

اندرجهم الم



وزارت آموزش و پرورش
سازمان پژوهش و برنامه‌ریزی آموزشی
دفتر انتشارات کمک آموزشی

رشد

آموزش زبان ۹۵

دوره بیست و چهارم، شماره ۴، تابستان ۱۳۸۹

مدیرمسئول: محمد ناصری

سرمدیر: دکتر محمدرضا عنانی سراب

مدیر داخلی: شهلا زارعی نیستانک

هیئت تحریریه:

دکتر پرویز بیرجندی، دانشیار، دانشگاه علامه طباطبائی

دکتر پرویز مفتون، دانشیار، دانشگاه علم و صنعت

دکتر حسین و توفی، استاد، دانشگاه تربیت معلم

دکتر ژاله کهنمویی پور، استاد، دانشگاه تهران

دکتر حمیدرضا شمعی، دانشیار، دانشگاه تربیت مدرس

دکتر نادر حقانی، دانشیار، دانشگاه تهران

طراح گرافیک: روشنگ فتحی

ویراستار: بهروز راستانی

نشانی مجله: تهران صندوق پستی: ۶۵۸۵-۱۵۸۷۵

دفتر مجله: (داخلی ۳۷۴، ۹-۸۸۳۱۱۶۱) ۸۸۳۰۵۸۶۲-۸۸۳۰۲۱-مستقیم

خط گویای نشریات رشد: ۱۴۸۲-۸۸۳۰۲۱

امور مشترکین: ۱۱۴

مدیر مسئول: ۱۰۲

دفتر مجله: ۱۱۳

صندوق پستی مشترکین: ۱۱۱/۱۶۵۹۵

چاپ: شرکت افست (سهامی عام)

شمارگان: ۱۱۵۰۰ نسخه

www.roshdmag.ir
Email: Info@roshdmag.ir

Foreign Language Teaching Journal

سخن سردبیر / ۲

گفت‌وگو/شهلا زارعی نیستانک / ۸

- Books/ Sh. Zarei Neyestanak/ 8
- Pre-university Reading Activities under Close Inspection/ A. Keyvanfar & M. Motlagh Rahmani/ 21
- English Through Fun!/ B. Dadvand & H. Azimi/ 29
- Current Misconceptions in Language Teaching in EFL Classes in Iran/ A. Khodamoradi/ 40
- Underlying Foundation of Education with an Emphasis on the Role of Teachers/ T. Sarhady/ 48
- An Investigation of the Vocabulary Used in Iranian High School English Textbooks: A Corpus Linguistic Approach/ M. Sodagar / 57
- Pseudo Versus Genuine Eclecticism/ Ay. Razmjoo & I. Fazel / 64

● مجله‌ی رشد آموزش زبان حاصل تحقیقات پژوهشگران و متخصصان تعلیم و تربیت، بویژه دبیران و مدرسان را، در صورتی که در سایر نشریات درج نشده و مرتبط با موضوع مجله باشد، می‌پذیرد. ● مطالب باید تایپ شده باشد. ● شکل قرار گرفتن جدول‌ها، نمودارها و تصاویر ضمیمه باید در حاشیه‌ی مطلب نیز مشخص شود. ● نثر مقاله باید روان و از نظر دستور زبان فارسی درست باشد و در انتخاب واژه‌های علمی و فنی دقت لازم به کار رفته باشد. ● مقاله‌های ترجمه‌شده باید با متن اصلی همخوانی داشته باشد و متن اصلی نیز ضمیمه‌ی مقاله باشد. ● در متن‌های ارسالی باید تا حد امکان از معادل‌های فارسی واژه‌ها و اصطلاحات استفاده شود. ● زیرنویس‌ها و منابع باید کامل و شامل نام نویسنده، سال انتشار، نام اثر، نام مترجم، محل نشر، ناشر، و شماره‌ی صفحه‌ی مورد استفاده باشد. ● مجله در رد، قبول، ویرایش و تلخیص مقاله‌های رسیده مختار است. ● آرای مندرج در مقاله‌ها، ضرورتاً مبین نظر دفتر انتشارات کمک آموزشی نیست و مسؤلیت پاسخگویی به پرسش‌های خوانندگان، با خود نویسنده یا مترجم است. ● مجله از بازگرداندن مطالبی که برای چاپ مناسب تشخیص داده نمی‌شود، معذور است.

سخن سردبیر



زبان در دوره‌ی متوسطه. همان‌گونه که در شماره‌ی گذشته مطرح شد، در مجلات خاص دبیران زبان نوع خاصی از مقالات به چاپ می‌رسد که از نظر هدف و ساختار، با مقالات علمی - پژوهشی تفاوت دارد. برای نشان دادن این تفاوت ابتدا لازم است با ساختار مقاله و بخش‌های متفاوت آن آشنا باشیم و بدانیم نویسنده در هر بخش چه اهداف عملی را دنبال می‌کند. تمایز بین «چه می‌کند» و «چه می‌گوید» در این زمینه حائز اهمیت است، چرا که نویسنده در هر بخش مطالبی را بیان می‌کند و در عین حال با بیان مطالب، اهداف عملی آن بخش را به انجام می‌رساند. برای مثال، نویسنده‌ای در مقدمه‌ی مقاله‌ی خود به بیان این مطلب می‌پردازد که در زمینه‌ی اهمیت ذخیره‌ی واژگانی در درک مطلب، تحقیقات زیادی انجام شده، ولی در همه‌ی آن‌ها به تمایز بین واژگان درکی و تولیدی توجه نشده است. لذا تحقیق وی بنا دارد تأثیر این تمایز را مورد مطالعه قرار دهد. نویسنده با بیان این مطلب در حقیقت می‌خواهد نقص تحقیقات گذشته را بیان کند و هدف تحقیق خود را با هدف قرار دادن آن نقص، بیان کند. بنابراین قدم اول در درک و تولید مقالات، شناخت

شماره‌ی تابستان «رشد آموزش زبان» در ایام امتحانات پایان سال تحصیلی در اختیار خوانندگان محترم قرار می‌گیرد. با عرض خسته نباشید و آرزوی نتایج دل‌خواه برای عزیزان همکار که با تلاش مداوم در طول سال، از هیچ کوششی برای شکوفایی استعداد جوانان فروگذار نکرده‌اند، بر آنیم بر این نکته تأکید کنیم که تعطیلات تابستان فرصت مغتنمی است برای ارزیابی فعالیت‌های گذشته و برنامه‌ریزی برای سال تحصیلی آینده.

در شماره‌ی گذشته قول دادیم، به نحوه‌ی نگارش مقالات کاربردی مربوط به «تجربه‌ی تدریس» و آرایه‌ی راهکار برای «معضلات آموزشی»، با استفاده از آخرین تحولات در حیطه‌ی آموزش زبان بپردازیم. امید می‌رود این بحث به برنامه‌ریزی در تابستان برای سالی پربارتر از نظر تولیدات علمی کمک کند. بحث را با یادی از روانشاد دکتر میرحسینی آغاز می‌کنیم که با دو دهه تلاش خستگی‌ناپذیر در سمت سردبیر مجله، در ایجاد فضای پژوهشی در خانواده‌ی بزرگ مجلات رشد، نقش مهمی را ایفا کرد. چاپ مقاله‌ای از ایشان در شماره‌ی قبل که مقارن با سالگرد آن مرحوم به نظر خوانندگان رسید، تأکید مجددی است بر این نقش بی‌بدیل در شکل‌گیری جهت‌گیری پژوهشی در آموزش

دانش‌آموزان قادر خواهند بود جملات مجهول را به شکلی ارتباطی و فی‌البداهه فراگیرند. با این مقدمه، زمینه آماده می‌شود تا مؤلف فعالیت‌های آموزشی موردنظر خود را به شکل طرح درس در بخش دوم مقاله ارائه دهد. در بخش نتیجه‌گیری، مؤلف به بیان نکته‌ی اصلی مقاله که نقش تمرین‌های متنوع و مفرح در بستری معنایی برای ایجاد زمینه‌ی به‌کارگیری ارتباطی آن‌هاست، می‌پردازد و سپس به دبیران تذکر می‌دهد که فعالیت‌های پیشنهاد شده تنها بخشی از فعالیت‌های بالقوه‌ای است که می‌تواند مورد استفاده قرار گیرد.

همان‌گونه که مشاهده می‌شود، با پیروی از ساختار متناسب با اهداف، در این نوع مقالات می‌توانیم با بیانی منسجم به ارائه‌ی تجربه‌ای آموزشی بپردازیم که قطعاً مورد استفاده‌ی همکارانمان قرار خواهد گرفت. در شماره‌ی آینده، با معرفی نوع دیگری از مقالات کاربردی، این بحث را پی می‌گیریم.

زیرنویس

1. Cohen, J. (2008). Teaching the passive voice: Strategies for immediate production. ETJ Journal, 1/1. <http://www.davidenglishhouse.com/en/resources/etjjournal.html>

اهداف عملی هر بخش است. حال ببینیم در مقالاتی که تحت عنوان تجربه‌ی تدریس به چاپ می‌رسند، معمولاً چه بخش‌هایی وجود دارند و اهداف عملی هر بخش کدام‌اند. برای ملموس‌تر شدن بحث، مثالی از مقاله‌ای از این نوع می‌آوریم که تحت عنوان «تدریس جملات مجهول: راهکارهایی برای تولید فی‌البداهه‌ی آن‌ها»¹ در مجله‌ی «ETJ Journal»، مجله‌ی ویژه‌ی دبیران زبان در ژاپن به چاپ رسیده است. این مقاله شامل سه بخش است که عبارت‌اند از: مقدمه، طرح درس و نتیجه‌گیری.

در مقدمه نویسنده ابتدا وضع موجود را در مورد تدریس جملات مجهول به‌طور خلاصه در یک پاراگراف بیان می‌کند و سپس به طرح مسئله می‌پردازد. وی مدعی است دانش‌آموزان در دوره‌ی متوسطه جملات مجهول را می‌شناسند و می‌توانند به ترجمه‌ی آن‌ها بپردازند، اما در به‌کارگیری فی‌البداهه‌ی آن‌ها در ارتباط کلامی، عاجزند. وی سپس برای توجیه منطق استدلال خود به ادبیات موضوع رجوع کرده و با آوردن نقل‌قول‌هایی، کوشیده است بنیاد علمی استدلال خود را نشان دهد.

وی در پایان مقدمه به بیان هدف مقاله‌اش که معرفی تجربه‌ای آموزشی است، می‌پردازد و بر این نکته تأکید می‌کند که با انجام فعالیت‌های آموزشی پیشنهاد شده،





گفت و گو

شهلا زارعی نیستانک

آقای محمد احمدوند دبیر زبان انگلیسی
«سامن» استان همدان:



تجربیات کوچکی، اما مفید معلمان را چاپ کنید



آقای محمد احمدوند، دبیر زبان انگلیسی «سامن» در استان همدان، تجارب بسیاری در زمینه‌ی تدریس و هم‌چنین امور اجرایی دارد. ۱۸ سال است که تدریس می‌کند و دو سال اخیر را در مدارس ایرانی در کشور کویت مأمور بوده است. وی کارشناسی دبیری خود را از دانشگاه شهید چمران اهواز با معدل بالا دریافت داشت و در سال ۱۳۷۴، دانشجوی نمونه‌ی دانشگاه شناخته شد. مدرک کارشناسی ارشد خود را از دانشگاه تبریز گرفت و در سال ۱۳۸۵ به عنوان «معلم نمونه» برگزیده شد. وی هم‌چنین در دانشگاه‌های دولتی ملایر، پیام‌نور ملایر، آزاد اسلامی ملایر، پیام نور کویت و دانشگاه علوم قرآنی تدریس کرده و به مدت دو سال مدیر گروه زبان انگلیسی دانشگاه پیام‌نور بوده است. مدت شش سال نیز سرگروه زبان انگلیسی نهاوند، سامن و کشور کویت بوده است. در کلاس‌های آموزش ضمن خدمت و کارگاه‌های آموزشی زبان انگلیسی در شهرهای نهاوند، سامن، ملایر، همدان و در کشور کویت به عنوان مدرس فعالیت داشته است.

با مجله‌های رشد آشنا شوید

مجله‌های رشد توسط دفتر انتشارات کمک آموزشی سازمان پژوهش و برنامه‌ریزی آموزشی وابسته به وزارت آموزش و پرورش تهیه و منتشر می‌شوند:

مجله‌های عمومی دانش آموزی

(به صورت ماهنامه و ۸ شماره در هر سال تحصیلی منتشر می‌شوند):

➤ **رشد کودک** (برای دانش‌آموزان آمادگی و پایه‌ی اول دوره‌ی دبستان)

➤ **رشد نوآموز** (برای دانش‌آموزان پایه‌های دوم و سوم دوره‌ی دبستان)

➤ **رشد دانش‌آموز** (برای دانش‌آموزان پایه‌های چهارم و پنجم دوره‌ی دبستان)

➤ **رشد نوجوان** (برای دانش‌آموزان دوره‌ی راهنمایی تحصیلی)

➤ **رشد جوان** (برای دانش‌آموزان دوره‌ی متوسطه و پیش‌دانشگاهی)

مجله‌های عمومی بزرگسال

(به صورت ماهنامه و ۸ شماره در هر سال تحصیلی منتشر می‌شوند):

➤ **رشد آموزش ابتدایی**، **رشد آموزش راهنمایی تحصیلی**،
رشد تکنولوژی آموزشی، **رشد مدرسه فردا**، **رشد مدیریت**
مدرسه، **رشد معلم**

مجله‌های اختصاصی

(به صورت فصلنامه و ۴ شماره در هر سال تحصیلی منتشر می‌شوند):

➤ **رشد برهان راهنمایی** (مجله ریاضی برای دانش‌آموزان دوره‌ی راهنمایی تحصیلی) ➤ **رشد برهان متوسطه** (مجله ریاضی برای دانش‌آموزان دوره‌ی متوسطه و پیش‌دانشگاهی) ➤ **رشد آموزش قرآن** ➤ **رشد آموزش معارف اسلامی** ➤ **رشد آموزش زبان و ادب فارسی** ➤ **رشد آموزش هنر** ➤ **رشد مشاور مدرسه** ➤ **رشد آموزش تربیت بدنی** ➤ **رشد آموزش علوم اجتماعی** ➤ **رشد آموزش تاریخ** ➤ **رشد آموزش جغرافیا** ➤ **رشد آموزش زبان** ➤ **رشد آموزش ریاضی** ➤ **رشد آموزش فیزیک** ➤ **رشد آموزش شیمی** ➤ **رشد آموزش زیست‌شناسی** ➤ **رشد آموزش زمین‌شناسی** ➤ **رشد آموزش فنی و حرفه‌ای** ➤ **رشد آموزش پیش‌دبستانی**

مجله‌های رشد عمومی و اختصاصی برای آموزگاران، معلمان، مدیران، مربیان و مشاوران مدارس، دانش‌جویان مراکز تربیت‌معلم و رشته‌های دبیری دانشگاه‌ها و کارشناسان آموزش و پرورش تهیه و منتشر می‌شوند.

➤ نشانی: تهران، خیابان ایرانشهر شمالی، ساختمان شماره‌ی ۴ آموزش و پرورش، پلاک ۲۶۶، دفتر انتشارات کمک آموزشی.

➤ نمابر: ۰۲۱-۸۸۳۰۱۴۷۸

➤ تلفن: ۰۲۱-۸۸۸۴۹۰۹۹

➤ E-mail: info@roshdmag.ir • www.roshdmag.ir

□ شما در کشور کویت مأمور بوده‌اید. ممکن است توضیح دهید برنامه‌ی درسی آن‌جا از چه ویژگی‌هایی برخوردار است؟

● من دو سال در مدارس ایرانی در کشور کویت از طرف ایران مأمور به تدریس بودم و برایم تجربه‌ی خوبی بود. به این نکته می‌توانم اشاره کنم که زندگی در خارج از کشور به من فرصت داد از مدارس و دانشگاه‌هایی که توسط کشورهای گوناگون تأسیس و طبق ضوابط آن کشورها اداره می‌شوند، بازدید کنم. چه قدر متأسف شدم وقتی فهمیدم، حداقل ساعتی که مدارس کشورهای دیگر به درس زبان اختصاص می‌دهند، شش ساعت در هفته است. حالا شما آن را با ساعات اختصاص یافته به درس زبان در ایران مقایسه کنید.

نکته‌ی دیگری که مشاهده کردم این بود که در کویت هیچ اصراری برای تألیف کتاب‌های درسی زبان وجود ندارد. آن‌ها از همین کتاب‌های موجود در بازار که توسط متخصصان انگلیسی زبان نوشته شده‌اند، استفاده می‌کنند. البته کشور کویت بعضی از اسامی، مکان‌ها و عکس‌ها را بومی کرده، اما اصل کتاب و ساختار آن دست نخورده مانده است متأسفانه در ایران درس زبان حتی در کنکور هم مظلوم واقع شده و ضرایب اختصاص یافته به این درس کاهش یافته است.

جا دارد من از طریق مجله‌ی خوب شما که یکی از معتبرترین مجله‌های رشد در آموزش و پرورش است، به معلمان زبان تبریک بگویم که با این امکانات کم و مشکلات زیاد، عملکردی فوق‌العاده خوب دارند.

□ آیا مجله‌ی رشد آموزش زبان را می‌خوانید؟

● بله از طریق مدرسه مشترک مجله هستم و خواندن آن را به همه‌ی همکاران توصیه می‌کنم.

□ کدام قسمت مجله برای شما جالب‌تر است؟

● بیشتر قسمت‌های مجله را می‌خوانم، ولی از بخش «Classroom Techniques» بیشتر لذت می‌برم و در کارم استفاده می‌کنم. مطالب این بخش برای معلمان کاربردی‌تر هستند.

□ جای چه مقاله‌هایی در مجله خالی است و پیشنهاد

عملی شما در مورد محتوای مجله چیست؟

● مهم‌ترین کمبود مجله تجربیات کوچک، اما مفید معلمان است. اگر بخشی را به چاپ تجربیات معلمان و



برگ اشتراک مجله های رشد

شرایط:

- ۱- پرداخت مبلغ ۵۰/۰۰۰ ریال به ازای هر عنوان مجله‌ی درخواستی، به صورت علی الحساب به حساب شماره‌ی ۳۹۶۶۲۰۰۰ بانک تجارت شعبه‌ی سه راه آزمایش (سرخه حصار) کد ۳۹۵ در وجه شرکت افست.
- ۲- ارسال اصل فیش بانکی به همراه برگ تکمیل شده‌ی اشتراک با پست سفارشی. (کپی فیش را نزد خود نگه دارید.)

نام مجله های درخواستی :

.....

نام و نام خانوادگی:

.....

تاریخ تولد:

.....

میزان تحصیلات:

.....

تلفن:

.....

نشانی کامل پستی:

.....

استان:

.....

خیابان:

.....

پلاک:

.....

کد پستی:

در صورتی که قبلاً مشترک مجله بوده اید، شماره‌ی اشتراک خود را بنویسید:

امضا:

.....

خاطراتشان در تدریس اختصاص بدهید که به تغییر رفتاری یا درسی در دانش آموزان منجر شده، بسیار مفید خواهد بود. به نظر بخش «English Through Fun» خیلی لازم نباشد، چون معلمان با کمک اینترنت به راحتی می‌توانند به مطالب جالب، جدول و طنز دست‌رسی داشته باشند، اما تجربیات همکاران به سادگی به دست نمی‌آیند.

کنفوسیوس، فیلسوف چینی می‌گوید: «ما از سه طریق می‌توانیم به خرد دست یابیم: از طریق تفکر که شریف‌ترین روش است، از طریق تقلید که ساده‌ترین روش است و از طریق تجربه که دردناک‌ترین روش است.» پیشنهاد می‌کنم مسابقه‌ای تحت عنوان «یک تجربه» برگزار کنید و از معلمان بخواهید، تجربیات خود را به صورت داستان یا خاطره در یک صفحه برای شما بفرستند و این تجربه‌ها را در مجله چاپ کنید. حتی می‌توان کتابی از این تجربیات چاپ و منتشر کرد.

□ آیا تا به حال کتاب یا مقاله‌ای در زمینه‌ی یادگیری و تدریس نوشته‌اید؟ اگر پاسخ مثبت است، در کدام مجله؟

● کتاب «Look, Laugh, Learn» را در زمینه‌ی آموزش لغات انگلیسی با روش تداعی در سال ۱۳۷۹ نوشتم. کتاب دیگری با عنوان «A New English Grammar» در مورد دستور زبان انگلیسی در سال ۱۳۸۳ نوشته‌ام. مقالاتی نیز تحت عناوین زیر تهیه و چاپ کرده‌ام:

● «How to Involve learners in Active Learning»

● در مجله رشد آموزش زبان FLT، سال ۱۳۸۵ در «How to Become a Reflective Teacher»

● مجله‌ی رشد آموزش زبان، سال ۱۳۸۶
 ● یادگیری فعال، برگزیده‌ی نخستین کنفرانس آموزشی زبان کشور در همدان، سال ۱۳۸۴ که در کتاب مقالات کنفرانس چاپ شد.

هم‌چنین بیش از ۳۰ مقاله در زمینه‌های آموزشی، اجتماعی - نقد فیلم، طنز، شعر و داستان که در نشریات متفاوت از جمله هفته‌نامه‌ی گل آقا، رشد معلم، رشد نوجوان، سروش نوجوان و نشریات محلی و دانشگاهی چاپ شده‌اند.

مقاله‌ای هم در مورد راهکارهای ایجاد انگیزه در دانش آموزان نوشتم که در سومین همایش پژوهشی کویت برگزیده شد و در کتاب چکیده‌ی کنفرانس‌های همایش به چاپ رسید.

یک سی‌دی آموزشی زبان انگلیسی با کمک بازی‌های

- امور مشترکین: ۰۲۱-۷۷۲۳۶۶۵۶-۷۷۲۳۶۶۵۵
- صندوق پستی امور مشترکین: ۱۶۵۹۵/۱۱۱
- پیام‌گیر مجله های رشد: ۰۲۱-۸۸۳۰۱۴۸۲

یادآوری:

- هزینه‌ی برگشت مجله در صورت خوانا و کامل نبودن نشانی و عدم حضور گیرنده، بر عهده‌ی مشترک است.
- مبنای شروع اشتراک مجله از زمان دریافت برگ اشتراک است.

پیشنهاد می‌کنم مسابقه‌ای تحت عنوان «یک تجربه» برگزار کنید و از معلمان بخواهید، تجربیات خود را به صورت داستان یا خاطره در یک صفحه برای شما بفرستند و این تجربه‌ها را در مجله چاپ کنید.



فکر می‌کنم مطالعات غیرزبانی به بهبود تدریس معلم زبان کمک می‌کند. دانش‌آموزان برای این‌که با علاقه سرکلاس شما بنشینند و به حرف شما گوش دهند، یا باید به موضوع درس و کاربرد آن علاقه داشته باشند و یا به خود معلم. دانش‌آموزان می‌بینند من از اتفاقات روز در دنیای هنر، ورزش و علم آگاه هستم و از آن‌ها به عنوان مثال‌های تدریس، حتی هنگام تدریس دستور زبان، استفاده می‌کنم. لذا با علاقه‌ی بیشتری به درس گوش می‌دهند. یادمان باشد، بخشی از کار یک معلم روان‌شناسی است. دانش‌آموزان دوست دارند، رابطه‌ی چیزهایی را که می‌خوانند، با محیط پیرامون خود و مسائل روز ببینند. اصولاً دانش‌آموزان از معلمی که مثل یک آدم آهنی فقط درس تخصصی خود را می‌دهد و احساس، تنوع و نوآوری در کار خود ندارد، زود خسته می‌شوند.

□ چه پیشنهاداتی برای بهتر شدن مجله دارید؟

● بنده هم قبول دارم که نظریه یا تئوری پایه‌ی عمل است، اما به عنوان یک معلم و با توجه به نیازهایی که دارم، بیشتر دنبال راهکارهای عملی، عینی و فوری هستم؛ به خصوص با توجه به وضعیت، امکانات و ساعات بسیار کم آموزش زبان در ایران که نیازمند راهکارهای خاص خود است. برای همین فکر می‌کنم باید تعداد مقالات کاربردی خود را افزایش دهید.

کتاب‌های کمک‌درسی و آموزشی معلمان - نه کتاب‌های گام‌به‌گام که یکی از معضلات بزرگ آموزشی در ایران هستند را هم که حداقل استانداردهای یک کتاب خوب را دارند - در مجله معرفی کنید تا نویسندگان آن‌ها دلگرم شوند.

نکته‌ی آخر این‌که مجله را ماه‌نامه کنید یا تعداد صفحات آن را بیشتر کنید. یک مجله در یک فصل، سه ساعت از اوقات فراغت ما را پر می‌کند که کافی نیست.

□ با تشکر از شما، «رشد آموزش زبان» برای شما و همکارانتان آرزوی موفقیت دارد.

ایترنتی و یک سی‌دی هم از مجموعه مقالات و تست‌های زبان (ایترنتی) تهیه کردم.

□ به نظر شما از چه راه‌هایی می‌توان دبیران زبان را به مطالعه و تحقیق بیشتر ترغیب کرد؟

● چند راهکار وجود دارد: اول و بهترین کار، آموزش ضمن خدمت غیرحضوری (در قالب معرفی کتاب) است. دوم، مسابقات مقاله‌نویسی مشروط به کاربردی بودن مقاله است. سوم، در نظر گرفتن امتیازات اداری و مالی برای معلمانی است که از طریق دوره‌های کوتاه مدت، مثل TOFEL و یا IELTS، یا با ادامه‌ی تحصیل، دانش خود را ارتقا می‌دهند.

شاید جالب باشد بدانید، طبق قوانین اداری، مثلاً اگر دبیر ادبیات دوره‌ی خوش‌نویسی را در «انجمن خوش‌نویسان» بگذرانند، برای او معادل مدرک گذراندن دوره‌ی آموزش ضمن خدمت حساب می‌شود. اما اگر دبیر زبان مدرک TOFEL یا IELTS خود را بگیرد، هیچ امتیازی ندارد!

از مسئولین می‌خواهم که برای تألیفات امتیازات بیشتری قائل شوند و این امتیازات را در مواردی مثل حقوق و مزایا، انتخاب معلم نمونه، ارزیابی سالانه، سازمان‌دهی، نقل و انتقالات انتخاب دبیران مدارس خاص و... تأثیر دهند. وقتی شما با رنج بسیار مقاله‌ای می‌نویسید و امتیاز آن بعد از چاپ، از امتیاز صدور تشویق‌نامه از طرف مدیر مدرسه هم کمتر است، می‌توان توقع داشت معلمان به سمت تحقیق بروند؟

□ برای همکاران چه توصیه‌ای دارید؟

● به نظر من مهم‌ترین مشکل آموزش در ایران، به خصوص در دوره‌ی دبیرستان، انگیزه نداشتن دانش‌آموزان برای مطالعه، و ارتباط ضعیف والدین با مدارس و شانه خالی کردن والدین از ایفای نقش آموزشی و نظارتی خود است. هر مدرسه و معلمی که این دو مشکل را حل کند یا به حداقل برساند، موفق می‌شود.

مهم‌ترین مشکل آموزش در ایران، به خصوص در دوره‌ی دبیرستان، انگیزه نداشتن دانش‌آموزان برای مطالعه، و ارتباط ضعیف والدین با مدارس و شانه خالی کردن والدین از ایفای نقش آموزشی و نظارتی خود است.

Effective Reading

Reading is a process involving the activation of relevant knowledge and the related language skills to accomplish an exchange of information from one person to another. It is an interactive process in which the reader brings his personal knowledge or schema to the text in front of him. The goal is to engage the thoughts, facts viewpoints, bias, ect. that the writer has put together on the page to arrive at the best personal meanings.

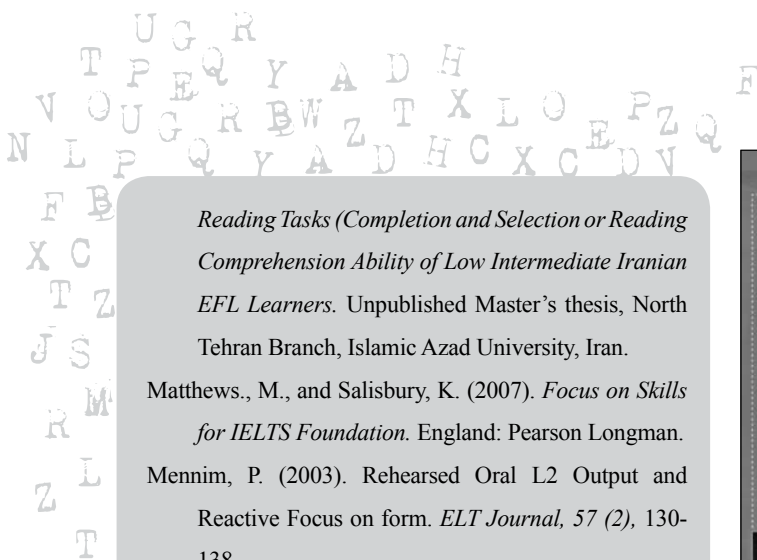
Thus, during the past decades, reading in FL has attracted unpreced ented research attention and a multitude of studies have sought ways to identify the factors promoting effective reading in this field.

Reading stems from in-depth analyses of multiple dimensions of FL and is a multifaceted, complex construct in that it involves a number of componet operations, each dependent on a wide range of competencies. Usually, reading competence is the most fundamental construct in reading research and reading from a functional perspective proposes ways of conceptualizing reading competence. Thus, the purposes for which texts are read determine the manner in which their information is processed.

Effective Reading is designed for students of English as a foreign language who may have a basic vocabulary in English and they can learn the reading skills of comprehension, finding the main idea, using the context to



understand vocabulary items, and studying a wealth of authentic materials accompanying different activities giving the student opportunity to go beyond the text by using the vocabulary they learned in the units. In *Effective Reading* a theme-based approach to reading to reading is used where the length of the texts gradually increases. One of the primary tasks is developing a useful and personally relevant vocabulary base that all the new ones are used several times in the lesson and are systematically recycled through out the texts.



Reading Tasks (Completion and Selection or Reading Comprehension Ability of Low Intermediate Iranian EFL Learners. Unpublished Master's thesis, North Tehran Branch, Islamic Azad University, Iran.

Matthews., M., and Salisbury, K. (2007). *Focus on Skills for IELTS Foundation.* England: Pearson Longman.

Mennim, P. (2003). Rehearsed Oral L2 Output and Reactive Focus on form. *ELT Journal*, 57 (2), 130-138.

Nunan, D. (1991). Communicative Tasks and the Language Curriculum. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25 (2), 279-295.

Nunan, R. (2006). Designing Holistic Units for Task-Based Learning. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 8(3), 69-90.

Oxford, R. (2006). Task-based Language Teaching and Learning. An Overview. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 8 (3), 97.

Rashtichi, M., and Keyvanfar, K. (2007). *EFL. Quick'n' easy (3rd ed.)*. Rahnama Publication: Tehran.

Richards, J. C., and Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching (2nd ed.)* Combridge: Cambridge University Press.

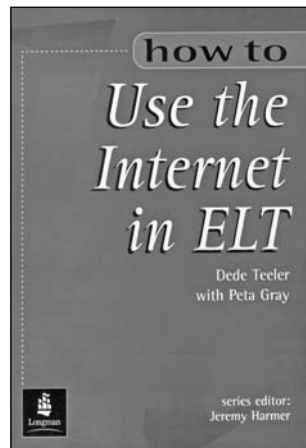
Shafizadeh, J. (2004). *The Impact of Reading Tasks on the Reading Comprehension of Iranian High School Students.* Unpublished Master's Thesis, Science and Research Campus, Islamic Azad University, Iran.

Skehan, P. (1996). A Framework for the Implementation of Task-Based Instruction. *Applied Linguistics*, 17 (1), 38-62.

Tavakoli, K. (2004). *The Impact of Task-Based Reading Materials on Iranian EFL Learners' Attention Span.* Unpublished Master's Thesis, Science and Research Campus, Islamic Azad University, Iran.

Taylor, L., and Falvery, P. (2007). *Studies in Language Testing. "19 IELTS Collected Papers" - Research in Speaking and Writing Assessment.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Walters, J., and Oded, B. (2001). Deeper Processing for Better EFL Reading Comprehension. *System* 29,



how to Use the Internet in ELT

How to Use the Internet in ELT is a practical guide to the use of the Internet for teachers of English. This book is appropriate for teachers who have little or no experience of the Internet as well as for those looking to extend their understanding of the resources available on the "Net"

How to Use the Internet in ELT offers:

- a practical introduction to the main features of the internet, including e-mail and the World Wide Web
- a review of the resources and information available on the internet for teacher development
- a guide to searching for classroom materials on the World Wide Web
- ideas on creating an "Internet classroom"
- a variety of classroom and study activities exploiting the Internet
- guidance on how to develop an Internet-based language course
- a Take File of photocopiable review exercises for each chapter
- detailed appendices listing newsgroup and mailing list addresses, and Web sites of relevance to teachers of English, as well as suggested further reading

opportunity to interact with their peers and experience first-hand language use.

The present paper can have some practical applications for different parties involved in the business of ELT. Teachers should have a new evaluation of what reading tasks are and what they can do. They should regard reading tasks as activities which aim at giving learners first-hand experience of how reading is used in everyday life interaction. Teachers are also suggested to use other types of reading tasks as teaching devices in their classes. Other tasks would also be beneficial in teaching reading because they make reading more pleasant, interesting, and motivating. Tasks also teach learners that in order to be successful in reading, it is not enough to have a good knowledge of vocabulary. It is important to know how to use the known words and guess the unknown ones to accomplish the task. Teachers of test preparation courses can make benefit of different types of reading tasks depending on the type of test they are preparing their students for, their level, and the duration of their course.

Test Makers similarly can employ different reading tasks for different testing purposes based on the type of processing that each task may entail. A reading task which superficially only assesses the reading skill of testees can also measure their production, reasoning, problem solving, and social skills. In fact, tasks can be seen as the best means of evaluating communicative

competence in an integrated fashion.

Material developers can employ tasks of different types in the construction of learning materials. They are specifically recommended to use rich and rigorous real-life tasks in different content areas. Academic content learning need not be delayed or weakened while limited English proficient students acquire English since language acquisition is enhanced when integrated into academic instruction and activities.

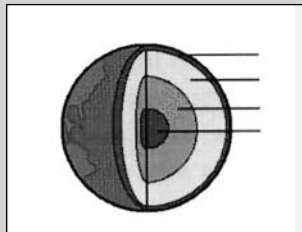
References

- Alinejad, Z. (2004). *The Effect of Task-Based Reading Activities and Text-Based Reading Activities on the Iranian EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Science and Research Campus, Islamic Azad University, Iran.
- Birjandi, P., Anabi Sarab, M., and Samimi, D. (2008). *Learning to Read English for Pre-University Students*. Tehran: General Department of Course Books Printing and Distribution.
- Brown, J., Hudson, T., Norris, J., and Bonk, W. (2002). *An Investigation of Second Language Task-Based Performance Assessments*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.
- Busch, H. (2003). Computer Based Readers for Intermediate Foreign-Language Students. *Educational Media International* 40 (3 & 4), 277-285.
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Guariento, W., and Morley, J. (2001). Text and Task Authenticity in the EFL Classroom. *ELT Journal*, 55(4), 347-353.
- Keyvanfar, A., and Rahmani, M. (2009). *The Impact of*

Q
X
Z
F
P
R
B
Y
A
D
H
C
I
O
Z
P
Q
X
T
W
M
J
K
L
B
W
C

answers may not be in passage order, but they are usually grouped together in one part of the passage, where the diagram is described. Students should use words from the passage. The words and numbers should be written exactly as they are in the reading passage. The following example is taken from *Lesson Four (Earthquakes and How to Survive Them)*:

Label the diagram below:



In **Flow Chart Completion** task, students complete the gaps in the flow chart by using words and/or a number from the passage. Some information may already be given to help readers to get the missing information. The answers may not be in passage order. Consider the following example from *Lesson Three (Global Warming, Global Concern)*:

Complete the flow chart below:

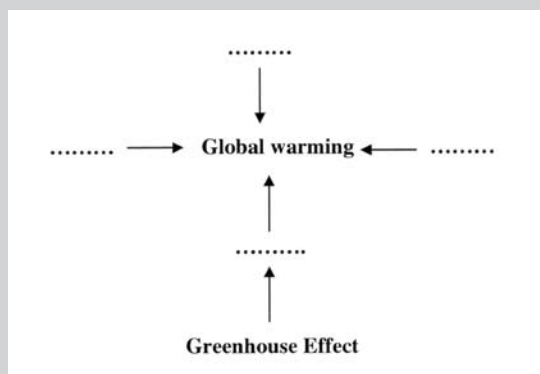


Table Completion task is similar to flow chart completion task in which the gaps in tables are filled by words and/or a number from the text. Sometimes one or two parts of the table are completed to help learners to find the missing parts. The answers are not usually in passage order. The tables in the course book are more like summary completion and do not follow the rules and shape of a table. The following example is from *Lesson Seven (IT and its Services)*:

IT and Its Services		
The main two parts	Computer Technolog
Examples of IT	Internet
Purpose and save time, money, and energy over long distances

Conclusion and Implications

As it was demonstrated, completion tasks are more common than selection tasks in the pre-university English course book. This may be due to the view confirmed by a few researches that production is more effective in the enhancement of language skills (e.g. Walters & Oded, 2001, Keyvanfar & Rahmani, 2009). Nevertheless, we suggest that pre-university course book activities can be maily regarded as exercises, or at best form-focused consciousness- raising tasks. Language teachers are recommended to take action and flavor their teaching especially in the area of reading skill with the help of some supplementary pedagogic tasks. Through these tasks learners get the

1. A leg injury may John from playing in tomorrow's game.
2. Are you to help me wash the car tomorrow morning?
3. He lost all his money and died in
4. Be careful when you the bottles of acid.
5. It's very for people to get colds in winter.
6. The movie made her very and she started to cry.
7. My parents spent a lot of money on my
8. The teacher gave the class instructions on how to do the exercise.

In the following example new sentences are given but they are related to the new lesson. Consider the following example from *Lesson Two (How to give a Good Speech)*:

<p>mood concentrate confidence variety gestures</p>

1. During a speech, it is important to the speaker to on the audience.
2. When a speaker addresses the audience, he/she shows his/her by expressions on the face.
3. Practicing in front of a mirror is a helpful way for speakers to find an acceptable to use in front of an audience.
4. To make your speaking more effective add to your speech by raising

and lowering your voice.

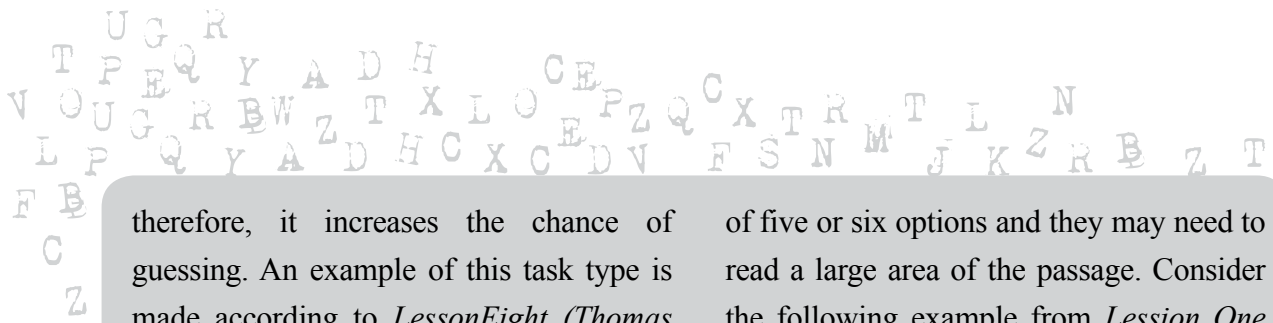
5. Knowing communication power tools will help a speaker to speak with

Another task is **Summary Completion without a Box**. In this task learners are asked to complete a text with appropriate words that are usually (but not always) nouns. In this task it is suggested to language learners to read the whole summary quickly and then follow the steps to complete the sentences. The course book has an example in *Lesson Seven* that was introduced before. The task could not be an effective one because lots of explanations and information are given to the students and the number of blanks is very limited. Therefore the chance of guessing would be high. The following suggested task is taken from *Lesson Five (Child Labor: A Global Issue)*:

Child labor means when young people are forced to do unusual work that is not for their health. This is more common in countries, but it also exists in nations. It is the result of Working children in rural areas are more in Urban children work in, with fewer in, and

Labeling a Diagram. In this task students name parts of a diagram by using words and/or a number from the passage. The parts to be labeled are marked with arrows and the questions with number. The

W O Z Z W O Z
 C Z E T E C T Z



therefore, it increases the chance of guessing. An example of this task type is made according to *Lesson Eight (Thomas Edison)*:

Choose the correct heading for each paragraph from the list of headings below:

List of Headings

- His most interesting subjects
- His personal life
- The most important scientist in the last 200 years
- His hobbies
- Different projects
- Edison's early life
- His famous invention
- Edison's social life

Paragraph	Heading
1
2
3
4
5

In **Tick from a List** task students pick the correct answers from a list of options. The options are labeled A, B, C, etc. The answers may not be in passage order. This type of task is different from multiple choice items in which students just pick up the correct answer. The answers are all in one small area of the passage. On the other hand in **Pick from a List** students pick a number of answers (usually two or three) from a list

of five or six options and they may need to read a large area of the passage. Consider the following example from *Lesson One (Why Exercise Is Important)*:

Choose three letters A-F.

Which three factors about the importance of exercise are mentioned by the writer?

- A. Exercise makes muscles stronger
- B. Exercise causes you feel younger
- C. Exercise keeps you low
- D. Exercise makes heart happy
- E. Exercise keeps you fit
- F. Exercise takes your flexibility

Sentence Completion with a Box is another task that can be suggested in reading comprehension settings. After reading the text quickly, readers are to use a scanning strategy to find the exact parts that they want to look at more carefully and fill in the blanks. In this task type, the words learners have to use to complete the sentences must be taken exactly from the text. This type of task exists in the course book but there students are to complete sentences which are not related to the topic of the lesson but just the main words of the lesson are extracted.

An example of the task is given in *Lesson (Five (Child Labor: A Global Issue*

education	discipline	specific	poverty
common	handle	prevent	willing
educational			

tasks. They are particularly devised to increase the students' motivation to read, familiarize them with real-life tasks, promote interaction, and finally enhance implicit language learning. The tasks are taken from a book titled "Focus on Skills for IELTS Foundation" by Matthews and Salisbury (2007).

Classification tasks involve classifying names, objects, events, etc. Classifying means putting things into groups or classes. Classification tasks are similar in some ways to doing T/F/NG tasks. Both tasks involve matching words in the question with words in the text. Therefore learners need to scan the text to find the place of the related information and then consider what to do next. Sometimes the classes refer to different periods of time and learners are to identify the period when a certain event happened. The following task can be employed when working on *Lesson Six (Space Exploration)*:

Classify the following events as occurring during the mentioned time, and write the correct letter next to each sentence.

- A 1609
- B 1957
- C 1976
- D 1977
- E 1988

The *Voyager I* and *Voyager II* space probes were launched.-----

The launch of the first units of the International Space Station began a new era in space exploration.-----

The Italian scientist, Galileo, used telescope to observe the sky.-----

The former Soviet Union launched Sputnik I, an artificial satellite.-----

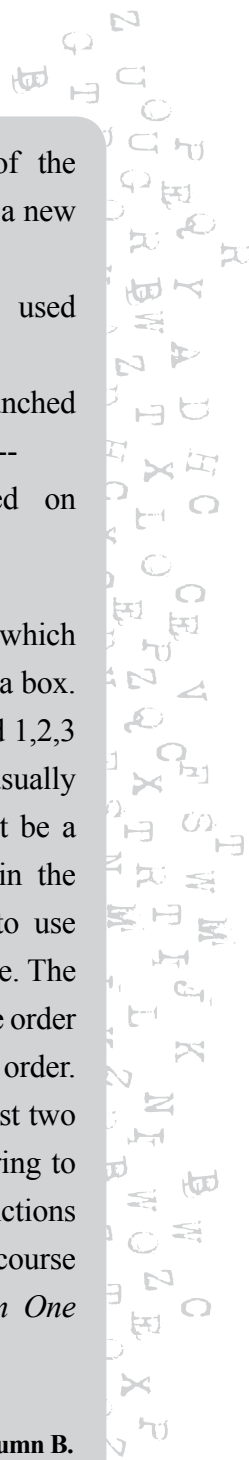
Viking I and *Viking II* landed on Mars.-----

Matching is a kind of task in which students match sentences to items in a box. The statements are usually numbered 1,2,3 etc. and the items in the box are usually labeled A, B, C, etc. There may not be a matching sentence for every item in the box. It means students may need to use some items in the box more than once. The items in the box are usually in passage order but the sentences are in a random order. School students are used to match just two parts in two different columns referring to one grammatical point such as conjunctions of time, reason and condition. The course book introduces this task in *Lesson One (Why Exercise Is Important)*:

Match a line in Column A with a line in Column B.

A	B
As we had no food at home, Since we didn't need the car	we looked into the shop Mary was cutting the birthday cake
As we walked along the street, When we arrived at the party,	we decided to go to the restaurant we felt too tired
Since we had done a lot of exercise,	we decided to sell it

This matching task has a shortcoming. It does not have any additional choices;





use it on many new and different kinds of information such as computers, radios, TVs, telephones, fax machines, etc. Among all these, computers have attracted the most attention since they have made it possible to store and a large amount of information in a very short time....

Outlining is another reading activity requiring learners to put all the main points of the text in a short space with the objective of making reading and understanding faster and easier.

Students can use outlining while reading short stories, too. In this way they will not forget the main points while narrating the story. Outlining is suitable in reading different texts especially biographies. It involves extracting information and organizing them in a timetable. The

Mother Teresa	
1910	born in
1922
1928
1929
1946	left the convent and
1950
1979
1997

following example is from *Lesson Eight*:

Learners should be aware of the fact that in the process of reading a text there are always some new words. **Guessing Unknown Vocabulary** is an important task in teaching reading comprehension which is presented in all units of the book. Students should

learn how to move from known to unknown information. This task teaches students that it is not necessary to know a large amount of vocabulary. It is important to guess the meaning of the unknown words based on the given information in the context. One way to guess the unknown words is having information about word formation and affixation processes. The following example

Word	Part of Speech	Formed from	Meaning
silence	Noun	silent (adj)	
confident	Adjective	confidence (n)	
facial	Adjective	face (n)	
react	Verb	act (v)	

is taken from *Lesson Two*:

It can be seen that the above activities are mainly form-focused, more of a *consciousness-raising* type in which as Ellis (2003) explains, the content of the activity is language itself rather than some everyday-life topics or situations. That is a language point becomes the subject of the interaction learners are supposed to engage in. As learners talk about the linguistic item in order to complete the task, they develop some kind of awareness of how that particular linguistic item works (Rashtchi & Keyvanfar, 2007).

Suggested Reading Tasks

High school as well as pre-university teachers can supplement their work on reading skill using the following alternative

learn not to repeat the same nouns in connected sentences. They are told that they can use pronouns instead. Sometimes when the sentences are too long finding references is not very easy. Here the readers should divide the sentence into smaller parts, find out the connection between them, and finally determine the references. The following example is taken from *Lesson*

Pronoun/ Adjective	Paragraph & Line Number	Check if it refers to something		Copy down what it refers to
		before	after	
Itself	P1, L3			
Another	P1, L4			
Its	P3, L3			
They	P4,L5			
This	P5, L8			

Three:

In *Lesson Four*, learners learn about **Punctuation Marks** such as comma, colon, semicolon and dash. They are required to find some examples in the lessons and also write down about the function of each.

Punctuation Mark	Examples in this lesson	More examples from other lessons	Functions
Comma			
Colon			
Semicolon			
Dash			

Recognizing Text Structure in each paragraph helps readers to better comprehend the text. In this part readers get to know the main topic of each paragraph and match the ideas with the correct paragraph in the text. *Lesson Five* uses this type of task asking students to write the number of the paragraph in the text for each of the main ideas mentioned.

For example:

1. Examples of child labor
2. Introducing child labor

In another task called **Recognizing the Main Point of a Text** students learn to get the main points of the text and transfer them to a table. In this way they organize the information and events and make a summary of the whole text. *Lesson Six* employs this type of task in which happenings are arranged according to year,

When?	Who?/What?	The event
1659		
1957		
1958		
1967-1972		

person and the exact event.

Summarizing is another task in which learners find main points in the text and re-organize them in a summary. An example of this task type can be found in *Lesson Seven*:

One of the most interesting things about information is that we are able to get and

to tasks which a language user is likely to encounter in the target situation (Bachman and Palmer, 1996, as cited in Taylor & Falvery, 2007). The target situation mainly refers to non-test situations; nevertheless, testing context itself is one of the situations where most language learners find themselves in (Brown & Hudson, 2002). Walters and Oded (2001) investigated the assignment of different tasks on creating different types of processing. In their study they focused on two completion tasks, writing a summary of a text and listing the examples in a text. The findings revealed that extra processing required in the writing of a summary of main points helped learners to have a better encoding of the text which in turn helped learners to perform better on subsequent comprehension tasks. It was concluded that tasks involving production should be viewed as an instrument of learning rather than one of testing and they can help less skilled learners to better extract meaning elements from the text. Keyvanfar and Rahmani (2009) also investigated the impact of two reading task types of completion and selection on reading ability of low intermediate Iranian EFL learners. The results of the research indicated that completion and selection of the reading tasks both had positive effects on reading comprehension ability of language learners but in comparison, completion tasks yielded better results.

The present paper through examining

the reading activities of the pre-university English textbook demonstrates that they mainly involve completion with different degrees of production. It further introduces a number of reading tasks that can be used by teachers as supplementary materials.

Pre-University Reading Activities

Examination of the type of activities in the Pre-University textbook shows that the students are mainly involved in finding paragraph headings, understanding references, using punctuation marks, discussing text structure, recognizing the main point of a text, summarizing, outlining, and guessing unknown vocabulary items. Each will be discussed below:

Paragraph Headings in *Lesson One* informs the students that the heading of a paragraph has the most important information. They are taught to read the paragraph and choose the heading that best summarizes it.

For example: In paragraph 3, the writer explains how aerobic exercise helps the human body work better and keep healthy. The students are required to choose the phrase that best summarizes the paragraph.

Aerobic exercise.....

- a) helps you feel no tiredness
- b) helps the heart to send more oxygen to the muscles
- c) makes your muscles use less oxygen
- d) increases your blood

In **Understanding References**, readers

in real-life interactions and hence any kind of learning would be *incidental* or *implicit*. *Exercise*, however, requires the participants to act as *language learners*, engaging them in *intentional/explicit learning* (p.3). He pinpoints the final distinction between these two by arguing that a task has a *nonlinguistic outcome* which is in fact the goal of the activity while the outcome of an exercise cannot be separated from the language which is produced (Ellis, 2003).

Reading Tasks in Action

Guariento and Morley (2001) argue that with the development of the communicative movement, the need to develop students' skills for the real world has led teachers to make an attempt to stimulate this world in the classroom. One way of doing this has been to use authentic materials based on the fact that exposing students to the language of the real world will help them acquire an effective receptive competence in the target language. Busch (2003) believes that first language acquisition normally occurs naturally, while second or foreign language acquisition, in most cases, occurs under artificial conditions. Basically, what we should be doing as foreign language teaches is to make these conditions as natural as possible and similar to language acquisition in a natural setting.

By the same token, in the foreign language setting of Iran, under the influence of the communicative movement, the use of TBLT

and reading tasks in teaching started to attract enough attention in the last few years. Shafizadeh (2004) conducted a research to explore the impact of reading tasks on the reading comprehension performance of Iranian high school students. He suggested that reading tasks can improve the reading skill of Iranina EFL learners, particularly through the interest that they invoke in learners. Tavakoli (2004) investigated the impact of task-based reading materials on Iranian EFL learners' attention span. She tried to understand if using different types of reading tasks could lead to higher recalling and remembering of the reading materials and increased learners' attention span. She concluded that the use of reading tasks was significantly effective with EFL students showing the effectiveness of using reading tasks on the students' attention span. Another researcher (Alinegad, 2004) attempted to investigate the effect of task-based reading activities and text-based reading activities on the improvement of Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension. The selected reading comprehension tasks were reading a passage and completing a table, completing charts or diagrams, and making classified lists from unclassified ones. The findings of this study verified the importance of using TBLT as an effective way to achieve a good command of the reading skill.

Communicative testing has also benefited a lot from the use of tasks. Authentic test tasks are those which correspond closely



and engage in naturalistic and meaningful communication” (Rashtchi & Keyvanfar, 2007, p. 107). Nunan (1991) defines TBLT as a facilitating factor in foreign/second language learning. In TBLT, syllabus content and instruction processes are selected with reference to communicative tasks which learners will (either actually or potentially) need to engage in outside the classroom and also with reference to theoretical and empirical insights into those social and psycholinguistic processes which facilitate language acquisition.

Skehan (1996) notes that in a strong version of TBLT, tasks should be the units of language teaching, while in a weak version tasks are embedded in a more pedagogic context. Oxford (2006), on the other hand, argues that, “In L2 teaching and learning, task is viewed as an outcome-oriented instructional segment or as a behavioral framework for research or classroom learning” (p. 97).

Task-based learning has become a central issue in second language acquisition (SLA) and its importance has grown rapidly during the past decades. It is, in fact, an attempt to confront the need to engage in naturalistic learning processes. Skehan (1996) states that a task-based approach ensures that the participants are actively involved in the learning process, and they are taking decisions that they need to take in the classroom. According to Mennim (2003), a classroom task encourages learners to

attend to the language forms that they are either using themselves or are exposed to. Next, learners notice ways in which their own interlanguage differs from the target language. This leads to rethinking their hypotheses about the target language, and to modification of their output. In other words, as Nunan (2006) states, a task is a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammar knowledge to express meaning, and in which the aim is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate the form. As he notes, the task should have a sense of completeness and be able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, middle, and an end.

Based on the above definitions, it can be claimed that grammatical activities with a direct emphasis on form are not the major concern of TBLT. Some scholars have recommended the term *form-focused* versus *meaning-focused language use* to distinguish between the two types of activity. Others have preferred the use of the term *exercise* to refer to form-focused activities. According to Ellis (2003) a ‘task’ differs from other devices used to elicit learner language such as an ‘activity’, or ‘exercise’, or a ‘drill’. He explains that during a *task*, the participants function as *language users* because they undergo the same kinds of communicative processes as they would

به جواب صحیح دست یابند. آن‌ها بسیار به فرهنگ لغت وابسته‌اند و در خواندن متون طولانی دچار مشکل می‌شوند. مهم‌تر از تمام موارد ذکر شده، همیشه مشکل تضاد فرهنگ‌ها نیز وجود دارد. به طوری که فرهنگ زبان‌آموزان با فرهنگ زبانی که متن به آن نوشته شده، کاملاً متفاوت است. یکی از مشکلات کلاس‌های آموزش زبان این است که دانش‌آموزان قادر نیستند آن‌چه را که در کلاس درس آموخته‌اند، به محیط بیرون و در ارتباط با دیگران منتقل کنند. بنابراین، شاید یکی از راه‌حل‌ها می‌تواند قرار دادن آن‌ها در موقعیت متفاوت طبیعی باشد. به نظر می‌رسد که مانند دیگر مهارت‌های زبانی، مهارت خواندن و درک متون با استفاده از به کارگیری فعالیت‌های معتبر داخل کلاس آسان می‌شود. آموزش زبان انگلیسی، به عنوان زبان خارجی، با مسئله استفاده از «فعالیت‌های معتبر» روبه‌روست، چرا که آن‌ها تنها ابزار استفاده‌ی زبان در دنیای واقعی هستند. بنابراین، به زبان‌آموزان باید تعلیم داده شود که چگونه این متون را درک کنند و در این فرآیند از فعالیت‌های واقعی بیرونی بهره ببرند. این مقاله پس از شرح اصول و مبانی آموزش زبان به روش فعالیت‌محور، فعالیت‌های خواندن کتاب زبان دوره‌ی پیش‌دانشگاهی را مورد بررسی قرار می‌دهد و در ضمن، استفاده از چند نمونه فعالیت تکمیلی را در راستای به کارگیری آموزش زبان به روش فعالیت‌محور در زمینه‌ی تدریس زبان انگلیسی به عنوان زبان خارجی در ایران پیشنهاد می‌کند.

کلیدواژه‌ها: مهارت خواندن، آموزش زبان به روش فعالیت‌محور، کتاب زبان انگلیسی دوره‌ی پیش‌دانشگاهی، فعالیت‌های خواندن

Abstract

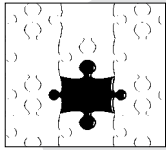
In the process of second language acquisition, theories and models provide guidelines for language teachers and researchers to find out suitable paths through which teaching and learning a second language could be realized. What people read in the real life and its reasons may not be completely replicable in language classrooms. On the other hand, all language students come to class from the real world in which they read different kinds of texts for real purposes. As a result, having information about the whats and whys of reading helps language teachers to select authentic texts and tasks for authentic purposes. Having elaborated on the basics of task-based language teaching, the present paper examines the reading activities of the pre-university language course book and suggests the use of some supplementary tasks as a step forward in the implementation of TBLT in the Iranian EFL setting of Iran.

Key Words: reading skill, task-based language teaching, pre-university English course book, reading tasks.

Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT)

Richards and Rodgers (2001) define Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) as “an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching” (p.223). It is based on the same principles that formed part of the CLT movement in the 1980s. It was argued that

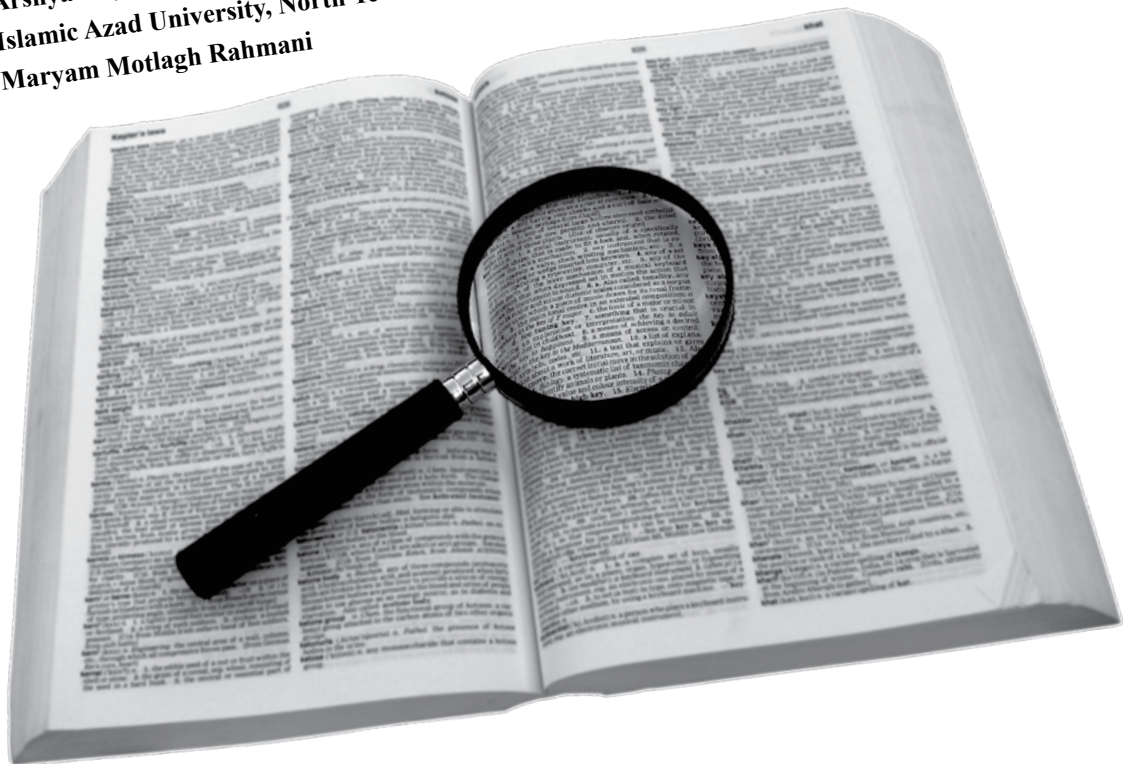
activities that involve real communication promote learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Therefore, researchers started using tasks as SLA research tools with the emphasis that engaging learners in task work provides a good context for improving the learning processes. Tasks expose learners to comprehensible input while providing them the opportunity “to negotiate meaning



Classroom
Techniques

Pre-university Reading Activities Under Close Inspection

Arshya Keyvanfar
Islamic Azad University, North Tehran Branch
Maryam Motlagh Rahmani



چکیده

در روند یادگیری زبان دوم / خارجی، نظریه‌ها و الگوها، رهنمودهایی برای معلمان و محققان زبان فراهم می‌آورند تا به کمک آن‌ها، روش‌های مناسبی اتخاذ کنند و آموزش و یادگیری زبان دوم / خارجی را میسر سازند. چگونگی و علت آن‌چه که مردم در زندگی واقعی می‌خوانند، ممکن است به‌طور کامل در کلاس درس بازتاب نیابد. از طرف دیگر، تمامی زبان‌آموزان از دنیای واقعی وارد کلاس درس می‌شوند که در آن، متون متنوع با دلایل واقعی مطالعه می‌شوند. در نتیجه، آگاهی از «چه‌ها» و «چرا»ها در زمینه‌ی خواندن، به معلمان زبان کمک می‌کند تا متون و فعالیت‌های معتبری را برای رسیدن به اهداف حقیقی انتخاب کنند.

به‌عنوان مدرسان زبان انگلیسی می‌توانیم چندین علت برای مشکلات دانش‌آموزان خود بیابیم، اما عوامل بازدارنده‌ی اصلی آن‌هایی هستند که در کلاس درس می‌بینیم. برای دانش‌آموزان، رسیدن به جواب صحیح سؤالات درک مطلب اهمیت بیشتری دارد تا این‌که چگونه و از چه طریقی

II What You Need to Know

3. PROVERBS

(I'm not going to tell you a word)

So, what was the matter? James was murmuring in your ears for ten minutes!

- I'm sorry man, *my lips are sealed*. I cannot tell you anything!



4. Riddles

Why do we dress baby boys in blue and baby girls in pink?

- Because they cannot dress themselves!!

REFERENCES

Collis, H. (1992). *101 American English Proverbs*. Lincolnwood: Passport Books.

Collis, H. (1996). *101 American English Riddles*. Lincolnwood: Passport Books.

Collis, H. (2004). *136 American English Idioms*. Lincolnwood: Passport Books.

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lev_Vygotsky

<http://www.prelovac.com/vladimir/>

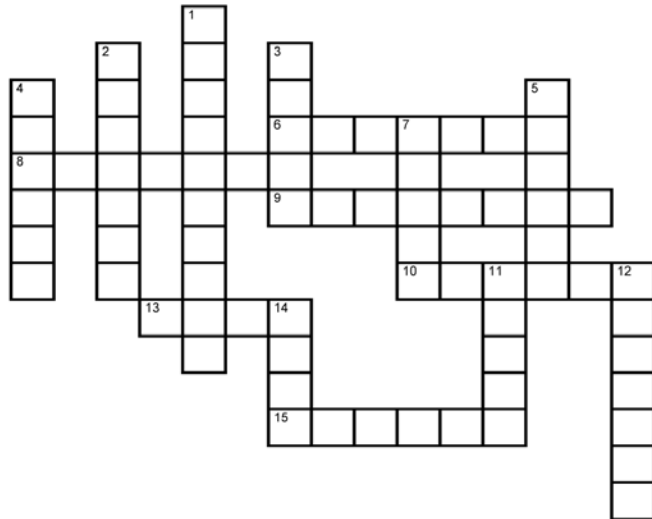
Newman, F. & Holzman, L. (1993). *Lev Vygotsky: Revolutionary Scientist*. London: Routledge.

Van der Veer, Rene (2007). *Lev Vygotsky: Continuum Library of Educational Thought*. Continuum.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

2. Taken from an article by Jack C. Richards, Department of English, City Polytechnic of Hong Kong

- 4. The opposite of lend
- 5. The opposite of melt
- 7. The opposite of save
- 11. The opposite of sink
- 12. The opposite of create
- 14. The opposite of follow



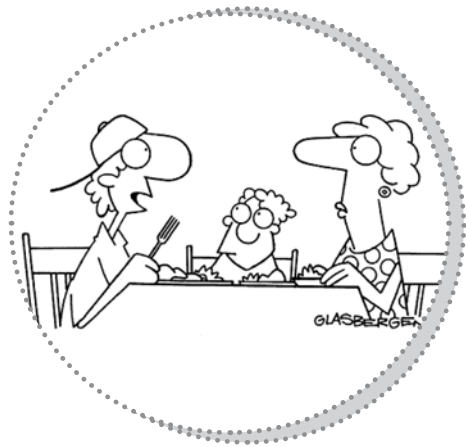
Across

- 6. The opposite of yell
- 8. The opposite of send
- 9. The opposite of forget
- 10. The opposite of attack
- 13. The opposite of hurt
- 15. The opposite of arrive

I What You Need to Know

1. Joke

Everyone in my biology class voted against dissecting a frog. But we almost had enough votes to dissect the teacher.



2. IDIOMS

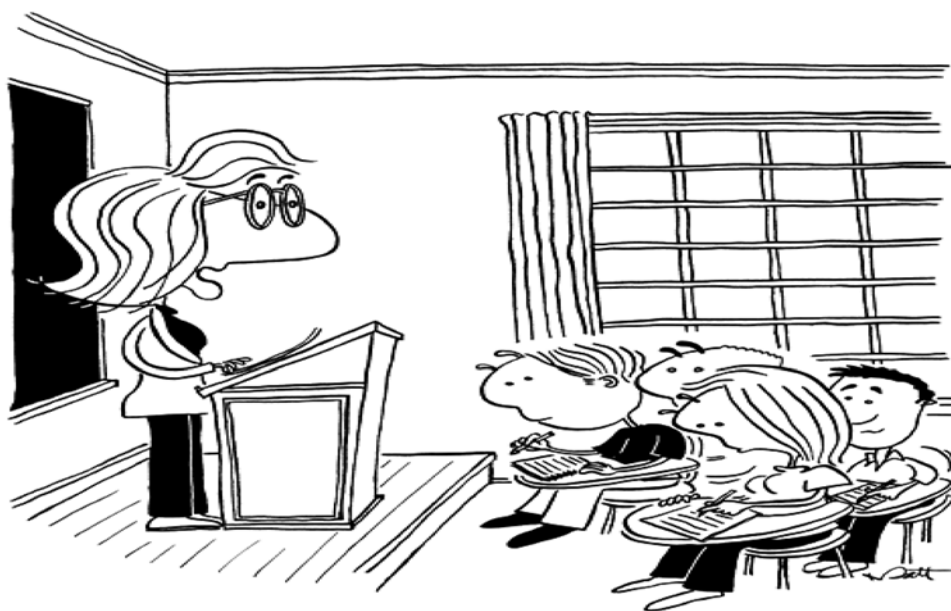
(Money is not easily obtained)

- Dad! I need 100 bucks to go out with my friends this weekend.
- Only 100 dollars!? Don't you want more...? Money does not grow on trees, son. I really don't have that money..

were not translated until the recent decades. Although Vygotsky's life was a short one, he wrote 6 volumes over about 10 years, from his *Psychology of Art* (1925) to *Thought and Language [or Thinking and Speech]* (1934). The fields of psychology and education could have gained much more, had he lived a normal age.

No Comment?

Take a look at this cartoon. What do you think? Share your ideas with us at our email address. We are waiting!



"When writing your essays, I encourage you to think for yourselves while you express what I'd most agree with."

Brainteasers: Opposite Verbs!

The brainteasers, this time, asks you to think of opposites! Read the items and you should insert the opposites. Enjoy!

Down

1. The opposite of bend
2. The opposite of fail
3. The opposite of raise

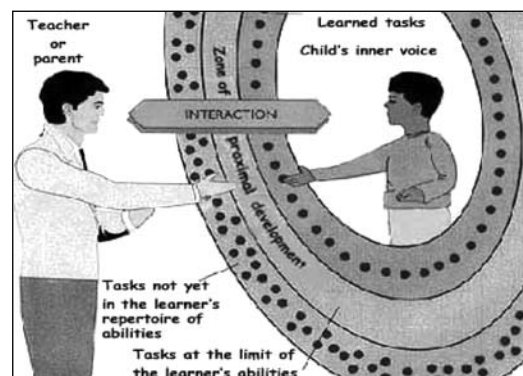


To Vygotsky, culture and interpersonal communication play an immense role in child's development. He claimed that children's higher mental functions are subjects of children's historical and individual constant interaction with particular cultural groups including significant people around them, particularly parents. Among the consequences of these interactions is the children's learning the mentalities of their cultures including speech patterns and written languages, among other symbolic knowledge shaping children's meaning and knowledge of the world. This idea is referred to as **cultural mediation**. Through cultural mediation, children come to put on specific knowledge, which is the shared knowledge of a certain culture. The process through which this knowledge is grasped is known as **internalization**.

The importance of Children's games or **plays** is also another Vygotskyian notion among his ideas of influential elements in the development of children's higher mental functions. In Vygotsky's view, games trigger abstract meanings separate from the objects in the world. Children have to resort to the games or plays in order to start developing their mental capacities. Vygotsky exemplified a child who wants to ride a horse but cannot. Before the age of three, he/she would cry and that's all to it. But around the age of three, the child learns to "imagine" what is practically "unrealizable" to him/her. That's why he/she picks up a stick and stands astride of it: he pretends he is riding a horse! Imagination, a species specific phenomenon, originally arises from action (Vygotsky, 1978).

So far so good! But how can a child develop tasks? Is there any order to it? Vygotsky's answer is positive. Lev introduced the concept of **Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)** for the range of tasks to be learned and mastered with the assistance of adults around the child. In the lower limit of ZPD, the child works independently, but as the level increases, the child is in need of more and more assistance by other mature, more-skilled persons. Now, let's imagine a child needs assistance by adults and the adult (here a teacher) offers his/her assistance gradually and changes the level of support, adjusting the level of assistance to fit the student's capability at the moment. In education, this task is known as scaffolding, an originally Vygotskyian psychology term.

Due to the political atmosphere of the time in USSR at the time, Vygotsky's publication



without explanation or evaluation. Several different procedures are available during the recollection phase, including written descriptions of an event, a video or audio recording of an event, or the use of check lists or coding systems to capture details of the event.

Stage 3 Review and response to the event

Following a focus on objective description of the event, the participant returns to the event and reviews it. The event is now processed at a deeper level, and questions are asked about the experience.

We will examine approaches to critical reflection which reflect these processes in the next edition of ETFun.

Close up!

Lev Vygotsky

Lev Semyonovich Vygotsky (1896–1934) was a Soviet psychologist and the founder of cultural-historical psychology. His ideas, although discovered and appreciated a bit late, were so influential in psychology, particularly educational psychology, he is sometimes known as the Mozart of Psychology.

Vygotsky's interests were diverse including the fields of developmental psychology, child development, and education. His thoughts are best known to us, especially in the area of language teaching, by some of his famous terminologies introduced to the field of education. Cultural mediation, internalization, the psychology of play, and the well-known Zone of Proximal Development are four Vygotskian terms, which are briefly explained below.

A scrutiny in his studies in the area of child development reveals most of his fruitful ideas.



as they teach, and of the value and consequences of particular instructional decisions? One way of doing this is through observing and reflecting on one's own teaching, and using observation and reflection as a way of bringing about change. This approach to teaching can be described as "Reflective Teaching".

Here, we'll explore how a reflective view of teaching can be developed.

What is reflection?

Reflection or "critical reflection" refers to an activity or process in which an experience is recalled, considered, and evaluated, usually in relation to a broader purpose. It is a response to a past experience and involves conscious recall and examination of the experience as a basis for evaluation and decision-making and as a source for planning an action. Bartlett (1990) points out that becoming a reflective teacher involves moving beyond a primary concern with instructional techniques and "how to" questions and asking "what" and "why" questions that regard instructions and managerial techniques not as ends in themselves, but as part of broader educational purposes.

Asking "what and why" questions gives us a certain power over our teaching. We could claim that the degree of autonomy and responsibility we have in our work as teachers is determined by the level of control we can exercise over our actions. In reflecting on the above kind of questions, we begin to exercise control and open up the possibility of transforming our everyday classroom life.



How does reflection take place?

Many different approaches can be employed if one wishes to become a critically reflective teacher, including observation of oneself and others, team teaching, and exploring one's view of teaching through writing. Central to any approach used however is a three-part process which involves:



Stage 1 The event itself

The starting point is an actual teaching episode, such as a lesson or other instructional event. While the focus of critical reflection is usually the teacher's own teaching, self-reflection can also be stimulated by observation of another person's teaching.

Stage 2 Recollection of the event

The next stage in reflective examination of an experience is an account of what happened,

Every saint has a past, and every sinner has a future.

- **Oscar Wilde**

Great intellects are skeptical.

- **Friedrich Nietzsche**

The faults of the burglar are the qualities of the financier.

- **George Bernard Shaw**

No wise man ever wished to be younger.

- **Jonathan Swift**

Make money and the whole world will conspire to call you a gentleman.

- **Mark Twain**

There is no great genius without a mixture of madness.

- **Aristotle**

Teaching Tips

Towards Reflective Teaching²

Most teachers develop their classroom skills fairly early in their teaching careers. Teachers entering the profession may find their initial teaching efforts stressful, but with experience they acquire a repertoire of teaching strategies that they draw on throughout their teaching. The particular configuration of strategies a teacher uses constitutes his or her “teaching style”. While a teacher’s style of teaching provides a means of coping with many of the routine demands of teaching, there is also a danger that it can hinder a teacher’s professional growth.

How can teachers move beyond the level of automatic or routinised responses to classroom situations and achieve a higher level of awareness of how they teach, of the kinds of decisions they make





English Through



B. Dadvand (babak.dadvand@gmail.com)

H.Azimi (azimi.ho@gmail.com)*

Ph.D students in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL),
Tarbiat Modares University

The Note

We hope this new edition of ETFun finds you in perfect health. We have decided to revisit ETFun and make some modifications with the aim of further aligning its different sections to the needs and demands of the readers. For doing so, however, we are in dire need of suggestions and comments from you.

We will be more than happy to hear your suggestions, comments and criticisms via our email address (etfun@roshdmag.ir).

Quotable Quotes

In three words I can sum up everything I've learned about life. It goes on.

- **Robert Frost**



- word level vocabulary tests. *Language Testing*, 16 (2), 131-162.
- Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. (4th Ed.). London: Longman.
- Brown, R. (1973). *A First Language: The Teaching Stages*. London: Allen and Unwin.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Chomsky, N. (1991). *The Minimalist Program*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Cook, V. (1991). *Second Language Learning and Teaching*. (1st Ed). London: Edward Arnold.
- Cook, V. (1996). *Second Language Learning and Teaching*. (2nd Ed). London: Edward Arnold.
- Dulay, H. & Burt, M. (1974). Natural Sequences in Child Second Language Acquisition. *Language Learning*, 24, 37-53.
- Elbow, P. (1973). *Writing Without Teachers*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1994). Implicit and Explicit Language Learning, an Overview. In N. Ellis (Ed.) *Implicit and Explicit Learning of Language* (1-33). London: Academic Press.
- Finegan, E. & Besnier, N. (1989). *Language: Its Structure and Use*. New York: Harcourt Brace.
- Gass, & Seilinger, (2008). *Second Language Acquisition* (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Hymes, D. (1972). On Communicative Competence. In J. B. Pride & Holmes (eds.). *Sociolinguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin, 269-293.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications*. London: Longman.
- Kumaravadivilou, B. (1994). The Post Method Condition: Emerging Strategies for Second/ Foreign Language Teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28, 27-48.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2001). *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lortie, D. C. (1975). *School Teacher a Sociological Study* - Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Nation, I. S. P. (1990). *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary*. Newbury House: New York.
- Nation, I. S. P. (2001). *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (1988). *Syllabus Design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Pajares, F. (1992). Teachers' Beliefs and Educational Research: Clearing up a Messy Construct. *Review of Educational Research* 62 (2), 307-332.
- Pinemann, M. & Johnson, M. (1987). Factors Influencing the Development of Language Proficiency. In D. Nunan (ed.). *Applying Second Language Research*. NCRC, Adelaide, Australia, 45-141.
- Richards, J. C. & Rogers, T. (2001). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richardson, V. (1996). The Role of Attitudes and Beliefs in Learning to Teach. In: Sikula, J., Buttery, T., Guyton, E. (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education, Second Ed.* MacMillan, New York, pp. 102-119
- Rutherford, W. (1987). *Second Language Grammar: Learning and Teaching*. Harlow: Longman.
- Swan, M. (2001). Seven Bad Reasons for Teaching Grammar - and two good ones. In J. C. Richards, and W. A. Renandya (Eds). *Methodology in Language Teaching* (148-152) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Van Patten, W. (1993). Grammar-Teaching for the Acquisition- Rich Classroom. *Foreign Language Annals*, 24(4), 435-450.
- West, M. (Ed.). (1953). *A General List of English Words*. Longman: Longman.



tongue but also reviews the synonyms and reinforces the previously learned words.

Counterargument 9: When encountering synonyms, what should be emphasized are the minute differences between them rather than the similarities.

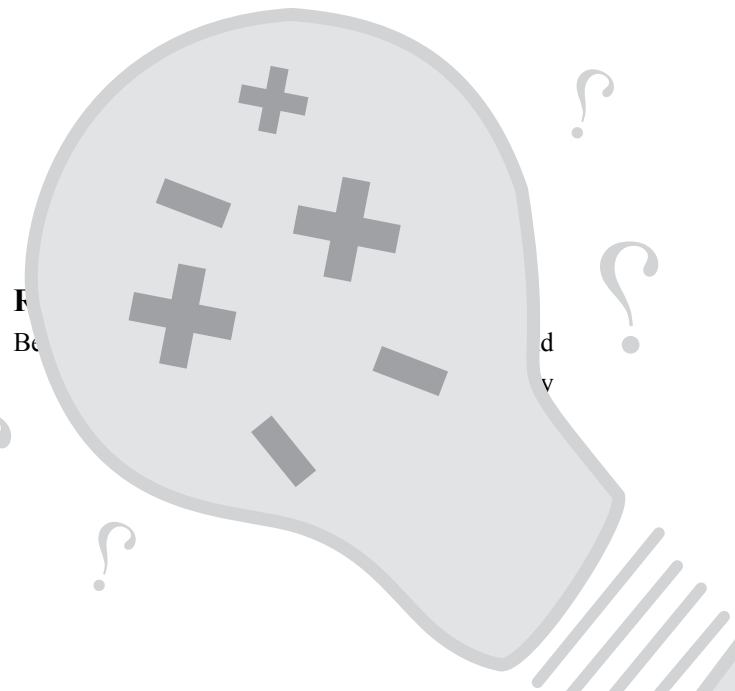
Applying Chomsky's(1991) Economy Principle can lead us to this conclusion that it will be impossible for all natural languages to have two completely identical representations for the same concept because if there are two identical words, languages themselves omit one of them as "a superfluous symbol in representation"(p.69). Therefore, if we have two or more words which are considered synonymous, definitely they would have different shades of meaning. What is important in treating these seemingly similar words is recognizing and identifying the differences not overlooking the differences and taking them as identical. For a teacher who uses synonyms as a technique of teaching, the words "foresee", "foretell", and "forecast" would be used interchangeably regardless of the minute differences in various contexts or different collocations. It seems more appropriate to suggest synonym as a technique of testing not a technique of teaching.

Conclusion

The field of SLA is one about which

everyone has their own idea. It is old in the sense that its fascinating questions have a history of centuries, and at the same time it is new in the sense that its systematic investigation to answer the questions only goes back to about 40 years ago (Gass & Seilinker, 2008). The questions raised have been given some thought by scholars of the time and some solutions have been proposed some of which firmly rooted in hunch or feelings and some of which based on empirical evidence. This article addressed some of these questions and presented the status quo of EFL classes and compared it with what research findings they would support as sound practice. The conclusion is that, teachers need to reflect on their pedagogical practices in the light of these findings. As time passes, they will be armed with professional judgment for solving their "puzzles", not necessarily problems, and experience "teacher development", not necessarily teacher training.

F
B
d
v





be.

For some foreign language teachers, vocabulary is the core component of language proficiency so they feel an urgent need for building up their learners' lexical knowledge. In line with this conviction, their learners define memorizing lengthy lists of new words in the target language as their main challenge. It seems so important for some motivated language learners that they even think of memorizing a handy pocket-sized dictionary as an ultimate solution to their permanent problem. To do so, they accumulate large quantities of the new words of all types to guarantee their comprehension and production.

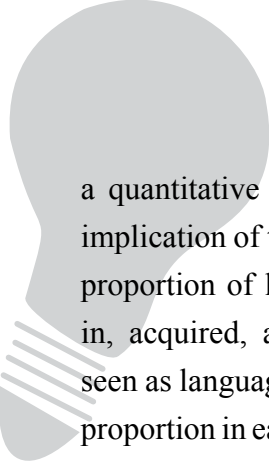
Counterargument 8: It is the quality of your lexical knowledge not its quantity that contributes to language proficiency.

Nowadays it is generally accepted that not all words enjoy the same level of usefulness; therefore, words should be prioritized according to their frequencies in authentic situations (Nation, 1990). Referring to West's (1953) General Service List, Hunt and Beglar believe that about 2,000 highly frequent words cover 87% of an average nonacademic text and 80% of an average academic text. In another study, Nation (2001) showed that the highest frequency 1,000 word families constitute to over 80% of corpuses of conversational English and fiction, over

75% of newspaper texts, and over 70% of academic texts. Therefore, the good news for second language learners and second language teachers is that a small number of the words of English occur very frequently and if a learner knows these words, that learner will know a very large proportion of the running words in a written or spoken text. Most of these words are content words and knowing enough of them allows a good degree of comprehension or production. But knowing a word is more than just knowing its denotative meaning. Therefore, learners are recommended to invest qualitatively on acquiring the most frequent words through extensive reading, rather than accumulating a large quantity of words through list memorization.

Misconception 9: Using synonyms is a valuable technique of teaching vocabulary.

Using synonyms in teaching a foreign language dates back to the time when the use of the mother tongue was forbidden (Larsen-Freeman, 2001). It was welcomed by proponents of the direct method and audio-lingual methods. In a typical classroom run based on these methods, the first reaction towards an unknown word was bridging the gap by providing a synonym for it. This technique is still considered as a prestigious one because it not only teaches a new word efficiently without the intervening effect of the mother



a quantitative point of view, one logical implication of this new mode is that not all proportion of language data can be taken in, acquired, and finally accessed to be seen as language production. In fact, some proportion in each stage is lost temporarily. From a qualitative point of view, what enters each stage and what comes out of it may be different in essence. This is because the learners' cognitive structure has its pattern of analysis or its own raw materials left from previous analyses. Consequently, those teachers who teach a grammatical point in a particular way in one session and expect their learners to give it back equally and thoroughly in the next session overlook the reducing effect of these intermediate stages and intervening effect of cognitive structure.

Misconception 7: Words are coins exchangeable from one language to another language according to a fixed exchanging rate.

All languages have so many words to turn percepts into concepts and visa versa. If a concept is shared by two speakers of two different languages, these two languages have different words in the surface structure for which there is a common origin in the deep structure. Therefore, /mæn/ in English, /mærd/ in Persian, and /ælræj?l/ in Arabic are superficially different realizations of the same concept. If this is right, it will be acceptable for foreign language learners to

change these surface forms into each other exactly the same as dealers who exchange different currencies because all of them are essentially money.

Counterargument 7: Every word in every language is unique and should be learned within the full context of the culture of that language.

A century ago Jespersen illustrated an example to assert that no word can be exactly translated into other languages (Cook, 1991). He argued that a bird which is called "bat" in English has other equivalents in other languages and each equivalent shows the way speakers of that language view the most salient perceived characteristic feature of this bird. Here a question is raised: If a concrete object like a bird is viewed differently by speakers of different languages, what happens to abstract concepts such as democracy, freedom, and faith? To make it tangible, do the words /deməkrə:si/ for Iranians and /di'məkrəsi/ for Americans share identical concepts? For most teachers these two words need a colon (:) in share because the former is the loan translation of the latter. But if somebody views a word -whether concrete or abstract - from the filter of his own worldview, their grasp is definitely sterile because that word is meaningless out of the context of its own culture.

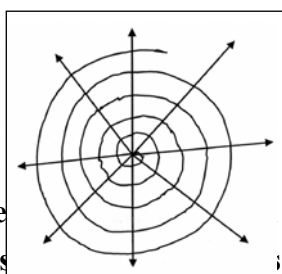
Misconception 8: The more vocabulary you know, the more proficient you will

calls this view the “accumulated entities” view of language learning.

Counterargument 5: Students learn grammatical items in a spiral cyclical organic fashion.

For most researchers linear additive fashion of learning grammar is not valid enough (Rutherford, 1987). These researchers propose a spiral cyclical mode of learning, instead. To understand this model better, consider a curved line in a snail shape which has also some straight lines from its center cutting the curved line many times periodically. The curved line is metaphorically the track which the learners should go in their journey of learning grammar and each straight line is a grammatical point which is encountered by those who are traveling in this track. In this model every grammatical item is dealt with in an infinite number of times and in every instance of encountering, the learners’ understanding of that particular item becomes deeper. Therefore, there is no end to the final state of internalization of grammar in learners’ cognitive structure.

Misconception of learners is the same to the same

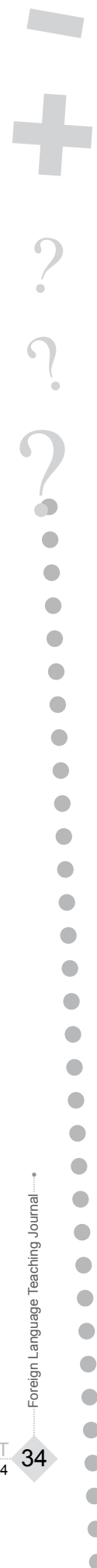


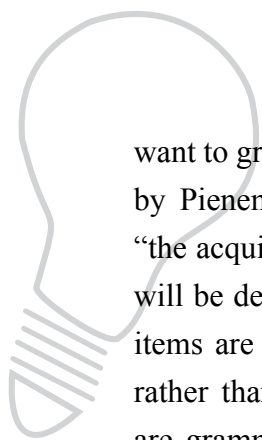
amount of output.

Like any other processes, the language acquisition process begins with some raw material and ends with a kind of product while something happens in between ironically in a “black box”. This conceptualization of the language process makes some teachers view the whole process as an equation in which more amount of input leads to more amount of output. In fact, for these teachers this process doesn’t have any by-product or wastage. Therefore, they expect the same amount of output as they gave to their learners some time ago as input. This is apparent in most teachers’ approach when they teach a lesson and evaluate it in the next session.

Counterargument 6: The learner’s mind is not an assembly line in which input and output are equal quantitatively and qualitatively.

Krashen (1985) argues that not every kind of input is appropriate for the process of natural acquisition of language. He believes that if input is comprehensible it eventually [my emphasis] leads to output. Some other researchers go on to consider some intermediate stages between the starting point of input and the final stage of output (Van Patten, 1993; Ellis, 1994). In their proposed mode between input and the output stages, there are intake stage, acquisition stage, and access stage. From





want to grade the selected items. Research by Pienemann and Johnson showed that “the acquisition of grammatical structures will be determined by how difficult those items are to process psycholinguistically, rather than how simple or complex they are grammatically” (Nunan, 1988, p.33). Therefore, it will be a logical conclusion to say that those items that are grammatically complex will not necessarily be those which are difficult to learn.

Misconception 4: Students acquire grammatical morphemes according to the order we teach them.

Grammatical morphemes are those morphemes that express grammatical aspects, such as person, number, tense, aspect, case, etc. Examples of these morphemes are plural “-s”, progressive “-ing”, regular past tense “-ed”, third person “-s”, and possessive “-s” (Cook, 1991). For most teachers these grammatical morphemes are of different levels of difficulty so it will be logical to grade them according to the perceived level of complexity and teach them in an additive manner.

Counterargument 4: Students have their own order for acquisition of grammatical morphemes.

In the early 1970s, it was revealed that English children learn the grammatical morphemes in a definite sequence

(Brown, 1973). Similar order was found in L2 acquisition by L2 researchers such as Dulay and Burt in 1974. Their findings showed that the order in the acquisition of L2 grammatical morphemes is as follows: plural “s”, progressive “ing”, copula “be”, auxiliary “be”, articles, irregular past, third person “s”, and possessive “s” (Cook, 1991). A quick look at this list shows that this order doesn’t necessarily reflect the order of complexity. What these findings give us at the first sight is an order which is independent of what teachers teach. In fact, learners have their own “inbuilt syllabus” which determines the order of acquisition regardless of the order which teachers follow in teaching grammar.

Misconception 5: Grammatical items are learned one by one in an additive sequential static fashion.

Being inspired by most grammar books, many teachers divide the whole body of grammar into so many subdivisions. For these teachers, every grammatical item is independent of others so they select one of them, work on it, and finally assess their learners on that particular item. They believe that by elaboration on all grammatical items in this way gradually the whole body of grammar takes shape. This view is reflected in synthetic syllabuses which dissect the language into its smallest components to teach them one at a time in an additive linear mode. Rutherford (1987)

strategies. Therefore, if a person wants to be proficient in using a second language, he/she should know more than just grammar and vocabulary of that language.

Misconception 2: We teach grammar because we think it is necessary.

For most teachers teaching grammar is an integral part of their teaching practice. This notion dates back to the time when “Grammar Translation Method” was the dominant method of teaching (Richards & Rogers, 2001). For these teachers, teaching intricacies of grammar is the backbone of their teaching activities because without grammar even the highest level of lexical knowledge cannot result in language comprehension or production. The relative importance of grammar makes so many teachers to allocate considerable amount of time to teaching grammar and in return expect learners to memorize lists of grammar rules.

Counterargument 2: Teachers tend to concentrate on grammar mainly because it is reassuring and comforting.

Michael Swan (2001) in his article, “Seven Bad Reason for Teaching Grammar and Two Good Ones”, rejects the proposed reasons by teachers for teaching too much grammar and lists seven hidden reasons. He believes that teachers teach grammar because: 1) it is there, 2) it is tidy, 3) it is testable, 4) it is a security blanket, 5)

it makes us who we are, 6) it is a whole system, and 7) it is a tool of power. What this list gives us are some hidden reasons for teaching so much grammar. In fact, if language teachers get to know about the roots of their strong tendency for teaching grammar, it may help them to revise their seemingly sound rationale for so much elaboration on grammar.

Misconception 3: Grammatical complexity equates learning difficulty.

For most teachers it seems logical to consider a positive correlation between complexity level of a grammatical item and its level of difficulty. These teachers believe that those grammatical items which are difficult to teach are difficult to learn and those which are easy to teach are necessarily simple to acquire on the part of the learners. Consequently, these teachers allocate more time elaborating on those grammatical items whose teaching entails detailed explanations and a lengthy list of exceptions. Similarly, apparently easy items deserve a short simple description.

Counterargument 3: Simplicity and complexity of grammatical items should be defined psycholinguistically not linguistically.

The equation of teachability - learnability is the core assumption of grammatical syllabuses which suggests that easy items should precede difficult ones when we



enterprise” (Elbow, 1973, p.145). Treating the present article about misconceptions in language teaching also entails this intellectual enterprise. Some of the ideas presented as misconceptions may be strong axiomatic convictions for some readers. My suggestion is “wait a minute” and “ don’t start doubting game”. If you try to explore the nuggets, you definitely see some merit in them.

Current Misconceptions

Research on second or foreign language acquisition is trying to find solutions to the problems of language learning. As the time passes, better keys are provided for the locks in this domain. But it takes time for some people to upgrade their views toward issues encountering them. Some people resist so dogmatically that the result of successive revisions of an idea on a particular issue stands against their current view toward that issue. The first step for keeping up with the latest developments in this domain is to provide them with two pictures: the first picture is supposed to show them the reality of what they think and do in their practices, and the second picture should reveal what is suggested by research findings. In what follows, the former is presented as “misconception” and the latter as “counterargument”

Misconception1: Language learning means lexical knowledge and

grammatical knowledge.

For many years language was defined as a finite system of elements and rules that makes it possible for speakers to construct grammatical sentences (Finegan & Besiner, 1989). This definition considers language as consisting of two main components. One of them is “vocabulary” and the other one is structural patterns which we call “grammar”. The logical implication for language teachers can be the notion that language competence constitutes only vocabulary and grammar. Such an attitude is attributed to Chomsky (1965) when he proposed the notion of linguistic competence.

Counterargument 1: Linguistic knowledge accounts for only a small proportion of communicative competence.

As an objection to Chomsky’s grammatical competence, Hymes (1972) argued that linguistic competence constitutes only one element of communicative competence; what is more important is knowing how to use that knowledge appropriately for the activities in which speakers want to take part. For Hymes and his proponents, communicative competence also covers sociolinguistic competence – knowledge of the relationship between language and nonlinguistic context, discourse competence – knowledge of how to begin and end a conversation, and strategic competence-the knowledge of communication

Introduction

The field of language teaching as an arena of human endeavor is a puzzle whose pieces are set gradually (Brown, 2000). In its course of development some pieces should be rearranged to be fitted into a more efficient paradigm for solving the current issues. The initial ideas for solving this puzzle were inspired by common sense because there were no other points of reference such as rigorous schools of thought. Educational authorities of the time had a “feel” for do’s and don’ts of teaching and learning. Therefore, they put the puzzle pieces according to their feelings. As the schools of psychology and linguistics shed more lights on this field, the puzzle tended to take a new arrangement accordingly. But the location of some pieces seems so axiomatic that the research findings cannot take them or remove their remaining traces. Consequently, some teachers are still following the preceding version of the puzzle and refrain from keeping up with the innovations in language teaching. This article tries to depict two clear pictures one of which is what is happening in our classes as reality and the other is what research findings support by empirical evidence.

Setting the Scene: Stop Doubting Game

When Diane Larsen-Freeman (2001) wanted to write her famous book–

Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching– to elaborate on the debatable point of “Methods” which had been under attack by the majority (see for example, Kumaravadivelu, 1994), she referred to an article by Peter Elbow (1973) to provide some justification for her work. She wrote about her own experience about Caleb Gattegno’s “the Silent Way”, and two opposing voices in her head. According to her, these two voices - “On the other hand” and “Wait a minute “– resembled two games proposed in Elbow’s article – The Doubting Game and the Believing Game. In his article, Peter Elbow points out that most academics or intellectuals are obsessed with one method of approaching new ideas - the doubting game which looks for errors and contradictions. Elbow’s article is a plea for a more balanced approach that also includes the “believing game.” The believing game allows you to believe everything intentionally. In other words, the doubting game is the disciplined practice of trying to be as skeptical as possible with every idea we encounter. In contrast, the believing game is the disciplined practice of trying to be as accepting as possible to every idea we encounter.

Elbow’s article implies that in encountering new ideas most people take an extreme position by complete rejection or complete acceptance. None of these positions result in an “intellectual



چکیده

آموزش زبان دوم همیشه عرصه‌ی ظهور نگرش‌ها و نظریات متفاوتی بوده است که ابتدا براساس ذهنیات و تصورات افراد شکل گرفته‌اند و سپس به دفعات در بوته‌ی آزمایش تحقیقات علمی اصلاح و ویرایش شده‌اند. در این میان، ظهور مکاتب فکری در حوزه‌های روان‌شناسی و زبان‌شناسی نیز بر شکل‌گیری نگرش‌ها در این حوزه‌ی میان‌رشته‌ای بی‌تأثیر نبوده است. اما بین آن‌چه در کلاس‌های زبان‌آموزی در جریان است و آن‌چه که نگرش‌های غالب برگرفته از یافته‌های تحقیقی پیش روی ما قرار می‌دهد، تفاوت کاملاً محسوسی وجود دارد. این تفاوت در سیستم‌های آموزشی سنتی که در مقابل تغییرات مقاومت زیادی از خود نشان می‌دهند، ملموس‌تر به نظر می‌رسد.

مسلم است که بخش اعظمی از فعالیتهای یاددهی - یادگیری رایج در کلاس‌های زبان، متأثر از نگرش‌های معلمان در خصوص پدیده‌ی زبان و موضوعات مربوط به زبان‌آموزی است. بخشی از این نگرش‌ها ریشه در اولین تجربیات معلمان در برخورد با زبان دوم دارد که سالیان قبل به‌عنوان دانش‌آموز کسب کرده‌اند [لورتی، ۱۹۷۵] و امروزه به‌گونه‌ای پیچیده، باورها، نگرش‌ها و در نتیجه رویکرد آن‌ها را در کلاس‌ها تعیین می‌کنند. به نظر می‌رسد تأثیر نگرش‌های حاصله تا آن‌جاست که تجربیات جدید از صافی (فیلتر) این نگرش‌ها تفسیر می‌شوند [پیچارس، ۱۹۹۲] و نتایج حاصل از یافته‌های تحقیقی تأثیر چندانی بر ویرایش و اصلاحشان نداشته باشد [ریچاردسون، ۱۹۹۶]. لذا ضروری به نظر می‌رسد، معلمان با استفاده از ابزار فراشناختی، نگرش‌های خود را مورد بازبینی و ارزیابی قرار دهند و با مقایسه‌ی آن‌ها با نگرش‌های علمی موجود در ادبیات این حوزه، در راستای ارتقای کیفی عملکرد خود گام بردارند.

در راستای تحقق این هدف، مقاله‌ی حاضر تلاش دارد به بررسی برخی از نگرش‌های زبان‌آموزی رایج در نظام آموزش و پرورش بپردازد که با نگرش‌های جدید این حوزه هم‌سویی ندارند. نظر به این‌که در نظام آموزشی مذکور، متأثر از تعریف سنتی از زبان، تأکید خاصی بر اجزای گرامر و واژگان می‌شود، تصورات نادرست در این دو حوزه تمرکز اصلی این مقاله است. در این راستا، ابتدا نگرش‌های رایج در کلاس‌های زبان انگلیسی در دو حوزه‌ی گرامر و واژگان تحت عنوان «تصورات نادرست» (misconceptions) مطرح می‌شود و سپس نگرش‌های مذکور با استفاده از نظریات و یافته‌های تحقیقی تحت عنوان «دیدگاه مخالف» (counterargument) به چالش کشیده می‌شوند.

بدیهی است، تغییر آنی و دفعی نگرش معلمان هدف این مقاله نیست، چرا که نویسنده بر این باور است که تغییر مثبت در نگرش معلمان فرایندی طولانی مدت است که از طریق مسلح کردن آن‌ها با ابزار قضاوت امکان دارد. لذا مباحث مطرح شده تحت عنوان دیدگاه مخالف، بیش از آن‌که تجویز یک نگرش باشند، باید نگاهی متفاوت از منظری دیگر به پدیده تلقی شوند که به استاد علمی بودن، از ظرفیت کیفیت‌بخشی بهره‌مند هستند.

کلیدواژه‌ها: آموزش زبان دوم، انگلیسی به عنوان زبان خارجی، اجزای زبان، تصورات نادرست، دستور زبان (گرامر)، واژگان.

Abstract

This article aims at investigating the current misconceptions prevalent in EFL classes in guidance schools and high schools in Iran. In doing so, based on what Iranian teachers do as their daily practices for teaching English as a foreign language, their general attitudes toward language and its components will be identified. Because of the strong tendency for working on grammar and vocabulary in the given context, these two components will be the focus of attention. To evaluate the status of the current attitudes, this will be weighed against the research findings in the field of SLA. The perceived incorrect ideas are presented as “misconceptions” and the research findings on that particular idea come under the title “counterarguments”. The pedagogical implications of such an interface will be presented in the counterargument section.

Keyword: misconceptions, EFL, class, language components, grammar, vocabulary, SLA



Abolfazl Khodamoradi
TEFL Ph.D. student, Payame Noor University
khodamoradia@yahoo.com

Current Misconceptions in Language Teaching in EFL Classes in Iran



A successful teacher is one who makes students express their ideas freely about the teacher's management and knowledge so that s/he can remove his/her weak points in the course of time.

◆ Cause and Effect

Teachers and students affect one another. None of them is the absolutely pre-established cause or effect of the other's behavior. We should not attribute a student's failure to his teacher's teaching and vice versa. At large, we often criticize the low quality of English textbooks and language planning; nevertheless, we may never have written to the authorities in the ministry of education about their policies. We as teachers are guilty as well and to play our roles, we should first change ourselves, our approaches and the like to take measures to improve others. With reference to oriental sociology, we are too conservative to react to many adversities around which are of no use to us. To achieve great goals, we must primarily begin reforming ourselves.

◆ Financial Problems

Everyone knows that teachers as well as other employees have financial problems. There may not be space for initiative, creativity and motivation if teachers overload themselves with extra work. Some teachers may occasionally claim that since their salaries are low, it is not necessary to

do their best in classes. However, this is not justifiable because financial issues are not limited to teachers in one country. In a profession like teaching self-actualization might be a strong motivation compensatory for low salary.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Beker, D. (1989). *Language Testing: A Critical Survey and Practical Guide*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Beebe, L. (1983). Risk Taking and the Language Learner. In H. Selinger and M. Long (eds), *Classroom Oriented Research in Second Language Acquisition*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching (Fifth Edition)*. New York: Pearson.
- Clark, J. L. (1987). *Curriculum Renewal in Foreign Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Curran, C. A. (1976). *Counseling-Learning in Second Language*. Apple River: Apple River Press.
- Kotob, A. (2006). Language Planning in Syria. *International TELLSI Conference*. Shiraz University.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The Input Hypothesis*. London: Longman.
- Nunan, D. (1999). *Second Language Teaching and Learning*. New York: Newbury House.
- O'Neil, R. (1982). Why use textbooks? *ELT Journal*, 36(2).
- Richards, J. and Renandya, W. A. (2002). *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Schmitt, N. (2002). *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Taylor, D. S. (1994). Inauthentic Authenticity of Authentic Inauthenticity. *TESL-Eg*, 1(2).
- Thomas, L. (1996). Language as Power. A Linguistic Critique of U.S. English. *Modern Language*

what extent we are really loyal to the ups and downs of the task.

◆ Teacher's Advice

Advising students in many ways, e.g. telling them in a friendly manner to follow social norms and mores, not smoking and not imitating extreme fashions blindly is of paramount importance. Teachers may be drastically influenced by a few students' radical behavior, but their advice can actually be more effective than that addressed even by their parents. If a teacher witnesses a student behaving wrongly or smoking in the school yard or university campus, his appropriate advice in context can be more useful than a psychologist's consultation. According to Curran (1976), teachers and students must have trust in one another, otherwise their cycle of equilibration is doomed to failure.

◆ Teacher's Experience, Tolerance and Flexibility

As long as we are students, we may honour and thank teachers neglecting to carry out their duties like bestowing generous grades, acting carelessly, etc, but when we graduate and become teachers, we shall adopt a completely opposite attitude to them. If at the outset of a term a teacher claims that nobody would fail in his exams, most of the students would assess him positively just on the grounds of blind benefit since they are not so mature and far-sighted to distinguish

right from wrong. As a matter of fact, we must enlighten the students in this respect and make them aware of the fact that they are supposed to run the country in the future. A successful teacher is one who makes use of his previous faults and errors and has the courage to be flexible in teaching instead of insisting on his dogmatic ideas.

Teachers' tolerance as an asset should not be ascape out minds. Are teachers tolerant enough to react appropriately to students' criticisms and suggestions or do they take revenge on students by failing them or scoring their papers in a prejudiced way? A successful teacher is the one who makes students express their ideas freely about the teacher's management and knowledge so that s/he can remove his/her weak points in the course of time.

Beebe (1983) argues that flexibility and risk taking are important characteristics of successful learners of a second language. However, this should not be restricted only to students; teachers who venture to take risks in their approaches to teaching and testing also gain the upper hand. For example, no end of a continuum is recommended in testing: neither too strict and tough nor too mild and lenient. If a testee gets nine or so on an exam, teachers should not think that it is his/her true score. All measurements are prone to errors, so teachers should be realistic in their judgment and it is not blasphemous to recover a student's grade like that aforementioned.

their classes late and terminate them early or waste student's time in the classroom? If a teacher shortens his class time un/intentionally or miss it because of some trouble, does he make an effort to compensate for it? What will be our outlook to a teacher behaving similarly toward our children? Unfortunately, some teachers deal with peripheral matters in the classroom at the exclusion of doing their jobs in the real sense of the word.

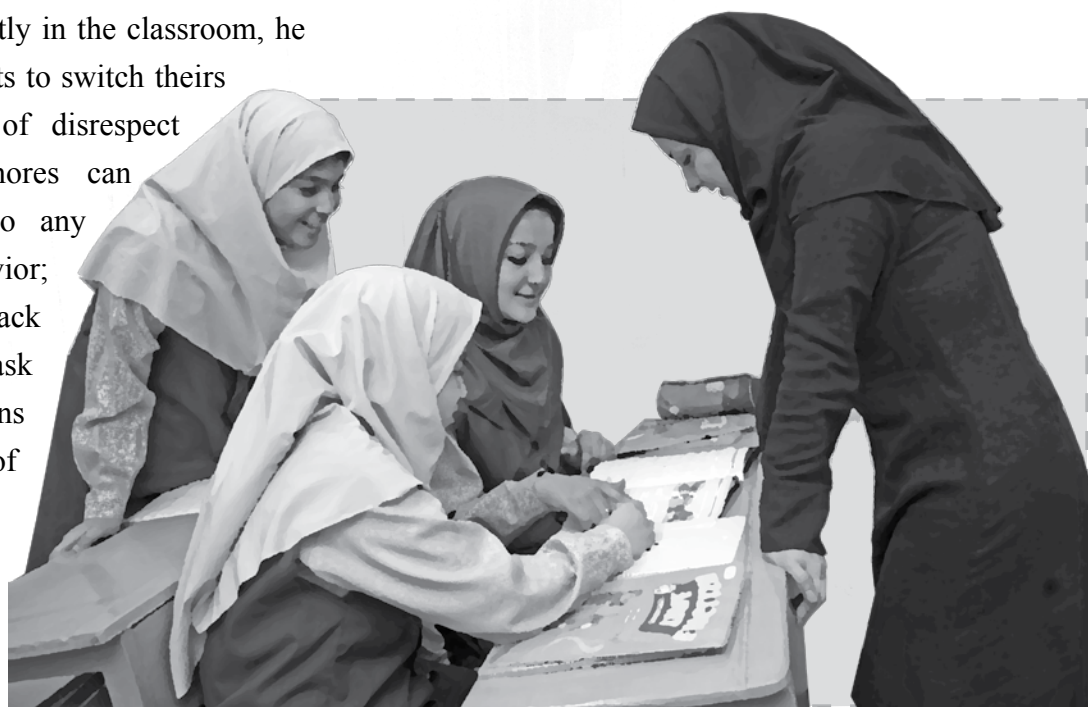
◆ Punctuality and Discipline

Considering the Persian proverb, 'time is gold'. one might think that Iranians are sensitive to time; nevertheless, the readers can use their judgment in this connection. If a teacher is not punctual, he cannot advise students to be punctual, This easy going attitude toward time will be transferred to students very quickly. The observation that some students attend their classes late at all time might indicate this attitude toward time.

If a teacher's mobile phone is on and he uses it frequently in the classroom, he cannot tell students to switch theirs off. This sense of disrespect to rules and mores can be generalized to any aspect of behavior; for example, the lack of interest to ask students questions on the part of

the teacher can lead to the escalation of some sense of passivity and laziness on the part of the students. It is right to think that all jobs are important and complementary of each other; thus, they should be applauded on the condition that they are fairly actualized. Assume that someone is building a house and a civil engineer responsible for supervising its construction does not control the process of its development at all. What will be the people's reaction to this person's expertise and commitment and what sort of hatred will his behavior invoke among them?

Being a physician may be the most popular profession in today's world; however, if a physician is not ready to spend enough time on having a close look at a patient's medical test taken with a lot of problems, examining him carefully, or at least listening to his complaints psychologically, what will be the patient's reaction to that physician? In many official gatherings teachers' job is likened to that of prophets, but the question is to



Textbooks can provide only a core of materials as a jumping-off point for the teacher and the class, so a great deal of work in a class may start with the textbook but end outside it.

and general English in universities and higher education centres, we realize that the majority of students have not learnt the rudimentary points. This raises the question why using up so much time, energy and budget results in little achievement. For example, out of about sixty thousand students admitted to technical-and-professional institutes in Iran in 2008, about fifty per cent of students' English grades in the entrance examination held by the state measurement and evaluation organization was zero. Shouldn't teachers bear at least some of the responsibility of these disastrous failure?

◆ Teachers' Tasks

It is taken for granted that teaching English as a foreign language is not an easy task; it is very similar to teaching first grade children at elementary schools. Primary school teachers utilize any moment in class, monitor students' involvement, give dictation, administer formal and informal tests, interact with students and so on. What adds to their sacrifice is their weekly construction of different tests and taking students' papers and notebooks

home for correction and giving comments. Furthermore, the intimate relationship they have with students is really appreciated in as much as they learn the student's names in the first few weeks of the new school year and adapt themselves to different personality types. What about teachers of English language? How much time do we really spend on students' activities and working outside the classroom? It seems that the higher the students' level of education, the more distant educational and social relationship develop between teachers and students. While we as teachers can discuss theoretical issue of affective filter hypothesis (Krashen, 1985), we are probably the first group violating it in practice.

◆ Paradoxical Complaints about the Lack of Time

Many times we as teachers complain that there is not sufficient time to cover English textbooks or to teach them in details, but we often finish teaching them before the term ends and give our class time to other colleagues teaching mathematics, physics, etc. How many teachers review materials, hold quizzes and classroom tests, give remedial assignments, make students practice English spirally if they finish the books earlier than due time? The paradox lies in the fact that we often suggest students they are free not to attend classes since the textbook has been apparently covered. What occurs if teachers attend

textbooks can be spoilt by uninterested and inefficient teachers. It is right in assuming that on many occasions teachers put the blame on English textbooks, the lack of time for teaching them and so the like, but reflective teachers need to put their own behaviour under scrutiny to see how they themselves can become more efficient in the process of instruction. Taking the view that students have the potentiality to adapt to new conditions created by teachers, we should focus on teachers' forms on teachers' dynamism and responsibilities in the hope that we can come to a number of attributes which can be considered as crucial for effective teaching.

◆ Imprecise Evaluation and Scoring

Students at some high schools and universities pass some courses with so divergent grades that responsible teachers are shocked. For instance, a student at a university fails an exam, but when he takes it again with another instructor at the same or at another academic centre, he gets an excellent score. This phenomenon indicates a serious problem with the testing procedures. This should make us think whether we need a real test or a ceremony. According to Baker (1989), if an institute holds a test without failing any student due to the need for their fees or any other policy, it can be considered a ceremony and not a test. Why should not a student

fail if he has not acquired the materials acceptably? It is our conviction that the illiteracy of the present generation would lead to academic failure in the future and if teachers let this process go on, the vicious circle of illiteracy will be more and more deeply rooted in society. Suppose that some students are not qualified enough to pass a test but a teacher gives them passing grades, what will be its consequence for teachers instructing the same students at higher levels? Will not they be discouraged from trying hard? We have actually met some knowledgeable and devoted teachers who have been disappointed by encountering a mass of weak students due to indifference of the previous teachers to students' failure. If different teacher-made language tests are analyzed in the light of principles and theories of testing, it will be revealed that the majority are devoid of the quality of a good test, that is, validity and reliability. The conclusion is that teachers should be conscious of the quality of their tests and their responsibility to make sure students deserve the grade they achieve.

◆ Reflective Teaching

When students are asked about their failure in learning English, they often attribute it to inappropriate teaching. On the other hand, teachers pass the buck to students. Assuming that students are downright wrong and teachers' claims are right, but when we teach remedial

in a society. It is evident that the choice of a FL would be more controversial than the former case. Policy makers determine a foreign language in regard with its global status, the key goals of its teaching and learning, and the amount of time spent on it. Clark (1987) argues that any decision made can be either bottom-up or top-down. In the former, the authorities garner information from various sources, e.g. pertinent conferences, questionnaires filled by professors, teachers and students, needs analysis, etc, for any judgement. However, in the top-down category a team of policy makers make subjective judgements based on their own impression of the current situation. It is deemed relevant to mention that none of the above extreme decisions are made in isolation. They are rather operationalized in an integrative manner. At this stage, the authorities specify the foreign language, English or any other language, the pedagogical objectives, the age of the learners, the allotted time to teaching it and budget. For example, the inception of teaching English at elementary schools in Japan (Richards and Renandya, 2002) and in Syria (Kotob, 2006) are manifestations of policy making and language planning.

Material Development

Syllabus design and the development of textbooks are the most tangible aspects of policy making and language planning.

They reflect the skills and elements as the content of teaching and the teaching method(s) to be used to teach the content. It is evident that the content and method, should be consistent with the respective approach(es) concerning the function of language and the way it is learned. Therefore, teaching materials are a key component in most language programs since they serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive. According to Taylor (1994), materials need to be 'authentic-like' in the sense that language is not artificially constrained. The more realistic the language, the more easily it can cater for the range of proficiency levels found in many classes. O'Neill (1982) argues that textbooks can provide only a core of materials as a jumping-off point for the teacher and the class, so a great deal of work in a class may start with the textbook but end outside it.

Teachers and Students

There is no doubt that teachers and students are the most active and adaptable building blocks in any educational context, through whom all objectives are fulfilled. No language planning and syllabus design per se guarantee success in learning a foreign language. Teaching experience reveals that on the one hand teachers in cooperation with students can make the best use of poorly developed materials and on the other hand well-known communicative

تنیده بستگی دارد که میزان و کیفیت آن را تعیین می‌کنند.

هدف این مقاله، مورد بحث قرار دادن سه بعد سیاست‌گذاری و برنامه‌ریزی زبان، تهیه و تدوین مطالب درسی و نقش معلمان و دانش‌آموزان به عنوان پایه‌های زیربنایی آموزش می‌باشد. اگرچه این بحث، به آموزش و یادگیری انگلیسی به عنوان یک زبان خارجی در ایران محدود شده است اما می‌توان آن را به حوزه‌های دیگر نیز تعمیم داد. از آن جایی که پرداختن به چنین موضوع گسترده‌ای به طور عمیق در یک مقاله نمی‌گنجد، ابتدا نگاهی اجمالی به دو عنصر تعیین‌کننده‌ی اول خواهیم داشت و سپس به تفصیل به نقش معلمان خواهیم پرداخت.

کلید واژه‌ها: برنامه‌ریزی زبان، تهیه و تدوین مطالب درسی، اصالت، ساختار، ارزشیابی، اعتبار، روایی، نمرات واقعی

Abstract

Education is a complex and delicate process interwoven with cognitive, affective, social and political factors surrounding it in various contexts. The breadth of the concept has been an impetus for scholars and educationists to scratch the surface from different perspectives. The acquisition of L1 in general and learning L2 in particular have not been escaped thorough consideration in recent years because of the major changes in theory and practice. According to Nunan (1999), these changes have been driven by changes in educational theory, thoughts about language and learning, and the development of research which have provided important insights and ideas for classroom practitioners. Schmitt (2002) contends that learners should not be viewed as somehow a container into which language knowledge could be poured, but there is an intricate web of variables spun together to affect learning. The aim of this paper is to elaborate on three dimensions of education namely policy making and language planning, material development, and teachers and students as the underlying foundations of education. Although the topic has been restricted to teaching and learning English as a foreign language in our country, it can be generalized to other disciplines. Due to the fact that it is unlikely to deal with such a broad topic in depth in a single paper, we shall have a glance at the first two determinant elements and provide more space to the central role of teachers.

Key Words: language planning, material development, authenticity, context, evaluation, validity, reliability, true scores

Policy Making and Language Planning

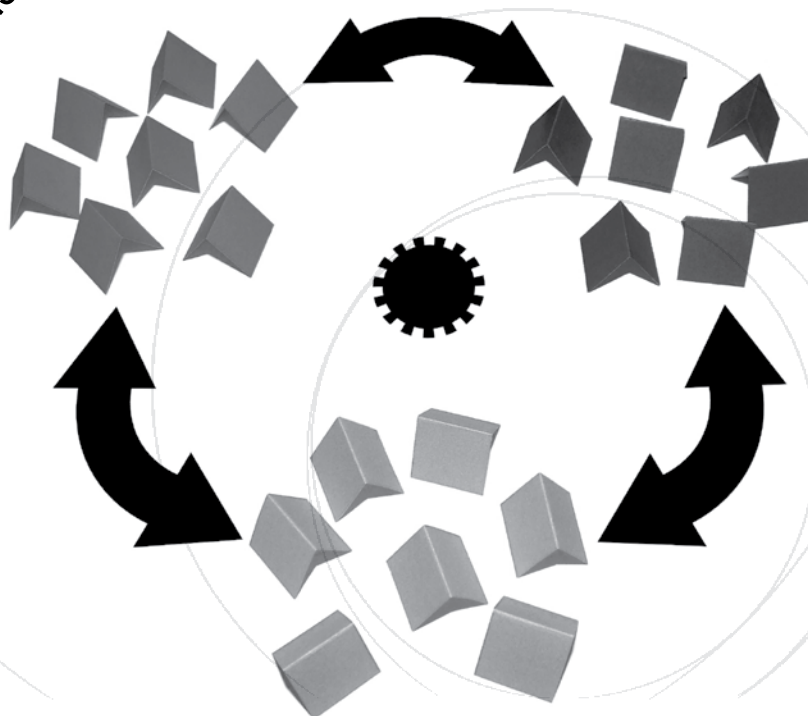
The issue of language policy involves decisions by some political entity like the ministry of education to offer education in a designated foreign language. According

to Thomas (1996), a tremendous clash of value systems including cultural pluralism, ethnicity, race, power, status, politics, etc. is brought to bear on ultimate decisions about the official language of a country and this sometimes leads to segregation tendencies



Knowledge
Improvement

Underlying Foundation of Education with an Emphasis on the Role of Teachers



Taher Sarhady (MA in ELT)

Faculty member of Sanandaj Technical Institute

t4sarhady@yahoo.com

چکیده

«آموزش» فرایند پیچیده‌ای است که با عوامل شناختی، عاطفی، اجتماعی و سیاسی در محیط‌های مختلف درهم تنیده شده است. گستره‌ی وسیع این مفهوم، انگیزه‌ای برای محققان و پژوهشگران آموزش و پرورش بوده است تا موضوع را از دیدگاه‌های مختلف مورد مطالعه قرار دهند. یادگیری زبان اول به طور کلی، و زبان دوم به عنوان یک زبان خارجی، به‌طور اخص و به دلیل وقوع تغییرات عمده در نظریه و عمل، در طول سال‌های اخیر، مورد توجه قرار گرفته است. نونن (۱۹۹۹) معتقد است که این تفاوت به علت تغییر در نظریه‌های آموزش، عقاید مربوط به زبان و یادگیری و پیشرفت در تحقیق بوده است که دیدگاه‌ها و ایده‌های مهمی را برای معلمان فراهم کرده است. اشمیت (۲۰۰۲) معتقد است نباید به فراگیران به عنوان ظرف‌هایی نگاه کرد که می‌توان دانش زبان را در آن‌ها ریخت. به نظر وی یادگیری به شبکه‌ی پیچیده‌ای از متغیرهای درهم

involved, in some way or another, in TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) as it focused on the crucial role that 'frequency information' (in particular) and corpora-derived information (in general) can play in the process of syllabus design. Materials developers, for example, may be encouraged to consult frequency-based word lists and also the outcomes of corpus-based analyses of language (information on collocation and phraseology, for instance) in developing new textbooks. At the same time, reading this study may encourage language teachers to take more advantage of the insightful dictionaries written on the basis of 'frequency of occurrence 'during teaching 'vocabulary' or 'syntactic patterns' to learners if they are interested to expose them to the vocabulary or syntactic patterns of various frequencies in accordance with their proficiency levels and / or their special needs.

References:

- Academic Word List (AWL), Available online, <http://www.vuw.ac.nz/lals/div1/awl/>
- Cobb, T. (2003). Analyzing Late Interlanguage with Learner Corpora: Quebec replications of three European studies. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 59(3), 393-423. Retrieved May 14, 2005, from <http://www.er.uqam.ca/nobel/r21270/cv/LC3.html>
- General Service List (GSL), Available online, <http://jbauman.com/gsl.html>
- Laufer, B. & Nation, P. (1995). Vocabulary size and se: Lexical richness in L2 Written Production, *Applied Linguistics*, 16, 307-322.
- Meara, P. & Nation, P. (2002). Vocabulary. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics* (pp. 35-54). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Meyer, C. F. (2002). *English Corpus Linguistics an Introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nation, P & Waring, R. (n.d)Vocabulary Size, Text Coverage and Word Lists. Retrieved May 13, 2006, from <http://www.1harenet.ne.jp/~waring/papers/cup.html>
- Reppen, R. & Simpson, R. (2002). Corpus Linguistics. In N. Schmitt (Ed.) *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics* (pp.92-111). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Tomlinson, B. (1998). Glossary of Basic Terms for Materials Development in Language Teaching. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Materials Development in Language Teaching* (pp.viii-xiv). Cmbridge: Cambridge University Press.
- VocabProfile of Range program available from Paul Nation's Website http://www.vuw.ac.nz/lals/staff/Paul_Nation
- West, M. (1953). *A general Service List of English Words*. London: Longman.
- Widdowson, H. G. (2000 a). Object Language and the Language Subject: On the Mediating Role of Applied Linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 20, 21-33.
- Xiao, R. & McEnery, T. (2005). Corpora and Language Education. Retrieved March 25, 2007, from: <http://forum.corpus4u.org/showthread.php?t=75>

had already assumed that ‘low frequency’ words are representative of ‘lexically rich’ environments (and vice versa) and, on the other hand, there *must* always exist a basis for division and difference among textbooks of various grades of study so that they can best represent the textbooks assigned to be taught in various proficiency levels (grades of study). Accordingly, the existence of a significant difference among the textbooks in terms of the most frequently-used vocabulary in academic settings (AWL) can be considered as a good sign of variation among these textbooks, the point which makes them lexically appropriate.

With regard to the confirmation of the fourth null hypothesis, however, a weak point was recognized in these textbooks - It was, surprisingly enough, revealed that all these textbooks contain almost an equal number of ‘difficult words’(included in NIL word list). Evidently, this finding is in clear contrast with one of the important tenets of materials development, that is, learners should start with easy materials and end up with difficult ones. In this way, it can be argued that the principle of ‘systematic presentation’ of materials has been violated in the development of these textbooks because of incorporation of materials of the same difficulty at all levels.

Finally, the confirmation of the fifth null hypotheses which deals with intra-

textbook analysis can be considered as another indicator of the appropriate organization of the lexical content of each of these textbooks. In other words, the lack of significant difference among the lessons of each textbook whether in terms of ‘high frequency’ or ‘low frequency’ words is another desirable finding in line with pedagogic considerations because it is always recommended in syllabus design that the lessons of any given textbook should be congruent with one another in order to best represent the lessons of *one* given textbook assigned to be taught to students of *one* specific (not various) proficiency level.

Conclusion and Pedagogical

Implications:

Generally speaking, most of the results of this inter-textbook and intra-textbook lexical analysis indicated that the lexical content of these four textbooks is compatible with what ‘word frequency’ information implies for language pedagogy. Based on the obtained results, these four textbooks are considered as suitable and lexically appropriate textbooks for students at this level of study, though, a weak point was also identified (i.e. the lack of difference across textbooks, in terms of incorporation of ‘difficult words’) which is hoped to be improved by materials developers.

The present study may be of an enlightening role for those who are

applied to their LFPs revealed that there is no significant difference between them neither in terms of high frequency words (the first 2,000 most frequent words) nor in terms of low frequency ones (beyond those 2,000); therefore, the fifth null hypothesis was confirmed, too. *[Note: the LFPs of the lessons as well as X² and P values found for their comparison have not been demonstrated in this brief paper. Interested readers may contact the researcher for a full list of results].*

Discussion:

In this study, the findings on the first three hypotheses (confirmation of the first two null hypotheses as well as rejection of the third null hypothesis) are all desirable from the perspective of frequency-based pedagogical considerations, revealing that high school and pre-university English textbooks have already catered for what ‘word frequency’ information suggests for language pedagogy regarding ‘selection’ and ‘gradation’ of teaching materials in the whole process of syllabus design and materials development. The more specific reasons behind this justification are as follows:

The lack of significant difference between the textbooks in terms of the first 1,000 most frequent words and the fact that the words of this word list constitute the larger part of all these textbooks (74.5% of textbook 1, 70.5% of textbook 2, 68.2% of

textbook 3, and 62.4% of textbook 4) is not an unexpected phenomenon because this word list normally comprises ‘function’ words in English and, needless to say, ‘function words’ are abundantly used in almost any text and, at the same time, they are crucial for grasping the content of a text; therefore, the first finding is quite justified in being compatible with our expectations from the perspective of ‘frequency’ information.

Also, the lack of a significant difference between the textbooks in terms of the second word list (which consists of the most common lexis used in GE settings) can be interpreted as another sign of suitability of these textbooks for the students of these levels of study. That is because it indicates that these textbooks, regardless of students’ proficiency levels, expose students to somehow an equal number of the most common lexical word of English in GE settings throughout their four years of (partial) studying English at high school and pre-university levels; in other words, this finding provides evidence supporting the idea that all these four textbooks are rich in terms of GE vocabulary which is the mostly-needed vocabulary for students at these levels.

Moreover, the existence of a significant difference between the textbooks in terms of AWL can also be interpreted as a strong point in the development of these textbooks because, on the one hand, we

profile (LFP) of each file was obtained using VocabProfile (VP) computer program (See 'introduction section' for the procedures of producing an LFP via VP). In this way, 34 LFPs (lexical frequency profiles) constituted our collected data needed for the analysis (30 LFPs for the lessons and 4 LFPs for the textbooks).

Results:

The data were, then, submitted to statistical analysis using chi-square.

The results related to the first four research questions which all deal with the existence of any significant difference between *textbooks* in terms of any of those four word frequency lists (i.e. the first 1,000, the second 1,000, the AWL, and the NIL) are presented in table 1 in two sections: The first section of the table reports the results of Vocabulary Profile (VP) analysis which yields the LFPs of each of those four textbooks under

study and the second section of the table demonstrates the results of chi-square tests for comparison of (the LFPs of) those four textbooks in terms of any of the word lists in the study.

According to this table which, in fact, reports all the results needed for an inter-textbook analysis, there is no significant difference between these four textbooks in terms of the first 1000 most frequent words, the second 1,000 most frequent words and the NIL word lists; whereas, there is a significant difference between them in terms of AWL ($P=.02$); therefore, the null hypotheses formulated for question number 1, 2, and 4 were confirmed whereas the null hypothesis for question number 3 was rejected.

Regarding the fifth research question dealing with the existence of any significant difference between the lessons included in each textbook (in an intra-textbook analysis), the results of chi-square tests

Table 1: The analyse of Word Frequency Profiles of English Textbook

Word list	VP analysis				Chi-square test	
	Textbook 1	Textbook 2	Textbook 3	Textbook 4	X2	P
1 st 1,000	74.5	70.5	68.2	62.4	1.30	.72
2 nd 1,000	16.3	18.2	15.4	13.7	.55	.90
AWL	0.8	1.2	6.4	8.2	9.50	.02
NIL	8.4	10.1	10.0	15.7	3.27	.35

Note. The values in 'VP analysis' section represent percentages (rather than absolute values). AWL = Academic Word List; NIL = Not In the Lists. 'Chi-square test' estimated at $p < .05$ with $df = 3$.

in terms of the extent to which they have made use of *the first 1,000* most frequent words of English?

2. Is there any significant difference between *the English high school textbooks* in terms of the extent to which they have made use of *the second 1,000* most frequent words of English?

3. Is there any significant difference between *the English high school textbooks* in terms of the extent to which they have made use of *the academic vocabulary (AWL)*?

4. Is there any significant difference between *the English high school textbooks* in terms of the extent to which they have made use of the words not included in the three previous lists (NIL)?

5. Is there any significant difference between *the lessons in each of the English high school textbooks* in term of the extent to which they have made use of the words of *high frequency* (considered as the first 2,000 most frequent words in GE) and those of *low frequency* (considered as *beyond* those 2,000 words which are all the words included in AWL+NIL)?

Method:

Data collection:

At first, all the ‘reading passages’ together with the ‘new words’ sections in the textbooks were scanned into the VP computer program lesson by lesson using a scanner device. Then, some

modifications were made on the scanned texts, for example, all “proper nouns” and “numbers” found in the scanned texts were omitted because their inclusion in the analysis would result in a misleading increase in the number of the words which belong to the first and the fourth word lists. Specifically speaking, “proper nouns” do not belong to the lexis of any given language and, accordingly, they are not included in any of the first three word lists; therefore, they inevitably fall into the fourth category (NIL) which results in a misleading increase in the percentages of the words which belong to that category. On the other hand, “numbers” normally belong to the first word list; therefore, for the purpose of avoiding the illusion that the textbooks have made more use of the first word list, their omission from the texts was necessary, too.

After collecting the data related to each lesson (which is required for an intra-textbook analysis in relation to the fifth reseach question), the scanned lessons related to each textbook (nine lessons in textbook 1, seven lessons in textbook 2, six lessons in textbook 3 and eight lessons in textbook 4) were put together and saved as separate files so that the four textbooks themselves could be compared and contrasted against each other (in order to do an inter-textbook anyalysis and to find answers to the first four research questions). Then, the lexical frequency

zones (Cobb, 2003) through the following procedures: It takes a given text as the raw input (the text may be typed, pasted or scanned into the program); checks the lexis of that text against its accompanying frequency-based word lists; and finally, as output, generates a lexical frequency profile (LFP) of that text in just a few seconds. The LFP generated as such describes the lexical content of a text in terms of four frequency zones which are actually representative of the four word lists ordinarily available in the program:

- The first 1,000 most frequent words in General English (GE),
- The second 1,000 most frequent words in GE (i.e. from 1,001 to 2,000),
- The Academic Word List (AWL),
- The words not included in any of the above lists (NIL or ‘not in the Lists’) so they are normally addressed as the ‘difficult’ words.

Word frequency information can provide pedagogical suggestions for the process of ‘selection’ and ‘gradation’ of teaching materials. According to Meara & Nation (2002, p. 39), “high frequency words need to be the first and main vocabulary goal of learners” simply because the most frequent words in English language are mostly function words which are empty of lexical content and at the same time crucial for grasping the idea of a text; therefore, preliminary knowledge of them facilitates consolidation of a basic GE knowledge

among non-native students. On the other hand, it has been assumed that a large number of ‘low frequency’ words would mirror ‘rich’ lexical environments while a large number of ‘high frequency, words would reflect ‘poor’ lexical environments; therefore, language textbooks are expected to contain a logical proportion of both high frequency words (conceived of as the first 2,000 most frequent words in English) and low frequency words (conceived of as the AWL and the NIL) in a way that the principle of ‘systematic presentation’ of materials to learners is catered for.

Considering the preceding studies about the importance of frequency information in pedagogy, this study can be conceived of as a ‘lexical text analysis’ within a ‘whilst-use’ materials evaluation. On the significance of materials evaluation there is no doubt among materials developers and textbook writers because of the enlightening role it has in the process of revision and improvement of teaching materials. Needless to say, each of the three types of evaluation - “pre-use”, post-use” and “whilst-use” materials evaluation (Tomlinson, 1998, p. xi) - is of its own particular advantages and contributes ultimately to this process.

The present study, then, is aimed at answering the following research questions:

1. Is there any significant difference between *the English high school textbooks*

appeared in textbooks over the years but they are rather grounded on the actually-recurring patterns in a language.

One of the major strong points of corpus-based analyses of a language is the ‘objectivity’ of the linguistic analyses that it yields. The upsurge of interest in applying empirical data as such in language pedagogy started in the early 1990s (Xiao & McEnery, 2005, section 1, 2). Among the scholars who believe in the incorporation of corpora-derived information in language pedagogy, one may refer to Widdowson (2000a) who has reiterated that this branch of linguistics (corpus linguistics) offers invaluable information regarding one of the features of language called *attestedness* according to Hyme’s Scheme. Hyme (1972, as cited in Widdowson, 2000a, p. 22) had categorized the components of communicative competence (as the reality of language) into four types of knowledge: possibility (conformity to grammatical rules), appropriacy (conformity to social conventions), feasibility (uttering what is easily processed and readily understood by the other interlocutor), and finally, attestedness (uttering what occurs in language frequently). It is based on this scheme that Widdowson (2000a) argues that corpus-based data, (not directly, of course) should inform pedagogic techniques.

There are many levels of information that can be gathered from analyses of corpora

and one of the major ones (related to the present study) is the information regarding ‘frequency of occurrence’ of words in English. ‘Word frequency’ simply means “how often a given word occurs in normal use of the language” (Nation & Waring, n.d., fourth section 2006, Based on this information, several ‘word frequency lists’ have been developed till now which include: **a**) the list of the most common words in General English (GE) settings developed by West (1953). It has been called General Service List (GSL) and consists of the list of the first 1,000 plus the second 1,000 most frequent words in GE settings, and also **b**) the list of the most important words in academic settings which is called the Academic Word List (AWL). The AWL consists of the words of high frequency in academic settings which are, logically, of low frequency in GE settings.

A specific research tool used in this study is a computer program called *VocabProfile* (VP) which in its latest version is also known as *Range* program. This program (available on: www.vuw.ac.nz/lals/staff/Paul_Nation) has been introduced and validated in a study made by Laufer and Nation (1995) and has been widely used in the domain of vocabulary studies. Since VP program is accompanied by special frequency-based word lists, it “deconstructs any text or corpus into its lexical components” by their frequency

و پایین، باهم مقایسه شوند. نتایج به دست آمده نشانگر مطابقت کلی این کتاب‌ها با اصولی است که مبحث «فراوانی لغت» برای تألیف و تدوین کتب (هم‌چون اصول مربوط به «انتخاب» و «ترتیب ارائه»ی مطالب آموزشی) پیشنهاد می‌کند. بنابراین می‌توان گفت کتب درسی دبیرستان (از لحاظ واژگان) مناسب دانش‌آموزان این دوره‌ی تحصیلی است، ضمن این‌که بهتر است نقطه‌ی ضعفی نیز که در این کتاب‌ها شناسایی شده است مورد اصلاح قرار گیرد.

کلیدواژه‌ها: بررسی کتاب‌های درسی - فراوانی لغت - زبان‌شناسی پیکره‌ای
- تألیف و تدوین کتب

Abstract:

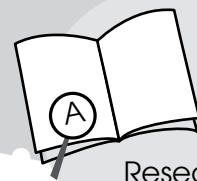
This study is a frequency-based lexical analysis of four English textbooks which are currently being taught at high school and pre-university levels in the public education system of Iran. The purpose of the study is determining whether the lexical content of these textbooks is appropriate for the students of these levels of study or not and the criterion of the analysis is *word frequency* information which is one of the new outcomes of corpus-based analyses of language. In this study, it has been assumed that a large number of *low frequency* words are indicative of lexically rich environments whereas that of high frequency words are representative of *lexically poor* environments. Also, the continuum of *word frequency* has been assumed to be of a reverse relationship with the continuum of *learner proficiency*. the Lexical Frequency Profiles (LFPs) of all the reading texts in the textbooks (as indicators of the proportion of high / low frequency in those texts) were obtained by means of a computer program called VocabProfile (VP), the procedure which enabled us to compare and contrast the lexis in those textbooks are, in general, compatible with word frequency information and what it suggests for pedagogy, though a weak point has been detected which should be examined more closely by the materials developers.

Key Words: lexical analysis - word frequency - corpus linguistics - Lexical Frequency Profiles (LFPs) - VocabProfile (VP) program - materials development

Introduction:

Corpus linguistics is normally conceived of as the study of linguistic phenomena through corpora (singular: corpus) which have been defined as “large principled collections of natural texts” stored on a computer in a machine-readable form (Reppen & Simpson, 2002, p. 93). Corpus-based analyses, from the perspective of *formal/functional* linguistics, are much

better suited to functional analyses of language, that is, “analyses that are focused... on describing the use of language as a communicative tool” (Meyer, 2002, p. 5) because corpora *contextualize* the language under study. The impact of corpus linguistics studies on classroom language teaching practices has already taken shape: No longer are pedagogical decisions based on intuitions and/or sequences that have



Researches

An Investigation of the Vocabulary Used in Iranian High School English Textbooks: A Corpus Linguistic Approach

Maryam Sodagar (M.A. in TEFL - University of Tehran)
email: m.sodagar@gmail.com

High school English teacher - Urumieh: Educational District No.2



چکیده

این تحقیق به بررسی

لغات کتب درسی زبان انگلیسی که در حال حاضر در

سطوح دبیرستان و پیش‌دانشگاهی در آموزش و پرورش ایران تدریس می‌شود می‌پردازد

تا مناسب بودن این کتب را (از لحاظ لغات آن‌ها) برای دانش‌آموزان این مقطع تحصیلی مشخص نماید. معیار این

بررسی «فراوانی لغت» در نظر گرفته شده که خود یکی از دستاوردهای «زبان‌شناسی پیکره‌ای» است. این تحقیق بر پایه‌ی این منطق بنا نهاده شده است که پیوستار «فراوانی لغت» دارای رابطه‌ی عکس با پیوستار «مهارت زبانی» یادگیرنده می‌باشد؛ بدین معنی که هرچه مهارت و دانش زبانی دانش‌آموزان بالاتر می‌رود باید به آن‌ها لغات با فراوانی پایین‌تری تدریس شود و (برعکس) چرا که اصولاً کثرت لغات با فراوانی بالا در یک متن باعث کم بودن بار معنایی آن متن و متعاقباً باعث آسان شدن آن متن برای یادگیری می‌شود (و برعکس). بنابراین «نمودارهای فراوانی لغت» متون «خواندن و درک مطلب» به‌صورت کلی (مربوط به هر یک از این چهار کتاب) و به‌صورت اختصاصی (مربوط به هر یک از دروس) توسط برنامه‌ی کامپیوتری خاصی استخراج شد تا کتاب‌ها و هم‌چنین دروس موجود در هر کتاب، از لحاظ نسبت کلمات دارای فراوانی بالا

- Philosophy: Rhetoric or Reality? *Childhood Education*, 74 (4), 232-233.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994). The Postmethod Condition: (E) Merging Strategies for S/F Language Teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(1), 27-48.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001). Toward a Postmethod Pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35(4), 537-560.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). TESOL Methods: Changing Tracks, Challenging Trends. *TESOL QUARTERLY*, 40 (1), 59-81.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching (2nd ed.)*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lazarus, A. A., & Beutler, L. E. (1993). On Technical Eclecticism. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 71 (4), 381-385.
- Long, M., & Crookes, G. (1993). Units of Analysis in Syllabus Design: The Case for Task. In G. Crookes & S. Gass (Eds.), *Tasks in a Pedagogical Context: Integrating Theory and Practice* (pp. 9-54). Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters.
- Nunan, D. (1988). *Syllabus Design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Razmjoo, S. A. & Riazi, A. M. (2006). Do High Schools Or Private Institutes Practice Communicative Language Teaching? A Case Study of Shiraz Teachers In High Schools and Institutes. *The Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal*, 6(3) 342-363.
- Riazi, A. M. (2003). What Textbook Evaluation Schemes Tell Us? A Study of the Textbook Evaluation Schemes of Three Decades. In W. A. Renanda. (Ed.). *Methodology and Materials Design in Language Teaching* (pp. 52-68). Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Center.
- Schwab, J. J. (1969). The Practical: A Language for Curriculum. *School Review*, 78 (1), 1-23.
- Schwab, J. J. (1971). The Practical: Arts of Eclectic. *School Review*, 79 (4), 493-542.
- Sharwood S., M. (1976). Pedagogical Grammar. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin*, 1, 45-47.
- Tyler, R. W. (1949). *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

(1994, 2001, 2006), the pioneer of post-method, should be taken into account: 1) *Particularity*: Language pedagogy, to be relevant, must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context, embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu; 2) *Practicality*: A post-method pedagogy must rupture the reified role relationship between theorists and practitioners by enabling teachers to construct their own theory of practice. In other words, pedagogy of practicality seeks to overcome some of the deficiencies inherent in the theory-versus-practice, theorists' theory versus teachers' theory dichotomies by encouraging and enabling teachers themselves to theorize from their practice and practice from what they theorize; and 3) *Possibility*: A post-method pedagogy must tap the socio-political consciousness that participants bring with them in order to aid their quest for identity formation and social transformation; that is, to empower participants (Critical Discourse Analysis). As such, learners, teachers, and teacher educators are considered as explorers in the post-method pedagogy. In the same direction, Bax (2003a) and Bax (2003b) rightly concluded that it is time to replace all methods and approaches as the central paradigms in language teaching with a Context Approach which places context at the heart of the profession. As such, it is

time to consider a genuine eclecticism in the form of a context-based approach.

In addition, English language teachers should be aware of the fact that one technique, approach, method or material is inadequate in the classroom as one size does not fit all (Carter & Nunan, 2001). These techniques and materials should be updated and used in the class based on the most recent changes and innovations in the field. If such objectives are fulfilled, the teachers are more likely to practice what they are expected to.

References

- Allen, J. P. B. (1983). A three-Level Curriculum Model for Second-Language Education. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 40, 23-43.
- Bax, S. (2003a). The end of CLT: A Context Approach to Language Teaching. *ELT Journal*, 57(3), 278-287.
- Bax, S. (2003b). Bringing Context and Methodology Together. *ELT Journal*, 57(3), 295-296.
- Bolster, A. 1983. Toward a More Effective Model of Research on Teaching. *Harvard Educational Review*, 53(3) 294-308.
- Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. (4th ed.). New York: Pearson Education.
- Carter, R. & Nunan, D. (2001). *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (1991). Grammar Pedagogy in Second and Foreign Language Teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25, 459-512.
- Dorn, C. M. (1978). The New Eclecticism/ or Art Is Anything You Can Get Away With. *Art Education*, 31 (8), 6-9.
- Gilliland, B. E., James, R. K., & Bowman, J. T. (1994). Response to the Lazarus and Beutler Article "On Technical Eclecticism." *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 72, 554-555.
- Glascott, K. P., & Crews, N. N. (1998). A Teaching

planning for each class, bearing in mind different variables in each particular class including the students needs, gender, age, the setting and so on. An eclecticist can be likened to a magician who in fact has a “bag of tricks” and tries to use the right trick or tricks at the right time depending on the situation, the audience he wants to entertain and other factors which are bound to vary from one situation to another. It goes without saying that after a while if he constantly uses the same set of tricks over and over, he will not succeed. Similarly, teachers need to think of varying factors in the teaching–learning process and come up with the right set of plans or “tricks” which is the most appropriate for a given context in order to best handle a class.

It can be easily seen in some classes across the country that some practitioners purportedly practice eclecticism, while holding simplistic views about it. Teachers who practice genuine eclecticism follow three important phases in their instruction process: teaching, reflecting and changing.

The following figure presents the principles of genuine eclecticism versus pseudo eclecticism.

Teachers who stick to pseudo eclecticism might use a single method and practice it every year because they were trained based on that method or they might benefit from some techniques borrowed from various methods and try to utilize them in all classes without considering the various factors that

are important in an educational context. The big misconception is that these teachers might claim that they practice eclecticism while what they are doing is pseudo and not genuine eclecticism.

It is hoped that the English teachers in junior high school, high school and pre-university centers consider this distinction and be cautious regarding the fundamental distinctions between pseudo eclecticism and genuine eclecticism. Accordingly, they are expected to associate their own methodology with the three commonplaces of the educational system; that is, learners, textbooks and contexts (Riazi, 2003); that is, different learners, textbooks and contexts might necessitate different methods, techniques and procedures.

Moreover, the three parameters of particularity, practicality, and possibility as the main variables in any educational context proposed by Kumaravadivelu

Figure 1. Genuine Eclecticism versus Pseudo Eclecticism

Genuine Eclecticism	Pseudo Eclecticism
Dynamic	Static
Contextualized	Decontextualized
Well-grounded	Amalgamated
Flexible	Fixed
Real-life situation	Fabricated situation
Exploratory	Prescriptive
Particular	general
Context-sensitive	Context-independent

and Beutler (1993):

This smorgasbord conception of eclecticism, in which one selects concepts and procedures according to an unstated and largely unreplicable process, is both regrettable and misguided.... The haphazard mishmash of divergent bits and Pieces and the syncretistic muddley idiosyncratic and ineffable clinical creations, are the antithesis of what effective and efficient counseling represents (p.381)

Most supporters of eclecticism do not advocate unconstrained pluralism and instead propose principles that will lead to coherent choices of learning activities (the principles proposed by Brown, 2000; Celce- Murcia, 1991, among others). The use of a principled eclecticism overcomes many of the above-mentioned weaknesses of unconstrained pluralism. However, the principles must still be made explicit and subjected to critical evaluation. Otherwise, principles could be found to be contradictory and irreconcilable (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, pp. 180-81; Lazarus & Beutler, 1993, p. 383). In addition, the principles of curriculum design must include valid psychological principles of learning (i.e., selecting items that are learnable), rather than principles that only categorize aspects of language as being simpler or more basic according to logical or linguistic criteria (e.g., Long & Crookes, 1993; Nunan, 1988; Sharwood Smith, 1976, pp. 46-47; Dorn, 1984; Tyler, 1949).

Finally, if the effectiveness of principles is to be assessed, then they must be made explicit in a manner that can be evaluated. Following such an assessment, principles may be confirmed, rejected, or modified. In sum, evaluation of eclecticism should involve an examination of the guiding principles that are proposed. By proposing pedagogical guidelines, principled eclecticism may provide a valuable alternative to absolutism, relativism, and unconstrained pluralism.

Eclecticism in the Iranian EFL

Context

In the Iranian context, sad to say, sometimes it is observed that an unprincipled pluralism mistakenly called eclecticism is practiced. On the one hand, methods are avoided on the pretext that that no single method is the best, on the other hand, under the guise of eclecticism, a haphazard set of ideas from the theoretical stock of the field is formulated and applied invariably to all classes regardless of the peculiarities of classes taught (Razmjoo & Rizai, 2006). This “one size fits all” attitude needs serious reconsideration. True that in the *post-method era*, seeking the best method is no longer warranted; however, eclecticism should not be equated with an arbitrary and unsystematic amalgamation of methods.

Genuine eclecticism while not relying solely on the so called “pre- packaged”, prescriptive methods involves careful

dichotomous classification of eclecticism; namely, pseudo (false) and genuine (real) eclecticism.

Background

TEFL practitioners as well as theorizers now unanimously agree that “each group has its own special characteristics, and that successful teaching requires the recognition and acknowledgement of this uniqueness” (Bolster, 1983, p. 298; cited in Larsen-Freeman 2000). According to Larsen-Freeman (2000, p.183) “when teachers who subscribe to the pluralistic view of methods pick and choose from among methods to create their own blend, their practice is said to be *eclectic*”.

Brown (2000) also approves of eclecticism. He states that *Every learner is unique. Every teacher is unique. Every learner-teacher relationship is unique, and every context is unique. Your task as a teacher is to understand the properties of those relationships. Using a cautious, enlightened, eclectic approach, you can build a theory based on the principles of second language learning and teaching* (p.14).

Reliance upon a single theory of teaching (or a single method that is informed by one relatively narrow set of theoretical principles) has been criticized because adherence to the use of a delimited number of procedures can become mechanistic and inflexible (Gilliland, James & Bowman,

1994; Lazarus & Beutler, 1993).

Schwab (1969 & 1971) has discussed two additional weaknesses of single-theory reliance: the incompleteness of theories and the coexistence of competing theories. Accordingly, there seems to be an agreement on the importance of the uniqueness of each educational situation and the complexities of contextual factors, hence a passport to eclecticism.

Care should be taken not to confuse eclecticism with pseudo-eclecticism. The former is genuine, principled and done within a systematic framework that is constrained. On the other hand, unconstrained pluralism describes the use of activities, presumably without the use of a single theory or contextual considerations. This type of eclecticism has often been criticized because it may be arbitrary, atheoretical, incoherent, naive, uncritical, unsystematic, and lacking in philosophical direction (e.g., Glascott & Crews, 1998; Lazarus & Beutler, 1993; Schwab, 1971). In a relevant critique of communicative language teaching, Allen (1983, p.24) has argued that “[i]n the absence of a well-defined theory, there is a danger that the development of communicative language teaching materials will be guided not so much by principle but by expedience, rule of thumb, and the uncoordinated efforts of individual writers.” In relation to counseling, an even stronger critique of unconstrained pluralism has been provided by Lazarus



Abstract

The American Heritage Dictionary defines the term “eclectic” as choosing what appears to be the best from diverse sources, systems and style. Many teachers currently claim to take a genuine eclectic approach and partly because of a greater concern for maintaining students’ interest. However, the EFL literature and classroom observations indicate that what teachers practice is pseudo eclecticism or semi- eclecticism the end result of which may be an unproductive mish-mash of fun-and-games that satisfies the students and makes teachers feel content but leads nowhere. There is a hope that the results of the present study will open new horizons to understanding methodology for English language teachers all over the country.

KeyWords:eclecticism; pseudo eclecticism; genuine eclecticism; approach; methode; TEFL/ TESL

Introduction

Eclecticism, the origin of which is from the Greek word ‘eklektikos’ meaning choosing the best, was first practiced by a group of ancient philosophers, who attached themselves not to one system, but instead selected from among existing beliefs those that seemed most reasonable to them. Out of this collected material they constructed their new system of philosophy.

Eclecticism is currently an important feature of contemporary TEFL/TESL teaching methodology. Teachers are becoming less and less inclined to strictly follow one prescribed teaching method and more and more determined to combine knowledge of established theories with the product of their own personal reflection on the reality of the classroom environment. Teachers are now more confident and aware of their role in judging the needs of their students and in adapting content and method to the level and peculiarities of the students

in the teaching-learning process. While still recognizing the valuable contribution of theorizers to the field, teachers feel an urge and necessity to be more active and involved in the immediate practical conditions they experience in the classroom.

Teachers do not practice their profession in an ideal environment; neither do they teach idealized students; in a real class there are students of all levels, attributes and attitudes. Teachers try to make a balance between the linguistic factor and the human factor. This is not an easy task and poses, in fact, the greatest challenge facing the English teaching specialists. Diverse learning conditions and learner variables have led the teachers to adopt eclecticism practiced in the classroom for a good number of years. However, the eclecticism concept is interpreted in many different ways. Mostly, teachers’ understanding of eclecticism is misleading and erroneous. As such, the present study deals with contrasting the



Pseudo Versus Genuine Eclecticism

Seyyed Ayatollah Razmjoo TEFL Assistant Professor,
Shiraz University, arazmju@rose.shirazu.ac.ir
Ismaeil Fazel, TEFL lecturer, Hormozgan University of
Medicial Sciences, fazel@gmail.com

چکیده

در دنیای امروزی، هر روز به گنجینه‌ی روش‌ها و نگرش‌های علم آموزش افزوده می‌شود. ناگفته پیداست که هر یک از این روش‌های نوین دارای ضعف و قوت‌هایی خاص خود هستند. دیگر نمی‌توان چنین گفت که روشی متناسب با تمامی موقعیت‌ها و محیط‌های آموزشی است، بلکه می‌باید گفت که چه روشی بیش از دیگر روش‌ها متناسب با یک موقعیت خاص و کلاس آموزشی معین است.

کارشناسان و متخصصان خبره‌ی علم آموزش (و به‌خصوص آموزش زبان) بر این باورند که وجود عوامل مختلف و گوناگون، یک وضعیت آموزشی را از دیگر وضعیت‌ها متمایز می‌سازد. به دیگر بیان، اجماع نظر بر این امر است که هر وضعیت آموزشی خصوصیات منحصر به فردی دارد و از این روی، بهترین و کارآمدترین روش آموزشی می‌باید براساس این ویژگی‌های منحصر به فرد که معلم، شاگرد، محتوا و محیط آموزش را شامل می‌شوند، انتخاب شود.

آموزش زبان نیز از این قاعده مستثنا نیست. لذا مدرسان در جهت بهینه‌سازی آموزش می‌باید از گنجینه‌ی نظریه‌ها، روش‌ها و فنون، بهترین روش‌ها را برای هر دوره‌ی آموزشی خاص، طراحی و اجرا کنند. بدیهی است، هرگونه برداشت سطحی و نابخردانه از این امر و ایجاد ملغمه‌ای بی‌تأمل و بدون تفکر از روش‌های موجود و به‌کار بستن آن در تمامی کلاس‌های آموزشی، می‌تواند موجبات ناخرسندی و نارضایتی فراگیران و عدم نیل به اهداف آموزشی را فراهم سازد.

این مقاله، ضمن تأکید بر ضرورت در نظر گرفتن جمیع جوانب آموزشی به لزوم به‌کارگیری آمیزه‌گرایی (التقاط‌گرایی) صحیح و حقیقی اشاره می‌کند و آن را از آمیزه‌گرایی کاذب و ناصحیح متمایز می‌سازد. ضروری است دبیران محترم هنگام تدریس و پس از تدریس، شیوه‌ی آموزش خود را مورد تحلیل و بازبینی قرار دهند و تغییرات لازم را در آموزش‌های بعدی اعمال کنند. اگر این مهم محقق شد، آمیزه‌گرایی به مفهوم صحیح و حقیقی خود اجرا خواهد شد.

کلیدواژه‌ها: آمیزه‌گرایی، التقاط‌گرایی، آمیزه‌گرایی صحیح و حقیقی، آمیزه‌گرایی کاذب و ناصحیح