The Auxiliary in Spoken English in Nigeria

Introduction

This paper on the use of interrogative clauses in spoken Nigerian English examines the ungrammaticality in the spoken output of Nigerian L2 users of English in auxiliary - main verb relationship in three different areas of sentence constructions. These are interrogative clauses with head-to-head movement and wh-movement all of which undergo the syntactic process of subject-auxiliary inversion as well as negative and declarative sentences. Data from spoken discourse were gathered, analysed and evaluated with insights from Transformational Generative Grammar. Contained in the data are sentences which undergo inversion and those which do not. From the findings, the dominant feature observed in all the sentences in the data is the inflection of the main verb along with the auxiliary verb whereas in a verbal sequence which contain modal/dummy do auxiliary, it is the auxiliary which carries agreement and tense features while the main verb does not. The findings also indicate ignorance of the grammatical rule on the tense of the main verb in a sequence of verbal elements. The paper concludes that the aspect of ungrammaticality identified involves inflection and inflection is an area of difficulty to Nigerian English bilinguals.

Language use involves appropriate linguistic behaviour in the areas of sounds, words, sentence construction, vocabulary and communication of meaning. Because of the vast nature of human language, sometimes, the selection and combination of language items result in inappropriate usage, especially in nonnative linguistic contexts such as Nigeria. New English patterns have emerged in the English spoken and written by nonnatives. Due to interconnection between education and competence and performances, one would expect that the level of performance in English among educated elite in the country will approximate that of standard British variety of English and contain less inappropriate features, especially in grammar, but this is not always the case as the discussion of the topic under investigation reveals.

Walsh (1961) cited in Ogu (1992) observed that there were emerging peculiarities in the use of English among the educated elite in Lagos State, Nigeria, especially among those who returned from England. The emerging peculiarities of those days have not abated as they still manifest in different forms among Nigerian L2 (second language) users of English. This paper investigates the use of auxiliary verbs by Nigerian speakers of English.

Internal Structure of Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs are helping verbs in that they help main verbs to express tense, aspect, mood, voice, negation, ellipsis, etc. and several syntactic operations in English depend on the auxiliary (Ndimele, 1999, Fromkin, Rodman, Hyams & Hummel, 2006, Aarts, 2008, Radford, 2004). Two types of auxiliaries are identified in linguistic literature – primary auxiliary verbs and modal auxiliary verbs. Aarts (2008) sub-classifies auxiliary verbs into modal auxiliaries, aspectual auxiliaries, the passive auxiliary be and dummy auxiliary do. He explains that modal auxiliaries are always finite by having tense feature but do not inflect by taking inflectional affixes like –s present tense and -ed past tense endings even though they have past tense form as in can/could, may/might, shall/should, will/would except must. This information is relevant to this investigation.

Aarts further states that aspectual auxiliaries express aspect – progressive and perfective as well as show how the main verb is perceived in relation to the time of the event or state of affairs. He also adds that passive auxiliary be involves movement of structures and insertion of the verb be which results in the construction of passive structures. The fourth sub-type, according to the source, is the dummy auxiliary do which occurs in negative constructions and the formation of interrogative sentences from declarative sentences. Of all the auxiliary sub-classes identified, it is only the passive auxiliary be which is not critical to this discussion.

 Interrogative Sentences

There are different types of interrogative sentences in English, some of which are wh-questions, rhetorical questions, polar questions, etc. (Stephens, 2014). Wh-questions and polar questions are derived through movement of lexical items from one position to another. It may be Verb movement, NP-movement, Wh-movement and movement in interrogative sentences (Radford, 2004). Movements are constrained since grammatical rules are constrained as the following examples show: 1(a) Victor will graduate this year. (b) Will Victor graduate this year? 2(a) My son drives carefully. (b) Does my son drive carefully?

Sentences (1a) and (2a) are declarative sentences while (1b) and (2b) are polar questions derived by preposing the modals will and does in

front of the subject NPs (noun phrases) Victor and my son respectively through the inversion of word order between the subject and the auxiliary. It is only the auxiliary and the subject that swap positions in (1b) while the main verb does not and in (2b), the dummy do auxiliary is inserted into (2a) immediately after the subject my son in the deep structure and moved to the subject position to derive (2b). In English, subject-auxiliary inversion is possible only when a sentence contains a subject immediately followed by an auxiliary verb (Radford, 2004) as in the examples and where there is no overt auxiliary in the sentence as in (2a), the dummy auxiliary do is inserted in the deep

structure (Radford, 1997, Culicover, 1976) so that the deep structure representation of (2a) is "My son does drive carefully", according to Culicover earlier cited.

Sentences of the nature discussed are derived through the application of a sequence of one or more transformations. Linguistics transformation involves a change in the structure of one linguistic structure to another (Ndimele 1999, Tomori, 1977) characteristic of transformational grammar. This grammatical theory explains the kind of grammatical rules which govern the changes and the final formation of utterances (Tomori, 1977). Transformation is about sentence adjustment, re- arrangement or change when all the transformational rules required for grammaticality have applied. Transformation may require deletion, insertion, substitution, or movement of linguistic elements as in examples (1) and (2) in that what appears on the surface structure is a derivation which is different from its deep structure.

Presentation of Data

The corpus of data for analysis were drawn from spoken discourse of Nigerian English bilinguals in different discourse situations like informal communication and from speeches in formal situations. Given the prevalence of ungrammaticality in sentence outputs with auxiliary verbs in different types of interrogative clauses among these bilinguals, different types of sentences with auxiliaries were gathered, analysed and evaluated using insights from transformational generative grammar. Also contained in the corpus of data are ill-formed structures with a sequence of verbal elements as may be observed in the following:

1. *Can you slapped me?

2. *Did he told you the price?

3. *Why did the people continued to   demonstrate?

4. *I did felt for him.

5. *The consignment did arrived on time.

6. *How did the assignment got to the   students?

7. *I didn't locked my car.

8. *He doesn't knows me from Adam.

9. *My friend, don't bothered me again.

10.   *How does he knows I am here?

11.   *Did you saw the man you went to meet?

12.   *Voters did not turned out as expected.

13.   *When the prophet calls a person, he will   prophesies to that person.

14.   *When did you came in? 5.0

15.   *He didn't caught me with a piece of paper.

16.   *I will opened the can of warms that day.

17.   *I told you it doesn't worked that way.

18.   *He asked me, "Will you married me?"

19.   *Should we called the police?

20.   *Can we ever won without adequate

34. *Mama said she would visit you. Did she came?

35. *Does that man knows what it means to be a teacher?

36. *He didn't informed members of his constituency he was decamping to another party.

37. *A child may exhibits tendencies that baffle the parents.

38. *How did you solved the problem.

39. *The girl didn't called her parents immediately.

40. *He does not only talks about but also legislates.

41. *Do not begins a quarrel when the situation does not warrant it.

42. *Why did Nigerian government relinquished Bakassi to Cameroon?

Analysis /Discussion of Data preparation.

*Did the electoral officer announced the   correct result?

*Will he appealed the judgement of the   court?

*Must we showed the world our   nakedness.

*The guests shall arrived on time.

*She can't says what is in her mind.

*Will they employed all those that applied?

*Thank God you didn't saw the man.

*Did she in truth stole the money?

*It seems the man didn't hear me. Did you   heard me?

*Did we invited any of you?

*Do not starts a sentence with and have   you heard?

*Did the candidate told his supporters he   was stepping down?

*Did Akpan didn't called in yesterday as he   promised.

Three types of interrogative sentences are contained in the tokens. The first type of interrogative sentences is derived by head-to-head movement; the second are sentences derived through wh-movement while the third are statements and negative sentences. For ease of analysis, these different types of sentences are categorized into three sets. Set A is for interrogative sentences which undergo head-to-head movement; Set B is for sentences which undergo wh-movement while Set C contains negative and declarative sentences with infelicities in auxiliary – main verb relationship.

Head-to-Head Movement Infelicities

Tokens 1,10,17,18,19, 20, 21, 22, 25, 27, 29, 31, 32 and 34 are products of head movement operation in which the subject noun phrase (NP) moves from its head position to the head position of auxiliary phrase with which it swaps position in a syntactic operation called head-to-head movement typical of head-to-head movement

operation (Carnie, 2007, Adger, 2003, Cook & Newson, 2007). When the head of a phrase moves to another head position to form an interrogative sentence as in the tokens in Set A, the movement triggers off subject- auxiliary (NP-Aux) inversion, whether the auxiliary verb occurs overtly in the sentence as in Tokens 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 25 or inserted as in 1, 10, 27, 29, 31, 33, 34. In agreement with inversion principle, the verb is placed ahead of the subject (Norquist, 2016). The resultant questions are structurally derived from declarative sentences through the inversion of the subject and the auxiliary following NP-Aux inversion rule (Ndimele, 1999, Lamidi, 2000). The deep structure representation of the tokens in Set A is symbolically represented as follows:

NP_1 AGR Tns M X Fig. 1: Deep structure representation before head- to-head movement

In consonance with SVO English word order, in Fig. 1, the subject (NP_1) occurs before the auxiliary verb (Aux) in the form of modal (M) which carries agreement and tense features attached to it then followed by X. X represents the verb and its complement that is the verb (VP) and other elements subcategorised by it. Such element includes the subject in the verb is transition (Culicover, 1976, Lamidi, 2000). The non- interrogative form of the tokens in Set A using Token 1 as an example is as follows: without adequate preparation? Did the electoral officer announce the correct result? ignoring the grammatical errors in the tokens. In each of these derivations, the VP does not partake in the movement. This movement yields the following derivation in Set A using Token 1 as a representative example:

Fig. 4: The derived structure after head-to-head movement

This diagrams shows that each of the tokens in Set A are transforms of simple declarative sentences shown in Fig. 2 derived through the application of a sequence of one or more transformations which change each of the sentences from one structure to another, that is, from declarative to interrogative clauses.

The output in all the tokens conforms to the syntactic process of head-to-head movement. To form the interrogative sentences in Set A, the subject and the auxiliary exchange positions (see Fig. 4) through the syntactic process of inversion since in transformation, there may be sentence adjustment, re-arrangement of lexical items, a change in sentence structure, insertion of lexical item and movement of linguistic elements from one position to another (Tomori, 1977, Ndimele, 1999). In Token 1 and others of its kind in that, set movement has taken place while Token 2 and members of this class are derived through the insertion of do in the deep structure (declarative form) then moved to the subject position where it displaces NP subject in the surface structure (interrogative form) and occupies its slot as canvassed by Culicover (1976), as argued by

(Radford, 2004) or do is inserted in the surface structure and placed in pre-subject position. The derived structure is polar question in whichever way the derivation is viewed. The two levels of structural representation are placed in correspondence (Crystal, 1997).

However, there is a grammatical disparity between the representation in Fig. 4 and Nigerian English bilinguals output in our data. Their outputs violate the principle of head-to-head movement in interrogative sentences in that, in moving the

Fig. 2: Deep Structure representation of Token 1

The deep structure of the sentences in Set A is as follows (excluding the grammatical errors). You can slap me. He (did) tell you the price/he told you the price, you did see the man you went to meet/you saw the man you went to meet, we should call the police, we can win without adequate preparation and the electoral officer announced the correct result/the electoral officer did announce the correct result. With the application of question transformational (Tq) rule, the surface structure of Fig. 1 after head-to-head movement then becomes: AGR Tns M NP$_1$ X Fig. 3: Surface Structure representation after head- to-head movement

The diagram shows that NP$_1$ (the subject) swapped position with the modal/dummy do auxiliary as observed in all the tokens in Set A and by grammatical rule is already tensed. By this rule, the correct derivation is "Can you slap me? Did he tell you the price? Did you see the man you went to meet? Should we call the police? Can we win auxiliary in each of the tokens to pre-subject position, even though the auxiliary has acquired agreement and tense features, the main verb also inflects for tense, from slap to slapped, tell to told, see to saw, call to called, win to won, slap to slapped, steal to stole, invite to invited, know to knows even when the had auxiliary acquired agreement and tense features before movement, which why the sentences are. The VP does not enter into ungrammatical agreement relationship with the subject in head-to-head movement (Norquist, 2017).

The fact is that modals occur in the first position in a sequence of verbs in an English sentence, and if a modal is present in the sequence of verbs as in the tokens – can you slap, did he tell, did you see, shall we call, can we win..., can you slap, etc, then no other tense marking can be found on the English verbs (Culicover, 1976, Carnie, 2011). This postulation affects modals, do, have and be auxiliary verb. Our outputs show that both auxiliaries and lexical verbs are tensed whereas syntactically, lexical verbs are not dominated by Aux node but by VP (Verb phrase) node (Chomsky, 1981, Lamidi, 2000).

The ungrammaticality of the structures (*can you slapped, *did he told, *did you saw, *shall we called, etc.) is traced to the inflection of the main verb in each of the sentences. In yes/no questions such as the ones under discussion, the auxiliary which occurs before the subject NP carries tense attached to it as the first verbal element, in which case, the tense affix is attached to the right node (Aux), but in the tokens, tense affix is also attached to the main verbs. The modal moves with its agreement and tense features to pre-sentential position. Lexical verbs, as a matter of grammatical rule are stuck inside the VP, as a result, do not undergo head-to-head movement as NP and Aux do but remain in-situ in their canonical position (Radford, 1997, 2004, Cook & Newson, 2007). It is during the movement of the auxiliary which is the head of the auxiliary node to the NP subject position headed by the noun that the confusion arises and the ungrammaticality occurs. It is observed in the tokens that when the auxiliary is in the past, the main verb is also in the past (*did he told) and when the auxiliary is in the present, the main verb is also in the present (*Does he knows), etc. Also, the tense feature of the auxiliary spills over to the main verb in the clause in violation of NP-Aux inversion rule.

Wh-Movement Infelicities

Set B consists of another form of interrogative clauses which undergo head movement operation. These sentences contain the wh-elements when, where, why, what and how. How is also included among wh-questions because the answer to a question initiated by how comes in the form of a statement as it is with answers to wh- words questions. In each of the tokens – 2, 5, 9, 12, 13, 38 and 42, a wh-element is placed at sentence- initial position. Each of them contains subject, auxiliary and direct object typical of wh-words and also undergoes subject-auxiliary inversion (Aarts, 2008). In each of the sentences, the verb sub- categorise an NP complement as a matter of requirement by taking a direct object, whether lexical or clausal, to form the interrogative sentences. In Set B, the wh-elements are placed before the auxiliary after inversion. The movement is not about swapping of positions as it is in head-to- head movement, but the wh-word which originated in the VP of the declarative phrase marker moves to the complementizer (COMP) position in the derived structure.

To derive a wh-question, according to Lamidi, (2000, p. 130) "AGR, tense and modal move to the nearer NP in accordance with NP-Aux inversion rule before the application of affix hopping rule. "The movement still preserves the affixes and the tense features of the main verb so as to maintain the grammaticality of the sentence after movement. This is simple and direct in utterances like "How are you?" which has the declarative P-marker (Phrase Marker) as 'You are how? in which the main verb is are. However, the tokens in Set B show the insertion of dummy do auxiliary verb in the derived structure hence: *Why did the people continued to demonstrate? (2) *How did the assignment

got to the students?(5), *How does he knows I am here? (12), etc. while the deep structure of the P-markers read: *The people (did) continued to demonstrate why? The assignment got to the students how and He does know(s) I am here, how? etc.

Aarts (2008) observes that the wh-elements in the structures undergoing wh-movement are adjoined to the inverted auxiliary which was already adjoined to S, that is, the sentence in its declarative form while Lamidi (2000) argues that AGR, tense and modal move to the COMP nearer to the NP in accordance with Aux-NP inversion rule before affix hoping rule applies. All these arguments are tenable, but with the insertion of do in the sentence, the main verb occurs in its base form as bare infinitive. This is not the case in Set B as both the auxiliary and lexical verb in each of the tokens bear tense (*how did the assignment got - *how does he knows, *when did you came in *how did you solved and *why did Nigerian government relinquished). This is inappropriate because dummy do auxiliary performs the function of tense bearer in interrogative sentences (Aarts, 2008) whether in wh-movement or head-to-head movement. In the examples, both the auxiliary and the lexical verb bear tense which is the reason for the ungrammaticality.

The Auxiliary in Negative and Declarative Sentences

Tokens 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 11, 14, 15, 16, 23, 24, 26,30,32,35,36,39,40and41inSetCareboth declarative and negative sentences with a sequence of verbal elements as in: *did felt, *did arrived, didn't locked, *doesn't knows, *don't bothered, *did not turned out, "will prophesies, *didn't caught, *will opened, *doesn't worked, *shall arrived, *can't says, *didn't saw, *do not starts *didn't called, *didn't informed, *may exhibits, *doesn't – talks and *do not begins. All the tokens contain a verbal sequence consisting of an auxiliary followed by a main verb. While some of the tokens have modals, some have do auxiliary verb. In all the sentences, one dominant feature runs through all the sentences and that is the inflection of the main verb headed by the VP in addition to the tensed auxiliary which accounts for the ungrammaticality as it was with head-to-head movement as well as wh- movement interrogative clauses. Even dummy do auxiliary behaves as any modal auxiliary by being finite, follow a bare infinitive verb and also bears the tense feature in negative interrogative sentences (Aarts, 2008).

From the analyses of head-to-head movement in interrogative sentences, the inputs on wh-movement and the use of auxiliary verbs in negative and declarative sentences in Nigerian spoken English, it is observed that syntax is not only concerned with meaningful combination of words in sentences but it is also concerned with appropriate use of inflections in sentences. The ungrammaticality in the interrogative sentences is traced to wrong inflectional marking. The findings reveal that inflection is the centre of grammaticality and ungrammaticality in natural languages like English, which emphasizes the need to give it close attention in second language situation.

Reality of Romance and Romantics

Introduction

The romance, as a literary creativity, is known to date back to the ancient Greeks - during the second and third centuries - whose works were written in prose to describe how two lovers overcome difficulties before they were eventually united. A similar experience was faced by the knights of the Middle Ages and was immortalized by romances narrated in verse and distributed by the troubadours throughout Western Europe about ten centuries later. And, in England, a group of poets came to revive the spirit of the knights of those romances and dominated the literary scene in the nineteenth century when they countered the rationality established by neoclassicism during the era of the Enlightenment.

Objectives of the Research

This paper aims first to underscore the significance of the romance in the history of English literature, second to highlight its influence on the later movement of Romanticism, and third to delineate on what grounds were both deprecated.

Research Questions

- What is the contribution made by the romance to English literature?

- To what extent is Romanticism influential on literature?

- Who took to deprecate the romance and the romantic tendency in literature?

Significance of the Research

This study is intended to draw the attention to the important role played by the romance on the aspects of language, the genre of the novel and the position of woman in Western Europe as well as the contribution made by the Romantics to literature. Literature Review and Theoretical Background: The Oxford as well as The Cambridge Advanced Learner's dictionaries define the adjective 'Romance' (in capital letter) as the language developed from Latin, while the same word is introduced as a noun (in small letter) to denote a story of exciting events and adventure and also to mean the feeling of adventure or mystery. In the same disapproving sense, the adjective 'romantic' and the nouns 'romantic' and 'Romanticism' are defined in the Oxford Dictionary as pertaining to literature that is not related to real life. And the verb 'to romance' means to tell stories that are not true or to describe something in a way that makes it seem more exciting or interesting than it really is. Other entries connect the word romantic with the word 'lover', following the general idea of 'romantic love' which originated from the French

culture in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The term 'romance' dates to the Middle Ages when the Franks, who spoke a Germanic language akin to Dutch, conquered Gaul and made it France. The Gallo-Romans distinguished themselves against the French or Frankish language of their conquerors by speaking 'romants'. Romants, or 'romanus', maintained itself as the spoken or vernacular form of Latin while the use of the learned language – Latin itself – was confined to the church and court. Derived from this stem are the adverb '*romanz' which means to translate or compose books in the vernacular, and the nouns 'Romanz, roman, romanzo' which*, according to Childs and Fowler (2006, p. 208), were associated with the content of non-didactic verse narratives, like Sir   Gawain and the Green Knights, whose subject matter was usually ideal love and the medieval ideal of chivalric adventure.

The word 'romance' has ultimately developed with other meanings in other languages, such as the early 19th century Spanish and Italian definitions of 'adventurous' and 'passionate', sometimes combining the idea of 'love affair' or 'idealistic beauty'. And the adjective 'Romance', as afore-said, is still the adjective for all the daughter languages of Latin; French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Romanian. (Fowler, 2006)

The Cultural and Literary Heritage of the Romance:

Long narrative romances in prose were written by the Greeks as early as the second and the third centuries. Typically, the theme of those tales was love and separation where the two lovers, after perilous adventures and hairbreadth escapes were happily united at the end. The history of the romance in Western Europe originates in the ancient Germanic military system which engendered the chivalric code at the beginning of the twelfth century. This system entailed the apprenticeship of a young warrior to an older man who exercises upon his disciple a complex pattern of rituals. A warrior was dubbed as knight and raised to the dignity of knighthood when he swore a binding oath of loyalty to his lord after he had had a ritual bath, stayed a night's vigil and pronounced a sacramental confession.

Those medieval knights, who pledged themselves to protect the weak and to right wrongs, took the responsibility of protecting the pilgrim routes to Jerusalem and to defend the Christian faith against the advances of Muslims. Yet, more significantly, the principles of chivalry facilitated important changes in attitudes regarding the value of women as Bromiley states in his Encyclopedia (1994,p 272);

> "*for the first time in European history, ladies became regarded with a transcendence of premeditated thought by chivalries who conducted themselves graciously and bestowed upon ladies the utmost courtesy and attentiveness. And as highlighted by James Sweeny in The Dictionary of the*

Middle Ages, 1983, a chavalier was to echo shades of this attitude to all women, regardless of class, age or status".

The concept of the newly introduced knightly devotion to a lady was behind the popularization of romantic love in Western culture. The chavaliers of the Middle Ages came to gradually engage themselves in non-marital relationships with the women of nobility they served. And since marriage was commonly nothing more than a formal engagement at that time, courtly love - as reflected by the troubadours and lyrical narratives - allowed expressions of emotional closeness that had been lacking in the union between husband and wife.

Furthermore, the male-dominated clerical and military civilization of the Middle Ages suffered a drastic change by Eleanor of Aquintine in the mid- to-late twelfth century. Eleanor, as the Queen first of Louis VII of France and then of Henry II of England, as stated by Andrew Sanders (1994; 40), exercised her patronage in favour of a new kind of courtly love which recognized a parallel between the service of a knight to his lord and the service of a lover to an adorned and honoured lady. Thus a new emphasis on the dignity and distinctiveness of women emerged. A treatise written by the chaplain of Eleanor's daughter in c.1184-6 described woman as the dominant partner in a love affair and sexual love as integral to the composition and practice of a chivalric court. Sanders commented that the shared passion of the often adulterous lovers was recognized as ennobling and semi-religious despite the precepts of the church.

So, in addition to the military responsibility undertaken by the knights of the Middle Ages, their second contribution displayed itself in the concept of courtly love which presented woman as a partner in love and also introduced the romance, spread by the troubadours, as an influential literary genre whose vernacular was not only the genesis of many European languages, but its theme was also the germ for the birth of the novel. The word 'roman' – derived from the medieval term - is the name given for prose fiction in all European languages except English. The English took the name for the genre from Italian 'novella' which means 'new story' and they disapprovingly limited 'romance' to the original medieval works and then to emotional writings in prose fiction.

More significantly, romance had its lasting influence on the six-hundred later Romanticism. The characteristics of an itinerant bohemian troubadour, a rebellious artist and lover in exile in aesthetic worship of an idealized female figure signal "*a renewal of the medieval cult of courtly love*" by the nineteenth-century romantics, as Hugh Witemeyer (2005, p.45) noted. To the same sense, Childs and Fowler (op.cit) pointed out that a renewed interest in "*things medieval*" together with a growing respect for the powers of the imagination and the intangible truth of the inner world emerged in the nineteenth century.

The Characteristics and Genesis of Romanticism:

During the nineteenth century, complicated social forms developed in Britain to the effect of the growth of rational and self-conscious theories of human thought. This matter-of-fact culture was challenged by the emergence of a medieval element in poetry and the novel. The romantics initiated a rediscovery of the truth about the way people should perceive and create. They underscored the value of the individual over the collective and therefore privileged the individual subjectivity, imagination, emotion, and spontaneity over objectivity, reason, the intellect, and order. Advocating the cult of the artist and artistic originality, the romantics identified the aim of art with the expression of the artist's emotion, and thus they countered conformation to classicists and to the agreed-upon standards of literary production which had been strongly recommended by neoclassicists.

Like the medieval knights who attempted to reactivate the world by adoring a lady, the romantics sought a way to reactivate the world by discovering the creative perceptiveness which would allow a writer to draw aside the veils laid across the senses. They also sought a perception where the false separation of Nature (as fixed, external objects) and nature (as the living being of the perceiver) can be reconciled through a new synthesizing vision. To William Wordsworth, nature was the interface between the material and the spiritual and he believed that an accurate description of nature would allow a poet to show the spiritual significance of nature and to have confidence in the reality of himself.

This tendency to reconcile between the inner vision and the outer experience was the central distinctive feature of the romantic mode. And in order to perform this reconciliation, the romantics manipulated imagination so as to produce a vision of a life drawing upon "*a sense of the continuity between man and nature and the presence of God*", Childs and Fowler (ibid, p.209) quoted Welleck, adding that Rene Welleck and Northrope Frye assessed Romanticism as more than an idea but essentially as "an historic centre of gravity which falls somewhere around the 1790- 1830 period." This view is consolidated by A.O. Lovejoy in his famous essay 'On the Discrimination of romanticisms'. Building on the indication that the linguistic history of the word (the Romance, a romance, romance) reflects a movement from the definite to the indefinite, Lovejoy assessed that the word 'romantic' has come to mean so many things that, by itself, it means nothing and has ceased to perform the function of a verbal sign (1984, p.228). And as a solution, Lovejoy insisted on the need for discrimination between the meanings of the term at various times and in various countries, while Michael Ferber in the introduction of the book he edited on European Romanticism (2005, p. 8) suggested to keep distinct the uses of 'romantic' as a complex or system of norms and 'Romantic'

as a period. Significantly, the anticipation of the former can be traced in the earlier medieval chivalry, and the persistence of the latter in later periods.

As to the genesis of Romanticism, it, curiously enough, emerged in Germany and France by the philosophers Immanuel Kant and Jean Jacque Rousseau who opposed the rationalist and materialist world view and the stultifying confines of ancient regime society that prevailed at their time. They took to expose the shortcoming of Enlightenment philosophy grounded on the tenets by Francis bacon, John Locke and Rene Descartes.

The subject matter of Immanuel Kant's Critique of Pure Reason, 1781, is to initiate a full scale conversion of the reader's sense of his or her self and its relation to the world. The book opens with the hypothesis that "experiential knowledge might quite possibly be already something composite of what we perceive by way of intuition and what is spontaneously furnished by our cognitive faculties", as Thomas Pfau cited in Ferber (ibid, p.103). And in order to resolve the conflict between dogmatists (who believed that one cannot claim to know what lies beyond the drawn limit) and the skeptics (who believed in a priori knowledge independent of all experiences and which makes all experience possible), Kant made distinctions between the 'noumena' and the 'phenomena', the 'intellectual' and the 'sensible', and the 'regulative' and the 'constitutive' uses of reason. He propounds that 'phenomena' is "*appearances as far as they are thought as objects according to the unity of categories" while 'noumena' is a "thing so far as it is not an object of our sensible intuition*."(2003, p.249)

As for Rousseau, who also wrote novels to expand his Romantic attitude, he argued against those who distrusted emotion as misleading and believed reason alone to be reliable. Rousseau held that human beings in the state of nature were purer, freer and happier than they were in modern civilization. In his confessions, published in 1781, Rousseau famously announced; 'I am not like anyone in existence. If I am not superior, at least I am different.' He also countered Descartes' famous maxim that "I think, therefore I exist" with, "for us to exist is to feel." Rousseau maintained that emotions reveal truth; that they tell us much as the mind about how to read the inner and exterior worlds. Thus, Rousseau privileged affect over effect, imagination over idealization, the mystery of Romantic nature over the perfection of beautiful artifice. Like his follower Romantics, Rousseau – who was born a citizen of Geneva – spent periods of exile in various Swiss counties but he lived and was cultured and died in France.

After these two philosophers, the German man of letters, Friedrich Schlegel announced the birth of Romanticism in literature when he used 'romanus' as a term distinct from Latin to contrast 'classic', that is Greek and Latin literature. He recognized some contemporary writers as classical but at the same time, as he stated in his Dialogue on

Poetry (1980, p.9), he sought and found "*the Romantic among the older Moderns, in Shakespeare, in Cervantes, in Italian poetry, in that age of chivalry, love and fable, from which the phenomenon and the word itself are derived.*" With Schlegel, the word 'romantic' came to be definitely attached, in Germany in 1798, to a kind of literature and distinguished from another kind 'classic'.

However, the date of the start of the Romantic period in England is not strictly specified; it could be the year 1789 which witnessed the outbreak of the French Revolution and was the year when William Blake's Songs of Innocence came out, or the year 1798 with the Prelude to The Lyrical Ballads published as the manifesto of Romanticism, or even the year 1821 when Romanticism became a dominant norm with Lord Byron's Childe Harold's Pilgrimage.

It is easy to consolidate Lovejoy's afore- mentioned suggestion that romanticism is a general form for a range of related ideas in poetry. First, there, in Germany, emerged three groups labeled as Romantic with no shared trait among them; the school of Joseph Wharton, the Jena circle around the Schlegel bothers, and a group of one: Chateaubriand. Second, Romantic characteristics are usually said to have been manifested first in Germany and then in England in the 1790s, and not to have become prominent in France and America until two or three decades after that time according to Abrams (2009, p. 255). Third, and in England, neither the exactly contemporaneous 'Lake School' (Wordsworth, Coleridge, Southey, Lamb), nor the next generation (Byron, Shelley, Keats) called themselves Romantics at the time. And William Blake went unnoticed until after his death. Fourth, the American Romantic period, as the most remarkable contribution to American literature with Ralph Waldo Emerson, Henry David Thoureau, Edgar Allan Poe, Herman Melville and Nathaniel Hawthorne, still have the names of 'American Renaissance' and 'The Age of Transcendentalism'(Abrams, ibid, p.246). The Influence of the romance on Romanticism: It seems necessary to firstly highlight Childs and Fowler's contention (ibid, p. 208) that although the romance is usually associated with an avowedly "fictive" world, the medieval romance "was more directly rooted in contemporary fact than might seem apparent from our perspective", and they conclude that it could be viewed increasingly as an imaginative and psychological projection of "the real".

On the other hand, the knights of the romance and the nineteenth-century Romantics share the traits that they both tended to represent themselves as in pursuance of a lonely quest and also that – like the production by the Romantics – most French and English romances tended to be secular in subject matter.

Another aspect of similarity between the romance knights and Romantics' attitude is concerned with the position of woman. After the knights valued woman as a partner, the

Romantics went further in portraying the contradiction between society and literature through female characters; Tolstoy's Anna Karenina prefers death to being married to her fiancé and Gustave Flaubert has his eponymous protagonist Madame Bovary driven to suicide for the cause of freedom from the oppression of the marriage shackles. Furthermore, the Romantics introduced the concept of androgyny which means ambiguous or neutral sexual identity. Coleridge pointed that a genius mind is androgynous and Parsons (2007, p. 105) announced that androgyny signified for the Romantic imagination "a transcendence" of the physical self, and the union of rational and creative aspects of the mind in the spiritual experience of the sublime.

In the literary sphere, romances and tales dominated as the most popular publications, as well as the best literature of the most respected writers. Most of the major works of the 19th century were subtitled 'romances' or 'tales'; for one instance, Henry Fielding's *The History of Tom Jones, a Foundling*, 1749, is constructed around a romance plot; the hero, whose true identity remains unknown until the denouement, loves the beautiful Sophia Western and at the end of the book wins her hand, numerous obstacles have to be overcome before he achieves this. Some other titles are the Romantic Walter Scott's *The Lady of the last Minstrel* which he wrote after the ancient metrical romance, *Marion, A Tale of Flodden Field* - subtitled as 'A Romance in six Cantos'-, and Byron's *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage* which was also entitled as 'A Romount'.

Another influence of the romance exhibited itself in America with the 'wilderness romance' represented by such major authors like James Fennimore Cooper and well-known works like *Moby Dick* by Herman Melville and *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* of Mark Twain. These romances project male imaginings of escape to an unspoiled natural environment in which the protagonist undergoes a test of his character and virility.

Nonetheless, the most remarkable literary heritage of the romance is the Gothic romance. In fact, it is possible to suggest that the gothic romance represents the rebellious voice of the romance being pursued by the romantics. This can be proved by the points that, firstly, it celebrated subjectivity in the face of social conventions, institutions, values and individuals threatening to overwhelm the virtuous individual. Secondly, it supported woman by presenting her as unmarried, orphaned and subjected by the evils of the paternalist, patriarchal and the courtly values and practices of the dominant classes, figured by an older male villain. Thirdly, it opposed rationality by opening up to fiction the realm of the irrational and of the perverse impulses and nightmarish terrors that lie beneath the orderly surface of the civilized mind. Fourthly, the Gothic romance emerged in England, as asserted by Childs and Fowler (ibid, p.208) as "*a social and artistic reaction against limitations which the early novelists seemed to have accepted with equanimity*", and it moved sexuality, elemental passions and fear to

the centre of the novelist's stage. Fifthly, and as Gary Kelly (1998, p.118) sees it, the Gothic romance demystified the sublime obscurity by which, according to Enlightenment society, court culture overawes the whole of society and thereby it maintained the power of court government.

The principal aim of the Gothic novel was to evoke chilling terror and develop a brooding atmosphere of terror. It represents uncanny, macabre and melancholy violent events by means of a locale of gloomy castles, dangerous and subterranean passages and a setting of hidden laws, magic, savage nature and storms.

In an extended sense, the term 'Gothic' comprises works like Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein*, 1817, together with the elements of the macabre and terror in works such as Emily Bronte's *Wuthering Heights*, Charlotte Bronte's *Jane Eyre*, and some chapters and episodes in Charles Dickens's *Bleak House* and *Great Expectation*. America, as well, has its contribution to the Gothic in the terror tales of Edgar Alan Poe and the late William Faulkner's *Absalome! Absalome!* and *Sanctuary*. The Rebel Knights and the Romantics: In the early fourteenth century, an increasingly powerful monarchy, supported by new worldviews adopted by merchants and townsmen in France and England, came to suppress the chivalry. The main reason was that this system of medieval knighthood, which had inspired the creation of three European crusading Military Orders founded in c.1099, 1119, 1143, continued to exercise considerable authority throughout Western Christendom. However, and to the advantage of introducing the romance as a literary body, King Edward III of England revived the chivalry by founding the Order of the Garter in c.1344. This Order sophisticated the concept of chivalry since the hero used to take up the challenge launched to the Arthurian court or to its values - and not to himself personally -, and his triumph became the triumph of that world behind him and supported him. In this sense, as Pedro Garcia points out (1998, p.118); "*he is a redeemer, a messiah, the representative of a world larger than him where he is perfectly integrated.*"

The literary heritage of the romance continued to influence Western Europe till the Elizabethan period, when, during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the Elizabethan classicists started to express their deprecation and contempt for contemporary romances in England. Though deprecated, the romance maintained its supreme rank as the literary body that challenged the epic by shifting the supernatural of the epic to this world. While the epic represented a heroic age of tribal wars with the will and actions of god being involved in the hero's acts, the standard plot of romance depicted a quest undertaken by a single knight in order to gain a lady's favour in a relationship that also contrasted the, then prevalent, Platonic love.

Likewise, the later Romantics came to challenge their predecessors, the neoclassicists of the Enlightenment, in six significant points. First, they favoured innovation over the traditionalism of neoclassic literature. Second, they believed that the poet's own feelings are what underlie poetry in contrast to the belief held by the neoclassicists that poetry was an imitation of human life that aimed to yield instruction and aesthetic pleasure. Third, while neoclassicism viewed art as a set of skills perfected by long study and practice of known and tested means, the Romantics defended that poetry is uppermost spontaneous and free of rules and conventions. Keats states, cited by Abrams (ibid, p.214), that "If poetry comes not as naturally as the leaves to a tree, it had better not come at all." Fourth, neoclassic poetry was about other people, but much Romantic poetry invites the reader to identify the protagonist with the poet himself. Fifth, and like the heroes of the romances, Romantic subjects are represented as solitary figures engaged in long quests in stark contrast to the tenet of neoclassicism that poetry was the expression of the great commonplaces of human wisdom. Sixth, human beings, who were viewed by neoclassicists as limited agents, are valued by the Romantics as endowed with limitless aspiration envisioned by the faculty of imagination, as William Blake states; *Less than everything, cannot satisfy man."* (Abrams; ibid, p.215)

However, the concept of the romance together with the principles of the Romantics came to receive the blow from our twenty first-century globalization. Demising the attachment to a female, a transformation has projected homosexuality as a phenomenon enforced in our modern time by the homosexuals who are pioneering more open and negotiated relationships, as Anthony Giddens pointed in his book The Transformation of Intimacy: Sexuality, Love and Eroticism in Modern Society. The Decline of the Romantic Novel:

The principles set by the romantic poets are everlasting. However, the end of the Romantic period came to be announced by the demise of the romantic novel. This is no surprise relying on the fact that prose fiction, rather than poetry or drama, is the most widely used form of imaginative writing as well as the mode that addresses a broader spectrum of people. And, accordingly, prose fiction is usually reformed in relation to the unfolding political and social conflicts of a time.

Concerning the Britain of the 19th century, the Romantic novel was demised by the ad hoc political atmosphere for it to rank an uncertain position in literature in comparison with the novel of manners which dominated throughout the preceding eighteenth century. Those novels of manner represented upper-class life for the instruction and emulation of readers lower down the social scale and depicted the manners of the dominated classes as vital interests to middle-class readers.

In the 1790s, as recounted by Gary Kelly (ibid; 204), Jacobin novelists developed the sociology of knowledge of the Enlightenment to argue that individuals and social groups are constructed by the political and cultural system under which they live. Consequently, they wrote in coalition with the dominant classes and drew on more genteel and learned and less 'democratic' literary traditions.

During the last decade of the eighteenth century, Britain witnessed class conflicts inside and military challenges abroad. Literature, consequently, was subjected to this social and political turmoil. And prose fiction, in particular, was targeted by critics, the clergy, educationalists as well as social reformers and moralists.

In 1790, the New Lady's Magazine launched the attack against all prose fiction in its declaration that novels "*not only poison the mind from relishing well-written authors but render it less firm to resist those temptations they themselves inculcate*", as reported by John Tinnon Taylor, in The Cambridge Companion to British Romanticism (ibid, p.198), who commented that these temptations by 'relishing authors' were supposed to stem from the seventeenth-century courtly novellas and secret court histories which approximated the French libertine novels of the time.

The clergy, represented by Rev. Vicesimus Knox (op.cit.), in 1997, pronounced its attitude that, "*If it is true, that the present age is more corrupt than the preceding, the great multiplication of novels probably contributes to its degeneracy*." Similar attacks were also launched by the educationalists who viewed the novel as a danger which was nurtured by children, women plebeians and primitive peoples who innately love fictitious narrative. Even the oral fiction of folktales was regarded as a vestige of superstition by social reformers and moralists who warned that if middle- class children were not carefully supervised and segregated from lower-class servants, they would be reduced by the false consciousness embodied in stories and tales.

This atmosphere made of prose fiction a sub-literary production that could only suit children and the 'primitive peoples' of the lower class. Henceforth, the novel degenerated during the nineteenth century of Romanticism and fiction became the means to sweeten the dose of instruction needed by low-class people, and to reserve the middle-class child from 'dangerous relishing authors'.

Consequently, cheap fiction prevailed and the new novelists in the literary scene became mostly women who reflected on the supposed expertise of their sex in child rearing and instruction. In fact, only two writers transcended these ephemeral productions and composed literary classics. The first was Walter Scott who employed his extensive knowledge in literature, law, history, folklore and his mastery of narrative poetry and succeeded to convert romance narratives into commendable literature. The other was the talented novelist Jane Austen who dealt with the social issues and crises of her time

by portraying woman as a catalyst in the survival or decline of families in the upper and middle classes and thus in society at large.

So, except for Scott and Austen, it is possible to consider the novel as the indicator of the demise of Romanticism in Britain by the following Victorians of the twentieth century. However, the ones who launched the fiercest attack upon the Romantics were the pioneers of Modernism as the following section delineates.

The Anti-romantic Modernists: The three prominent pioneers of Modernism; Ezra Pound, T.E. Hulme and T.S. Eliot, *adopted an Enlightenment attitude against Romanticism when they rejected, Beasley says, the Romantic conception of the poet as "a natural genius" in favour of the poet as "a technically skilled professional"*.(2007, p.116)

Ezra Pound, whose literary project allows to be described as an attempt to introduce 'new' art, followed a strategy to provide subversive reading of all literary heritage, and declared, as quoted by Bornstein Witemeyer (1977, p.148); "*If Wordsworth, Keats, and Tennyson had been respectable establishment figures whose influence was grown oppressive, they had to be undermined and blasted to make way for the new poetry.*" And in support of twentieth-century poetry which he hoped to have as austere, direct, and free from "emotional slither", Ezra Pound, in Beasley (ibid, p.20) attacked romanticism as "*a rather blurry, messy sort of a period, a rather sentimentalist mannerish sort of a period.*"

T.E. Hulme, the prominent theorizer of Modernism, held the Romantics responsible for blurring "*the clear outlines of human experience*", as David Simpson recounted (1993, p.12). And this scathing attack upon the Romantics was grounded on Hulme's principle that anything decent could only be got out of man by 'tradition and organization', consequently, Hulme's classicist standpoint led him to reject the "'damp' poetry of the outmoded romantics" for a classical revival with "dry and hard poetry". He countered the romantic belief in the infinite potential of the individual and that laws and rules inhibit and distort the individual's innate goodness by supporting the classicist tenet that man is a limited being who requires restraint in order to achieve anything of any value.

Furthermore, Hulme, like Eliot, adopted a religious viewpoint when he called Romanticism, Beasley (ibid, p.48) recounted, "*split religion" because, instead of believing in God, the "romanticist" turns man into a god*. More practically, Hulme's peer, T.S. Eliot, ended his life in the church. Yet, Eliot's classicism is more pronounced in his literary criticism than in his poetry. In his Selected Essays, Eliot postulated that *the Romantic faith in individual judgement and expression oppose the principles of criticism which presuppose the existence of agreed principles and standards. Eliot advanced further in his famous Tradition and the Individual Talent (1980, p.21) to directly contend the*

Romantics by declaring that Poetry is not a turning loose of emotion, but an escape from emotion and is not the expression of personality, but an escape from personality.

More extremely, Eliot followed the theories of the French writer and critic Charles Maurras who redefined classicism as order, reason, hierarchy, community and tradition in opposition to Romanticism which he denounced as chaos, emotion, equality, individualism and revolution. Eliot's Maurras-based theories characterized the twentieth century as a return to the idea of classicism.

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A LITERARY STUDY ON HEMINGWAY'S WORKS

Ernest Hemingway Early Life

Ernest Hemingway involves a conspicuous place in the chronicles of American literary history by virtue of his progressive part in the field of twentieth century American fiction. By rendering a sensible depiction of the between war period with its dissatisfaction and crumbling of old esteems, Hemingway has displayed the problem of the advanced man in 'a world which progressively looks to diminish him to a component, an insignificant thing' (Brooks, 1969, p. 6). Written in a simple however flighty style, with the issues of war, brutality and demise as their topics, his books introduce a representative elucidation of life.

The Nobel Prize winning author impacted twentieth-century fiction, and the vast majority of his works are considered works of art today. His work is best known for his stark, moderate style and openness to readers. Authors James Joyce and J.D. Salinger recognized Hemingway's effect without anyone else composing. His works likewise made ready for potboilers and mash fiction. In the about sixty two years of his life that tailed he fashioned an abstract notoriety unparalleled in the twentieth century. In doing as such, he additionally made a legendary hero in himself that charmed (and now and again bewildered) genuine scholarly critics as well as the normal man also. His life and inheritance are as yet praised today. In a word, he was a star.

Ernest Miller Hemingway was born in 1899 in Oak Park, Illinois, in a customary higher white collar class family as the second of six children. His mom, Mrs. Beauty Hale Hemingway, an ex-musical drama vocalist, was a dictator lady who had lessened his dad, Mr. Clarence Edmunds Hemingway, a doctor, to the level of a hen-pecked spouse. Hemingway had a somewhat miserable adolescence by virtue of his 'mother's, harassing relations with his dad' (Spilka, 1982, p. 346). He grew up affected by his dad who urged him to create open air interests, for example, swimming, angling and chasing. His initial childhood was spent in the northern woods of Michigan among the local Indians, where he took in the primitive parts of life, for example, fear, agony, threat and passing. At school, he had a splendid scholarly profession and graduated at 17 years old from the Oak Park High School. In 1917 he joined the Kansas City `Star' as a war reporter. The next year he taken part in the World War by volunteering to act as a rescue vehicle driver on the Italian front, where he was seriously injured however twice beautified for his administrations. He come back to America in 1919 and wedded Hadley Richardson in 1921. This was the first of a progression of miserable relational unions and separations. The following year, he gave an account of the GrecoTurkish War and after two years, surrendered news coverage to dedicate himself to fiction. He settled in Paris, where he came into contact with kindred American ostracizes, for example, Gertrude Stein and

Ezra Pound. 'From her (Gertrude Stein) and also from Ezra Pound what's more, others, he realized the train of his specialty - the tight monosyllabic vocabulary, stark discourse, and downplayed feeling that are the signs of the Hemingway style'.(Lass, 1970, p. 175.)

Hemingway's initial two distributed works were In Our Time and Three Stories and Ten Sonnets. These early stories anticipate his develop method and his anxiety for values in a degenerate and detached world. Be that as it may, it was The Torrents of Spring, which showed up in 1926, that built up him as an author of notoriety. His worldwide notoriety was solidly secured by his next three books, The Sun Also Rises, Men Without Women and A Goodbye to Arms. This was just the start of an illustrious career, with an amazing yield of a few books and short stories, an accumulation of lyrics and The Fifth Column, a play.

The title of Ernest Hemingway's initially major publication, In Our Time (1925), predicted a profession of an essayist in contact with his social and verifiable minute. To be sure, regardless of whether it was his status as the main American injured on the Italian front in World War I, his part as the antagonistic upstart of Paris' literary circles, or his white-unshaven, tanned face that ended up noticeably synonymous with mid-twentieth-century American manliness, Hemingway was all through his thirty-five-year vocation a man and an author of his circumstances. As a young author, he contemplated noteworthy social and tasteful patterns and the requests of a changing literary commercial center to such extraordinary impact that his written work was not just a noteworthy commitment to literary innovation yet additionally came to speak to the voice of the "Lost Generation." Later in life, when Hemingway had turned into a refined, Nobel Prize– winning author and world adventurer, his image and exploits were featured on the covers of magazines such as Life, Time, and Look as the manly representative of the good life lived to the fullest (Moddelmog, 2013, p. Xxiii; Baker, 1969, p.180).

Ernest Hemingway's private life

"*The better you treat a man and the more you show you love him, the quicker he gets tired of you*". (Kert, 1970, p. 28) "*From my earliest days with Ernest Hemingway,*" wrote Major General Charles T. Lanham (USA, Ret.) about his friend Ernest Hemingway, "he always referred to his mother as" that bitch". He more likely than not revealed to me a thousand times the amount he despised her and in the amount he loathed her and in what number of courses." At different minutes in his develop years Ernest spat out same denunciation. Beauty Hemingway was an overbearing wench who drove her significant other to suicide; she had a "rule everything". John Passos said that Ernset was the main man he knew who truly detested his mom. (Kert, 1970, p. 23) Ernest Hemingway was one of the greatest American writers, but he was also one of the worst in depicting life and women. Carlos Baker believes that the stories of Ernest Hemingway, particularly The

Short Happy Life of Francis Macomber and The Snows of Kilimanjaro, are centred on women, alcohol, money, and ambition. In both of these stories, Hemingway portrays the wife either as a "bitch" in character or was considered to be a bitch by the husband. The woman is also seen as smart and challenged the male's ego. The women in these stories are seen either by a male character or by the husband as controlling and manipulative. In Hemingway's stories, Hills like White Elephants, Up in Michigan, and A Canary for One, Hemingway depicts the female characters as weak. He makes them seem stupid and ignorant.

Literary style and works

Many people hold the opinion that there has been no American writer like Ernest Hemingway. A member of the World War I "lost generation," Hemingway was in many ways his own best character. Whether as his childhood nickname of "Champ" or as the older "Papa," Ernest Hemingway became a legend of his own lifetime. Although the drama and romance of his life sometimes seem to overshadow the quality of his work, Hemingway was first and foremost a literary scholar, a writer and reader of books. Hemingway enjoyed being famous, and delighted in playing for the public spotlight. However, Hemingway considered himself an artist, and he did not want to become celebrated for all the wrong reasons. From almost the beginning of his writing career, Hemingway employed a distinctive style which drew comment from many critics. Hemingway does not give way to lengthy geographical and psychological description. His style has been said to lack substance because he avoids direct statements and descriptions of emotion. Basically his style is simple, direct and somewhat plain. He developed a forceful prose style characterized by simple sentences and few adverbs or adjectives. He wrote concise, vivid dialogue and exact description of places and things.

Hemingway has been deified by the uniqueness of his style. Short and strong sentences, delightful dialogues, and a careful chase for an adept word or expression to express the correct truth, are the recognizing highlights of his style. He 'summons a passionate mindfulness in the peruser by an exceptionally particular utilization of suggestive pictorial detail, and has improved the situation exposition what Eliot has improved the situation poetry'.In his exact rendering of exotic experience, Hemingway is a pragmatist. As he himself has expressed in Death in the Afternoon, his principle concern was 'to put down what truly occurred in real life; what the real things were that created the feeling you encountered'. (Hemingway, Death in the Afternoon, 1986, p. 10) This surface authenticity of his works frequently has a tendency to darken a definitive point of his fiction. This has regularly brought about the charge that there is an absence of good vision in his books. Leon Edel has assaulted Hemingway for his `Lack of substance' as he called it. As per him, Hemingway's fiction is inadequate in genuine topic. 'It is a universe

of shallow activity and completely without reflection - such reflection as there is has a tendency to be on a fairly unrefined and disentangled level'. (Edel, 1962, p.170)

The majority share of his initial novels were described in the main individual and encased inside a solitary perspective, be that as it may, when Hemingway composed For Whom the Bell Tolls, he utilized a few diverse account methods. He utilized the utilization of inside monologs (where the reader is in the "mind" of a specific character), target portrayals, quick moves of perspective, and as a rule a looser structure than in his prior works. Hemingway trusted that "a writer's style ought to be immediate and individual, his symbolism rich and gritty, and his words straightforward and energetic. The best writers have the endowment of curtness, are diligent employees, persevering researchers and skillful beauticians. For Whom the Bell Tolls is the most genuine and politically inspired novel that Hemingway composed. There are couple of comic or light scenes in the whole book. For Whom the Bell Tolls is an endeavor to show top to bottom a nation and individuals that Hemingway cherished in particular. It was a push to bargain genuinely with an extremely complex war made much more mind boggling by the convictions it motivated. Ernest Hemingway's style, with its reliable utilization of short, concrete, coordinate writing and of scenes comprising only of discourse, gives his novels and short stories an unmistakable openness that is promptly identifiable with the author. Inferable from the immediate character of the two his style and his way of life, there is a propensity to give Hemingway a role as a "representative" American writer whose work mirrors the striking, blunt and tough independence of the American spirit in real life.

A close examination of Hemingway's fiction reveals that in his major novels he enacts `*the general drama of human pain*', and that he has *'used the novel form in order to pose symbolic questions about life'*.(Goodman, 1990, p. 357) The trials and tribulations undergone by his protagonists are symbolic of man's predicament in this world. He views life as a perpetual struggle in which the individual has to assert the supremacy of his free will over forces other than himself. In order to assert the dignity of his existence, the individual has to wage a relentless battle against a world which refuses him any identity or fulfillment.

To sum up, Hemingway, in his novels and short stories, presents human life as a ceaseless battle which closes just in death. It is of no benefit to battle this battle, where man is lessened to a regrettable figure by powers both inside and without. Be that as it may, what makes a difference is the way man faces the emergency and bears the torment incurred upon him by the threatening forces that be, be it his own particular physical constraint or the antagonistic vibe of society or the aloofness of pitiless nature. A definitive triumph relies upon the way one faces the battle. In a ton of hurt and disappointment, the individual likewise has his own particular weapon to declare the

nobility of his reality. He has the flexibility of will to make his own particular esteems and standards. With a specific end goal to accomplish this end, he needs to bear on an unending battle against three onerous powers, in particular, the natural, the social and the ecological boundaries of this world. As indicated by Hemingway, the battle between the individual and the antagonistic deterministic powers takes places at these three distinct levels. Remarking on this part of the existential battle found in Hemingway's fiction, Charles Child Walcutt has watched that, 'the contention between the individual needs and social requests is coordinated by the challenge between feeling man and coldblooded universe, and between the spirit of the individual and his natural constraints'. (Hemingway, Death in the Afternoon, 1986, p. 10) This perception is most likely the correct key to comprehend Hemingway, the man and the novelist.

Hemingway's Heroes

The portrayal of heroism is an essential aspect of literature. Hemingway's protagonist is a recurring hero in a progression of novels and has become an exercise in fictional biography. Nick Adams Nick Adams Stories1924/6 grows into Jake Barnes The Sun Also Rises1927, into Fredric Henry A Farewell to Arms 1929, into Robert Jordan For Whom the Bell Tolls 1940, into Richard Countwell Across the River and Into the Trees 1950, and into Santiago, The Old Man and the Sea1954. All these are considered to be one character at different stages as Rovit 23 states: There are two Hemingway's heroes: Nick Adams hero (tyro) and the code hero (tutor). The generic Nick Adams character, who lives through the course of Hemingway's fiction, appears first as the shocked invisible voice of the miniatures of In Our Times; he grows up through Hemingway's three volumes of short stories, and at least four of his novels, sometimes changing his name into Jake Barnes, Fredric Henry, Mr. Frazer, Macomber, Harry, Robert Jordan, Richard Cantwell, and Santiago. It is inferred from what Rovit mentions; Hemingway's hero takes a large variety of fictional forms, but in each of his manifestations, he is professionally developed. They gain skills, endurance, courage and honor, which are some characteristics which these heroes are equipped to evaluation. Rovit adds: The code which does concern Hemingway and his heroes is the process of learning how to make one's passive vulnerability into a strong, rather than a week position, and how to exact the maximum amount of reward (honor, dignity) out of these encounters...... the code is the ethic, or philosophic perspective, through which Hemingway tries to impart meaning and value to the seeming futility of a man's headlong rush toward death. And the Hemingway code does more than erect a barrier of resignation or stoicism between man's struggles and ultimate values. It is surmised from what Rovit said that the genuine Hemingway legend comprises of two lessons: the capacity to make practical guarantees to one, and the capacity to excuse one self's past. The characters in every one of Hemingway's stories uncover much about how he feels about men and the part they should play in the public arena. Thus, the Hemingway legend is a man whose ideas are

molded by his perspective of savagery and passing, that despite death a man must play out specific acts and these demonstrations frequently include getting a charge out of or taking the most he can from life. The Hemingway man is a man of activity. However, his activities depend on an idea of life (Grace under Pressure). Also, this leads us to the legend through which Ernest Hemingway speaks to his ideas of life, (the Code Hero).

Great Themes in Hemingway's Works

"Man is not made for defeat." This is one of many quotations of Ernest Hemingway that reflects not only his personal outlook on life, but many facets of his works of novels and short stories. Life and death, violence, brutality and love, fishing, war, sex, bullfighting, stoicism, grace under pressure and the Mediterranean region Hemingway brought a tremendous deal of what is middle class Americanism into literature, without very many people recognizing what he has done.

The metaphysical concern about the nature of the individual's existence in relation to the world made Hemingway conceive his protagonists as alienated individuals fighting a losing battle against the odds of life with courage (code hero), endurance (stoicism) and will as their only weapons (Grace under Pressure). Hemingway, in his novels and short stories, presents human life as a perpetual struggle which ends only in endurance of violence, brutality (Grace under Pressure) and eventual death. And all these works are more or less bound by the concept of violence and death which is shaped by the theme of grace under pressure. In a world of pain and failure, the individual also has his own weapon to assert the dignity of his existence.

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IMPROVING SPEAKING SKILL: IMPLICATIONS FOR USING DEBATABLE TOPICS IN ENGLISH SPEAKING CLASSES

Introduction

Developing good competence of speaking in English is significant for most of foreign and second language learners. Consequently, students usually evaluate their improvement in second or foreign language in the way that they can be able to express themselves orally in English. Tsou (2005) stated that students cannot answer their teachers' questions in English. Most of those students have a problem in speaking English. This result shows that speaking skill is still to some extent not given enough attention and new methods should be adopted to improve this skill. The individuals in a discussion require some skills to enable them to convey their messages to other people. If they lack this skill, they cannot convince other people who have different views or ideas. Therefore, there is an urgent need to improve students' speaking skills in secondary school as well as in university level.

It has been said that the effects of debates on speaking skills have been emphasized by studies conducted by researchers in L2 learning (Ur, 1996; Krieger, 2005; and Arung, 2016). However, studies on this area with EFL students in Yemen are none, particularly in Hadhramout district. Therefore, investigating the effect of debates on improving Yemeni students' speaking skill and attitudes is necessary for empirical validation.It is the opinion of the researcher that Yemenitertiary level students can develop their speaking skills if they are taught or trained to become effective and competent speakers. There appears to be a need for debates to enhance Yemenicollege students' speaking skill and attitudes.

Literature Review

This section sheds light on the theoretical background of the study particularly the concepts of speaking and debates as well as the studies conducted on teaching speaking through using debates.

Debates

Debating is an effective way to express and discuss certain topics in different fields. In teaching English, debates are used to improve students' speaking skills and thinking. Also, teachers of English use classroom debates to enable students to work in groups. It also helps them to increase their vocabulary and to find out concepts in order to support their arguments and opinions. During preparation for debates, students do some readings by identifying the main idea, deleting less important information, and labeling information. These skills are very important for students to become competent readers

and good debaters as well (Pamela and Pearson, 2004). Improving oral skills in students demand activities that will enable them to exchange ideas with their classmates and run successful discussion or debates. As suggested by Ur (1996), debates and use of discussion through using group work will motivate students to speak the target language. Likewise, Krieger (2005) states that the use of debates inside the classroom is effective for developing skills of argumentation. Similarly, Alasmari & Ahmed (2013) confirm that the use of debates inside the classroom improves students' fluency, pronunciation, and vocabulary of English. Speaking Skill

Speaking in English goes through different stages in which speakers build and share meaning with others. These stages involve the use of oral speech and body languages determined by various contexts (Chaney, 1998). Speaking, according to Huebner (1960), is a skill which can be used in classrooms or outside. Learners can acquire this skill by much practice and repetitions. It is also a skill that human beings need for interacting and surviving with others. For this purpose, speaking should be given much attention in the teaching and learning process (Rohmawati, 2009).Now many linguists and teachers of English agree that interaction is an effective way to enable students to learn to speak English. Therefore, debating is effective for achieving this aim.

Previous Studies

Bellon (2000) investigated the effectiveness of debates on improving speaking skill. College students at Georgia were involved in this study. Oral test was given to the students to collect data. The experiment involved two groups of forty-five students. Results showed that debate training develops speaking skills. These results indicate that these benefits will add ice to the cake if debate training is adopted across the curriculum. The findings also showed that there was high number of participants who claimed that they had been improved in their speaking skills by the end of the treatment.

Tsou (2005) evaluated the effectiveness of instruction in oral classroom participation on improving speaking skill. Tertiary students were selected from the freshman English class. Seventy students participated in this study. They were divided into two groups. Each group has 35 students. Students attended two hours each week with their EFL instructor. Debates were included as a treatment to encourage more oral participation. Preliminary tests and an oral test were used to collect data. The findings revealed that not only students speaking proficiency improved but also their attitudes towards class became more positive.

Shan (2005) investigated the effect of debate on oral communication skills and the relationship between students' personalities and their language learning. Participants were chosen randomly and divided into two groups. One group was appointed as a

control group for the first six weeks, which was taught by a university professor using a discussion format to teach speech, whereas the experimental group was taught by the researcher using a debate format to teach students' public speaking skills. After six weeks, the two groups switched instruction to receive the other treatment. The whole study was conducted for 12 weeks. Before the treatment, students took the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator to identify their personality preferences, and the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency to identify their language ability proficiency levels. The data analyzed in this study consisted of three impromptu speeches, student journal, semi-structured oral interviews and five questionnaires. The results showed that both groups did not make much progress between the pre-test and the midterm test at the end of the first treatment, but both groups made much progress between the pretest and the post-test by the end of the second treatment. Moreover, from the students' viewpoints, frequent debate in class increased not only their public speaking skills, but also other skills, such as critical thinking skills, organization skills, communication skills and note-taking skills as well as learners' preferences and attitudes towards different oral task-based activities.

Junaidi's (2011) study examined whether or not critical debate technique can develop the speaking ability of the second year students. The sample of the study consisted the second year of SMAN 1 Sakra, academic year 2010/201. Thirty one students were involved in the study. Twenty one were females and ten male students. Quantitative and qualitative data were obtained from respondents. The quantitative data were collected by using test and document analysis, while the qualitative data were collected by using observation, interview, questionnaire, and document analysis. The quantitative data were analyzed by using descriptive statistic, while the qualitative data were analyzed by using constant comparative method suggested by Hopkins (1993:149). The finding of the study showed apositive effect of Critical Debate Technique on students' speaking skill. Also this study confirms that Critical Debate Technique can raise the motivation and interest in students and also can promote students' critical thinking.

Hasanah (2012) investigated the effect of debate technique on improving students' speaking skill. The methodology used in the study reflected the characteristics of the collaborative classroom action research. The data used in the study were tests – pre and post-tests. She used four cycles, each cycle comprises of one meeting of 80 minutes. Each meeting comprises planning, implementation of the action, and reflection. The study shows that the students are confident to speak in English than before. Based on field note in each meeting, it can be found that debate technique has benefit to improve students' speaking competence in class. The results of this action research indicate that the majority of mean scores of pre-test and post-test is 36.6 to 45.2 in cycle 1. And the mean score of post- test is 50.4 in cycle 2. The mean scores of post-test is 56.6 in cycle,

the mean scores of pre-test in cycle 4 is 73, and the mean scores of post-test in cycle 4 is 81.

Khoironiyah (2012) investigated the effect of debates on improving speaking skill among students. Forty four students were involved in the study. The data of the study were collected through using speaking test, observation check list and a questionnaire. The findings of the study revealed a positive effect of debates on improving speaking skill and the study suggested that the method of debates can be adopted and used as an alternative and effective method in teaching speaking skill.

The purpose of the study of Zare & Othman (2015) was to explore students' perceptions on using classroom debate to improve critical thinking and oral communicative competence. Sixteen university students participated in the study. They were randomly assigned to a group. They were involved in debates for nine sessions in one semester. Data were collected by using a survey questionnaire and open-ended questions to be answered by the students about their perceptions of the classroom debate. Additionally, semi-structured interviews were conducted with a number of volunteered participants. The results of the study showed that the debates helped improve students' critical thinking skills and oral communication ability. In addition, as the students claimed, other benefits of the debates included mastering the course content, boosting confidence, overcoming the stage fright, and improving team work skills.

The study of Yonsisno (2015) aims to find out if there is any influence of debate technique on students' speaking skill at grade 11 in secondary school. The design of the study is experimental. The population of the study was 110 students distributed among three classes. The sample of the study was divided into two groups, namely the experimental group and the control group. The number of students in each group is 18. Based on the t-test calculation is 2,223 higher than the T- Table 1.69, then H1 accepted.The results of the study indicate that there is a significant influence of debate technique on speaking skill of grade 11 students.

Fauzan (2016) implemented debate technique and peer assessment to improve students' speaking ability. The design of the study is action research and it was done in two cycles. There were four meetings in each cycle; three meetings was for the implementation of debate in the teaching of speaking and one meeting was for conducting the speaking test. The data were collected through using observation checklist, field- note, score sheet and a questionnaire. The findings of the study showed that students had made some progress in the result of speaking test in comparing the results of pre-test and post-test in the two cycles. These scores indicated that there is an increasing ability from being 'fair' to being 'good'. The classroom atmospheres were also increasing positively. The result shows that the students gradually could express their

thought and opinions in debate practice. By practicing speaking in the debate practice, they improved their fluency as well as their confidence.

Finally, there is a great role of using debate on developing students' speaking skill. As teachers focus on using them in the classrooms, the better improvement can be achieved in speaking skills among students.

Significance of the Study

The current study investigates the effect of debates on developing students' speaking skill and attitudes. Though a number of studies had been carried out, none of them investigated the effect of debates on developing students speaking skill in Hadhramout district and few of them focused on the relationship between speaking and other skills. On this particular basis, the current study is considered significant since it has a priority in this certain area.

Research Questions

The current study has the following research questions:

1- To what extent do debates develop speaking skill?

2- To what extent does the use of debates affect students' attitudes?

Research Methodology

The current section describes the methodology of the study. It deals with the design of the study. It discusses the participants who were involved in this study. It also touches upon the research instruments and the statistical methods used in analyzing the data of the study. Design of the Study

Quasi-experimental design with pre- and post-tests is adopted in this study. It includes one independent variable and two dependent variables. The design of the study has one independent variable which is the debates proposed for this study. The dependent variables are speaking competence, and attitudes of students toward speaking measuring through a speaking test and a questionnaire. Participants of the Study

Seventy students were involved in the study. They constituted the available population at two colleges of education. One college is for boys and the other for women. Two intact classes of seventy native speakers of Arabic were selected to be involved in the present study. They had been studying English for three years as their major. One class was used as a control group and the other one was used as an experimental group. Students within this district (Hadhramout) generally come from families who range from

middle to upper middle class with regard to socioeconomic status. They were of a similar age, ranging from 20-23 years. They were also homogenous with regard nationality, mother tongue (Arabic), exposure to English, and cultural and educational background.

Research Instruments

Two research instruments were used in this study to collect the main data of the study. The first research instrument is a speaking test. This test uses three kinds of speaking activities (a communication game, a reading passage, and presentation - a topic to discuss). The speaking test is administered in three steps. In the first step two pictures are given to pair examinees, and they are asked to describe the picture and find difference in the two pictures. The second step requires the examinee to read a passage for a few minutes then the examiner will give some questions. In the third step, two examinees are assigned to discuss a topic so that they can interact with each other. There are five components to be assessed in this test: pronunciation, grammatical accuracy, fluency, vocabulary, and interactive communication.

The second research instrument is an attitudinal questionnaire. This instrument was based on the work of Zare and Othman (2015). The questionnaire was intended to measure students' attitudes toward debates before and after the experiment. Therefore, students' attitudes toward debates were measured with21 items questions/items. The students responded to the statements on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 5 (5 = strongly agree) to 1 (1= strongly disagree). The students were asked to read each statement and circle the number that applied to them to indicate to what extent the attitude described in the statement corresponded with their own attitudes. This questionnaire was given to the students in the experimental group and the control group before and after they had been exposed to the experimental treatment and had completed the oral speaking post-test. The aim of this questionnaire was to find out the attitudes of students in the experimental and control groups toward debates. It attempted to discover the activities of debates instruction that the participants found useful in developing their speaking abilities and attitudes. This was expected to provide the researcher with an idea about how far the different types of activities of debating instruction could be adopted in the tertiary levels in EFL speaking classes in Yemen.

Statistical Methods

Descriptive statistics such as mean scores and standard deviation were used to analyze the main data of the study. Further analysis will be performed by usingpaired sample t-test, and effect size to find out the extent of the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variables of the current study.

Limitations of the Study

This study limits itself to tertiary students, level three, Hadhramout, Yemen.The study is also limited to the investigation of the impact of debates

on enhancing speaking and attitudes of students. Another limitation of this study is that it is restricted to only two colleges of education located at the same buildingin Hadhramout- Yemen.

Results

This section provides the results of the collected data based on the two questions of the study. The first part demonstrates the effects of debates on the students' speaking skill. The second part illustrates the impact of debates on students' attitudes. Effects of debatable topics on improving students' speaking skill

To answer the first question, to what extent do debates develop speaking skill?, the results of the pre-and the post- questionnaire of the experimental and control groups in this section are presented and analysed. It begins with a description of the pre- and the post- questionnaire overall scores of the experimental group and then the pre- and post-questionnaire overall scores of the control group. Inferential results of the speaking testfor both the experimental and control groups are also provided. To find out the effect size of the independent variable (debates) on the dependent variable (speaking skill), an effect size 'Cohen's d' (Cohen, 1992) is reported for the experimental and control groups' post-test mean scores difference. Experimental and Control Groups' Descriptive Statistics Findings

In this section, Table 1 and 2depicted the results of the pre-test and post-test for both the experimental and control groups. The means and standard deviation of the pre-test and post-test speaking test scores for the control and the experimental groups are presented.

Table 1: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of the Experimental and Control Groups in the Pre- speaking test

Group	n	Mean	SD
Experiment	35	63.23	9.8844
Control	35	64.5	9.2912

In the post-test, the mean score of the speaking test in the control group was 63.63 and the mean score of the experimental groups was 76.60. This finding showed that the participants who were received instruction on debates did significantly better in speaking test than those who did not receive instruction.

Table 2: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of the Experimental and Control Groups in thePost- speaking test

Group	n	Mean	SD
Experiment	35	76.6	7.2995
Control	35	63.63	9.8312

Inferential Analyses of the Experimental and Control Groups' Results

As depicted in Table3, the results of paired sample t- test showed that there was no significant difference between the control and experimental groups in the pre-test. The mean score of speaking test was 64.50 in the control group and it was 63.23 in the experimental group. The difference between the two groups in speaking test (p= .029p<.05) was not significant. This means that the students in both the control and the experimental groups are having the same proficiency level of speaking skill before the debating instruction.

Table3: Paired Sample t-test Results of the Experimental and Control Groups in the post-test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	PretestEXp– PretestCntr	-1.27E+00	3.01643	0.55072	-2.39302-	-.14031-	-2.300-	29	0.029

In the post-test, the finding showed that theparticipants who were received instruction on debates did significantly better in speaking test than those who did not receive instruction. This difference is proved by having a statistically significant results examined by paired sample t-test (p= .000, p<.05).

Table 4, Paired Sample T-Test Results of the Experimental and Control Groups in the post-test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Post-test EXp Post-test Ctrl	1.30E+01	12.04727	2.19952	8.46814	17.46519	5.895	29	0

Effect Size

According to Cohen (1992), when testing the difference between independent means, an effect size of 0.20 is considered small, an effectsizeof 0.50is defined as medium, and an effect size of 0.80 is defined as large. For this study, the effect size of the debates on speaking skill was also calculated asthe control group's post speaking test mean score minus the experimental group's post speaking test mean score divided by the pooled standard deviations. The results indicate that the effect size (Cohen's d) of 1.52 wasfound when comparing the overall speaking mean scores difference of all students in the experimental and control groups. This is interpreted as a large effect size according to Cohen (1992).

Effects of Debates on Improving Students' Attitudes

To answer the second question, to what extent does the use of debates change Yemeni tertiary students' attitudes?, the results of the pre- and the post- questionnaire of the experimental and control groups in this sub-section are presented and analysed. It begins with a description of the pre- and the post- questionnaire overall scores of the experimental group and then the pre- and post- questionnaire overall scores of the control group. Inferential results of attitude questionnaire for both the experimental and control groups are also provided. To find out the effect size of the independent variable (debates) on the dependent variable (attitudes), an effect size 'Cohen's d' (Cohen, 1992) is reported for the experimental and control groups' post-test mean scores difference.

Experimental Group's Descriptive Statistics Findings

The students' responses in the experimental group in terms of the overall items of the attitudes questionnaire were examined. As shown in Table 5, the overall mean score of the attitudinal questionnaire in the pre-test for the experimental group was 42.34, indicating low overall attitudes toward speaking.

Table5: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of the Experimental Group before the Experiment

Group	n	Mean	SD
Experiment	35	42.34	3.6857

At the end of the experiment, the students' responses in terms of the overall items of the attitudinal questionnaire were again examined. As shown in Table 6, the overall mean score in the post- test was 88.60, indicating high overall attitudes toward speaking. The results indicate that students in the experimental group had obtained higher overall mean scores in the post-test than the overall mean scores obtained in the pre-test.

Table 6: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of the Experimental Group after the Experiment

Group	n	Mean	SD
Experiment	35	88.6	3.0312

4.3.3(b) Control Group's Descriptive Statistics Findings The results of the control group are presented in Tables 7 and 8. The students'responses in the control group in terms of the overall were examined. As shown in Table 7, the overall mean of the attitudinal questionnaire in the pre-test for the control group was 43.08, indicating low overall attitudes.

Table7: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of the Control before the Experiment

Group	n	Mean	SD
control	35	43.08	4.5389

At the end of the experiment, the students' responses in terms of the overall items of attitudinal questionnaire were again examined. As shown in Table 8, the overall mean score of the post-test was 40.28, indicating low overall attitudes.

Table 8: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of the Control Group in ASRA Sub-scales after the Experiment

Group	n	Mean	SD
Control	30	40.28	4.1057

Inferential Analyses of the Experimental and Control Groups' Results The total raw scores for each of the students in each group were used in the paired sample t-testto determine differences among the experimental and control groups. Table 9 displays the results of paired sample t-test on scores of students' attitudes toward speaking. Based

on the paired sample t-test results, p-values <0.05 were reported for the students' attitudes. As shown in Table 9, a statistically significant difference does exist between the two groups in favour of the experimental group. The results revealed a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in favour of the experimental group with t (50.915) p- value = .000 < 0.05.

Table 9: Results of the experimental and control groups- paired sample t-test on post-test scores of the attitudinal questionnaire

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	ovallexpost - overalpostctrl	4.83E+01	5.61391	0.94892	46.38584	50.24273	50.915	34	0

Effect Size

Cohen's 'd' (1992) measure was used to examine the effect of debates on students' attitudes toward speaking skill. An effect size of (13.59) was found when comparing the overall items of the attitudes indicating a positive effect of debates on developing students' attitudes in the experimental group.

In short, the findings for the second research question, elicited by attitudinal questionnaire, indicated that there were significant differences between the pre- and post-scores for the experimental group with a mean difference of 46.62. It was found that the mean score of the post- test was higher than the mean score of the pre- test for the experimental group. This clearly indicated that the students' mean score of their post-test was higher than their pre-test mean score and thus there was a significant difference between the pre-test mean score and the post-test mean score in favour of the experimental group. However, it was found that the mean score of the post-test is closer to the mean score of the pre-test for the control group. This entails that there was no significant difference between the pre-test mean score and the post-test mean score of the control group.

Discussion

On the basis of the results of the pre- and post-tests of the research instruments for the two groups, the research questions were answered. For ease of reference, the results of

each of the two questions of the study are discussed separately below. The Effect of debates on Students' speaking skill

The first question of the study was to examine the effect of debates on developing speaking skill in university students by comparing the findings of the experimental and control groups.

With reference to previous research, the current study documented statistically significant improvement on speaking skill achievement. The investigation of the overall mean of speaking test revealed a significant difference between the experimental and control groups. As presented in Table 2, the experimental and control groups had a post-test mean score of 76.60 and of 63.63, respectively. This difference produces statistically significant mean differences between the two groups on the speaking test measure, t-value(5.895) p. = .000, >0.05, with a large effect size 'd'= 1.52, indicating that debates had a positive impact on the experimental group's speaking skills. Such a difference was statistically significant in favour of the experimental group's mean scores as compared with that of the control group's. This significant difference could be attributed to the positive effect of the proposed method, debates,over the regular speaking instruction.

Since the two groups were generally equal at the beginning of the treatment period, the significant results obtained by the experimental group might be attributed to the effectiveness of the debates. On the other hand, the difference between the pre-test and the post-test scores of the control group is not statistically significant, which might indicate the ineffectiveness of the regular way of teaching on developing students' speaking skill.

The results of the speaking test, however, do not necessarily indicate that the participants in the control group were all unskilled or poor speakers of English. From an investigation of scores of students' pre and post-tests in both groups, it appears that the students in the control group could also have learned through debates and improved their speaking performance.

It is possible then to say that the sixteen weeks of training given to the students in the experimental group learning and practicing speaking skills with more focus on debates, enable them to outperform their counterparts in the control group. Thus, the difference in the two types of instruction used in the two groups with respect to emphasis on the use of debates for the experimental group could well account for the better scores obtained in the post-test by the experimental group. The 16 weeks of speaking instruction provided evidence of significant speaking competence scores over a fixed period of time for students in the experimental group who had been taught by the debates. Additionally, the debates showed a significant effect size of 1.52 on speaking skill achievement. This effect was not found in the control group, suggesting that

debatesare more suitable for developing speaking skills. According to Cohen's 'd'(1992), the effect size of 1.52 could be depicted as a large effect of debates on the experimental group's speaking competence.

The significant results obtained by the experimental group further supported the efficacy of the debates because these results demonstrated greater improvements for students in the experimental group with larger post-test performance that were not the case for the control group. The practical significance of the debates lies in the use of the techniques used in discussion, argumentation strategies given to students with low level of speaking ability before carrying out the experiment and the confirmation that these strategies of debates are effective for enhancing speaking skills of these students within regular classroom instruction. These results obtained by the experimental group do not count for the students in the control group. One may speculate, however, that if the debates had not been implemented, the experimental group might have exhibited the same scores such as those exhibited by the control group in the post-test.

Also the results of this study are consistent with findings from several empirical studies (Bellon, 2000; Tsou, 2005; Shan, 2005; Junaidi, 2011; Hasanah, 2012;Koironiyah, 2012; Zare & Othman, 2015;Yonsisno, 2015 and Fauzan, 2016). These studies showed the effectiveness of debates on speaking skills. Therefore, the results of this study seem to imply or suggest that the debates are effective in enhancing speaking competence.

To sum up the above discussion, the non- significant difference existing between the experimental and control groups' language proficiency scores and the speaking competence in the pre-test and the significant difference existing between the groups in the post-test imply that the debates are proved to be effective in enhancing students' speaking competence. It is evident that what the students in the experimental group have gained is quite reasonable in view of their pre- achievement. Given the lack of pre-language and speaking proficiency differences between the experimental and control groups, the careful research design and appropriate statistical analyses, post-test performance differences favouring the experimental group could be attributed to differences between the speaking instructions of the experimental and control groups. It could be therefore, concluded that the debates are effective and worth-trying in developing Yemeni tertiary students' speaking competence.

The Effect of debates on Students' Attitudes toward speaking

With regard to the effect of debates on students' attitudes toward speaking, this section provides affirmative evidence of a significant speaking attitude gain, over a fixed period of time, for the experimental group students. The mean score of attitudes for the experimental group in the post-test is 88.60, which indicate that students in the experimental group have enjoyed debates and activitiesof speaking skill. This level of

speaking ability enables them to be motivated and have positive attitudes towards debates. On the other hand, the mean score of attitudes for the control group in the post-test is 40.28 which might indicate that students in the control group face difficulties in speaking and therefore, they have negative attitudes towards speaking. The difference between the mean scores of the two groups might indicate that the students in the experimental group had less problems and confusion with speaking while the results of the control group might indicate that students in the control group experienced problems and confusion with speaking. This mean score difference produced a statistically significant difference between the two groups on the speaking attitude measure in favour of the experimental group [t (50.915), p. =.000<.05, with a large effect size = 13.59, indicating that debates have a positive impact on the experimental groups' attitudes toward speaking. This effect is possibly attributed to the debates activity. Also, this result is consistent with findings from the previous empirical studies conducted by Tsou (2005), Shan (2005); Zare & Othman (2015); El Majidi, Graaffand Daniel (2015) and Mcmath (2016).

It is possible to say that providing a fixed period of time for developing students' speaking competence is a valuable speaking activity in facilitating students' attitude toward speaking. A possible explanation for the effect of debates on speaking attitude is not direct. A positive speaking attitude may be enhanced through the way students get their confidence in speaking which in turn plays a crucial role in enhancing their competence in speaking. Attitude always contributes to speaking competencethrough mediation of willingness to communicate. That is, attitude toward speaking influences willingness to communicate, which increases exposure to speaking materials, which in turn improves speaking skills. However, a positive attitude toward speaking may not always increase a student's speaking behaviour. In this study, the results from the questionnaire showed that positive attitudes toward speaking of the participants in the experimental group increased. This finding indicates that gains in speaking attitude might contribute to their exposure to debates. In turn, a significant change in speakingcompetence has happened. This would be one of the most tenable interpretations that debates activity has a positive influence on students' attitudes towards speaking in this study. Implications for Classroom Instruction

The findings of the current study in terms of speaking, debates and attitudes lead to a number of instructional implications for teaching and learning speaking. These implications are presented with a brief explanation.

The first implication from this study concerns the possibility of using debates in teaching speaking skill. The value of incorporating debatesas instructional techniques in teaching speaking is effective in enhancing students' speaking competence. As evident from this study, teaching speaking within the academic materials helps in focusing students'

attention on speaking, and thus improving their performance. In addition, debates technique were found to be an effective supplement to speaking in promoting higher achievement outcomes, which calls for future instructional practices by teachers to incorporate this technique into their current repertoire of instructional speakingtechniques.

Second, the results of this study have demonstrated that when students' attitudes toward speaking are high, they might use different activities to achieve their goals than when attitudes are low. Teachers should seek to make their instruction more appealing and interesting to students. This might be accomplished by having debatable topics, using examples and practice activities that are relevant to the culture of the students. Such instruction will add to the confidence of students when they practice these topics on their own.

Third, tertiary and secondary school teachers might also use the results of this study to better assist students in their speaking process. Specifically, the results might inform them about the ways of developing secondary and tertiary students' speaking competence and improving their speaking ability and performance.

Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the implication of this study, several suggestions can be made concerning debates and research in the future as follows:

I. In order to smoothly implement debates, teachers should be trained in using debates in the speaking classes.

II. Further research is needed to assess the effectiveness of debates on young learners, elementary and secondary grades, of English in Yemen.

III. In teacher-training courses, teachers and supervisors of English should be made aware of the topics of the debates and the possibility of using these topics to EFL learners.

IV. The development of attitudes toward speaking takes time and evolves slowly. To determine the long-term effect of debates on them, thus, more longitudinal studies (e.g. entire school year or several school years) are needed.

V. Due to the limitation of a pre-post-test research design, this study could not determine if speaking competence available through debates continue after the intervention. Thus, further research is needed into the delayed effects of debates on speaking attitude and speaking competence.

VI. To investigate the process of a change in participants' attitude toward speaking and speaking performance during and after the intervention, qualitative measures such as observations and interviews should be used.

VII. In conducting the research of this nature   with the same or identical sets of students, the prospective researcher(s) may design his/her study on other correlates, such as socio-economic status and gender as determinants of speaking proficiency or deficiency as well as their impact on the speaking competence and attitudes.

VIII. Finally, the researcher recommends that the debates can be adopted and implemented at the secondary level for effective and better teaching and learning of speaking. The researcher hopes that this recommendation will be accepted and taken into consideration by the Yemeni educators for teaching EFL speaking in the Yemeni secondary schools and universities. Presumably Arab countries and similar teaching– learning contexts may get benefit from the findings and suggestions of the present study.   observations and interviews should be used.

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