series of manageable objectives (Maley, 1983).

Actual curriculum development becomes the role of the foreign teacher in many cases, because he must try and fill the gap between textbook and goals. Curriculum development, in brief, is the preparation of course guidelines in light of the needs of the students, the purposes of their study, and the resulting effects of certain learning activities in the curriculum (Bruder and Paulston, 1982). Bruder and Paulston suggest questions to be addressed in terms of goals, objectives, time allotment, materials, and organization--in the preparation of an English curriculum. In the area of aims and goals, for instance, long-term goals for an EFL program are generally more limited than those for an ESL program.

A curriculum reflects certain other factors such as the philosophy and the nature of a particular field of study (science versus literature), sociocultural influences, and certain bases in learning theory (Zais, 1976). Curriculum in China must necessarily be planned in view of sociocultural factors, which, as addressed earlier, particularly concern political contraints (Bruder and Paulston, 1982). English curriculum developed in China should also be considered in terms of traditional learning theory. For instance, almost all of the literature cited previously notes that the Chinese are rigorous in their beliefs in memorization, and this unique position is not likely to change (J. Scovel, 1983; British Council, 1983; Maley, 1983; T. Scovel, 1983; Wu, 1983; Huang, 1984; Zhuang, 1984). However, though the learning precept underlying memorization might not concur with modern educational theory and guidelines for the development of communicative competence, EFL teacher Sivell (1980) argues that memorization can be beneficial to the overall language program. He believes that student desire to memorize can be used to foster confidence and a sense of accomplishment (in countries where it is deemed such) to counterbalance more risky and not as easily gained successes in communication tasks. Futhermore, even Krashen, Burt and Dulay (1982), modern language learning theorists, find value in the memorization of certain phrases and constructions called routines and patterns "as a shortcut, a pragmatic tool to allow social interaction with a minimum of linguistic competence" (p. 239).

Applied, an EFL curriculum in China cannot be divorced from the background identified of the students in relation to the development of communicative competence to some degree. Due to the formalized approaches of the Chinese classroom which focus on metalinguistic awareness (grammar

analysis, Intensive Reading, translation exercises, memorization of dialogues, etc.) and a decided lack of natural, authentic language practice, Chinese EFL students tend to be "monitor overusers." Krashen, Burt and Dulay (1982) describe how the monitor develops:

> Whenever conscious linguistic processing takes place, the learner is said to be using the monitor. Similarly, when a learner performs a drill that requires conscious attention to linguistic form, or when he memorizes a dialogue, conscious processing is taking place and the monitor is being used (p. 59).

The use of the monitor, conscious awareness of form and use, tends to cause students to think of English in terms of "linguistic manipulation" as opposed to "communication," resulting in the ability to do well on grammar tests, but not in real communication. Not only do students in China speak with stilted, unnatural styles, but also they prefer learning activities which do not require natural, but risky, communicative practice (Light, 1980; J. Scovel, 1983). Therefore, in developing a curriculum for more fluency in China's EFL students, those communicative activities which ease students into more natural language should be considered, as well as aids to motivating such risk-taking.

Williams (1979) argues, however, that "perfect mastery" of all aspects of communicative competence is not desired in the EFL setting:

> The teacher who tackles all the problems raised is moving into an area of diminishing returns. Appropriacy in the selection of vocabulary and structure is certainly reasonable, and one could also make a case for dealing with certain gestures, and some intonational markers of attitude (p. 21).

The problem may be in looking at language study as either a structural or a communicative task. Allen (1983) suggests a trichotomous view of language in selecting the approaches of a curriculum. He proposes a structural-analytic approach (focusing on grammar and other formal features of language), a functional-analytic approach (focusing on

discourse features of language), and a non-analytic approach (focusing on natural use of the language) used in a complementary manner. After providing the student with the linguistic rules governing the usage (which Chinese students are often technically adept in), the student is shown the nature of certain speech functions (associated with Wilkins, Van Ek, and the Council of Europe), and also involved in spontaneous, natural use of the language. Allen discusses the need for an effective balance between the "structural, functional and experiential elements" in a language program (p. 83).

The application of any curriculum in the Chinese setting is one of negotiation, flexibility, and adaptability (Rice, 1982). Traditional perspectives among Chinese EFL educators must be respected, Rice notes, yet the foreign teacher must be confident of the realization of his goals as well.

CHAPTER III

EVALUATION OF PROGRAM AND STUDENT NEEDS

Rationale

Evaluation is often associated with student testing and measurement or with the threatening visit of a top administrator to recommend the removal of funds or personnel. However, evaluation has a much broader meaning, and it a useful part of most decision-making, be the evaluation formative or summative (Jarvis and Adams, 1979). The former is certainly valuable in the recommendation of changes or restructuring of a program design:

> The purpose of formative evaluation is to improve the instruction. It asks, in effect, about the current status of the program so that it can be made better. It is evaluation that is carried out during the development, implementation, and operation of the program (Jarvis and Adams, 1979, p. 6).

Evaluation of a program, if done carefully from several angles, provides the curriculum designer with the criteria to base additions or revisions upon. Jarvis and Adams (1979) suggest an overview of educational philosophy, goals and objectives, staff, instructional procedures and methodology, student population, community setting, and facilities in the evaluation of a program. In China, with an educational system centrally directed and politicized, it is also necessary to consider the national educational status as well.

Particularly in the case of the foreign teacher in China, analyzing

the needs of the language learner is beneficial in the rather temporary teaching circumstance in which he finds himself--one in which he is normally isolated from major policy input--for his greatest impact is reflected in the students themselves. Analyzing the needs of any language learner in an EFL setting is also important, because not all areas of linguistic and communicative skill can be covered or need to be covered. The emphasis of the language course should be on those skills the learner will need when he finishes the program. Evaluation of teaching goals as they relate to student needs enables efficiency and productivity in an EFL program.

Present Conditions

Middle School Education

"Middle school" is the English translation of the Chinese word for upper and lower secondary education. Junior middle school runs for three years, following five years of primary education. At this point, Chinese adolescents are directed to either a two-year senior middle school or a vocational school (Dickey, 1980) Despite the universal education policy that characterized Chinese rhetoric for many years, the two-track system is now becoming quite sophisticated. Bastid (1984) makes the following observation:

> From kindergarten on, according to their intellectual abilities, tested by regular examinations, children are now channeled to keypoint schools or to ordinary schools, and to fast, average or slow classes within the schools (p. 194).

"Keypoint" or "key" schools are better staffed and equipped, designed to provide greater opportunity for college entrance. Average senior

middle schools have more modest goals, such as the elimination of illiteracy and the building of party stability. As an aside, Bastid (1984) contends that an urban elite will develop around these mostly city-based key schools, an odd antithesis to communist ideals.

Though the most popular foreign language in China is not taught at the primary level, English is a required course in secondary education. Using syllabus and textbooks supplied by the Ministry of Education, middle school EFL teachers provide five hours of English instruction per student each week (The British Council, 1983). English is also one of the subjects on the national college entrance examination, a test which is highly competitive (approximately one in ten thousand Chinese has the opportunity for a university education), and therefore has a high priority in the middle school curriculum.

Middle schools in China have several problems, however, namely a low percentage of qualified teachers, inadequately designed curriculum guidelines, poor facilities, and a dearth of good teaching materials and equipment (Bastid, 1984). Unfortunately, Bastid finds that current government policy does not provide education with the budgetary priority desperately needed.

Middle School Teacher Education

Some reforms have been initiated, however, in the area of personnel upgrading. As a result of the Cultural Revolution when teachers were criticized at all levels and continued low salaries, teaching, always revered in the Confucian tradition, has reached a low status. To increase the incentive to become a teacher, the Ministry of Education has offered greater pay incentives, longer vacation time, specified

limitations on teaching loads, and other side benefits. The government has also introduced, to upgrade the qualifications of teachers, what is termed "designated" training (Bastid, 1984). The system, first initiated in certain institutes and teacher training colleges under central ministries (such as agriculture, forestry, medicine) in 1982, was extended in 1983:

> Under this arrangement, students enrolled to fill the "designated" quota are selected in areas nominated by the provincial government from among candidates recommended by local authorities which will procure subsequent employment for them. . .after graduation they will not be eligible for any job other than the "designated" posts in their original locality (Bastid, 1984, p. 210).

"Designated" training has a dichotomous function in providing a cost-effective solution to the dearth of trained teachers in rural areas, as well as post facto remedial training for teachers who had little, if any, training when appointed (The British Council, 1983; Bastid, 1984). Unlike the three- or four-year educational programs provided by teachers' universities or teacher training colleges, these courses normally run for two years only. Teacher training, as noted in earlier chapters, is envisaged as skill development in all of these programs.

Local Conditions

Beijing Coal Mining Management College

The local or specific conditions of the middle school teacher training examined here appears unusual to the Western eye, since the Beijing Coal Mining Management College is essentially a cadre-training technical institute, which was restored after the Cultural Revolution and upgraded to the designation of "college." "Management" in the college name is a Western-sensitive usage meaning "cadre" or "leader"

in typical Chinese usage of English. Due to the nature of party and other political roles cadres serve within ministries, cadre schools are highly politicized.

Until three years ago, the Beijing Coal Mining Management College was classified as an institute, functioning to train cadres in the coal mining ministry in areas of mathematics, engineering, science, and politics. There was also some English, German, and later Japanese language instruction provided on an intermittent basis over the years (depending on political popularity). The work of the Foreign Languages department at the college was primarily one of translating technical documents for the coal mining ministry and the institute itself.

The coal mining industry has historically been important in China. Though Mao funneled much of governmental spending into the iron and steel industries, coal provides the major fuel source for these industries. In addition, modern China still utilizes coal as the major source of heat energy in the home.

During the Cultural Revolution, the then-named Beijing Coal Mining Institute--as other universities, colleges, and institutes--was closed down. Technical study was largely neglected, formal training ceased. A teacher at the institute-now-college remembers that the daily schedule for student and teacher alike during the Cultural Revolution included study of Mao's writing, political study, and gardening. A small apple grove stands off to one side of the college today. After the institute resumed its normal functions, several expansions were made. Scientific and technical coursework was upgraded. Language training was expanded: more training for cadres in preparation for overseas study and the addition of teacher training for middle

In addition, management courses, designed in a Western style, began to be offered. It is not clear which of these changes validated the name and classification change, but in 1982, the institute became a college.

Located in the capital of Beijing, the college has greater access to materials and equipment, but the location also places it in closer range to limitations imposed by its two "bosses." The Beijing Coal Mining Management College is operated by the Education Bureau of the Coal Mining Ministry, located in downtown Beijing. Separate from this bureau, the Ministry of Education in Beijing, as for all other tertiary institutions, provides many of the guidelines and directives governing the educational plans and goals of the college. This double arrangement is evident in the confusing array of paperwork and certain bureaucratic stalling at the college.

Foreign Languages Department

The Foreign Languages department at the college directs three language programs, of which English is the largest. In the "English Section," teaching EFL is but one of many functions for the teaching group. In fact, though the ratio of teacher to student is about one to five in tertiary institutions in China, actual class size is often twenty students or more. Non-teaching English teaching staff at the college prepare grammar textbooks and exercises, translate technical documents--articles and reports--for other departments or the ministry itself, provide interpretation as needed (our interpreter was an English teacher), prepare tapes, write reports, strengthen language skills through study abroad, or work on larger projects for the coal industry.

However, the two major teaching functions of the English section are the English preparation of would-be "scholars" (leaders hoping to pass the national English test and study abroad) and the preparation of middle school English teachers in a two-year program (begun only three years ago when "designated training" was initiated).

Teacher Training Classes

The second of these functions is clearly an English as a Foreign Language program: the teacher trainees will undoubtedly remain in China for the rest of their lives. Teacher training classes at the college number two currently, with forty-one students in total present during the spring 1984 term. The teacher trainees are junior and senior middle school English teachers, recommended to the program on the basis of examination text scores and school or provincial government reference. Their stay at the college is two years, during which time their English skills and Chinese literature, history, and political awareness are raised.

The aims of the two-year course in English are broad and not clearly defined in relation to specific objectives. During the orientation we received as foreign teachers at the college in February 1984, the outlined function of the foreign teacher in the teacher training classes was to improve students' "oral English" and "ability to know English well." The latter seemed to be understood as the teachers' grammar skills and ability to explicate the textbook lessons.

In the one meeting provided by the English teaching section, I was told that I should cover one lesson per week in the textbook. The textbook comprised the only syllabus given. My assignment was further

defined as a cooperative teaching format, in which I would teach "Class '82" and "Class '83" (named for the year the students entered the program) on alternating weeks with the Chinese EFL teachers for those classes. Class meetings were scheduled for a total of thirteen hours per week. This explanation was the only role definition given to me, the foreign teacher, in the initial orientation.

The class arrangement in the teacher training classes follows the traditional tertiary institution set-up. Classes do not "change" as they do in Western universities; instead, the teachers come to the class. The "class" is actually a group of students who study together--all subjects--for the entirety of their course of study, two years in this case. Given this arrangement, the students are quite familiar with each other, and usually a kind of extended family sense develops. The class also as a political organization with a student leader called a "monitor." The monitor fulfills several duties; he carries out all disciplinary functions (class attendance and order), maintains the proper political atmosphere (appropriate topics for discussion), represents class opinion to teachers and administrators, and informs the class of all assignments and announcements from teachers and administration.

The physical arrangement of the classroom is conducive to a traditional teacher-student relationship. The students are placed behind desks in rows, and the teacher is given a podium on a platform from which to lecture. The classroom is provided with a blackboard, but this is the extent of average equipment.

Instructional Methodology/Procedure

The instructional methods used in the teacher training classes at

the college are those a traditional Chinese EFL approach typically employs: memorization and recitation of textual passages, Intensive Reading, grammar exercises, vocabulary memorization and word study, and translation exercises. Other methods and techniques followed include Extensive Reading, weekly dictations and compositions, dramatic readings, listening to tapes, and speech-making. However, Intensive Reading and associated Grammar-Translation study provide the crux of the instructional methodology used.

English is not the medium of instruction in the classroom, though the Chinese teachers aspire to a greater percentage of their classroom presentations in English. The amount of English spoken in the classroom depends upon two factors: the level of the students and the background of the teachers themselves. Most of the Chinese EFL teachers at the college expressed to me that beginning level students should be "eased" into English, and therefore Chinese should be used primarily. At more advanced levels, more English should be used in the classroom. Second, teacher backgrounds are reflected in the ease with which the teacher uses English in the classroom. One of the teachers in our English section had studied in a missionary high school in Shanghai before Liberation, and her English skill reflected the language immersion background she had had. She felt comfortable using English in conversation. Another teacher in the department had studied English in the typical textbook-centered manner; her English was stilted, and some of her dictations and lectures were carefully presented from memorization. However, it is almost unavoidable to find the native language used at least to some percentage in the EFL classroom.

Classroom techniques are carefully structured about the Intensive

Reading method, with metered explication of the weekly lesson. First, the teacher announces the words on the bilingual vocabulary list given with the passage, and the students repeat in unison. Next, the passage may be read aloud, with each student reading a few sentences or a short paragraph, and then paraphrasing the section either in Chinese or English (always in English in my class, of course, but I doubt if English was always used in the paraphrase for the Chinese EFL teacher). Then a short set of comprehension questions is briefly treated, and this is followed by a long list of grammar exercises and translation exercises. The treatment of grammar is precise and explicit. It is not infrequent for an obscure question of grammar to become the focus of class discussion for twenty minutes or more, and this discussion most often in Chinese.

Native Co-Teachers

Due to an alternating schedule of teaching weeks for the Chinese and foreign teachers, the schedule for teacher training classes at the college varies with the traditional six or seven hours a teacher at an average tertiary institution gives lessons. Classes meet for approximately thirteen hours per week. As a foreign teacher in the spring of 1984 at the college, I taught thirteen hours each week, alternating between the two classes; and the Chinese EFL teachers I worked with taught their one assigned class every other week. Therefore, the standard quota of hours for a tertiary instructor in the classroom was not abused.

My Chinese colleagues prepared lessons on their "off" weeks. Though we never discussed class preparation formally, indirectly I observed certain characteristics in their lesson planning. Initially, the

teacher studies the lesson, as if she were a student completing an independent "self-study" (a "Chinglish" expression meaning "studying on one's own"). The teacher makes a full grammatical analysis of each sentence and every phrase, trying to anticipate student errors and qeustions. She also checks her pronounciation of new words against phonetic spellings. The word study section and translation exercises are also covered. This information for the lesson is then presented, usually in brief, to the teaching group of the English section for further input and critical inspection of accuracy.

Beyond this basic lesson planning, the teachers may make additional preparation of dictations, composition exercises, or unscheduled reading assignments. English tapes can also be procured from the language laboratory. However, this planning is seen as extra work, and there seems to be little incentive in the current political climate of China. However, I did note a rather interesting case in a comparison of the two teachers I taught with.

One of my colleagues was the typically cautious and prescriptive teacher. She carefully prepared each aspect of the textbook and contributed faithfully to the teaching group. On several occasions, she told me that she was nervous about not being ready for students' grammar questions. She also stated that class preparation filled all of the hours in her planning week. Each week, she also faithfully prepared a spelling test and dictation, but this was the extent of her extra-text planning. She voiced unhappiness with her role as a teacher and the present status of the teaching profession in China, and she hoped for the rare job change--to a position as a translator within the ministry.

In contrast, my other colleague was unusually confident and aware

in her teaching decisions. In addition to the weekly lessons which she prepared quickly, she would prepare dictations, creative composition topics, outside readings, special vocabulary explanations, and cross-cultural topic lectures. Though she was also concerned about the fulfillment of her duties with regard to her students, she seemed secure in her role as a teacher and happy with the profession, although interested in developing more and better teaching techniques. She was exceptionally perceptive about some of the weaknesses of the methods traditionally employed, particularly translation.

As indicated, in addition to the basic classroom facilities, a language laboratory is located in the classroom building. Sophisticated and carefully supervised, this laboratory is available at planned times for all of the language teachers. However, during the spring of 1984, I noted its use only a few times. Film projection equipment and advanced videotape cameras are also "available" but bureaucratic avenues are complicated, so normal classroom use is infrequent.

Textbooks

Given the emphasis on the Intensive Reading method and Grammar-Translation approach in the classroom, the textbook serves as the major syllabus for learning activities in the classroom. Textbook materials for the Beijing Coal Mining Management College--for the teacher training classes--are both selected and published by the Ministry of Education. The textbooks are graded in a series of six.

Though published in 1981, the textbooks reflect much of the conservative sociopolitical thinking, though moderated, that typified the Cultural Revolution. Topics for the lessons include biographical

sketches of Lenin, Marx, and Mao; translated stories of Mao's greatness and concern for the poor peasants and minorities; Western socialists' period pieces on the problems of capitalism; passages on the ill-treatment of workers in America and England; and selections on the oppression of Black Americans. Shi (1983) has noted that the Chinese in their revolutionary cause felt the greatest empathy in the Western world with the Civil Rights problems of Black Americans. This affinity was further strengthened by visits from W.E. DuBois and Langston Hughes during the early sixties.

A sample passage "Home is the Soldier" by Alexander Saxton is found in Book Five of the series (See Appendix A). The passage relates the story of a Black soldier returning to America after serving in World War I and finding the oppression he left still present in the injust treatment shown toward Black railway workers. The "Notes and Commentary" on the author indicates that this thirty-two year old selection reflects current conditions in the United States (Appendix A, p. 85).

Grammar explanations follow (p. 86); then six comprehension questions are asked (p. 88). After these exercises, the remaining are almost completely translation exercises (pp. 88-91), except for a short article exercise (p. 90) and phonetic exercises (p. 91). This completes the typical lesson for a normal week, followed by the Chinese EFL teacher and the foreign teacher.

Student Role

The teacher trainees at the college are provincial middle school teachers and are remarkably true to the traditional image of the Chinese

student. They are polite and respectful, notably passive, diligent in completing seemingly tedious grammar and translation tasks, interested in literature and classics study, and humorous lovers of songs and drama.

Upon first glance, the Westerner is impressed with the polite attentiveness of the Chinese student. I well remember by own amazement on the first day of class, as the monitor clapped and all of these thirty-year-old students stood at attention as I walked in. Furthermore, all assignments are completed regularly, and the few questions made in class carefully addressed. Requests and grievances are rarely made directly, but are often made indirectly through the class monitor. The following letter from the class monitor in June of 1984 serves as an example of this manner of redress:

> Miss Ford, I have failed to inform you the change of our dormitory and so sorry to let you make a fruitless trip. Our new room is just down bellow our classroom. If not, how can a student make bold to ask his teacher to fetch these papers which he should have sent to her office though how honourable guest the teacher is.
>
> I'm feeling very uneasy to have troubled you since we know that you bear so heavy load, especially this is a added burden. But we have no other choice. It is only you that can be competent at the job. At first I discussed the possibility with Mr. Wu, the head of our department, and he looked embarrassed, because he knew that you have your fully work load, and he said that if he himself went to ask for your help, it would give a false impression that the request would be imbued with commandism, so he asked me to go to your help. I said I could try but all the bosses should know and feel obliged for it. He's a good man and replied with "of course." The thing seemed settled but I delayed it for. . ., and however, the day before yesterday I got informed to send the trouble to you. . .*

He proceeded then to request that I grade a set of compositions to be

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*A hand-written letter from Mr. Hua of the Class '82 teacher training class at the Beijing Coal Mining Management College.

compiled in a commemorative collection at the college.

Part of this politeness is based in the learner passiveness which typlifies them as well. Confucian tradition imbues the teacher with the status of "master," one having all needed knowledge and wisdom, from whom the students absorb truth and goodness. The students believe that the quieter and more attentive they are, the more that they will learn. There is little if any question that the "teacher knows best." However, this complicates the introduction of Western independent learning activities. During one lesson, I asked the students to break up into groups, but they were unable to follow the instructions.

Memorization and recitation are the major learning tools for the students at the college. They memorize vocabulary, some of the textual passage itself, and recite the lesson nightly. Their quiet attention in class is partly due to the fact that they are trying to remember and sometimes memorize what the teacher is saying while he is speaking.

Certainly, the Chinese student often appears more diligent than a Western student does. This characteristic is partly due to the fact that Chinese students believe that analysis, rule-learning, and memorization of vocabulary are essential to developing skill in English. Grammatical analysis is rarely completed, as the major source is the Latin-based traditional grammar. Yet, Chinese students are willing to spend hours diagramming and analyzing sentences, drilling rules, reciting the passage, memorizing word lists, and parsing phrases in hopes that somehow they can "crack the code" of the mysterious language.

The students in the teacher training classes at the Beijing Coal Mining Management College also have the long-standing Chinese interest in the classics. One student expressed to me that if he had more exposure to American literature, he would understand how Americans think

and act. Perhaps for him and the others, studies in literature are more pertinent than explicit discussion of American culture. It is certainly true, though, that they prefer literature study over the seemingly more relevant discussion of current EFL methodology.

To the Westerner, the students at the college appear unbending and almost complacent in their entrenchment in a very traditional role. However, because of their great respect for teachers, they are willing to try new activities from this avenue. Furthermore, they have a creative sense of humor which presents itself in stories, drama, and songs. In one activity, I asked the students to describe postcards I had given them. One of the students, having a picture of a forest, constructed a most humorous story about the mischievous monkeys living in the wood and the fate of an unknowing traveler passing through the forest. Despite lexical and syntactical lacks, he was able to present a very comical scene. And though modest, the students at the college, once coaxed, perform enthusiastically in songs and drama.

Evaluative Conclusions

The teacher training program at the college has many weaknesses from the standpoint of current pedagogical theory and EFL methodology in the West. In the area of planned learning outcomes, there is a noticeable gap between goals and expectations, and little in the way of manageable objectives. In learning English, teacher and textbook approaches strengthen metalinguistic awareness, but are deficient in providing communicative skill. Furthermore, students' passivity mitigates against natural interaction in the classroom. Also, the Intensive Reading and Grammar-Translation approaches are themselves inefficient barriers to communicative competence.

First of all, the goals of the administration at the Beijing Coal Mining Management College are not communicated in specified objectives, and the syllabus (textbook) is decidedly inadequate in the realization of the prescribed goals of improving overall English skills. The lack of a consistent pedagogical approach is further evidenced in the individual teacher's lesson planning. The teachers at the college approach the textbook from an angle of self-study, and they then seek to tranmit what they have learned to the student. My colleagues at the college never set goals, prepared objectives, or planned activities in light of such objectives.

The teachers utilize an explicit lecture presentation of grammar and vocabulary in the classroom. Their role is one of knowledge-imparting, as opposed to the facilitation of learning. However, a language, if communicative ability is at all part of the planned outcome, must involve student participation and interaction. Language communication is a set of skills rather than a body of knowledge. This teacher role in China is supported by the expectations of the students, who feel their role is passive and that the teacher in the lecture provides them with all that they need to know.

In addition, the textbook fails to provide authentic language input. The reading passages in the textbooks used at the Beijing Coal Mining Management College are skewed culturally and simply out of date. The passage "Home is the Soldier" reflects a particular period of American history no longer existing in the United States (Appendix A). Black railway workers are no longer oppressed with no union representation. "Coloured" is not socially acceptable in the terminology of the 1980's. Furthermore, the "separate but equal" policy was ended with

Civil Rights legislation in the late 1950's and 1960's. However, the notes on the author depict the writing as a relection of current American lifestyle (Appendix A, p. 89). In addition, the explicit presentation of grammar in Chinese with associated exercises, as well as the proliferation of translation exercises, further metalinguistic awareness but not communicative skill.

The laborious, analytical, and passive Intensive Reading practice also fails the evaluation based on current thought on reading in ESL and EFL methodology. First of all, though the Chinese often describe vocabulary as their greatest weakness in reading English, Yorio (1971) contends that the nonnative reader feels his vocabulary lacks so intensely because of his excessive overreliance on individual word meanings for reading success. Furthermore, vocabulary learning cannot be achieved through the memorization of lists because words have many contextually diverse usages.

Another impediment to efficient reading encouraged by the Intensive Reading method is found in the overattention to graphemic analysis likely to develop. Nonnative readers already have the disadvantage of being overly attentive to word spellings and tend to give equal import to both lexical and functional items (Robinett, 1980); Intensive Reading requires even more analysis directed to individual words. Moreover, shortened memory spans in the reading of a second or foreign language cause the individual-word reader to lose the overall meaning. Bean Levine, and Graham (1979) point out that "fluent reading involves the allocation of attentional resources to those linguistic features of print that advance comprehension" (p. 346). Intensive Reading solicits the examination of every word and phrase, and this analysis while

seeming to promote understanding in reading, actually hinders comprehension. Reading must be done quickly if full comprehension is to be realized.

The most acute problem in Intensive Reading is the decided lack of strategy development. As Clarke and Silberstein (1977) note, not all reading materials are approached in the same manner. Some require skimming for overall understanding; others involve scanning for specific information. Even reading for careful comprehension is not fostered by Intensive Reading, because so much attention is directed to grammatical structure; and since Intensive Reading is so slow, discourse cohesion is often lost. Reading success involves purposeful problem-solving, making predictions, brainstorming about key phrases, relating of specific details to earlier knowledge, summarizing of key points, and thinking about discourse arrangement. Unfortunately, these strategies are not utilized in the limited techniques of Intensive Reading.

However, even given the problems, there is a positive role that the foreign teacher can have and aspects of the EFL classes in the college which can be used in the facilitation of a valid and useful learning experience for the students. First of all, although the school administrators provide a very ceremonious welcome to the foreign teacher, they specify little in the way of practical objectives for the classroom. The only prescription given is to cover one lesson per week in the textbook; other activities are left to governance of the foreign teacher provided there is no breach of sociopolitical etiquette (such as criticism of the Chinese government, discussions on human rights issues, sex, or violence). This situation provides the foreign teacher with unusual freedom in making curriculum additions.

The students also have certain characteristics which can be utilized in developing a strong language program. They are always respectful agreeable, and attentive, willing to do any assignment the teacher might require. The students are also eager to learn from an American (or other Western) teacher, being desirous of practice with a native English speaker. In addition, they are not wary of performance activities; few are timid in the giving of speeches, in participating in drama or role-plays, or in singing songs before an audience. They are also quick to agree to outside grammar and reading assignments, for hard work is considered key to language success. And finally, they have an interest in literature which provides a base the teacher can build upon in lesson planning.

Student Needs

Personal Observations

Based upon discussions with my students and other foreign teachers in Beijing, I made some conclusions concerning the needs of the teacher trainees at the college. In an EFL program, as discussed in the introduction, complete mastery of communicative competence is not desired; therefore more realistic objectives must be carefully identified, and perceived student needs are helpful to that identification.

The students in the teacher training classes come from small towns whose primary industry is coal mining. In fact, several of my students were former coal miners themselves and had given up the occupation for reasons of health or preference. However, their positions as middle school teachers seemed almost as rigorous. Since every middle school student is required to receive five hours of English instruction per

week, English classrooms sometimes number as many as fifty students. This circumstance seems to preclude much beyond lectures and carefully disciplined assignments. Furthermore, the middle school student has little motivation to study English, since the purpose is preparation for college entrance examinations and perhaps one student in the entire school might enter a university per year.

These teachers also serve other functions. Many of them are junior members of their teaching groups, and they must be prepared in grammar points and vocabulary. However, as junior members who have had the privilege of studying the capital of Beijing, they are expected to be knowledgeable, but also courteous and respectful to the senior members of the group. And since they may be one of a handful of English speakers in the town, they are certain to be called upon for translation tasks for both local and regional publications.

These conditions prescribe certain teacher training goals. As middle school teachers of English and "resident experts," the students need a flexible reading background and cultural information for teaching and translation tasks, functional listening and speaking skills, discourse strategies for various writing tasks (translation and article writing), and an awareness of American literature (since they will be expected to show general knowledge of English literature when they return to their respective localities). Information on teaching methods and techniques in EFL is also valuable, but it must be adaptable to the difficult constraints of large classrooms, traditional Chinese perceptions on pedagogy, and unknowing teaching groups. "Designated" training is similar to in-service teacher training in the United States; it must be planned with an awareness of specific teaching conditions.

English backgrounds of the teacher trainees vary. In my classes, some of the teachers had studied as little as six months by reading English textbooks and listening to "Voice of America" broadcasts; one of the teachers had studied English for over eleven years. The continuation of their study after the two-year program also varies. I imagine that the teachers in inner Mongolia have less access to materials than those from districts near large cities. These circumstances suggest that instruction should be provided which can later be adapted to various levels of "self-study."

Informal Student Questionnaires

During April 1984, with a growing realization of inadequacies in the curriculum and my own lack of awareness of student perspective, I made a brief formative evaluation through the use of an informal student questionnaire (Appendix B). Specifically, I wanted to find out individual student opinion, so that I would understand their thinking as to their own strengths and weaknesses in English, and further what they hoped would be covered in the class. Having, at this point, little understanding of their backgrounds, I made only a cursory questioning. The survey is limited by two factors: its oral presentation and Chinese student etiquette. Because the questions were given orally (though the responses were written), some of the questions were misunderstood. In addition, students often showed deference to me in their responses. I had discussed such notions as "communicative competence" and the value of good listening and speaking skills.

Some of the conclusions drawn from their responses are outlined here (see Appendix B for full examination):

(1) Reading is decidely the most comfortable of the language skills for the Chinese EFL student. Reading intensively allows a slow and meticulous study; students can use a bilingual dictionary, reread sentences at will, and make a full grammatical analysis.

Students also responded that listening was the one strength they had. Their response here is probably in comparison with other middle school English teachers in China, perhaps from their own schools. However, their listening skills were quite low--in contrast to their grammar or reading abilities.

(2) Almost all students agree that spoken English is the most difficult for them. As an expressive skill, writing allows rechecking and careful thought about grammatical correctness; however, speaking is immediate and difficult to plan. The students' speech was usually stilted, and they normally paused frequently in conversation to restate ungrammatical sentences grammatically.

Spoken fluency is a goal most of the students desired. The lecture is an important part of Chinese education, and most teachers of English in China desire to be able to give at part of their lectures in fluent English. Spoken ability is also, oddly for the Chinese, the measuring stick of language competency. The monitor at the college was normally chosen for his speaking abilities.

Vocabulary is also a concern; students find lexical shortcomings often in expressing themselves.

(3) Though many responded that they desired communicative competence when asked what should be emphasized in class, what seems more evident in their responses is a desire to at least feel more confident in aural/oral skills, particularly given the available foreign teacher.

One more honest and often heard response should be cited: "I hope you will emphasize us how to analyze a text just as we learned our Chinese in middle school so that we can read and write easily" (Appendix B, p. 96). This answer typlifies the Chinese belief that Intensive Reading leads to reading and writing competence.

(4) The Chinese are voracious readers; students reported staying up until the early morning hours to read novels and classics (undoubtedly, in Chinese). And though slow when reading English, most of the students desire to read classics in American and British literature.

The students also expressed other classroom interests in translation, singing, dramatic readings, and American culture.

(5) The students seem very interested in American culture, particularly "the daily life." Interesting topics to them also include American history, comedy, and human interest.

One student expressed a classic Chinese pedagogical view in his answer: "I like English very much. I determined to study it well under the teacher's help, and to use them easily when I write or speak something" (Appendix B, p. 48).

CHAPTER IV

A SUGGESTED EFL TEACHER TRAINING CURRICULUM

An Educational Philosophy

Though not always explicitly expressed, any curriculum reflects the educational philosophy and pedagogical beliefs of its designer(s). In China, at most levels and in curriculum guidelines provided for the foreign teacher, the decided lack of specific objectives and step-by-step procedures for the realization of learning outcomes suggests a pedagogical belief that hard work, practice, and the "book" are what is needed to meet language learning goals. The influx of foreign teachers, whose backgrounds vary from nonEnglish major college graduates to full professors of literature, TESL, or composition, indicates as well the Chinese perspective that simple exposure to a native speaker brings about English skill.

Some aspects of my personal philosophy include a belief that every teaching-learning situation is different, and learning is facilitated only by a mutual awareness of teacher and student concerning expectations, goals, and limitations. In fact, in EFL teaching, I believe that an understanding of students' needs and views on their roles is more important than an unswerving allegiance to communicative competence in the development of curricula. Furthermore, I find that every teacher has personality strengths and weaknesses, as does every student, which support or mitigate against the success of any method or technique used.

Unlike my predecessor at the college who was a lively storyteller with a booming voice, I was a soft-spoken lecturer. Certain classroom activities appropriate for him were not for me.

In EFL teaching as well, and particularly in the case of teacher trainees re-entering their native educational system at a program's end, I concur with the compromise position--that the native country's educational precepts must be considered and utilized in the classroom. The East-West contrasts in education are particularly sharp, but a "guest" teacher who respects the Chinese tradition in education and facilitates the use of memorization, recitation and performance, literature, and grammar study in the EFL classroom will provide the most efficient learning environment. There is no "blank slate" in China; while active participation on the part of students and natural immersion in English are theoretically appropriate, such a position must be moderated in China.

The philosophy underlying this curriculum borrows liberally from several experienced sources: Mahon and Grabe, 1982; Scovel and Scovel, 1982, 1983; Krashen, Burt and Dulay, 1982; Bruder and Paulston, 1982. Mahon and Grabe (1982), as noted earlier, developed a teacher training model in China which maintains that, given the lack of theoretical background on which to build, Chinese EFL teachers can be introduced to newer educational theory through skills development. T. Scovel (1983) and J. Scovel (1982, 1983) further contend that educational contradictions are a continuing difficulty in China--and will probably worsen--so the foreign teacher does well to view change in incremental steps.

Krashen, Burt and Dulay (1982) outline some teaching guidelines based upon their theories. Some are appropriate in the Chinese context,

such as devising "specific techniques to relax students and protect their egos," including "some time for formal grammar lessons for adults," learning the motivations of students and incorporating this information into lessons, and including "current and socially useful phrases" when teaching dialogues (Krashen, Burt and Dulay, 1982, pp. 266-268).

Bruder and Paulston (1982) find that methodology applications must be moderated by contextual constraints. Teachers who are not highly proficient in communicative English, who work in energy-taxing life-style environments, who have large classes, and who function under unknowledgeable administration cannot be expected to use all of the good ideas they learn from current ESL/EFL methodology. This model borrows from each of the above perspectives.

Long-Term Goals

This curriculum model has several long-term goals, which are divided into areas of maintaining the prescribed format, learner participation, the four major skill areas, vocabulary, literature, grammar, professional awareness and training, and culture:

Maintenance of the Prescribed Format:

(1) Given the textbook format, administrative goals, and student belief, the traditional format in the initial coverage of the lesson is maintained, this being Intensive Reading.

(2) Maintenance of the prescribed format will provide the administration and students with a feeling of confidence in the foreign teacher.

(3) Memorization and recitation of the passage will provide students with a sense of accomplishment and confidence in the language learning environment.

Learner Participation:

(1) The students will gain a gradual familiarity with group dynamics as a pedagogical tool in the classroom.

(2) The students will be introduced to greater learner participation in the classroom in discussion and questioning.

(3) The students will gain an awareness of communicative activities and their use in the language classroom.

Listening Skills:

(1) The students will acquire ease in listening to native English speakers discussing non-technical subjects at a normal rate of speaking.

(2) The students will develop an ability to listen to the regular broadcasts on "Voice of America" with overall comprehension.

(3) The students will master certain recognition and selective listening skills.

(4) The students will be able to facilitate listening activities in their middle school English classrooms.

Speaking Skills:

(1) The students will acquire facility in formal, prepared expression in English for classroom lecture.

(2) The students will be able to discuss a list of subjects in English with their students or foreign visitors: Chinese education, lifestyle, marriage and family life, food, customs and holidays, work units, geography, etc.

(3) The students will acquire a feeling for natural dialogue without continual hesitation and grammatical correction.

(4) The students will be introduced to major Western cultural elements in speech-giving: lack of apology, three-step format, etc.

Reading Skills:

(1) The students will be able to read selectively and comprehend certain passages without reference to bilingual dictionaries.

(2) The students will be able to utilize various reading strategies in approach to reading material, such as skimming, scanning, reading for comprehension, critical reading.

(3) The students will increase their speed and accuracy in reading normal discourse.

(4) The students will become familiar with discourse analysis of various reading styles.

Writing Skills:

(1) The students will be able to use various sentence types (i.e. simple, compound, periodic, loose) in their writing.

(2) The students will become aware of basic sentence, paragraph, and essay organization for composition preparation.

(3) The students will be introduced to various styles of expository prose, such as letter writing, article formats, etc.

(4) The students will be able to master greater spelling accuracy.

Vocabulary:

(1) The students will become familiar with strategies for vocabulary identification: context clues, structural analysis (prefix, suffix, root).

(2) The students will be introduced to current major word and idiom usage in the United States.

(3) The students will master through memorization vocabulary to describe certain subjects in American and Chinese culture.

(4) The students will gain an understanding of the denotation/ connotation dichotomy in word meaning for translation purposes.

(5) The students will grasp the significance of certain English words which have developed specialized cultural meanings in China.

Literature:

(1) The students will be introduced to major developments in the history of American literature.

(2) The students will gain greater awareness of major American poets and prose writers and their significant works.

(3) The student will gain a feeling for certain classics in American and British literature.

Grammar:

(1) The students will gain greater facility in grammar skills and usage.

(2) The students will gain greater facility and confidence in their own grammatical accuracy through practice homework assignments.

(3) The students will gain experience in utilizing grammar rules in functional and situational communication activities.

(4) The students will be introduced to activities for the teaching of grammar in their classrooms.

Professional Awareness and Training:

(1) The students will gain a greater awareness of the concerns of the teaching profession.

(2) The students will be introduced to Western pedagogical theories and activities for language learning in the classroom.

(3) The students will become aware of lesson planning methods: developing goals, objectives, activities.

(4) The students will acquire skills in the development of their own classroom materials: writing dialogues, cultural units, etc.

(5) The students will be introduced to classroom presentation methods, self-evaluation techniques, and analysis methods for evaluating student needs.

(6) The students will begin to perceive ways for continuing their own teaching development.

Culture:

(1) The students will be introduced to American views on independence, family, work, and education.

(2) The students will become aware of broad historical periods in the origin and development of the United States.

(3) The students will be introduced to American lifestyle, education, hobbies, customs, and holidays.

Sample Objectives/Classroom Activities/ Suggested Materials

The following objectives, activities and materials outlined here are not prescribed, but rather suggested. The objectives and activities should be adapted to the personality of the teacher and the needs of students in a particular class. The textbooks suggested here can easily be replaced with others of a similar genre or content. For instance, A World of American Literature by Bailey and Leavell (1963) is an early-

published high school textbook, which could be easily exchanged for another American literature textbook. The foreign teacher should choose and use what is readily available to him.

Some of the preparation for teaching in China must be completed before leaving the United States, due to the dearth of pedagogical materials there. Articles and reference books may be reviewed, but some resources are readily transportable, such as the following list of textbooks: A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English by Rivers and Temperley (1978), The Process of Composition by Reid (1982), Words People Use by McCallum (1982), Checklists for Vocabulary Study by Yorkey (1981), Reading Beyond Words by Adams and Brody (1983), and Trouble Spots of English Grammar by Cook (1983). This paperback collection offers basic resources for all skill areas. Despite material lacks in China, copiers and good typists are readily available; the Beijing Coal Mining Management College supplies an advanced Xerox machine for use by foreign teachers. Since copyright laws are more relaxed in China, it is easy to copy materials for class. (Maintenance of the prescribed format will not be addressed in terms of objectives and classroom activities.)

Learner Participation

Sample Objectives:

(1) The student should be able to participate in a one-on-one conversation with the teacher on everyday topics.

(2) The student should demonstrate competence in discussing a teacher-given topic with three or four other students.

(3) The students should be able to respond to questions in class on topics personal activities, Chinese lifestyle, habits, etc.

(4) The students should be able to address questions to the teacher on points of the lecture or discussion not understood.

(5) The student should have the opportunity to prepare, manage, or participate in a class play, role-play, or dialogue.

(6) The student should be able to identify from memory lyrics to well-known American folk songs.

(7) The student should be able to employ appropriate strategies for communication (functionally-correct) in situations: a foreign guest in his town, a Teaching Group meeting.

Classroom Activities:

Many Chinese students are reserved in the classroom and concerned about making grammatical mistakes when speaking. Various activities can be used to "coax" these students into participatory roles.

(1) Krashen, Burt and Dulay (1982) suggest giving students new identities: an American housewife, teacher, businessman. No one but the student himself knows his identiy. He is given a name, address. Based on his new identity, he introduces himself to the class. He may also be interviewed about several issues.

(2) Post-card description exercises may also be used. The foreign teacher provides each student with a postcard, which he must describe visually to the class, discuss in light of cultural aspects, or create a story about.

(3) A short article from The China Daily may be duplicated and discussed in class. Chinese students are often interested in human interest stories.

(4) Rivers and Temperly (1978) suggest such games as "Twenty Questions" "Animal-Vegetable-Mineral" and variations way of engaging students in autonomous problem-solving communication.

(5) Many of the textbook passages contain enough dialogue to make them readily adaptable to drama. Though often shy about accepting parts, Chinese students readily participate because they have opportunity to memorize the lines ahead of time.

(6) Dramatic improvisation through role-play may be used later in the course. One suggestion put forth by Rivers and Temperly is the acting out of proverbs. Both English and Chinese proverbs (translated) may be used.

(7) Group dynamics are unfamiliar to the Chinese student, particularly in English. Two techniques are suggested here to "ease" the student into group work:

(a) During office hours, the foreign teacher can meet with two students at a time for twenty-minute conferences. After the interview, the student writes a paragraph on the participation of each member of the group.

(b) When breaking students into groups, the teacher should explain the topic, questions to be addressed, and "duties" the group should fulfill. He should also assign roles for each member: director, secretary, reporter, etc.

Suggested Materials:

Rees (1977) provides some excellent ideas for presenting songs in the classroom. Chinese students enjoy singing, and they will avidly participate in class and memorize the lyrics. Chapter two in A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English offers many readily adaptable suggestions for classroom activities for the building up of skills in autonomous interaction.

Listening Skills

Sample Objectives: (Based on the successive approach taken by Rivers and Temperly)

(1) The student should be able to identify vocabulary from a taped reading with a written word list provided.

(2) The student should be able to identify information found in three parts of a short story: the beginning, the middle, and end.

(3) The student should be able to accurately reconstruct (with minor spelling and recognition errors) in written form a dictation of a short paragraph.

(4) The student should be able to identify words and phrases in the reading of a paragraph in a normal speaking rate.

(5) The student should be able to retell a story from the special English broadcast on "Voice of America".

(6) The student should be able to carry out the functions of five instructions given orally in succession by the teacher.

(7) The student should be able to identify two news items from the normal "Voice of America" news broadcast.

(8) The student should be able to listen to the normal news broadcast on "Voice of America" and restate major headlines.

Classroom Activities:

The "Voice of America" broadcast is quite popular with Chinese students, who listen to it quite avidly. Undoubtedly, they feel most familiar with its format, and they desire better comprehension of the content of its broadcasts. Since most students have tape recorders, the lessons can be done outside of class or the monitor may assign students to record the broadcasts for use by the teacher.

(1) Rivers and Temperly (1978) suggest the use of dictation for the building of listening skills in the classroom. Chinese students are aware of this technique and find it in keeping with their "absorption" method of learning. Biweekly dictations on matters of cultural or pedagogical interest are beneficial. A three-step format is advisable: (a) the passage is read quickly, students listen and do not write, (b) the passage is read at a slow-to-normal rate with long pauses while students write, and (c) the passage is read at a normal rate for correction and addition.

(2) Using a prerecorded news broadcast from "Voice of America," the teacher may develop comprehension and identification questions that the students seek to answer while listening to the broadcast in class (Rivers and Temperley, 1978).

(3) Rivers and Temperley (1978) also suggest written spelling bees, in which the students write words they hear; in addition to listening comprehension, spelling can be checked for accuracy.

(4) Students may watch available British and American films and be asked to listen for particular points in them.

(5) A guest speaker discussing some aspect of American life, such as grocery shopping, family life, education, career, provide the basis for further questioning and discussion.

(6) Students may listen to a pretaped story from a "Voice of America" broadcast in special English, after which questions on theme, plot, character, etc. are addressed.

(7) Rivers and Temperley (1978) suggest the reading of a simple mystery story in which the ending is omitted. The students must outline a conclusion in a small group discussion.

Suggested Materials:

As noted, the "Voice of America" radio broadcast is readily available, particularly since most students have a radio/tape combination or one or both separately. The broadcast is on the radio at least twice each day. Another source of taped materials is The British Embassy in downtown Beijing. The Council at the Embassy will lend materials to American foreign teachers and experts. For ten pages of their book, Rivers and Temperley (1978) provide a list of listening activities from the beginning to the advanced level which can be readily used in China. Finally, tourists, business persons, non-working wives of businessmen, and other teachers provide excellent resources for guest lectures.

Speaking Skills

Sample Objectives:

(1) The student should be able to formulate a short dialogue which he presents to the class with a partner.

(2) The student should be able to participate in short teacher- and student-prepared dialogues in a confident manner.

(3) The student should be able to use appropriate items, expressions, and idioms for certain functions in spoken discourse, such as greetings, leave-taking, asking permission, giving directions.

(4) The student should be able to organize and present a weekly pre-planned three-to-five minute speech on various topics of Chinese, American, or cross-cultural interest. He should be able to do this with minor errors. As an example, the student should be able to present a sketch of a typical day in his life.

(5) The student should be able to discuss briefly in a two-to-three minute talk an impromptu topic proposed by the teacher.

(6) The student should be able to construct and present questions for an interview.

(7) The student should be able to paraphrase short spoken discourse for the class with few semantic errors.

(8) The student should be able to present a ten-to-fifteen minute mini-lecture on a pedagogical topic, such as a current EFL method or technique.

Classroom Activities:

Formal speech-making will certainly be a frequent reality for Chinese middle school English teachers. They will need to be able to present topics with ease to their Teaching Groups, classes, and school functions. They should also be able to participate in everyday English conversation with ease and confidence. Therefore, activities should be of both a formal and informal nature.

(1) One traditional custom in the teacher training classroom at the college was what is called "the duty for the day". The student whose duty it is prepares a short joke or ancedote as the opener for the school day.

(2) Prepared, class-written, and student-written dialogues are valuable opportunities for students to practice formal and functional speech objectives. Certain phrases and expressions can be memorized from these dialogues and used in daily speech.

(3) One activity the students seem to enjoy is formal speech-making. Having memorized beforehand what they will say, they feel confident with this kind of activity. Each week a different topic is assigned for presentation, such as the student's hometown, province, occupation, daily life, preferences, hobbies, favorite hobby, and husband, wife or sibling.

(4) Various role-play activities, such as TV talk show interviews with various identities given to each student and applicant-for-a-job interviews, provide excellent opportunities to use functional expressions, etc. in realistic situations (Kreitzer and others, 1984).

(5) Foreign visiting lecturers at the college may also be interviewed (in addition or probably instead of the lecture). Each student is then required to draft several questions and ask at least one question during the interview.

(6) Chinese students relish recitations of memorized pieces of poetry and prose. This activity also affords them opportunity to practice their intonation and pronounciation

(7) Running commentaries and restatements of teacher speech provide students with opportunities to use indirect speech and develop fluency in vocabulary and expression.

Suggested Materials

Verbal Strategies, a text developed by Amelia Kreitzer (1984) at the Second Foreign Language Institute in Beijing, is an excellent tool for the development of functional competency in spoken English. The textbook also supplies culturally clarifying activities which can be easily used in the teacher training classes at the college. Rivers and Temperley(1978) also provide worthwhile activities for developing speaking ability in their book. Modern American English by Wornov (1983) is also useful.

Reading Skills

Sample Objectives:

(1) The student should be able to recognize main ideas when skimming sentences (compound, periodic, loose), utilizing context clues.

(2) The student should be able to identify the main idea when skimming longer prose--paragraphs, essays, articles--with some reference to a monolingual dictionary (but none to a bilingual dictionary).

(3) The student should be able to scan newspaper and magazine articles and other types of factual prose for particular facts predetermined by the teacher.

(4) The student should be able to analyze factual and opinionated information and formulate basic critical inferences.

(5) The student should be able to identify and recall specific details in logical sequence and assess their relationship to the development of plot and theme in prose.

(6) The student should be able to increase his reading rate by fifty to one hundred words per minute when not following the tensive reading method.

(7) The student should be able to complete a simple cloze activity with ease and accuracy.

Classroom Activities:

One problem that Chinese students have is an overreliance on the use of a bilingual dictionary for unfamiliar word meanings. This reliance

mitigates against the development of context clue recognition, reading speed, and overall comprehension. The following activities suggested in the classroom should be done without the availability of a bilingual dictionary.

(1) The China Daily, Newsweek (available in nearby hotels), and Reader's Digest provide readings which can be utilized in skimming and scanning reading exercises. For instance, a student may be asked to scan an article to find out the number of imports from Japan in 1984 in an article on economic relations between Japan and China.

(2) Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) for fifteen minutes at the beginning of one class period per day facilitates reading speed and enjoyment.

(3) A presentation on cohesion in reading should prove valuable in developing speed reading and overall comprehension abilities; the lecture would be on locating transitions, substitutions, ellipsis, reiteration, conjunctions, and thematization (Chapman, 1983).

(4) Reading exercises for the development of reading speed are available in many books; however, the value of reading quickly is unfamiliar to Chinese students despite their description of Extensive Reading. In a lecture, reading speed should be shown to develop comprehension, and timed readings prepared in a sequenced series should be completed each week (Braam and Sheldon, 1959).

(5) The "ReQuest Procedure" as designed by Manzo in 1968 and explained in Tierney, Readence, and Dishner (1980) is a technique which helps readers to become more involved in developing their own comprehension strategies. The steps include (a) teacher preparation of material, (b) development of readiness for the strategy through selected vocabulary and background information about the passage, (c) development of student questioning behaviors, (d) development of student predictive behaviors, (e) silent reading activity, and (f) follow-up activities to verify predictions and questions.

(6) Tierney, Readence, and Dishner (1980) also describe a technique for developing students' skimming skills called the "Survey Technique." The survey technique is used with textbooks and involves analysis of chapter title, subtitles, visuals, introductory paragraph, concluding paragraph--and from these inclusive, determining the main points of the chapter.

(7) Choral reading is a method which can be used to develop students' expression in oral reading. Paired reading and echo reading (student following teacher) can also help the

Chinese student to develop necessary oral fluency and vocabulary skill (Tierney, Readence, and Dishner, 1980).

(8) Reading with writing is suggested by Rivers and Temperly (1978) and can involve simply adding connectives and other transitions to basic sentences to develop a full paragraph.

Suggested Materials:

Rivers and Temperly (1978) provide a series of reading activities to develop different reading strategies through a set of stages from familiarization to autonomy. In addition, a very portable reading text with worthwhile selections and activities is Reading Beyond Words by Adams and Brody (1983). Selections from the readily available textbook in China Modern American English by Wornov (1983) provides additional selections which can be used for reading activities. For a valuable and readable book on modern theory in reading, Reading Development and Cohesion by Chapman (1983) is useful. Finally, The British Council (Embassy) has many and assorted short story anthologies, novels, textbooks, and reading books.

Writing Skills

Sample Objectives:

(1) The student will be able to recognize and employ dependent and independent clauses in various sentence types: simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences.

(2) The student will be able to combine associated simple sentences as compound, complex, or compound-complex sentences.

(3) The student will be able to recognize and classify transitions and other coherence-fostering sentence and paragraph elements, such as transitions, substitutions, repetition of key words.

(4) The student will be able to recognize and reproduce an outline of the topic sentence and supporting ideas, and then identify the controlling thought of a paragraph.

(5) The student will be able to name those features of the paragraph which strengthen unity, coherence, and support (examples, facts, details).

(6) The student will be able to organize and compose a short paragraph with a clear topic sentence and supporting sentences.

(7) The student will be able to recognize and employ a number of writing styles: factual discourse for reports and essays, personal letters, business letters, dialogues, creative stories.

(8) The student will be able to formulate a thesis; outline a complete essay with title, introduction, a main body, conclusion; and write a lengthy expository essay on a teacher-given topic.

Classroom Activities:

Writing as its oral counterpart, speaking, involves production which is strengthened through confidence-building exercises and frequent practice.

(1) Imitative practice of the major sentence type is valuable, and with the copying, students may mark or identify in some way sentence elements: dependent clauses, independent clauses, transitions, and conjunctions. Chinese students often feel a sense of accomplishment with such an exercise, and they gain practice in sentence structure through it.

(2) Rivers and Temperly (1978) suggest the use of questionnaires, developed so that when the questions are answered in order, the basis for a coherent paragraph is developed. This guided writing may be completed in conjunction with a reading exercise, or used independently with a topic of interest.

(3) In a group of two or three, students may jointly write dialogues. Initially, the group roles and duties are clearly defined, guiding questions provided, and a choice of situations given. This exercise should be used after the students have demonstrated familiarity with dialogue style and structure through materials such as Verbal Strategies by Kreitzer and others (1984).

(4) Students may be asked to write a summary of an article, book, chapter, short story, or even the textbook lesson for the week.

(5) A weekly journal that the student keeps is also beneficial. The teacher may choose to assign instead that a personal letter is written to him every weekend.

(6) A lecture presented on business letter formats is useful, and an assignment for the students to write letters to a fictious company on matters of application, product availability, textbook purchase is helpful.

(7) Chinese students enjoy translation, which for them is a scholarly art, and while a non-Chinese-speaking foreign teacher may not have linguistic access to the original, English translations of songs, stories, and proverbs are valid exercises.

(8) Compositions may be assigned on topics of cultural or educational interest; however, the organization, style, and length should be carefully explained.

Suggested Materials:

A clearly designed and lightweight textbook is The Process of Composition by Reid (1980). Not only is traditional composition described with the international student in mind, but resume, summary, and business letter forms are described in the appendices. Rivers and Temperley(1978) provide a number of successively built writing exercises. Finally, Some Conventions of Standard Written English by Pixton (1982) provides discussion and examples of sentence structure, grammar and punctuation rules.

Vocabulary

Sample Objectives:

(1) The student should be able to identify through memorization the etymological bases and meanings of roots, prefixes, and suffixes.

(2) The student should be able to recognize and classify vocabulary according to certain usages and registers: polite, formal, informal, slang.

(3) The student should be able to list from memory groups of idioms on a shared point of reference or topic, and then should be able to construct meaningful sentences using them.

(4) The student should be able to recognize denotative and connotative values in the meanings of culturally-sensitive Chinese English and American English vocabulary.

(5) The student should be able to master between twenty and thirty vocabulary items per week and supply appropriate sentence contexts for them.

(6) The student should be able to indicate familiarity with the meanings of words on cultural and educational topics, such as primary, secondary, and tertiary education, etc.

Classroom Activities:

(1) A popular tradition established in my Spring 1984 class was the "Idiom of the Day", which the students would often incorporate into their "Duty of the Day".

(2) A three-step procedure can be followed to aid students in the memorization of vocabulary in appropriate context. First of all, the teacher provides the students with a list of words on a given topic with accompanying sentence contexts. Next, after a day of memorization, the teacher gives a dictation using the words memorized. Finally, the students are assigned a writing assignment in which they must use the same words: paragraph, dialogue, or composition.

(3) Chinese students have particular problems with derivational and inflectional changes, such as using the verb form of a word where a noun form is appropriate. A study of these endings and the functional changes they cause is helpful. (See Checklists for Vocabulary Study by Yorkey (1981.)

(4) Vocabulary grids (Harvey, 1983) on topics of broad interest and possibilities provide the student with a clear sense of word meanings from various functional angles. Discussion of word formation, collocation, and synonyms is provided with the grids.

(5) Vocabulary expansion through films and tape recordings can be managed by supplying students with a list of words and their meanings to be in the film, and then discussing the meanings after the film without the reference list.

Suggested Materials:

Words People Use by McCallum (1982) was the most successful textbook I used in China. The lessons are up-to-date, culturally revealing selections offering vocabulary in context, later definitions, and then a schedule of exercises to build memory and appropriate use are provided. The British Council also has many useful vocabulary books and materials. Rivers and Temperley(1978) also have a relevant section on etymology.

Literature

Sample Objectives:

(1) The student should be able to identify major periods of American literature and representative authors from each period. Furthermore, he should be able to describe the social, political, and other historical features of the period.

(2) The student should be able to demonstrate from memory the names of authors, the titles of their works, and the dates of their writing which made significant impact within these literary periods in America.

(3) The student should be able to give biographical information on major American authors, such as Mark Twain, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, and John Steinbeck.

(4) The student should be able to assess and compare literary preferences and trends, both similar and contrasting between America and China.

(5) The student should be able to identify from memory several classic works of poetry.

(6) The student should be able to identify the theme, plot, setting, characters, and point of view taken in major literary works in American prose and poetry.

Classroom Activities:

(1) Literature study is probably best facilitated through lecture and discussion. The teacher should describe literary periods, major authors and their works from those periods, and the historical setting of these periods in America.

(2) Students may be assigned to report to the class on a particular author and his work as part of a formal speech or presentation: individually or as a group project.

(3) Students in China also enjoy reciting from memory familiar sections of poetry, drama, and other works of fiction.

(4) Many films are available from The British Council giving the life story of both British and a few American authors. Films are useful complements to class lecture and discussion.

(5) Book reports or summaries (of shorter works) may be assigned.

Suggested Materials:

Xia (1984) suggests in his paper the value of comparative study

of Chinese and American literatures in providing orientation for the Chinese student as to corresponding dates, authors, historical events. In addition, the teacher can withdraw cross-cultural context difficulties through study of available Chinese literature translated into English. A journal Chinese Literature, published since 1951, is a good resource. For vocabulary-reduced American literature selections, the teacher should consult a publisher such as Regency. Finally, a good literature textbook, high school or college level, is a useful addition to the foreign teacher's luggage.

Grammar

Sample Objectives:

(1) The student should indicated explicit knowledge of rules governing the formation and usage of phrasal verbs and be able to formulate sentences using them.

(2) The student should be able to identify the three types of verbals (infinitives, gerunds, participles) and construct sentences correctly using them.

(3) The student should be able to demonstrate apprehension of the forms and patterns used for modals: permission, ability, necessity, supposition, obligation, and compulsion.

(4) The student should be able to locate the main and subordinate clauses of a sentence and be able to apply rules concerning the form and function of relative clauses, dependent interrogative clauses marked by when forms and indefinite relative clauses.

(5) The student should be able to appraise the interaction of grammar with functional/situational usage and should be able to indicate a mastery of the above rules with functional/situational appropriateness.

(6) The student should be able to construct sentences, write paragraphs, compositions, and business letters using appropriate rules for the comma, capitalization, and punctuation markers like the semicolon, colon, and dash.

Classroom Activities:

Though this section indicates a concession from a purely Western methodological standpoint, the major activity in this section is explicit grammar practice through rule memorization, exercises, and careful consideration of correct usage in oral practice. However, the ultimate goal is still communicative--appropriate usage in appropriate settings.

(1) Rivers and Temperley(1978) suggest an opposite approach to the one usually taken in the traditional classroom. They suggest oral practice of a grammar rule before it is assigned for homework or additional written practice.

(2) Modern ESL theorists concede that grammar study gives adult analytical learners confidence in the language learning situation (Krashen, Burt and Dulay, 1982), and this point accurately describes adult EFL learners in China. Grammar homework, which is assigned often and in great quantities, is welcome.

(3) Cloze exercises with the grammatical aspect omitted are useful. For example, a passage which may be constructed has the modal missing in each sentence. Context aids the student in determining appropriate usage.

(4) Multiple-choice questions which require the student to discriminate correct usage are appropriate exercises.

(5) Students may each write a dialogue which utilizes a grammar rule recently learned in a natural communicative context.

(6) Grammar rules may be applied in role-play activities, which require the use of a particular structure for sensical interaction.

Suggested Materials:

Individual teachers often feel comfortable with a particular grammar book, and a familiar grammar reference is beneficial as background for the numerous questions students in China ask about grammatical correctness. However, some good hints are provided in Rivers and Temperley's text, and a clear and serviceable textbook (paperback) is the 1983 Cook's Trouble Spots of English Grammar. And a very helpful reference most applicable to written discourse is Pixton's 1982 Some Conventions

of Standard Written English. Numerous grammar books are available as well from The British Council.

Professional Awareness and Training

The middle school English teachers at the Beijing Coal Mining Management College are certainly the most concerned about English skill development; however, several expressed interest in learning "good ways of teaching". Yet, they teach in very limited situations without native-like proficiency in their own English language skills. Therefore, coupled with instruction in modern ESL/EFL pedagogical theory must be discussion about how those ideas can actually be applied.

Sample Objectives:

(1) The student should be able to relate the nature of his teaching position and the functions he carries out in terms of measurable outcomes.

(2) The student should be able to diagram the steps of lesson planning, outlining goals and objectives, determining learning activities, and selecting materials. He should also be able to employ strategies which are flexible to limited materials and activity possibilities.

(3) The student should be able to identify and describe the nature of the activities for the newly-formed TESOL-like organization in China: The Chinese Association for English Language Education (CAELE).

(4) The student should be able to identify personal teaching goals, both linguistic and pedagogical, for his first year after returning to teaching.

(5) The student should be able to name and demonstrate familiarity with major ESL/EFL methods: Community Language Learning, The Silent Way, The Natural Approach, The Direct Method, Total Physical Response, Audio-Lingual Method, Notional-Functional Syllabus, and eclectic ideas.

(6) The student should be able to appraise the value of learning activities through inventory of the grammar-translation/ intensive reading approaches.

(7) The student should be able to duplicate a demonstration lesson format provided by the teacher.

(8) The student should be able to prepare classroom materials, such as dialogues, units on aspects of American culture, literature units, grammar units.

(9) The student should be able to formulate through group discussion methods for successful integration and some innovation in the Teaching Group at his own middle school.

Classroom Activities:

(1) The teacher should provide weekly lectures on topics such as lesson planning, current ESL/EFL methodology, self-evaluation criteria, successful language teaching techniques in large classes, methods for using textbook passages in innovative ways.

(2) Moore (1977) suggests a series of steps for the presentation of a teacher training demonstration lesson.

(3) Dialogue writing is described extensively by Rivers and Temperley(1978), and a weekly dialogue can be written by the class and compiled in each student's notebook for later use and adaptation in his own teaching. Dialogues lend themselves to structured, large-group teaching circumstances.

(4) Taking a particular language item, vocabulary set, short reading, dialogue, the students can each prepare a mini-lesson that they give in front of their colleagues in class.

(5) In small groups, students can map out a set of long-term teaching goals for their own careers.

(6) The entire class can discuss ways to utilize modern pedagogical theory and techniques in the Chinese middle school classroom.

(7) The teacher should prepare a mini-lesson for each of the major ESL/EFL teaching methods for class demonstration.

Suggested Materials:

Language Two by Krashen, Burt and Dulay (1982) gives one decided point of view on modern ESL theory. Chinese students should be made aware of the acquisition/learning dichotomy, so that they are apprised of the reasons for failure in developing communicative skill in their students through the Intensive Reading method. The foreign teacher

should take along a paperback text on modern ESL theory; as a suggestion, Douglas Brown's 1980 book Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. Rivers and Temperley's book, referred to often in this curriculum, is a practical set of current ESL/EFL techniques.

Culture

Sample Objectives:

(1) The student should be able to identify characteristics of American perspective in language use: greetings, small talk, ways for handling invitations, approaches to offering advice and apology.

(2) The student should be able to list topics not appropriate in speaking with a native English speaker.

(3) The student should be able to sketch out major events and periods in American history.

(4) The student should be able to identify contrasts between American and Chinese in family life, social needs and values, education, success, and custom.

(5) The student should be able to identify major geographical regions and the lifestyles synonymous with those regions (i.e., the Southwest/cowboys) in the United States.

(6) The student should be able to indicate familiarity with major American customs, holidays, hobbies, and entertainment.

(7) The student should be able to name between eight and ten major folk songs, and sing the lyrics to several of them.

Classroom Activities:

(1) Visual aids are major assets in describing culture; magazines, slides, personal photographs, postcards, and videotapes provide a memorable view into American life.

(2) Cultural units combining different types of presentation are helpful. For one week, the class might examine family life in America. Lectures, student reports, magazine photographs, films from the American Embassy, and guest speakers might be used in a coherent manner.

(3) Chinese students are particularly curious about the incidence of divorce and crime in America; a presentation

of realistic information and open discussion following are beneficial.

(4) The reading of high school biographies may be used, because biographies provide insight into the choices made and prevelant attitudes in American thought.

(5) Role-play and dialogue activities may be used. The setting and cultural background are then clarifies and exemplified in the role-play or dialogue itself.

(6) Guest speakers or the teacher himself may be interviewed on a particular cultural topic. For example, the teacher could ask a foreign businessman living in the city of Beijing to be interviewed by the class on the topic of American business practice.

Suggested Materials:

Verbal Strategies by Kreitzer and Others (1984) has many relevant cultural notes and information related to the functional conversations prepared; the notes specify aspects of American culture which might be misunderstood by the Chinese. Hsu (1981) examines major differences between American and Chinese cultures, and the book would be beneficial to a foreign teacher in the preparation of lectures before travel to China. Modern American English by Wornov (1983) provides much as well on cultural points, but some of it reflects antiAmerican sentiment. American films, tape recordings, and slides are available through the American Embassy. Finally, there is a recently opened fast-food restaurant in downtown Beijing, which is worthy of class introduction through a field trip.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

Future Developments

It is difficult for sinologists to diagnose the future developments to be realized in China, because the sociopolitical dynamics in place seem yet temporary. Part of the reason is that Deng Xiaopeng, China's moderate leader, is getting older; and foreigner and Chinese alike are uncertain about what manner of leadership will follow him. The worst fears are that a second Cultural Revolution might begin, but optimists believe that China will continue to move towards a more stable political and economic position.

In EFL teaching, the future possibilities are equally uncertain. Some foreign teachers leave China with a set of positive reflections, and yet others remember mainly unpleasantries accompanying life in a totalitarian state. It seems that despite governmental encouragement for the influx of foreign teachers in Chinese EFL programs, there is yet much reserve politically and socially about "corrupting" influences accompanying the Western tide. The welcoming mat is only out "part way."

There have been significant changes in key institutions in China in EFL pedagogy. In these schools, classroom techniques and materials are designed to foster more realistic use of language. In addition, adapted methodologies have been developed to serve the needs of Chinese students. However, many of these important changes or shifts have

yet to transfer to the ordinary English teaching situation in China. The middle school teachers I worked with are a case in point. They returned to very traditional classrooms and their Intensive-Reading-fostering textbooks with a vague recollection of something an American teacher said about "communicative competence."

However, there is reason to believe that the "contradictions" T. Scovel (1983) discusses may be eased with communication and thoughtful planning on the part of foreign teachers assigned in China. The planning exists within limitations of administrative and student expectations, but nonetheless can be significant. Even though literature must be taught, activities can be planned which encourage natural interaction. Furthermore, I concur with Mahon and Grabe (1982) that given the practical nature of the Chinese, a Chinese EFL teacher's mind is most likely to change when he sees his own progress and success in English as resulting from his teacher's Western methodological innovation. The change may be a slow process of incremental steps, but it can and will likely occur in China. It is my judgment that Westerners are quick to innovate and expect swift change; and though aspiring to technological advancements and quick changes, the Chinese are slower but steadfast in their progress.

Closing Remarks

This thesis is one attempt at rather incrementat innovation. It is one suggestion for a curriculum mofication in a small college outside Beijing, limited to the foreign teacher and to circumstances similar to those of the spring of 1984. The actual curriculum model, though, is not as important as the concomittant belief that compromise

can be realized practically in the classroom. Furthermore, its own development suggests the development of others like it. Perhaps, if many foreign teachers joined in similar efforts, more decided changes for the better might be realized in China.

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LESSON II

HOME IS THE SOLDIER

by *Alexander Saxton*

"It smells like America," the man shouted. He flung his arms into the air and stamped on the familiar American pavement. "It smells like no foreign country. It smells like America. We're home, man!" Pledger McAdams laughed, but he could not speak. He heard the white lieutenant call them to attention. The band began to play, and they went up Fifth Avenue with their bayonets flashing in the winter sunlight. Marching, Pledger held his head stiff between his shoulders, but sometimes he turned his eyes sidewise to look at the white people lined up along the sidewalks. The white people were shouting and waving little flags which said, "Welcome home to our heroes." In front of the public library stood the Mayor of New York City with his hat in his hand, and a lot of big officers were with him, saluting the flags which went past, while company by company, the men turned their heads to the left.

Pledger threw back his head while tears rolled down his face. Thank God, thank God, we have come back, he kept saying half aloud.

A little later, Pledger was on a train bound for Chicago. Half asleep, he lay with his head on the arm of his seat, dreaming how it would be when he stepped down from the train and Sarah came towards him along the platform, when he reached out to her and pulled her against him.

Towards morning, the train stopped in an Indiana town. He shook himself awake and jumped down to the platform. Then he walked across the street from the station for a cup of coffee. A few people were in the restaurant eating breakfast and Pledger smelled the American smell of coffee and toast and bacon. Grinning with pleasure, he sat down at the counter and took up the menu.

The counterman leaned over and said, "What do you want in here, fellow?"

"Coffee and fried eggs," Pledger said.

"We don't serve coloured people here."

Pledger stared at him for a moment before he understood.

"We don't serve niggers here," the counterman said.

Getting up from his seat, Pledger lifted his large brown fists. Then he let them drop, turned and walked to the door. He saw the other people in the restaurant watching him with expressionless faces. The door banged shut behind him. He was no longer hungry and now he did not even feel angry.

He felt empty and strange. For a moment, he remembered the Mayor of New York standing with his hat in his hand. But now it was as if he were waking from a dream, and the friends who had been his friends disappeared with the warm shadows of sleep. He found himself alone in the winter daylight, staring across the snow-covered fields.

* * *

In the spring of that year, Pledger McAdams returned to his old job as car repairman in the coach yard of the Great Midland Railroad. Through the long after-

noons, he and his partner worked down in the wheel pit, repairing the axles and wheels of the damaged cars. Their young white apprentice handed them tools, trying to follow the work. To Pledger, after three years of walking and waiting, it felt good to be back at his trade again. He sang to pass the time and as he worked, he looked forward to the supper hour and the cake and sandwiches his wife Sarah had prepared for him.

Now they began repairing cars that had not been painted or repaired since before the war. They worked overtime, three or four hours a night. The cars rolled endlessly on to the pit rails; the days and nights moved past in a succession of eating, sleeping, waking, hurrying to the yard. Pledger, coming into the wheel pit one day at the start of the afternoon shift, found the white boy they had trained as apprentice waiting for him. He was a long-legged lad with a freckled face and red hair. "Listen," the boy said, pulling Pledger into the corner. "They asked me today if I could handle a job as regular repairman,"

"Sure enough, Red? We must have trained you quite well." Then Pledger looked down sharply into the boy's face.

"You know whose job they want to give me?"

"Whose?"

"Yours. They say you aren't going to be working here much longer."

"Who? Who said that?"

"The foreman said it. I told him I don't want your job, Pledger, but it doesn't make any difference. One of the others will take it."

Without answering, Pledger nodded his head and

turned away. Then he turned back suddenly, caught the boy by the wrists and forced him against the wall. "We trained you," he shouted. "We taught you your work and now you're ready to spit in our faces because we're coloured. You'd better get out of here before I break you in half." He pushed the boy across the wheel-pit house; but a moment later, running after him, he put his arm around the boy's shoulders. "I have to apologize, Red. I know it isn't your fault, boy. You did well to tell me."

NOTES AND COMMENTARY

1. *The author* — Alexander Saxton [ˌæligˈzɑːndə ˋsækstən] is a contemporary American writer. The text above is taken from his work *The Great Midland* (1948), a novel about the life of the railway workers in the United States. Our selection tells us about what happens to Pledger McAdams [ˈpledʒə məkˋædəmz], a Negro, upon his return from Europe at the end of the First World War.
2. **pavement** (l. 3) — stone or asphalt covering of a street
3. **call them to attention** (l. 6) — issue a command to make them stand at attention 叫他們立正
4. **Chicago** [ʃiˋkɑːgou] (l. 22) — 芝加哥
5. **Indiana** [ˌindiˋænə] (l. 27) — a state in the central part of the United States
6. **to serve** (l. 38) — to bring food to, to wait at table
7. **coloured people** (l. 38) — In the United States, 'coloured people' refers to Negroes.
8. **niggers** (l. 41) — an abusive term for Negroes
9. **wheel pit** (l. 58) — 修車坑道
10. **to follow** (l. 61) — to understand
11. **three years of walking and waiting** (ll. 61, 62) — the years he spent in the war
12. **Red** (l. 78) — The apprentice was red-haired.

LEXICAL AND GRAMMAR NOTES

1. past (l. 16); **passed**

These two words are often confused. *Past* can be used as a noun, an adjective, an adverb, or a preposition. *Passed* is either the past form of *to pass* or its past participle. When used as a participle to modify a noun, it stresses the passive character of the word it modifies whereas *past* used as adjective stresses past time.

They saluted the flags which went *past*. (adverb) (ll. 15, 16.)

She went *past* the library. (preposition)

The Red Army *passed* the grasslands.

After the grasslands *were passed* the soldiers took a few days' rest.

I consider that the days *passed* in this way are memorable.

2. They went up Fifth Avenue *with their bayonets flashing* (ll. 7, 8)

The 'with' phrase is used as an adverbial denoting an attending circumstance. Translated into Chinese, the phrase would become a clause with 'bayonets' as subject and 'flashing' as predicate. 他們沿着第五号街前进，刺刀閃閃发光.

The word or words following the object of 'with' may be, besides a present participle, a past participle, a prepositional phrase, etc.

They marched up Fifth Avenue *with the white people lined up* along the sidewalks.

The Mayor of New York stood *with his hat in his hand.*

3. *Marching*, Pledger held his head stiff (ll. 8, 9)

The present participle 'marching' is here used as an adverbial of time. The action expressed is simultaneous with the action expressed by the predicate verb 'held'. It means, 'while he was marching, he held his head stiff'.

***Getting up* from his seat, Pledger lifted his large brown fists.** (li. 42, 43)

The present participle 'getting up' is also used as an

adverbial of time. But the action expressed precedes the action expressed by the predicate verb 'lifted'. It means, 'when (after) he got up from his seat Pledger lifted his large brown fists'.

Some verbs express actions which last only a moment, such as: 'get up', 'take', 'stand up', 'stop', etc. When the present participle of a verb of this kind is used as an adverbial of time, the action indicated precedes the action denoted by the predicate verb. Some other verbs express actions which last over a certain period of time, such as: 'march', 'hold', 'stand', 'believe', etc. When the present participle of a verb of this kind is used as an adverbial of time, the action indicated is simultaneous with the action indicated by the predicate verb.

Taking the model worker's hand in both my own, I *held* it fast for some time.

(The action indicated by the present participle 'taking' precedes that of the predicate verb 'held'.)

Holding the model worker's hand in both my own, I *told* him what I thought of his innovations.

(The action indicated by the present participle 'holding' is simultaneous with the action indicated by the predicate verb 'told'.)

4. **We *must have trained* you quite well.** (ll. 78, 79) 那一定是我們把你訓练得很好了.

When *must* is followed by a perfect infinitive, it expresses the supposition of a past event on the part of the speaker who feels quite certain of its occurrence, e.g.

When Pledger went into the restaurant, he *must have forgotten* that Negroes were considered inferior to white people in the United States.

EXERCISES

1. *Answer the following questions:*

1) How did Pledger McAdams feel when he got back to the

United States after a long absence?

2) What sort of a welcome did the white people give him and the other soldiers upon their arrival in New York?
3) Describe the incident that took place in the Indiana town.
4) Why did Pledger McAdams feel empty and strange?
5) Reproduce the conversation between Pledger and his apprentice.
6) Describe Pledger's reaction when the apprentice told him that he was going to lose his job. Why was there a change in his attitude towards the boy?

2. *Translate the following sentences into English, referring to Lexical and Grammar Notes, 1:*

1) 我們过了麦田就到达了工地.
2) 在北京度过的日子是我一生中最幸福的日子.
3) 外宾站在观礼台上看着游行的人們 (paraders) 走过去.
4) 火車已經过了汉口向广州前进.

3. *Translate the following sentences into Chinese to show the different meanings of the verb* 'to play':

1) The band played.
2) She played the piano.
3) She is playing on the flute.
4) Do you play table-tennis?
5) The little girls are playing at housekeeping.
6) We can see through the imperialists no matter what tricks they play.
7) The children are playing in the garden.
8) The warmongers are playing with fire.

4. *Translate the following sentences into English, using the words and expressions given below:*

to line up; to salute; to look forward to; to serve; to apologize; to make no difference; to call somebody to attention

1) 車站附近那家餐厅的服务員 (assistants) 招待顧客 (customers) 非常周到.
2) 什么时候开会对我都沒有关系.
3) 我們殷切地盼望着社会主义在我国早日建成.

4) 我来得这么迟应該向你道歉.
5) 軍官叫士兵們立正，因为检閱就要开始了.
6) 貴宾們下火車时少先队員們向他們行礼致敬.
7) 民兵队长让民兵在操場上排好，等待检閱.
8) 不管帝国主义者如何誇耀自己的力量，他們終究是紙老虎.

5. *Explain the meaning and use of the italicized words:*
It *smells* like America. (l. 1)
Pledger *smelled* the American *smell* of coffee and toast and bacon. (ll. 31, 32)

6. *Translate the following sentences into Chinese, paying special attention to the participial phrases:*
1) And a lot of big officers were with him, *saluting* the flags. (ll. 14, 15)
2) *Grinning* with pleasure, he sat down at the counter and took up the menu. (ll. 32—34)
3) Their young white apprentice handed them tools, *trying* to follow the work. (ll. 60, 61)
4) Pledger, *coming* into the wheel pit one day at the start of the afternoon shift, found the white boy they had trained as apprentice waiting for him. (ll. 71—73)
5) "Listen," the boy said, *pulling* Pledger into the corner. (l. 75)
6) *Running* after him, he put his arm around the boy's shoulders. (ll. 96, 97)

7. *Translate the following sentences into English, using participial phrases as adverbials:*
1) 两个月以后他回到村子里，发現水电站已經完工.
2) 他抬起头来看見新建工厂的烟囱正在冒烟.
3) 他急忙走到公社办公室，心里想他会在那儿找到党支部书記.
4) 他带着一家大小回到村子里参加农业劳动.
5) 他十六岁就参加了紅軍，因为他相信党是劳动人民的救星(saviour).
6) 他把他的論点讲得非常清楚，引用了許多实际生活中的例子.
7) 他跟农民在一起劳动和生活着，就逐漸明白他对农业是多么无知.

8. *Translate the following sentences into English, using the* 'with' *phrase as adverbial of attending circumstances:*

1) 他手里拿着笔，膝盖上放着一个笔記本，专心地听。

2) 由班长带路，我們来到了新的工作地点。

3) 有了党的領导，我們一定会成功。

4) 馬上要作的工作經过同意之后，我們便把話題轉向总的計划上面。

9. *Rewrite the following sentences, using* 'must' *followed by a perfect infinitive:*

1) I am sure he has gone out. There is no light in his room.

2) It is quite certain that the author of this novel took part in the Long March.

3) The second-year students have surely been here earlier. Their cabbage patch has already been watered.

10. *Fill in articles wherever necessary:*

Working class and trade unions, in facing problems of today, cannot make headway or even preserve their hard-won gains if they overlook or sacrifice rights of their Negro brothers. They cannot ward off blows from their own heads if they turn their eyes away when blows are rained on their Negro brothers. Simple truth is that white workers cannot form alliance against monopolies that oppress them if they permit these same monopolies to oppress Negro Americans.

This new period also places new questions before leaders of Negro people's struggle. It has been custom in past to speak out militantly, courageously for equal rights in United States. But this has always been weakened by simultaneously expressing support to foreign policies of very oppressors of Negro people. It now becomes clearer that success of their struggle for equality and freedom requires that these leaders detach themselves from any support to foreign policies of U.S. imperialism.

11. *Translate the following into Chinese:*

Pledger ran towards the stairs that led down into the street.

From the top of the stairs he saw the crowd close in

around the streetcar again, while some young men broke open the front door of the car. From the rear door two Negro boys jumped down, and rushed back and forth trying to find a way through the crowd. The young men ran after them yelling, "Get those niggers!" But most of the people in the crowd only looked on in silence, making no motion either to stop the Negro boys or to help them.

Pledger saw one of the boys fall and the crowd fall on him. The other boy had scarcely reached the foot of the stairs before someone pulled him down and the men piled on top of him. Pledger jumped down the steps. He seized the Negro boy by the collar and dragged him towards the stairs. But on the first steps hands catching hold of him pulled him backwards and he fell on his knees under the press of bodies.

A blade of pain stabbed into his chest and for an instant darkness rolled across his eyes. When he came to, he found himself fighting his way free from the tangle of arms and legs. He still held the Negro boy by the collar and together they dragged themselves on to the stairs and crawled to the top. The men on the embankment pulled them up the last two steps, and Pledger rose to his feet, holding his chest and gasping for breath.

12. *Topic for composition:*
Pledger's Account of His Experiences to His Wife Sarah

13. *Phonetic exercises:*
1) *Read the following, paying special attention to the articles, prepositions and particles:*
the long afternoons, the afternoon shift; a freckled face, an Indiana town; the arm of his seat, the Mayor of New York; to follow the work, to wait a little while; to the left, to our heroes
2) *Read the following, making sure that the stressed syllables occur at fairly regular intervals:*
(1) He 'flung | his 'arms | into the `air | and 'stamped | on the fa'miliar | A'merican | `pavement.
(2) Then he 'walked | across the 'street | from the `station |

for a cup of ˋcoffee.

(3) He was a ˈlong-ˌlegged ˈlad | with a ˈfreckled ˌface | and ˈred ˋhair.

(4) Then he ˈturned ˌback ˌsuddenly, | ˈcaught the ˌboy by the ˌwrists | and ˈforced him aˌgainst the ˋwall.

APPENDIX B

INFORMAL STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Questions addressed to the Teacher Training Class 1982 at the Beijing Coal Mining Management College, April 1984:

1. What do you feel is your greatest strength in English?

2. What do you feel is your weakness?

3. Which area do you hope I will most emphasize in this class?

4. What do you enjoy most about English?

5. Which topics are most interesting to you?

Responses:

1. "It is the listening competence."

   "I think my greatest strength in English is listening and speaking. The second, it is reading and understanding."

   "I think I am able to read some simple reading materials and can listen to the broadcast of the program of Special English. To be a student of English, reading, writing and listening are all very important, but my knowledge is poor and I'm afraid I have no certain strength. What I must do is to improve my English in all sides. First of all, to expand my vocabulary is the emergency."

   "Reading, I think, it is the easiest one among the four. Speaking is, of course, the most difficult one."

   "I'd say my knowledge of English is not good. My oral English and listening are all poor and bad. And the others are bad too."

   "My listening is very poor in English. Something in class I don't understand. I can't catch the teacher sometime. So I think my greatest strength is proved my listening." [possibly 'improve my listening']

   "As a teacher, I think, oral and grammar is very useful and important to me."

   "I think it is very difficult for me to study English well. Because

my listening comprehension is poor. I must work hard at it and would you please help me with it?"

"I think it is my personal strength to improve my hearing."

"Listening ability is the most important."

"I feel that it is the important to listen and read in studying English."

"My great strength in English is understanding of it, and reading English is more easier that to writing a composition for me."

"Intensive reading with a useful dictionary."

"My greatest strength in English is to read the English originals and then translate them into Chinese."

"I feel the greatest strength in English in writing."

"Since I learned English from TV, all time I read first and analysed sentense. So maybe in this way I felt well."

"I think after a year's study my grammar has made a progress. And my oral English is better."

"I feel reading English is easier than writing. When I write something I don't know how to write and how to use the words."

"My great strongest in English is listening ability."

"Listening is my greatest strength for I have listen to English radio for a long time."

"I think listening ability and speaking ability are very important, but they are just my shortcomings. I wish with your patient help I will have a big progress in this term, my last term."

2. "My weaknesses in English are the writing, the speaking and reading areas."

"My weakness is listening and speaking. Please help me."

"After a year and a half study, the most impressing weakness of my English is the lack of enough idiomatic ways to speak and some incorrect pronounciation, and the shortage of vocabulary."

"Speaking English is more difficult that the others, and being a English teacher, the ability of speaking English is most important."

"My weakness is composition and speaking."

"listening and spoken English"

"I have study English for five years. My oral and vocabulary is very poor."

"Just like the first question, my listening is the weakest. Secondly my understanding ability is slower."

"I think my hearing is poor, so I need improving at it."

"Expression in English fluently."

"I feel that listening and speaking is necessary to me."

"My weakness is lacking of vocabulary and not knowing how to express myself sometimes. I hope I should get more lessons about how to write and how to express in an article and express our feelings in English."

"In the area of intonation of a sentence my speak and reading in perfectly English."

"My weakest strength in English is grammar. It's because I learn a little of it."

"at listening"

"speaking, listening and writing"

"I feel my writing is the most weakness. I wonder how to describe something in English, how to use better word."

"Speaking is very difficult for me. When I speak with our teachers and students. There is lot of mistakes in what I said. I want my new teacher help me do get out of my mistakes."

"My most weakest in English is spoken English."

"Speaking takes a lot of difficulty. One reason is I take less time for speaking in my teaching."

"My most weak area is speaking ability especial when teachers sudden want me to answer a question. My writing ability is inferior. When I want to write a sentence I always feel I'm not sure so I must look up the dictionary."

3. "I hope my teacher give us more chances to practices and explain your points what you said in class."

"In my opinion, the most important thing in English to our Chinese student is to improve our comprehension of listening and reading and to make us be able to write in genuinely ways."

"I hope my teacher to help us in communicative competence more and more."

"I believe that all of us hope that you can help us with our communicative competence. We hope we can have more opportunity of hearing your beautiful voice."

"I hope that you emphasize importance and difficulty in the text and supplement."

"I hope the teachers help me training my listening and writing."

"I hope the teacher help me in oral (speak English) because I'll be a teacher."

"I think what you said in class are right my hope. Please do as you please."

"I hope you can explain the most difficult sentences clearly."

"Listening and understanding."

"Listening and understanding."

"As I said, I hope to get more lessons on how to write and express our feelings."

"Every text's background and the way of describing an event the author used to improve our writing ability."

"I hope you will emphasize us how to analize a text just as we learned our Chinese in middle school so that we can read and write easily."

"I'll emphasize in literature, listening, speaking."

"Because of the lack of my listening and writing speaking, I hope to emphasize all parts of these."

"Please, train us oral English and how to write a story. Use your best word."

"Spoken English and daily life of American."

"I hope you can give us more time for talking with you. All of us need a good ability of speaking in English."

"I hope you can help me to improve our speaking and writing."

4. "I enjoy learning about English and American History very much."

"My most enjoyable thing in English is reading the original books and to express my own ideas in real English."

"I enjoy listening English folk song and reading story."

"Reading interesting article, free talk, discuss any question, and dictation is tedious for me."

"I enjoy dictation the most. Because I think the same with the teacher."

"Simple and interesting movies."

"I enjoy writing, but my writing is very bad."

"Speaking and translation."

"I enjoy reading and English song most."

"Translation"

"Reading and singing."

"I enjoy reading very much."

"If the teacher always tells us something new, I will enjoy all she gives us in class. No matter what she tells us in English."

"I enjoy English poem, but as you know it's too difficult for our foreign student."

"I enjoy the most of English extensive reading."

"I enjoy the reading in English very much, and also enjoy speaking frequently in English."

"I enjoy speaking English."

"When I studied in the middle school. I enjoyed the articles of Mark Twain."

"American literature and daily life."

"I'm enjoy to read short and simple English stories. Some of them are very interesting, and can give more."

"I like listening to reading English, because I feel I seem to listen to sweet music."

5. "My topic is a lot of, such as news, movie, sports, teaching, music, interesting articles, folk stories, and so on."

"I'd like to talk about the life of traditional ways of other people, their habit and their ideas. I am also interested in some literature books of some famous writers, but as a result of my narrow experience, I have no opportunity to touch these. Would you please to introduce some American literary and the ways of the life of the Americans to us. Thank you for your help at all times."

"I am interested in any topics."

"I am very interesting in the topic about the life in the U.S."

"The human topic is always attractive, and the history, is also. I welcome any topic you set for us."

"What most interest to me is splendid speech of teacher."

"Simple and interesting movies, and the life of American."

"I am most interested in reading English."

"Something useful, you think, for our English study and teaching. So do as you please."

"I like to hear people talking to each other in English."

"Any topics as you like."

"I am very interested in American history and its literature. That's the way of getting a better understanding of American, I think."

"I like to know something about modern American life and something new about the popular science."

"The topics of your people's all things are interest to me. It's because I'm a young girl, so I want to know how American's young people especially young girl's work, study, live, even want to know the things about their love!"

"I am interested in literature, dramatic stories."

"I like all kinds of topic of composition and conversation. I think this can expand my knowledge."

"I am interested in writing a comedy story or describe something."

"I like English very much. I determined to study it well under the teacher's help. I must learn something by my heart, and use them easily when I write or speak something."

"American daily life."

"I like the best is small news about the U.S.A., such as some scientific news or Doctor develops new drug or new for patients."

"I like to narrate writing, not something thematic."

VITA 2

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