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رشد
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سازمان پژوهش و برنامه‌ریزی آموزشی
دفتر انتشارات و تکنولوژی آموزشی

دورهٔ بیست و هشتم، شمارهٔ ۲، زمستان ۱۳۹۲
فصل‌نامهٔ آموزشی، تحلیلی و اطلاع رسانی

◆ مجلهٔ رشـد آمـوزش زبـان حاصـل تحقیقات پژوهشـگران و متخصصـان تعلیم و تربیـت، به ویژه دبیران و مدرسـان را، در صورتی که در سـایر نشریات درج نشده و مرتبط با موضوع مجله باشـد، می‌پذیرد. ◆ مطالب باید حروفچینی شده باشند. ◆ شکل قـرار گرفتن جدول‌ها، نمودارها و تصاویر ضمیمه باید در حاشـیهٔ مطلب نیز مشـخص شـود. ◆ نثر مقاله باید روان و از نظر دسـتور زبان فارسی درست باشد و در انتخاب واژه‌های علمی و فنی دقت لازم به‌کار رفته باشـد. ◆ مقاله‌های ترجمه‌شده باید با متن اصلی همخوانی داشـته باشـند و متن اصلی نیز ضمیمهٔ مقاله باشد. ◆ در متن‌های ارسالی به‌جـای واژه‌ها و اصطلاحـات بیگانه باید تا حد امکان از معادل‌های فارسـی اسـتفاده شده باشد. ◆ فهرست منابع هر مقاله باید کامل و شامل نام نویسنده، نام اثر، نام مترجم، محل نشـر، ناشـر و سال انتشار اثر باشـد. ◆ مجله در رد، قبول، ویرایش و تلخیص مقاله‌های رسـیده مختار است. ◆ آرای مندرج در مقاله‌ها، ضرورتاً مبین نظر دفتر انتشارات و تکنولوژی نیست و مسئولیت پاسخ‌گویی به پرسش‌های خوانندگان، با خود نویسنده یا مترجم است. ◆ مجله از بازگرداندن مطالبی که برای چاپ مناسب تشخیص داده نمی‌شوند، معذور است.

# سنجش و ارزشیابی، برنامهٔ درسی و روش‌های آموزش: هماهنگی در سیاست‌گذاری‌های آموزشی
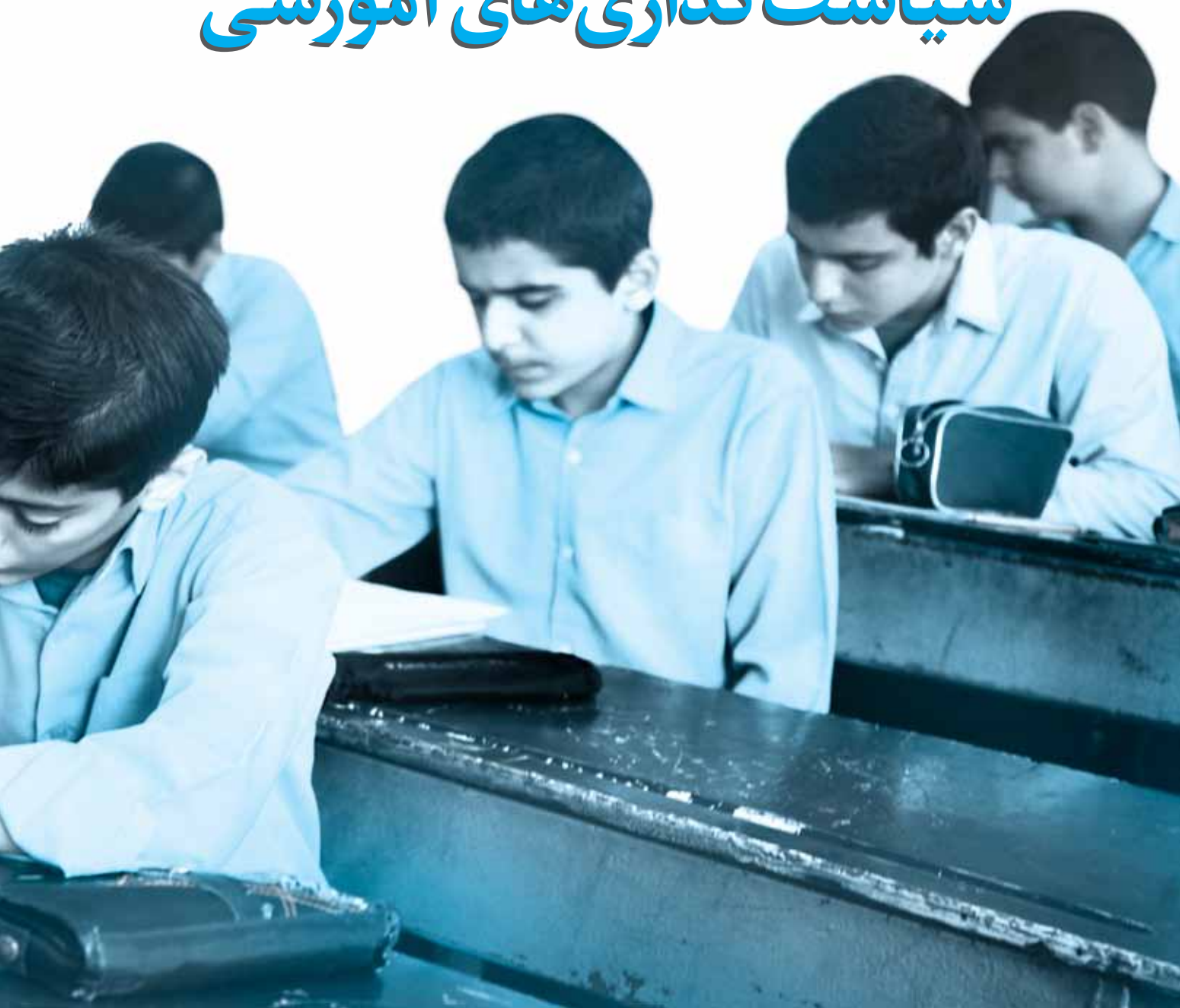
در شمارۀ حاضر با توجه به اهمیت سنجش و ارزشیابی در برنامۀ جدید درسـی زبان انگلیسـی به این مبحـث می‌پردازیم، به این امید که نکات مطرح شـده بتواند به روشـن شدن نقش سنجش و ارزشـیابی در آمـوزش و یادگیری زبان انگلیسـی کمک کند. آنچـه معمولاً از آزمون یا امتحان زبان در ذهن متبادر می‌شـود، تعیین سـطح توانش زبانی افراد با کمک گرفتن از استانداردهای هنجاری برگرفته از سـنجش جمعیت هدف اسـت که با انگیزۀ انتخاب افراد برای مشـاغل، دوره‌های آموزشـی یا ارزشـیابی از دوره‌هـای آموزش زبان صورت می‌گیرد، اما آنچه در حال حاضر در سـنجش پیشـرفت تحصیلی در آموزش زبان معمول اسـت، سنجش بر مبنای استانداردهای دستیابی به اهداف آموزشی است که در برنامۀ درسـی تعریف شده‌اند. این نوع سنجش با سنجش هنجارمحوری که در بالا به آن اشاره شـد، تفاوت دارد؛ چرا که توانایی افراد نه در مقایسه با هنجار عملکرد جامعۀ هدف در آزمون بلکه برمبنای دستیابی هر فرد به استانداردهای یادگیری تعریف شده در برنامۀ درسی سنجیده می‌شود. اصول سنجش و ارزشیابی معیارمحور فعلی در مراکز آموزشـی با اصول سنجش و ارزشیابی هنجارمحـور متـداول در آزمون‌های اسـتاندارد متفاوت اسـت. تفاوت در اصول باعث شـده اسـت رابطۀ سیاست‌های آموزشی و سـنجش زبانی بازتعریف شود و بر این اساس، شالوده‌های توانش زبانـی تغییر کند و لزوم هماهنگی بین سـنجش زبانی و برنامه درسـی بیش از گذشـته مطرح گردد. در روند ایجاد هماهنگی، رویکرد عمده سـود بردن از سیاست‌هایی است که هماهنگی بین امتحانات، برنامۀ درسی و روش‌های آموزش را از طریق آزمون‌های معیارمحور و برنامۀ درسی مبتنی بر استانداردهای آموزشی دنبال می‌کند. نکته‌ای که باید به آن توجه کنیم این اسـت که برخلاف سـایر دروس، که مبنای ایجاد توانش در آن‌ها اهداف آموزشـی برنامه درسی اسـت، در زبان‌آموزی ایجاد توانش نه‌تنها از طریق

اهداف آموزشی در محیط‌های آموزشی بلکه از طریق قرار گرفتن در محیط، خودآموزی و... نیز قابل دسترسـی اسـت. بنابراین، به دلیل تنوع در منابع یادگیری، سـنجش در آموزش زبان علاوه بر تعیین میزان پیشرفت تحصیلی کارکردهای ویژۀ دیگری نیز دارد که از آن میان می‌توانیم به جایابی (تعیین سطح برای تحقق بهتر اهداف آموزشـی) اشاره کنیم. تنوع کارکرد و تنوع منابع یادگیری باعث شـده اسـت که در سال‌های اخیر سنجش زبانی به مشکلی تبدیل شـود که برخورد با آن به سـیاست‌گذاری‌های مناسب، تخصص، تجربه و منابع مالی نیاز دارد. نظام‌های آموزشـی سعی کرده‌اند برنامۀ درسی زبان را به سمتی هدایت کنند که پیشرفت تحصیلی زبان آموزان در دوره‌های آموزشی به شکل استانداردهای آموزشـی، توانش‌ها یا سطوح عملکردی تعریف شود. این تعاریف مبنـای آموزش، سـنجش و کنترل کیفیت آموزشـی را ممکن سـاخته اسـت. به علاوه، تعریف اهداف آموزشی در قالب انتظارات عملکردی از زبان‌آموزان به کاربردی‌شدن هر چه بیشتر آموزش‌ها کمک کرده و باعث شـده اسـت آموزش زبان بـر مبنای توانش ارتباطی سـازماندهی شود. در گذشته که توانش زبانی براساس دانش زبانی تعریف می‌شـد، سنجش براساس اهداف دانشی از طریـق آزمون‌های غیرمسـتقیم هنجارمحور صـورت می‌گرفت. شاید یکی از دلایل عمدۀ ناکارآمدی دوره‌های آموزشی نیز تأکید سنجش بر دانش به‌جای کاربرد زبان بود. در برنامۀ درسی جدید آموزش زبان دورۀ متوسـطه اهداف آموزشی در قالب توانش‌های کاربردی قابل حصول تعریف شده‌اند و سنجش نیز متناسب با این اهدافِ معیارمحور و کاربردی است. اهداف آموزشی در قالبی ارائه شـده‌اند که منعکس کنندۀ عملکرد دانش‌آموزان در کاربرد زبان اسـت. لذا سنجش دستیابی به آن‌ها نیازمند آزمون‌های مستقیم عملکردی اسـت که انتظار می‌رود تأثیر مثبتی بر آموزش داشته باشـند و یادگیری را تقویت کند. به عبارت دیگر، سـنجش برای یادگیری جایگزین سنجش یادگیری شده است. در همین مسیر بر خودارزیابی نیز تأکید شده است. با شفاف شدن اهداف آموزشی و تعریـف کاربردی زمینۀ خودارزیابی فراهم آمده اسـت؛ چرا که دانش‌آموزان خود می‌توانند به سنجش عملکرد خود بپردازند. بعد دیگر سنجش که در برنامۀ جدید مورد تأکید قرار گرفته سنجش و ارزیابی کلاسـی اسـت که در این برنامه جایـگاه ویژه‌ای دارد. خودارزیابی، سنجش کلاسـی و آزمون عملکردی پایانی سه بعد سـنجش پیشرفت تحصیلی را در برنامۀ جدید تشکیل می‌دهند. با سیاست‌گذاری مناسبی که دراین زمینه صورت گرفته است، انتظار می‌رود هماهنگی لازم بین برنامۀ درسی، روش‌های آموزش و سنجش پیشرفت تحصیلی ایجاد شود.

# بررسـی آزمـــون‌های درک مط
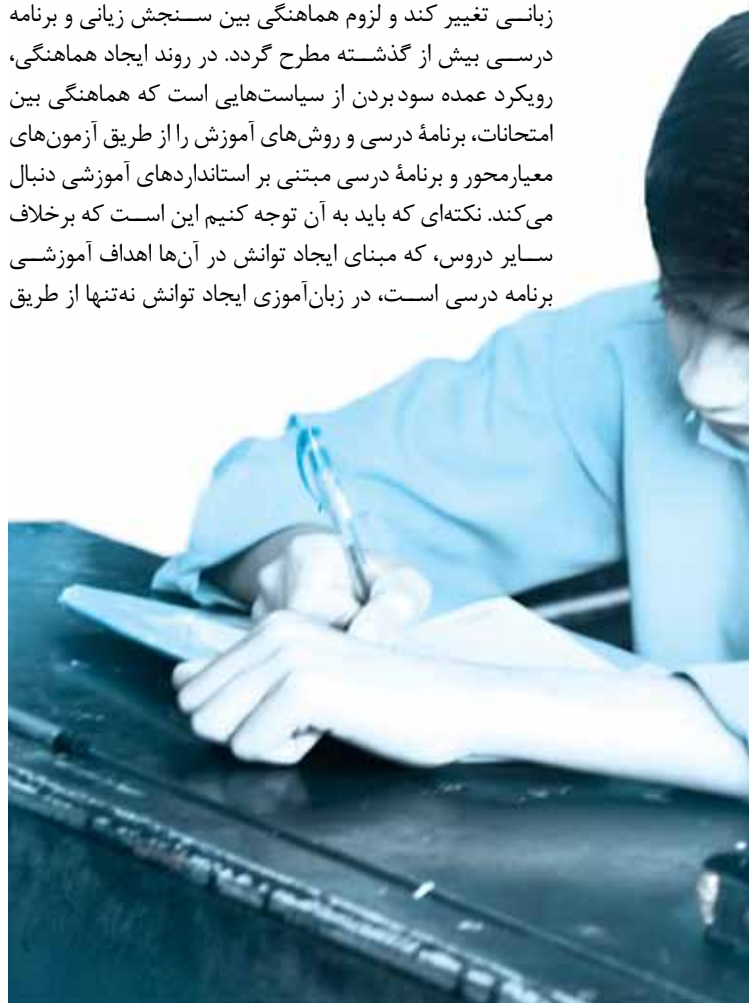
# پایان تـرم دورهٔ دبیرسـتـ

**مرجان وثوقی**، مدرس دانشگاه آزاد اسلامی. واحد سبزوار

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## Abstract

The main purpose of the present research was to examine authenticity factors in reading comprehension achievement tests in Iranian high schools through Coh- matrix2. Thirty reading texts of similar length were randomly selected from archived final exams and analyzed on five various measures of Adjacent Argument Overlap, Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA) Frequency of Content Words, Type-Token ratio and connectives. The data were analyzed by Coh-matrix and were statistically analyzed through SPSS.15. The results showed the optimum case for only two measures of Type-token ratio and Connectives. the two measures of Latent Semantic Analysis and Frequency of Content Words were low indicating immediate attention by the language testers. However, the gained results over Adjacent Argument Overlap index showed an upper-middle average. Possible negative and positive aspects of the currently used texts for reading comprehension tests in Iranian high schools are cared for at the end.

**Key Words:** authenticity, cohesion, achievement tests, coh-matrix, reading comprehension test

### چکیده

هدف پژوهش حاضر بررسـی میزان اصالت آزمون‌های درک مطلب درس زبان انگلیسـی در دورهٔ دبیرستان در ایران با بهره‌گیری از نرم‌افزار جدید کوماتریس نسـخهٔ ۲۰۱۰ بوده اسـت. تعداد سی متن مورد استفاده در آزمون‌های سنجش پیشرفت پایان ترم در سه استان تهران، خراسان رضوی و اصفهان به‌طور تصادفی از آرشیو سؤالات پایان ترم دورهٔ دبیرستان انتخاب شدند. تعداد پنج متغیر مورد بررسی و واکاوی آماری قرار گرفتند. میزان هم‌پوشانی نشانوندهای مجاور به‌همراه اندیس معنایی نهفته میزان واژگان محتوایی، درصد واژگانی نوع - نشانی و در نهایت میزان حروف ربط و اتصال‌دهنده‌ها از جمله متغیرهای مورد بررسی بودند. داده‌های حاصل با استفاده از نرم‌افزار SPSS دسـته‌بندی و توصیف شـدند. نتایج حاکی از آن بود که در دو متغیر اندیس معنایی نهفته و میزان واژگان محتوایی شرایط تقریباً نامطلوب است. درخصوص دو متغیر درصد واژگانی نوع - نشانی و میزان حروف ربط و اتصال‌دهنده‌ها، که از مشخصات عینی انسجام متنی (cohesion) به حساب می‌آیند، وضعیت نسبتاً خوبی حاکم بود. میزان هم‌پوشانی نشانوندهای مجاور نیز در حد متوسـط ارزیابی شـد. تحلیل و تفسیر داده‌ها با استناد به بهره‌گیری از شرایط اصیل بودن متون مورد استفاده در آزمون‌های پیشرفت زبان انگلیسی در نهایت بررسی شده است.

**کلیدواژه‌ها:** اصالت متون، انسجام متنی، تست‌های پیشرفت تحصیلی، کوماتریس، آزمون درک مطلب

# لـب درس زبــان انگلیـسی
## ان از نظـر اصالت متن

Researchers

## مقدمه

در مبحث آزمون‌سازی مهارت‌های زبانی که عمدتاً در زیرشاخۀ رشتۀ زبان‌شناسی کاربردی از آن به‌عنوان فرایندی کاملاً تخصصی یاد می‌شـود و در دهه‌هـای اخیر متخصصان امر آن را رشـته‌ای جـدا و کاملاً مسـتقل می‌دانند، عمومـاً فاصلۀ بسـیار زیادی میان نظریه و عمل مشاهده می‌شود. (66-41 :1991 .Anderson et al) متخصصان سـنجش و آزمون‌سـازی از یک سـو با مطرح کردن ایده‌های کاملاً جدید سـعی در به‌روزرسـانی نظریه‌ها دارند و از سـویی دیگر مدرسان زبان انگلیسـی معمولاً در فرایند آزمون و سـنجش فرایند یادگیری عمومـاً از اقتصادی‌ترین و در عین حال سـاده‌ترین راه‌ها از جمله مراجعه به بانک سـؤال جهت طراحی سـؤالات خود و بدون توجه به نظریات جدید مطرح شده توسط محققان حـوزۀ آزمون‌سـازی به سـنجش و ارزیابی کلاس‌های درس خود بسنده می‌کنند. وضعیت مزبور در ایران فاصلۀ زیادی میان نظریـه و عمل در این حوزه به‌وجود آورده اسـت. حقیقت امر آن اسـت که مباحث آموزشی و آزمون‌سازی زبان می‌بایست در تعامل پیوسـته و ناگسـسـتنی باشـند و بازخوردهای لازم را در فراینـد آموزش به‌طور دائمی به سـه ضلع مثلث این فرایند یعنی معلم- دانش‌آموز- برنامه‌ریزان درسـی منعکس نمایند. در ایـن میان، تأثیر آزمون بر فراگیرنـدگان، معلمان و مؤلفان کتب درسـی بر پیچیدگی و حساسیت امر آزمون‌سازی می‌افزاید. البته تحقیقاتی که در چند دهۀ اخیر در کشور ما در حوزۀ آزمون‌سازی زبان صورت گرفته اسـت به لحاظ کمّی از شـمار انگشتان دست فراتر نمی‌رود. در تحقیقی که غلامرضا کیانی و همکاران (۱۳۹۱) انجام داده‌اند، میزان منصفانه بودن آزمون‌های زبان در دبیرستان بررسـی شد. با بررسـی پرسش‌نامه‌ای از فراگیرندگان روند موجود مورد پایش قرار گرفت و در نهایت، وضعیت نامتناسـب تشخیص داده شـد. در پژوهش یاد شـده تأکید بر آن بود که آزمون‌هایی که در سطح مدرسـه و کلاس تهیه و تدوین می‌گردد، نسـت به آزمون‌هـای کنکور و آزمون‌های هماهنگ از دیدگاه دانش‌آموزان کمتر منصفانه‌اند.

لـذا در تحقیق حاضر نویسـنده بر آن شـد تا بـا تمرکز بر آزمون‌هـای پایان تـرم دورۀ دبیرسـتان در بخـش آزمون‌های خواندن و درک مطلب با تأکید بر روش‌های جدید و رویکردهای مهارت‌سـنجی و با توجه ویژه به مهارت خواندن و درک مفاهیم، وضعیت متون مورد استفاده در سال‌های اخیر را از جنبۀ پیوستگی متنی - که مستقیماً از مشخصه‌های متون اصیل است - واکاوی و گزارش کند. پرسشی که در ابتدا مد نظر قرار گرفت، این بود:

■ آیا آزمون‌های درک مطلب امتحانات پایان ترم درس زبان انگلیسـی در دبیرستان‌های ایران از نظر اصالت متن از مطلوبیت لازم برخوردارند؟

## پیشینۀ تحقیق

در حوزۀ زبان‌شناسـی کاربردی «اصالت» بـه میزان ارتباط میان آزمون و فعالیت‌های آموزشی از یک سو و فعالیت‌های واقعی در زبان مقصد اطلاق می‌گردد (43 :Mousavi, 2009) و هرچه این ارتباط بیشـتر باشـد، در اصطلاح گفته می‌شود که آزمون از اصالت بیشتری برخوردار است. دلیل اهمیت اصالت در آزمون‌های زبان در این نکته اسـت که قابلیت تعمیم‌پذیری آن‌ها را به‌دلیل ارتباط با موقعیت‌های واقعی در زبان مقصد (در اینجا انگلیسـی) بالا می‌برد. لذا می‌تـوان ادعا نمود که میزان اصالت بالاتر به نوبۀ خود میزان اعتبار سـازه‌ای[1] را بهبود می‌بخشد. تأثیر دیگر ارتباط تنگاتنگ میـان آزمون‌ها و موقعیت‌های واقعـی، واکنش مثبت فراگیرندگان نسبت به آزمون است.

در محافـل آزمون‌سـازی اصالت به طـرق گوناگون تعریف شـده اسـت. در یک رویکرد، اصالـت آزمونی معادل مشـاهدۀ مستقیم یک رفتار زبانی است؛ بدین‌گونه که بدون مرور و بررسی فرایندهای بینابینی توانش زبانی مشاهده و ارزیابی شود. البته به گفتۀ محققـان چنین امری به‌دلیل پیچیدگی فرایندهای عصبی دخیل در بروز مهارت‌های زبانی تقریباً غیرممکن است. بنابراین، می‌توان گفت تقریباً تمامی آزمون‌های زبانی به‌طور غیرمسـتقیم به سنجش توانش فرد می‌پردازند. در نتیجه، محققان شباهت به

موقعیت زبانی واقعی در جامعه را مدنظر قرار دادند. البته مشکل عمده در این تعریف نیز به گفتهٔ متخصصان امر همواره این بوده است که بهدلیل تنوع بسیار زیاد رفتارها و موقعیتهای کلامی در دنیای واقع امکان شبیهسازی تمامی آنها در شرایط آزمون وجود ندارد و در نهایت، سومین رویکرد در تقابل با دیگر رویکردهای پیشگفته پرداختن آزمونگر به ارتقای سطح اعتبار ظاهری تست بود که این دیدگاه نیز خالی از اشکالات فوق نبود.

در نهایت، بکمـن[2] (۱۳۳: ۱۹۹۱) دو مفهوم جدید از اصالت مطـرح نمود که تـا حدودی نواقص رویکردهـای فوق را برطرف میکـرد: ۱. اصالـت موقعیتی[3] و۲. اصالت تعاملـی[4] . در اصالت موقعیتی میزان شـباهت مشخصات شیوههای آزمون با موقعیت واقعی مدنظـر ارزیاب قرار میگیرد. برای مثـال، در آزمون لغت تقسیمبندی لغات به تخصصی و روزمره و تقسیمبندی محیط به محیط دانشگاهی و محیط کار مورد توجه خاص معلم در انتخاب محتـوا قرار میگیرد. در مقابل، اصالت تعاملی مبین ارتباط میان آزمودنـی و فعالیتهای مـورد انتظار در موقعیت آزمون اسـت. بکمن (۱۳۵: ۱۹۹۱) دو شـیوهٔ اصلی برای ارتقای اصالت تعاملی مطرح میکند: در شـیوهٔ اول میزان استفادهٔ آزمودنی از راهبردها در انجـام آزمون و در روش دوم چگونگـی برقراری ارتباط میان ایـن راهبردها از طریق بررسـی گزارشهای خود آزمودنی مورد بررسـی قرار میگیرد. بکمن شیوههای دیگر بررسی این موضوع را دادن موقعیتهای بیشـتر یا در اختیار گذاشتن وقت اضافی و دادن اطلاعات بیشتر به آزمودنی میداند که از این طریق ممتحن میتواند میزان درگیری آزمودنی را در موقعیت آزمون بهدرستی و با دقت بیشتر بسنجند. برانگیختن انگیزه و علاقهٔ او نیز از جمله دیگر راهکارهایی اسـت که میزان درگیری آزمودنی را در آزمون افزایش میدهد.

انتخـاب یا تعدیل متون مورد اسـتفاده در تسـتهای درک مطلب از نظر آموزشـی در محافل پژوهشـی مـورد بحث و توجه خاص محققان بوده اسـت. برخی محققان، بهخصوص کسانی که به جنبههای ارتباطی آموزش زبان دوم معتقدند، ترجیح میدهند از متون کاملاً اصیل و واقعی برگرفته از متون و رسانههای مختلف محیط زبان دوم استفاده کنند، در مقابل، برخی دیگر استفاده از چنین متونی را مناسـب سـطوح پایین نمیدانند. (Sonmez, 2007: 51-62) و (Kilickaya, 2004). پژوهشهـای متعدد در قلمرو اسـتفاده از متون واقعی در مقابل متون تعدیل شـده نتایج ضدونقیضی را در این خصوص نشان میدهند (Petersen et al. 2010).

## روش شناسی تحقیق

هـدف از پژوهـش پیش رو بررسـی آزمونهـای پایان ترم زبان انگلیسی مقطع دبیرسـتان در بخش درک مطلب از منظر ارزیابی اصالت متون بوده است. تعداد ۳۰ متن مورد استفاده در آزمونهای سـنجش پیشـرفت تحصیلی پایان ترم در سه استان

تهران، خراسـان رضـوی و اصفهان و از همهٔ پایهها (پایه اول تا پیشدانشـگاهی) در فاصلهٔ سـالهای ۹۱-۸۵ بهطور تصادفی از آرشیو سؤالات پایان ترم مؤسسات آموزشی انتخاب شدند. چینش محتوا و ویژگیهای گونهای متون با اسـتفاده از ابزار کوماتریس[5] نسـخهٔ ۲۰۱۰ در پنج متغیر مختلف شـامل میزان همپوشانی نشـانوندهای مجـاور[6] بههمـراه اندیس معنایـی نهفته، میزان واژگان محتوایی[7]، درصد واژگانی نوع - نشانی[8] و در نهایت، میزان حروف ربط و اتصالدهندهها[9] - که از جمله شـاخصهای بررسی پیوسـتگی متنی بهحساب میآیند - مورد تجزیه و تحلیل دقیق آماری قرار گرفتند.

## ابزار تحقیق و گردآوری دادهها

کوماتریـس بهعنوان یـک ابزار آمـاری جدیـد در نتیجهٔ پیشرفتهای اخیر زبانشناسی رایانشی توسط محققان دانشگاه ممفیس در سال ۲۰۰۴ تهیه و تدوین شد. کارایی اولیهٔ این ابزار بهعنوان یک جایگزین پیشـرفته برای فرمولهای بررسی میزان خوانایی متون بوده و نیز جهت بررسـی انسـجام متون خصوصاً زبان انگلیسی مورد اسـتفادهٔ محققان قرار گرفته است. گرسر و دیگـران (۱۹۳-۲۰۲ :۲۰۰۴) و کراسکی (۱۱۹-۱۳۰ :۲۰۰۹) از این ابزار برای واکاوی انسـجام متون اسـتفاده کردهاند. از آنجا که این ابزار قادر به تجزیه و تحلیل محتوایی متون نیز هسـت، این پژوهشـگران با بررسی متغیرهایی چون روابط معنایی مانند (هممعنایی، همشمولی، چندمعنایی و...) موفق به واکاوی دقیق میان جملات مجاور و متناظر شـدند. محققان دانشگاه ممفیس برای بررسـی روایـی این آزمون طـی چندین مرحلـه با دیگر ابزارهـای موجود روایی سـنجهای آن را ارزیابی و بهروزرسـانی کردهانـد. هماکنون این ابزار بهصورت برخـط (آنلاین) و رایگان (http://cohmetrix.memphis.edu)دراختیارمحققانسراسردنیا قرار گرفته اسـت. این ابزار دقیـق رایانـهای دربردارندهٔ تمامی امکانات پایـگاه دادههـای WordNet ، پایگاه روانشناسـی زبانـی MRC و CELLEX نیز میباشد (Miller, et al. 1990; Coltheart, 1981). کراسکی و همکاران ابتدا در سال ۲۰۰۸ از این ابزار بهعنوان فرمول محاسـباتی میزان خوانایی متون آموزشی استفاده کردند. نتیجهٔ بررسی آنان با مقیاسهای سنتی قبلی Flesch Reading Ease مقایسـه شـد و نتایج آماری، همبستگی بسـیار بالایی را نشان میداد.

## نتایج

پس از واکاوی دادهها توسـط نرمافزار کامپیوتری کوماتریس اطلاعات بهدسـت آمده با اسـتفاده از نرمافزار SPSS نسخهٔ ۱۵ دستهبندی و تحلیل شدند. در ادامه به اختصار به تفسیر هر کدام میپردازیم.

● **متغیر ۱: میزان همپوشانی نشانوندهای مجاور (AAO)**

این متغیر از جمله مقیاس‌های سنجش میزان انسجام متنی به‌شمار می‌آید کـه در آن ابزار کوماتریس ارزش کوسینوسـی معـادل ۱-۰ در نظر می‌گیرد. این مقیاس نشـان‌دهندهٔ میزانی اسـت که یک جمله و دیگر جملات اطراف آن دربردارندهٔ یک یا چند نشانوند[۱۰] خاص می‌باشند. منظور از نشانوند میزان وابستگی زنجیرهٔ ارتباطی و معنایی است که در آن یک اسم یا عبارت اسمی تکرار شده و یا در جملات بعد به آن ارجاع داده می‌شود. بنابراین، عدد ۱ نشان‌دهندهٔ انسجام بسیار بالای یک متن می‌تواند باشد.

در تجزیه و تحلیل آماری با نرم‌افزار کوماتریس برای هر یک از نمونه تسـت‌های درک مطلب به‌طـور جداگانه اندیس مربوطه وارد نرم‌افزار SPSS شـد و پس از محاسبهٔ میانگین اندیس‌های ثبت شـده نتیجه به شـرح جدول ۱ به‌دسـت آمد ۰/۵۷ = μ . براساس محاسبات کوماتریس نسخهٔ ۲۰۱۰، عدد ۱ نشان‌دهندهٔ انسـجام بسـیار بالای یک متن به‌حسـاب می‌آید. همان‌طور که ملاحظه می‌شـود، متون مورد اسـتفاده از نظر این متغیر، کمی بیشتر از ۵ درصد ۰/۵۷ = μ مطلوبیت داشته‌اند.

**جدول ۱. میانگین میزان همپوشانی نشانوندهای مجاور در تست‌های درک مطلب زبان انگلیسی دبیرستان‌های ایران**

| Std. Deviation | Mean | Maximum | Minimum | N | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| .27 | .57 | 1.00 | .00 | 30 | **Adjacent Argument Overlap (0-1)** |
| | | | | 30 | **Valid N (listwise)** |

● **متغیـر ۲: واکاوی اندیـس معنایـی نهفتـه (LSA)**

نرم‌افزار کوماتریس این متغیر را به‌طور هوشـمند با اسـتفاده از بررسـی اطلاعـات جدید و قدیمی موجـود در جملات مجاور محاسـبه می‌کند. مقادیر کوسینوسـی نزدیک به ۱ نشان‌دهندهٔ همپوشـانی بالای مطالب موجود از لحاظ محتوایی و نزدیکی به متون زبان اصلی می‌باشد (میرزاپور و احمدی، ۲۰۱۱). همپوشـانی اطلاعـات قدیم و جدید در جملات مجاور از دیگر مشـخصه‌های متون اصیل اسـت. نرم‌افزار کوماتریس با محاسـبهٔ این اندیس و بـا بهره‌گیـری از پایـگاه اطلاعـات CELLEX اطلاعات نهفته و عینـی مرتبط معنایـی را در محدودهٔ ۱-۰ محاسـبه می‌کند. در تحقیـق حاضر اندیـس به‌دسـت آمده برای هـر آزمون درک مطلـب تحلیـل و میانگین نهایی سـی آزمون انتخابـی برابر با ۰/۲۶ = μ محاسـبه شـد. (جدول ۲) همچنان‌که مشخص است،

میانگین به‌دسـت آمده نشـان می‌دهد که تست‌های پایان ترم درس زبان انگلیسی از نظر همپوشانی محتوایی جملات مجاور، وضعیت چندان مناسبی ندارند.

**جدول ۲. میانگین واکاوی معنایی نهفته در جملات مجاور در تست‌های درک مطلب زبان انگلیسی دبیرستان‌های ایران**

| Std. Deviation | Mean | Maximum | Minimum | N | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| .12 | .26 | .47 | .00 | 30 | **Latent semantic analysis sentence adjacent (0-1)** |
| | | | | 30 | **Valid N (listwise)** |

● **متغیر ۳: واکاوی میزان واژگان محتوایی**

در این متغیر براساس پایگاه‌داده CELLEX محاسبات برحسب میزان بسـامد کلمات محتوایی در مقابل کلمات دستوری صورت می‌پذیرد. براسـاس یک محاسـبهٔ لگاریتمی اندیسی در محدودهٔ ۶-۰ به‌دست می‌دهد که هرچه به اندیس ۶ نزدیک‌تر می‌شویم، میـزان تکرار و وجود کلمات محتوایی بیشـتر و بنابراین اندیس خوانایـی متن بالاتر خواهد بود. این متغیر در واکاوی تسـت‌های پایان ترم، بخش درک مطلب معادل ۲/۵۱ =μ به‌دسـت آمد که عدد نسبتاً پایینی را نشان می‌دهد. (جدول ۴)

**جدول ۳. میانگین واکاوی میزان تعداد واژگان محتوایی در تست‌های درک مطلب زبان انگلیسی دبیرستان‌های ایران**

| Std. Deviation | Mean | Maximum | Minimum | N | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| .23 | 2.51 | 2.89 | 1.91 | 30 | **Log freq. content words (0-6)** |
| | | | | 30 | **Valid N (listwise)** |

● **متغیر ۴ : میزان درصد واژگانی نوع –نشانی (TTR )**

متغیر درصد واژگانی نوع - نشانی حاصل تقسیم نوع کلمات[۱۱] موجود در متن بر تعداد تکرارها یا نشانی‌های[۱۲] همان کلمه در متن مورد نظر اسـت. برای مثال، اگر کلمهٔ کتاب در یک متن پنج بار تکرار شـود، ارزش نوعی آن ۱ و ارزش نشـانی آن ۵ خواهد بود. هرچـه به عدد ۱ نزدیک‌تر می‌شـویم، هر کلمه تنها یک بار در متن تکرار شـده است که این مطلب در فرایند درک مطلب برای دانش‌آموز دشواری ایجاد می‌کند. نکتهٔ قابل توجه در این ماتریس این اسـت کـه نرم‌افزار تنها کلمات محتوایی را به‌حساب می‌آورد. اگر بروز و تکرار کلمات دستوری بیشتر از کلمات محتوایی باشد، درصد خوانایی و فهم متن کاهش می‌یابد.

در زبان‌شناسـی رایانشـی و مطالعات معناشناسی یکی از مقیاس‌های محاسـبۀ سطح دشـواری متون مختلف اندازه‌گیری نسـبت کلمات به تکرار آن‌ها در متن مورد توجه خاص محققان این حوزه بوده اسـت. در واکاوی این متغیر – همچنان‌که جدول ۴ نشان می‌دهد – محاسبۀ میانگین این درصد در میان تست‌های درک مطلب تحلیل شـده معادل ۷۶= μ محاسبه شد که نتیجۀ نسبتاً مطلوبی است.

## بحث و نتیجه‌گیری

نتایج آماری حاصل از این پژوهش بر روی سـی عدد آزمون درک مطلب انتخابی – کـه همگی آزمون درک مطلب از نوع باز بودند – نشان داد که در میان پنج متغیر مورد بررسی، که همگی از شاخص‌های افزایش پیوستگی متنی و در نتیجه بالا بردن میزان اصالت متون به‌حسـاب می‌آیند، دو متغیر شامل اندیس معنایی نهفته و میزان واژگان محتوایی شرایط نامطلوب بود. درمورد روابط نهفتۀ معنایی با توجه به میانگین نسبتاً پایین ۲۶= μ لزوم توجه به تکنیک‌های جرح و تعدیل[۱۳] در متون و سپس بازنگری آن‌ها توسط همکاران متعدد و یا گویندگان بومی جهت نزدیک شدن به ویژگی‌های متون اصیل امری بسیار ضروری به‌نظر می‌رسد. تجربۀ ده سـالۀ محقق نیـز در این خصوص نشـان می‌دهد که معمولاً طراحان سـؤال برای صرفه‌جویی در وقت سـعی بر آن دارند که متـون درک مطلب از یک بند (پاراگـراف) تجاوز نکند.حال آنکه این امر می‌تواند در پایین آوردن درک فراگیرندگان تأثیر داشـته باشـد و ملاحظات اخلاقی در باب رعایت انصاف را نیز خدشه‌دار سازد. واکاوی داده‌ها نتایج نسبتاً نامطلوبی را نیز درخصوص متغیر بعدی، یعنی میزان واژگان محتوایی، نشــان می‌داد. بدیهی است بالا بودن نسـبت کلمات محتوایی در متن به کلمات دستوری در تشکیل زنجیره‌های معنایی به درک دانش‌آموز کمک می‌کند که این ضعف تسـت‌های موجود را از این نظر نشان می‌داد. تجزیه و تحلیل داده‌ها درخصـوص دو متغیر بعدی، یعنی درصد واژگانی نوع – نشانی و میزان حروف ربط و اتصال‌دهنده‌ها که از مشخصات عینی انسـجام متنی[۱۴] به‌حساب می‌آیند، نشان داد که تست‌های مورد استفاده وضعیت خوبی داشته‌اند. نکتۀ قابل ملاحظه در این خصوص آن است که ادات ربطی کارایی عمده‌ای در زمینۀ ارتقای انسـجام متون دارند و ایـن نکته نیز همواره مـورد توجه خاص زبان‌شناسـان کاربردی و دیگر محققان حوزۀ زبان‌شناسی است. توجه خاص به آمـوزش و چگونگی بهره‌گیـری از وجود حروف ربط در تحلیـل معنایی متون از دیگر نـکات حیاتی در تدریس مهارت‌های خواندن جهت یادگیری جنبه‌های فراکلامی[۱۵] به‌شمار می‌آید که معلمان زبان انگلیسی نباید از آن‌ها غافل باشند. لزوم جرح وتعدیل متون با استفاده از ابزار رایانه‌ای کوماتریس – که در دو سال اخیر بسیار مورد استفادۀ محققان حوزۀ آموزش زبان قرار گرفته است – این امکان را به معلمان می‌دهد تا سریع‌تر از گذشته بـه گزینش متون مفید و قابل تعمیم بـه موقعیت‌های یادگیری

**جدول ۴. محاسبۀ میانگین میزان درصد واژگانی نوع –نشانی در تست‌های درک مطلب زبان انگلیسی دبیرستان‌های ایران**

| Std. Deviation | Mean | Maximum | Minimum | N | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| .089 | .76 | .91 | .56 | 30 | **Type-Token ratio** |
| | | | | 30 | **Valid N (listwise)** |

## ● متغیر ۵: میزان حروف ربط و اتصال‌دهنده‌ها

بررسـی و واکاوی میزان حروف ربـط در متون و ارتباط آن با درک بهتـر در حوزه‌های گوناگون تجزیه و تحلیل کلام وعلوم روان‌شناسـی همیشـه مدنظر محققان بوده است. در مکالمات و گفت‌وگوهـا وجـود این‌گونـه اتصال‌دهنده‌های کلامـی به وفور حس می‌شود (239-199:2003 ,.Louwerse, et al). تأثیر عمدۀ حـروف ربط در بالا بردن میزان فهـم دانش‌آموز از طریق تقویت یادآوری مطلب و حافظه در تحقیقات مکرر به اثبات رسیده است. (1-43 :1996 ,.McNamara, et al). لذا این متغیر نیز در بررسی متـون مورد اسـتفاده در تسـت‌های پایان ترم دبیرسـتان‌های ایران مورد تجزیه و تحلیل آمـاری قرار گرفت. درصد پراکندگی حروف ربط موجود در تسـت‌های مورد بررسی، که از جملۀ دیگر اندیس‌های اصالت متون به‌حسـاب می‌آید، نیـز طبق جدول ۵ محاسبه گردید ۸۴/۰۰=μ .

**جدول ۵. میانگین درصد میزان حروف ربط و اتصال دهنده‌ها در تست‌های درک مطلب زبان انگلیسی دبیرستان‌های ایران**

| Std. Deviation | Mean | Maximum | Minimum | N | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 35.23 | 84.00 | 146.67 | .40 | 30 | **Connectives** |
| | | | | 30 | **Valid N (listwise)** |

هدف نزدیک‌تر شوند.

## توصیه به دبیران

از جمله عوامل تأثیرگــذار بر فاصلۀ زیاد میان نظریه و عمل در کشــورمان، پیچیده بودن مباحث آزمون‌سازی به علت پیوند با مســائل آماری از یک سو و عدم دسترســی کامل دبیران زبان انگلیســی به مجــلات تخصصی مهارت‌های زبانی در کشــورمان بــه علل مختلف از جمله کمبود وقت اســت. از دیگر ســو، نیاز بــه راه‌انــدازی مجلاتی که مســتقیماً به ســنجش مهارت‌های زبانــی بپردازند نیز احســاس می‌شــود. از جملــه خبرنامه‌های بســیار مهم درخصوص ســنجش مهارت‌های زبانی می‌توان به Language Testing Update اشــاره کــرد کــه دبیران زبان انگلیسی می‌توانند با دسترســی مستمر به آن‌ها اطلاعات حوزۀ سنجشــی خویش را به‌روز کنند و یــا در این زمینه‌ها به تحقیق و ارزیابــی بپردازند. خبرنامۀ مذکور به مســائل واقعی کلاس‌های درس زبان می‌پردازد و تجربیــات آموزنده‌ای را در اختیار دبیران زبــان قرار می‌دهد. به امید آنکه معلمان زبان انگلیســی با صرف وقت بیشتر دقت و حساسیت خود را در جنبه‌های سنجش روایی و اعتبار آزمون‌های کلاســی خود، به‌خصوص در بخش خواندن و درک مفاهیم، افزایش دهند و از این طریق، علاوه‌بر ایجاد انگیزه و جلوگیری از دلسردی دانش‌آموزان قابلیت تعمیم‌پذیری تست‌های خود را نیز با دقت پیگیری نمایید.

### پی‌نوشت‌ها

1. construct validity
2. Backman
3. situational authenticity
4. interactional authenticity
5. Coh-matrix (Ver. 2)
6. Adjacent Argument Overlap
7. Frequency of Content Words
8. Type-Token ratio (TTR)
9. Connectives
10. argument
11. type
12. token
13. Elaboration
14. cohesion
15. Meta-discourse

### منابع

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# سی سال آموزش زبان انگلیسی به‌عنوان زبان دوم یا خارجی: بازتاب اندیشۀ شخصی

## (بخش دوم)

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## ۴. یادگیری زبان دوم مشتمل بر چه فرایندهایی است؟

در اوایل دهۀ هفتـاد، نظریه‌های یادگیری زبان در بریتانیا و آمریکای شمالی شـباهت‌های زیادی داشتند گرچه از سنت‌های نظریه‌پردازی متفاوتی نشـئت گرفته بودند. نظریۀ رفتارگرایی در تعلیم‌وتربیت و روان‌شناسی غالب بود. طبق این نظریه، فرایندهای تقلیــد، تمرین، تحکیم برونداد و شـکل‌گیری عـادت در تمامی انواع یادگیری، به‌ویژه زبان آموزی نقشـی اساسی ایفا می‌کردند. چامسـکی این نظریه را به‌دلیل اعمال قابل نبودن در زبان‌آموزی رد و بر ماهیّت شـناختی زبان آموزی تأکید کرد. همچنین، او بر این باور بود که کودکان از بدو تولّد دانشی انتزاعی دربارۀ ماهیّت زبان دارنــد و این دانش انتزاعی همان **دسـتور زبان همگانی**[1] است. به‌عبارت دیگر، به‌نظر چامسکی قرارگرفتن در معرض زبان برای تحکیم فرایندهای فراگیری زبان و فرایندهای تشکیل فرضیه که در مطالعات زبان‌آموزی آشکار شده‌اند کفایت می‌کند.

### ● فراگیری زبان دوم

ایــن نظریـــات در زبان‌شناسـی کاربردی علاقه بسـیاری را برانگیخـت و نتیجۀ آن پدید آمـدن حوزه‌های **تجزیه و تحلیل خطـا**[2] و **فراگیری زبـان دوم**[3] بود. این حوزه‌هـا در پی یافتن توجیه‌های دیگری به‌جز شـکل‌گیری عادت برای یادگیری زبان دوم بودنـد. تجزیه و تحلیل خطا اسـتدلال می‌کرد که خطاهای

## اشاره

آنچه از نظر شما خوانندگان محترم می‌گذرد، قسمت دوم مقاله‌ای اسـت که بخش نخسـت آن در شمارۀ پیشین مجله آمده اسـت. در این مقاله، پروفسـور جک. سـی. ریچاردز به عواملی پرداخته اسـت که تفکر و زندگی حرفه‌ای وی در طی سـی سال گذشته تحت تأثیر قرار داده و باعث شده با نگاه به وضع موجود به چند سؤال اساسی پاسخ دهد.

زبان‌آموزان نظام‌مند بوده و همیشه از زبان مادری نشئت نمی‌گیرند و نمایانگر رشد نظام زبانی یا **زبان بینابینی**[4] زبان‌آموزان هستند. به‌تدریج این دیـدگاه پدید آمد که زبان‌آموز فعّالانه و خلّاقانه در رشد زبان بینابینی خویش دخالت دارد. **دولی و برت**[5] در **فرضیۀ ساخت خلاق**[6] در پی توضیح این دیدگاه بودند. این فرضیه، این موضوع را مطرح می‌کرد که زبان‌آموزان ـ با استفاده از فرایندهای طبیعی مانند تعمیم ـ سـاختارهای نوینـی را ایجاد می‌کنند که در زبان مقصد یافت نمی‌شـود. دولی و برت اسـتدلال کردند که بسیاری از ویژگی‌های دستوری زبان دوم ـ همانند فراگیری زبان اول ـ در ترتیبی قابل پیش‌بینی یا همان **توالی رشـد**[7] فراگرفته می‌شوند. با این وجود، در دهۀ نود قرن بیستم آرای جدید نظریۀ چامسـکی جایگزین تجزیه و تحلیل خطا و فرضیۀ ساخت خلاق شـد. نظریۀ دستور زبان همگانی چامسـکی به‌گونه‌ای پرورانیده شـده بود که دانش ذاتـی را در برگیرد؛ این دانـش ذاتی دربارۀ **اصول**[8] زبان (به‌عنوان مثال این واقعیت که در همه زبان‌ها معمولاً ضمیر وجود دارد) و پراسنجه‌[9]هایشان (به‌عنوان مثال این واقعیت که در بعضی زبان‌ها می‌توان این ضمایر را در جایگاه فاعل حذف کرد) را شـامل می‌شـد. این شیوه، هم برای مطالعۀ فراگیری زبان اول و هم زبان دوم به‌کار گرفته شد (اشمیت[10]، ۲۰۰۲).

● **مدل پردازش اطّلاعات**

سـایر ابعـاد یادگیری زبـان دوم با توجّه به مـدل یادگیری

**پردازش اطّلاعات**[11] تبیین شد. دوگونۀ متفاوت پردازش در این مدل متمایز شده‌اند: الف) **پردازش کنترل شده**[12]: هنگامی واقع می‌شود که انجام عمل مستلزم توجّه آگاهانه و استفادۀ **حافظۀ کوتاه‌مـدّت**[13] اسـت. ب) **پـردازش خـودکار**[14]: هنگامی واقع می‌شـود که زبان‌آموز عملی را بدون توجّه یـا آگاهی انجام داده و برای انجام آن بیشـتر از اطّلاعات **حافظۀ بلندمدّت**[15] استفاده می‌کنـد. یادگیری عملکرد رفتاری همراه بـا پردازش خودکار را شامل می‌شود. الگوی پردازش اطّلاعات توضیحی برای این مسئله ارائه داد که چرا گاهی زبان‌آموزان از روانی بیان بیشتر و (پردازش خودکار) وگاهی کمتر (پردازش کنترل شـده) برخوردارند و چرا زبان‌آموزان در مراحل اولیۀ زبان‌آموزی باید تلاش بسـیاری برای فهم زبان و تولید آن انجام دهند (اسپادا و لایتبون[16]، ۲۰۰۲).

● **نظریۀ ویگوتسْکی**

یادگیری از طریـق تعامل (**فرضیۀ تعامـل**[17]) نیز به‌عنوان جایگزیـن یادگیـری از طریق تکرار و شـکل‌گیری عادت مطرح شـد. تعامل و **گفت‌وگو برای حصول معنا**[18] برای یادگیری از طریق فعالیت ضروری فرض می‌شـود. یادگیری از طریق فعالیت مستلزم توجه به معنا، چانه‌زنی معنایی و **برون‌داد قابل درک**[19] اسـت. برون‌داد قابل درک باعث می‌شـود فرایندهای **توجه**[20] و **بازسازی**[21] اتفاق بیفتد.

بـا این وجود، یادگیری هم فرایندی اجتماعی و هم فرایندی

شـناختی محسوب می‌شـد. برخی از محققان از نظریهٔ فراگیری زبان دوم از دیدگاه ویگوتسکی دربارهٔ محدودهٔ تقریبی پیشرفت[22] استفاده کردند. محدودهٔ تقریبی پیشرفت بر تفاوت آنچه زبان‌آموز در حـال حاضـر می‌تواند انجام دهـد و آنچـه در مرحلهٔ بعدی یادگیری یعنی سـطح پیشـرفت بالقوّه[23] می‌تواند انجام دهد؛ و همچنیـن چگونگی اتفاق افتادن یادگیـری از طریق تعامل بین زبان‌آموز و فردی مسـلط‌تر طی فرایند همیاری[24] اسـتوار است. بـرای اینکه زبان‌آمـوز بتواند در این فرایندهـا ایفای نقش کند، باید توانش تعاملی[25] یعنی توانایـی ادارهٔ تعاملات زبانی، علیرغم محدودیـت زبانـی افزایش دهد. شـخصیت، انگیزش و سـبک شناختی بر تمایل زبان‌آموز برای خطرپذیری، سعهٔ صدر در تعامل اجتماعی و نگرش‌هایش نسبت به زبان و سخنگویان زبان مقصد تأثیر می‌گذارند.

دیدگاه‌هـای کنونی یادگیـری زبان دوم این‌گونه اسـتدلال می‌کننـد که یادگیری هنگامی اتفاق می‌افتـد که موارد ذیل در کلاس درس فراهم شوند (شرام و گلیسان[26]، ۲۰۰۰، ۱۵–۱۴)

● درون داد قابل درک به زبان مقصد
● محیطی تعاملی کـه گونه‌های متعددی از ابزارهای اجتماعی، زبانی و شناختی را برای ساماندهی و تغییر چگونگی شرکت در گفت‌وگو را مدل‌سازی کرده و ارائه می‌دهد.
● فرصت‌هایـی بـرای زبان‌آموزان تا با همیـاری با معلم و دیگر زبان‌آموزان، به چانه‌زنی معنایی به زبان مقصد بپردازند.
● فرصت‌هایی بـرای زبان‌آموزان تا با یکدیگـر و به زبان مقصد تعامل ارتباطی برقرار نمایند.
● مکالمه‌ها و فعالیت‌های هدفمند و معنی‌دار
● محیطی فاقد تنش که زمینهٔ ابراز عقاید را فراهم می‌آورد.

با ایـن وجود طی دههٔ نود، نظریـهٔ فراگیـری زبان دوم هنوز دیدگاهی دسـتورمحور از زبان ارائه داده و در این دیدگاه توضیح مـی‌داد که زبان‌آموزان چگونه دانش خود را دربارهٔ «قواعد» زبان مقصد افزایش می‌دهند. اخیراً طرفداران پیوندگرایی[27] این دیدگاه را زیر سـؤال برده‌انـد. پیوندگرایی، یادگیـری را این‌گونه توجیه

می‌کنند که زبان نه براسـاس مجموعه قواعد انتزاعی یا دسـتور همگانی، بلکه براسـاس «مدل‌های مبتنی بر احتمالات یا تداعی فراگیری، به‌جای مدل‌های نمادیـن و قاعده‌محور» (مک کارتی، ۲۰۰۱، ۸۳) فراگرفته می‌شـود. امروزه نظریهٔ فراگیری زبان دوم، هنوز هم شـدیداً تحت تأثیر نظریهٔ زبانشناختی چامسکی است و توجه‌اش محدود به زبان شفاهی و فراگیری توانش دستوری است. به این دلیل، فهم چگونگی یادگیری سایر جنبه‌های زبان همچون خواندن، نگارش یا شنیدن بسیار غیرمرتبط به‌نظر می‌رسد (رجوع شود به گریب[28]، ۲۰۰۲).

## در گذشته:
● پیدایش حوزه‌های تجزیه و تحلیل خطا و فراگیری زبان دوم
● نظریه‌های شناختی یادگیری به‌عنوان جایگزین نظریهٔ رفتارگرا
● مطرح شدن فرضیّهٔ ساخت خلّاق
● مطرح شدن مفهوم زبان بینابینی
● توصیف توالی رشد
● مدل‌های یادگیری پردازش اطلاعات

## در حال حاضر:
● نقش دستور همگانی
● روش‌های یادگیری تعاملی
● یادگیری از طریق همیاری
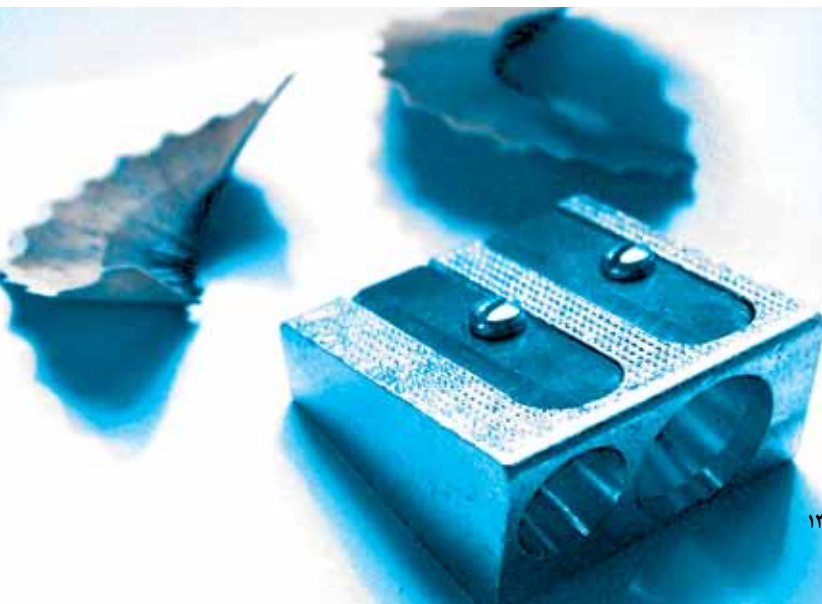● مطرح شدن روش‌های یادگیری مبتنی بر احتمالات

## کلیدواژه‌ها:
پردازش خودکار، پیوندگرایی، پردازش کنترل شده، فرضیهٔ ساخت خلاق، توالی رشـد، تجزیـه و تحلیل خطا، پـردازش اطّلاعات، فرضیهٔ تعامل، توانش تعاملی، زبان بینابینی، حافظهٔ بلندمدت، چانه‌زنی معنایی، اصول، پراسـنجه‌ها، همیاری، فراگیری زبـان دوم، حافظهٔ کوتاه مدّت، دستور همگانی، محدودهٔ تقریبی یادگیری

## ۵. نقش زبان‌آموز چیست؟

طّی سی سـال اخیر، زبان‌آموزان در فرایند زبان‌آموزی نقش بسـیار مهم‌تری نسـبت به اوایل دهۀ هفتاد برعهده گرفته‌اند. در دهۀ هفتاد، سـهم زبان‌آموز را کم‌اهمیت می‌پنداشتیم و یا آن را منفی می‌دانستیم. این‌گونه می‌پنداشتیم که دلایل یادگیری زبان انگلیسـی و همچنین روش فراگیری زبان برای همۀ زبان‌آموزان یکسان اسـت. همچنین، فرض بر این بود که آموزش زبان موفّق به معنای کنترل کردن زبان‌آموز اسـت و روش تدریس موفّق نیز روش تدریسـی است که زبان‌آموز بی‌علاقه را در یادگیری درگیر کند. امّا بعد از دهۀ هفتاد، بازاندیشـی درخصوص سهم زبان‌آموز در زبان‌آموزی به‌طور جدی شـروع شد. کتابی با عنوان جان اُلر[۲۹] (اُلـر و ریچاردز[۳۰]) که خـودم آن را در آن زمـان ویرایش کردم، کاملاً بجا و مناسب **تمرکز بر زبان آموز**[۳۱] را مطرح کرد و در پی معرّفی این گرایش جدید بود. تمرکز بر زبان‌آموز در چندین روش متفاوت مطرح شد.

### ● نقش انگیزش

گرایشـی که در این زمان پدیدار گشـت، نقش انگیزش در زبـان آموزی بود. دو موضع گیری اولیه و مشـخّص عبارت بودند از: الـف) **انگیزش ابزاری**[۳۲] (ماننـد تمایل به یادگیری یک زبان برای مزیّت‌های عملی) و ب) **انگیزش همسانی**[۳۳] (مانند تمایل بـه یادگیری یـک زبان برای تعامل با دیگران و همسان‌شـدن با اعضای ارزشـمند جامعۀ زبان مقصد). تمایـز دیگری که پدیدار گشـت، عبارت بود از تمایز بین **انگیـزش درونی**[۳۴] (صرفاً لذّت زبان‌آموزی) و **انگیزش برونی**[۳۵] (ناشی از عوامل بیرونی همچون: فشـار والدین، انتظارات اجتماعی، ملزومات دانشـگاهی یا سایر عوامل تشـویق یا تنبیه). سـاختار انگیزش بر ایـن موارد تأکید می‌کرد: اهمّیّت **تفاوت‌های فردی**[۳۶] (اسـتعداد زبانی[۳۷]، سن و جنسـیّت)، نقش زبان‌آموز در تعیین هدف‌های زبان آموزی، نوع تلاشی که ممکن است متحمّل شـود و نیاز برای یافتن راه‌هایی

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برای خلق شرایط انگیزشی در کلاس.
ظهـور **روش‌های انسـان‌گرا**[۳۸] در دهۀ هفتـاد، بیانگر بُعد دیگری از تمرکز بر زبان آموز بودند. در روش‌های انسان گرا اصول ذیل مهم تلقّی می‌شدند:
● پیشرفت ارزش‌های انسانی
● افزایش خودآگاهی و درک دیگران
● حسّاسیّت نسبت به عواطف و روحیات انسانی
● حضور فعّال در یادگیری و روش یادگیری
**یادگیری مشاوره‌ای**[۳۹] و **روش تدریس صامت**[۴۰] نمونه‌هایی از این نهضت در دهۀ هفتاد هستند و اگرچه امروزه تاحدود زیادی اثری از این روش‌ها نیست، فلسفۀ انسان‌گرا در رویکردهای ابداعی جدیدتر همچون **برنامه‌ریزی عصب‌شـناختی زبان**[۴۱] و **هوش چندگانه**[۴۲] حضور دارد.

### ● فردی‌سازی

شاخه متفاوتی از مضمون تمرکز بر زبان آموز در همان زمان و تحت عنوان **آموزش فردی**[۴۳] و یا واژۀ عمومی‌تر **فردی‌سازی**[۴۴] پدیدار گشـت. رویکردهای فردی آموزش زبان بر پیش‌فرض‌های زیر استوارند:
● یادگیری در افراد به شکل‌های مختلف اتفاق می‌افتند.
● افراد می‌توانند از منابع متفاوت یاد بگیرند.
● زبان‌آموزان اهداف متفاوتی را برای زبان‌آموزی دنبال می‌کنند.
● آموزش مستقیم معلّم همیشه برای یادگیری ضروری نیست.
فردی سـازی مشتمل بر مواردی همچون: آموزش حضوری انفرادی، مطالعه در خانه، **یادگیـری خودراهبرانه**[۴۵]، یادگیری زبان‌آموزمحور و حرکت به‌سوی **خودمختاری زبان‌آموز**[۴۶] است. تمام این موارد بر زبان‌آموز به‌عنوان یک فرد تأکید دارند و در پی تشویق پیشگامی زبان‌آموز و احترام به تفاوت‌های فردی زبان‌آموزان می‌باشد. در دهۀ هشتاد، اصطلاح **زبان آموزمحوری**[۴۷] جایگزین فردی‌سـازی شـد. زبان‌آموزمحوری به این عقیده اشاره دارد که

توجّه به استعداد زبان‌آموزان باید در تمام جنبه‌های آموزش زبان یعنی برنامه‌ریزی، آموزش و ارزشیابی نقش اصلی را برعهده داشته باشــد. یادگیری به استعداد و خواســت زبان‌آموزان وابسته است. زبان‌آموزمحوری در موارد ذیل منعکس می‌شود:
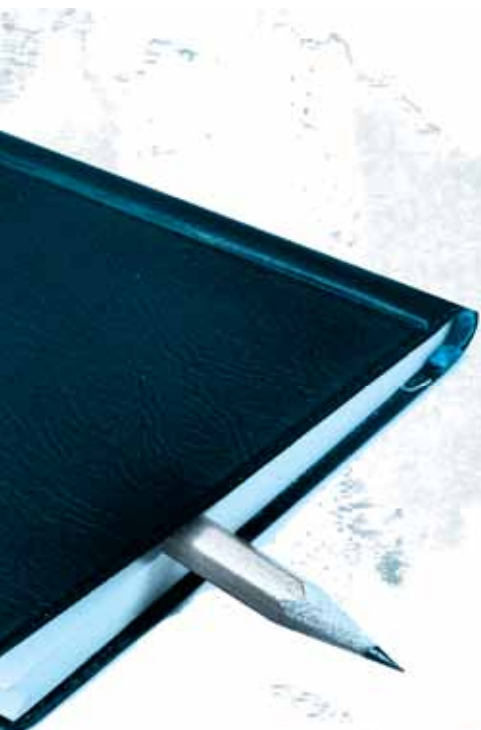
- به رسمیت شناختن دانش پیشین زبان‌آموز
- به رسمت شناختن نیازها، هدف‌ها و آرزوهای زبان‌آموز
- به رسمیت شــناختن سبک‌های یادگیــری زبــان آموز و اولویت‌های یادگیری
- به رسمیت شناختن نظرات زبان‌آموز دربارۀ یادگیری و ماهیّت فعالیت‌های کلاسی

در رویکردهــای زبان‌آموزمحور به‌دلیل اینکه نیازها، توقعات، دانش و استعداد زبان‌آموزان متفاوت است، طرح درس و تدریس اغلب به‌واسطۀ **تجزیه و تحلیل نیازها**[۴۸] به فرایندهای چانه‌زنی دوطرف تبدیل می‌شود. این رویکردی بود که در برنامۀ استرالیایی آموزش مهاجران[۴۹] اســتفاده و در کتــاب نونان[۵۰] با عنوان **برنامۀ آموزشــی زبان‌آموزمحور**[۵۱] توصیف شــد (نونــان، ۱۹۸۸). در ایــن کتاب، آموزش زبان‌آموزمحور و آموزش معلّم‌محور بررســی و مقایسه شدند. لازم به ذکر است، آموزش معلّم محور آموزشی اســت که تصمیم‌های اصلــی را معلّم و براســاس اولویت‌هایش می‌گیرد.

- **راهکارهای یادگیری**

در دهــۀ هشــتاد، گرایش به تفاوت‌های زبان آموزان منجر بــه پژوهش دربارۀ **راهکارهای یادگیری**[۵۲] تبدیل شــد. در دهۀ هشــتاد و نود، ایــن موضوع توجه زیادی را جلــب کرد. راهکارها ابتدا به‌واســطۀ این موارد مورد توجّه واقع شــدند: پژوهش‌هایی دربارۀ **زبان‌آموز موفّق**[۵۳] در اواســط دهۀ هفتــاد و این ایده که در آموزش زبان مجبوریم راهکارهای زبان‌آموزی را آموزش داده و

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**سبک‌های شناختی**[۵۴] متفاوت را بپذیریم. برای مثال راهکارهای خواندن مشتمل بر موارد ذیل است (کوهن و دُرنی[۵۵]، ۲۰۰۲):

در ارتباط با عادت‌های خواندن در زبان مقصد:
- تلاشی واقعی صورت گیرد تا مطالبی که در سطح یا نزدیک به سطح افراد باشد یافت شود.

در ارتباط با راهکارهای پایه‌ای خواندن:
- برنامه‌ریزی برای چگونه خواندن یک متن، نظارت بر چگونگی در خواندن و سپس بررسی اینکه چه مقدار از متن درک شده است.
- خلاصــه کردن متــن در حین خوانــدن، یا در ذهــن و یا در حاشیه‌های متن

هنگام مواجهه با واژگان و ساختارهای جدید:
- حدس زدن معنی با استفاده از سرنخ‌های متن مجاور
- استفاده از فرهنگ برای درک با جزئیات معنی واژه

برخی از راهکارها مؤثّرتر از بقیّه هستند و با تمایز قائل‌شدن بین راهکارهای افراد پیشــرفته و مبتدی و یــا زبان‌آموزان موفّق در مقایســه با زبان‌آموزان ضعیف می‌توانیــم میزان تأثیر آموزش و یادگیــری را افزایش دهیم. **آمــوزش راهکار**[۵۶] و ایدۀ راهکارها هنوز مورد توجّه است امّا شاید نه به اندازۀ دهۀ پیش، زیرا بسیاری از معلّمان احســاس می‌کنند که به ســختی می‌توان راهکارها را مشــخّص کرد، گاهی راهکارها از یک زبان‌آموز به زبان‌آموز دیگر متفاوت‌اند و اغلب به ســختی می‌توان آن‌ها را در آموزش به‌کار گرفت.

**در گذشته:**
- آموزش معلّم محور
- یکسان دانستن زبان آموزان
- معلّم و روش، کنترل کنندگان زبان آموزی

● پیدایش روش‌های انسان گرا
● بررسی نقش انگیزش
● تأکید بر تفاوت‌های فردی

**در حال حاضر:**

● آموزش زبان آموزمحور
● تنوّع به‌عنوان نقطهٔ قوّت
● تأکید بر تفاوت‌های فردی
● آموزش راهکارهای یادگیری
● نسخه‌های جدید رویکردهای انسان‌گرا

**کلیدواژه‌ها:**

تفاوت‌های فردی، فردی‌سازی، آموزش فردی، استعداد زبانی، راهکارهای یادگیری، خودمختاری زبان‌آموز، یادگیری زبان‌آموزمحور، سبک‌شناختی، انگیــزش بیرونــی، زبان‌آموز موفّق، انگیزش ابزاری، انگیزش همســانی، انگیزش درونی، تربیت زبان‌آموز، راهکارهای یادگیری، روش‌های انسان گــرا، زبان‌آموزمحوری، تجزیه و تحلیل نیازهــا، یادگیری خودراهبرانه، آموزش راهکار، برنامه‌ریزی عصب شناختی زبان، هوش‌های چندگانه

**پی‌نوشت‌ها**

# فعالیـــت‌هـای گـروه درسـی زبان‌های خارجی

سید بهنام علوی‌مقدم | مدیر گروه زبان دفتر برنامه‌ریزی و تألیف کتب درسی

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**Roshd
& Teachers**
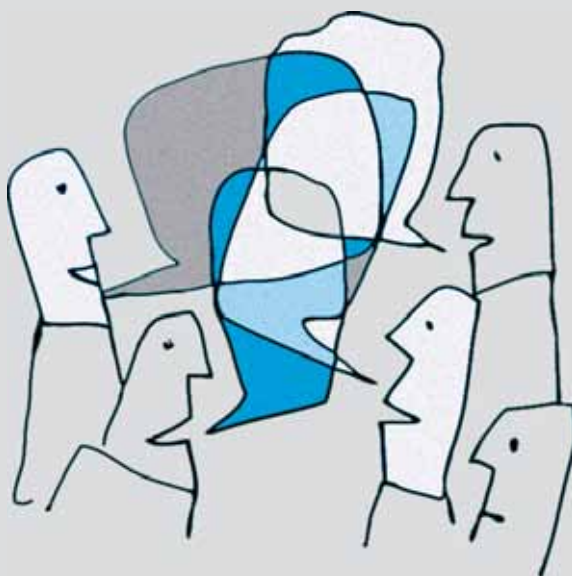
تألیــف و تدویــن بخش‌های مختلف بســتۀ آموزشــی زبان انگلیســی پایۀ هفتم به انجام رسید و کتاب دانش‌آموز، کتاب کار، راهنمای معلم و لوح فشردۀ آموزشی مربوط به این پایه به همراه فلش کارت مخصوص معلم منتشر شد و در اختیار مخاطبان قرار گرفت.

همچنین دو دورۀ آموزشی ویژۀ مدرسان میانی بستۀ آموزشی جدید نیز در مردادماه و شهریورماه با حضور دویست نفر از دبیران باتجربۀ درس زبان انگلیســی پایۀ هفتم برگزار شــد و حاضران با روش تدریس، رویکرد جدید کتاب و نحوۀ ارزشــیابی مســتمر و پایانی آن آشنا شدند. همچنین مقرر گردید درس زبان پایۀ را تنها دبیرانی تدریس کنند که در دوره‌های آموزشی مورد تأیید حضور یافته و این دوره‌ها را با موفقیت به اتمام رسانده باشند. دوره‌هایی مورد تأیید گروه زبان‌های خارجی دفتر تألیف است که با اطلاع و هماهنگی این گروه برگزار شود و در چارچوب سرفصل‌های مورد

تصویب گروه مؤلفان کتاب اجرا گردد.

همچنین گفتنی است که بستۀ آموزشی مربوط به پایۀ هفتم تحصیلی به هیچ‌گونه کتاب کمک‌آموزشی، اعم از راهنما یا کتاب تســت، نیاز ندارد و از همکاران و والدین گرامی دعوت می‌شود تا با اعتماد کامل به بســتۀ موردنظر از ورود کتاب‌های غیراستاندارد به چرخۀ آموزشــی درس زبان‌انگلیســی پایۀ هفتم به‌طور جدی پرهیز کنند.

والدیــن گرامــی می‌توانند بــا مطالعۀ بخــش مقدمۀ کتاب دانش‌آموز با ویژگی‌های برنامۀ آموزشــی جدید زبان‌های خارجی بیش از پیش آشنا شوند.

گروه زبان‌های خارجی دفتر، آمادگی دارد که ضمن دریافت نظـرات تخصصی همکاران گرامی، هرگونه پرســش همکاران در زمینۀ چگونگی تدریس بهینۀ کتاب تازه تألیف را پاسخ دهد.

Features:

● Teaching principles, strategic, and techniques are richly illustrated with classroom vignettes and textbook excerpts to demonostrate practical applications.

● World-class specialists offer a variety of perspectives o language teaching and the language learning process.

● Reflection question invite readers to think about critical issues in language teaching, while Action tasks outline strategies for putting new techniques into practice.
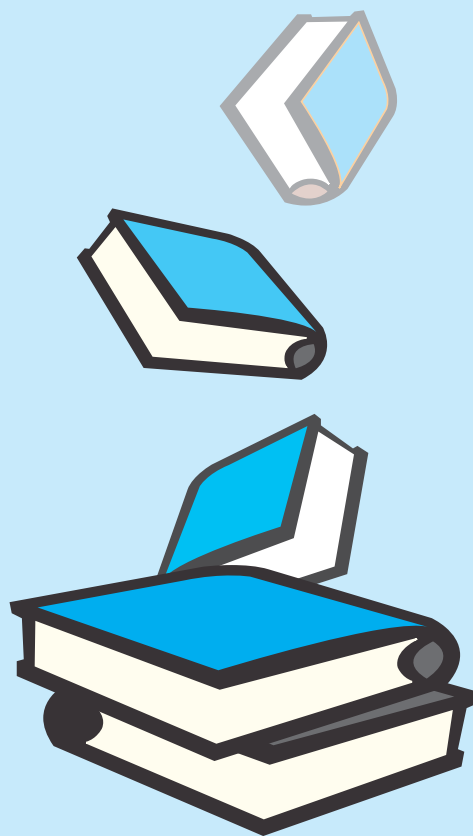
# Practical English Language Teaching

**David Nunan, Editor**

## Books

**Shahla Zarei Neyestanak**
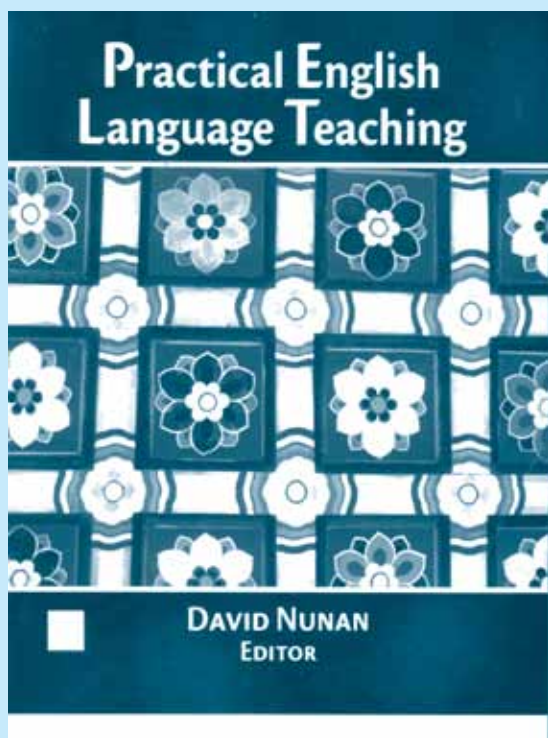


*Practical English Language Teaching* offers a thorough yet practical overview of language teaching methodology for teachers and teachers in preparation.

can often enlist the learners' help in the innovative process of creating online content, encouraging them to be active participants on the Net, or *productive consumers*[1]. As Marandi (ibid.) points out, "If handled tastefully, this would lead to the further development of the learners' English performance and communicative skills, and would also encourage dialog among different cultures." There are numerous ways of doing this, from the creation/use of weblogs, wikis and podcasts, to online cultural exchanges through forums, email, etc.

This does not mean to encourage the unbridled production of online content at any cost, however. There is little merit in producing for production's sake, and many would argue that there is enough useless content on the Internet already. In fact, you may remember from the second article in this series (Marandi, 2011a) that Franklin (1999, cited in Chapelle, 2003) equated the Internet to a giant garbage dump! And read Bowers (2000) for a thought-provoking discussion of how even highly-applauded educational software can still lead to "ecologically destructive patterns" (p. 129) and "problematic cultural patterns of thinking" (p. 130). I also advise you to read Keen (2007) for a heated, intriguing and sometimes contentious discussion of how the online mass production perpetrated by the "noble amateur" through blogging, YouTube, Facebook, Wikipedia, etc. is destroying culture. All these serve to indicate that online production requires at least as much critical thinking as online consumption! However, this should not scare us off and stop us from trying; it merely signifies the importance of careful planning.

**Task 3:** Think of ways that you and/or your students can make meaningful online contributions while preserving your native identities. Which language skills would be addressed? According to which learning theories?

Next time, we will explore one of the many possible answers to Task 3, by discussing the potentials of a very common yet useful online, language-mediated tool. Which, you ask? Keep guessing…

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## Note

1. Productive consumption has been defined as "when the goods are not meant for final consumption but for producing other goods which will satisfy human wants, e.g. use of fertilizer in agriculture" ("Meaning of consumption and their classification," n.d.). It appears to have its roots in fields such as agriculture, marketing, and the like, but it has also been appropriated for cultural/educational productions, as well.

the simplest and most innocent of them being unequal access. In fact, I would argue that one of the reasons that the Internet is not always a reliable source for information is that it largely represents the ideas of the privileged people of each country and of the world at large. Put in other words, at the very least (and even putting aside political power), it represents the collective websites, posts and contributions of those who have not only (the often costly) access, but also the know-how (i.e., sufficient information as well as familiarity/comfort with the use of new technologies), as well as (in most cases) adequate command of English and acquaintance with certain aspects of the Western culture. This often entails knowing something of the international audience you are potentially addressing, as well as discerning how you are most likely to make yourself heard and to persuade them to embrace your ideas.

**Be productive**

So far in these "do-it-yourself" CALL ar-ticles you have learnt a lot about how to be good "consumers" of the Internet; for example, which websites provide (un)reliable information, how to tell if a link is safe or not, being wary of the (intentional or unintentional) hidden agenda of educational programs, etc. However, at the end of the day a responsible CALL teacher will not limit her/his class to the mere consumption of other people's contributions. Marandi (2010, p. 185) stresses that one of the important obligations of a CALL teacher should be considered "the creation of more websites that are useful, motivating, and safe" instead of "limiting ourselves to only hunting down the problematic ones." This is doubly important for countries/cultures which are underrepresented or misrepresented on the Internet, such as Iran and the Iranian culture. And incidentally, such content creation need not be limited to websites and the Internet, since there is an equally compelling need for indigenous language teaching software, as well.

In the case of the Internet, the teacher

influences they are exposed to via computer software and the Internet. A simple example is demonstrated in Karimi Alavijeh's PhD dissertation (forthcoming), entitled, *Internet-Mediated English Teaching: The Promotion of Electronic Colonialism?* Karimi asked a number of Iranian EFL teachers which websites they used most for their English classes. Ironically, some of the websites ranking highest on the list were openly hostile toward Iran, such as VoA English and BBC, among others.

**Task 2:** Make a list of all the websites you regularly use. How many conform to your national and Islamic identity? Now specify how many of these are in English? Are you represented adequately and fairly on the Internet? Is your culture/nationality/ideology accorded the respect it demands?

A popular myth about the Internet which is propagated not just by the uninitiated, but even by some very experienced users of the Internet is that it gives equal voice to haves and have-nots alike. It is mistakenly assumed that since, potentially, everybody can publish on the "World Wide Web," it is democratic and egalitarian. For example, Richardson (2010) describes Tim Berners-Lee's "grand vision" (p. 1) of a Read/Write Web which would allow people from all over the world to meet and collaborate. He then celebrates, "The Read/Write Web has arrived," (p. 2), continuing:

> No matter how you look at it, we are creating what author Douglas Rushkoff calls a "society of authorship" where every teacher and every student—every person with access—will have the ability to contribute ideas and experiences to the larger body of knowledge that is the Internet. And in doing so, Rushkoff says, we will be writing the human story,

> in real time, together—a vision that asks each of us to participate (p. 5).

What neither Rushkoff nor Richardson seem to take into account is that the Internet is still controlled in understated but powerful ways by a myriad of stakeholders. As just one example, I refer you to Goldsmith and Wu's (2008) book: *Who controls the Internet? Illusions of a borderless world,* what they call "the story of the death of the dream of self-governing cyber-communities that would escape geography forever" (p. xi). As people who themselves subscribe to the controversial necessity of government "coercion," the themes of their widely-cited book are as follow: "the importance of governmental coercion to Internet activities; the trend toward geographical bordering of the Internet as a result of top-down government coercion and bottom-up consumer demand; and the many virtues, and undeniable vices, of a bordered Net" (p. x).

From the other side of the globe, Anatoly Voronov, director of the Russian Internet service provider, is quoted as having said:

> It is just incredible when I hear people talking about how open the Web is. It is the ultimate act of intellectual colonialism....if you are talking about a technology that is supposed to open the world to hundreds of millions of people you are joking. This just makes the world into new sorts of haves and have nots (Crystal, 1997, p. 108).

While Voronov is referring to the way people are required to "adapt to English" (p. 108) on the Internet, there are obviously a multitude of other ways in which the Internet could be said to contribute to the dividing the world into new "haves/have-nots,"

since its publication in 2003:

Butler-Pascoe, M. E. & Wiburg, K. M. (2003). *Technology and teaching English language learners.* MA: Allyn and Bacon.

There are, of course, numerous other good books on CALL, including those focused primarily on the theories of CALL. Some of these books are extremely thought-provoking and scholarly, and are obviously a necessary complement to anyone intending to take CALL seriously. They do not receive mention here, however, as they are less relevant to the current discussion, which is intended to be more practice-oriented.

## Be focused on language learning

With all the interesting distractions provided by using technology in class, it is sometimes difficult to stay centered and concentrate on what you were actually hired for: teaching people English! This is not meant to deny the current link between technology and English. And Mark Warschauer (2002) seems to have a point when he states:

> a high school English teacher expressed his view that "English is not an end in itself, but just a tool for being able to make use of information technology" (personal communication, August 24, 2000), thus standing on its head what I see as the perspective of CALL proponents. Although I understand the teacher's sentiment, I would suggest instead that both English and information technology are tools—to allow individuals to participate fully in society (p. 456).

Nevertheless, if your students are learning more technology than English, you're probably not on the right track! So be true to your education, experience, and principles as a language teacher. And continue to broaden your knowledge of TEFL as a field.

## Be realistic

Many teachers who are new to CALL naively believe that classes including some form of digital technology are by nature more effective than "traditional" classes, and that computer-assisted language learning will of itself improve the quality of the instruction as well as the learners' motivation. Nothing could be further from the truth. As Healey (1999) aptly puts it, "Technology alone does not create language learning any more than dropping a learner into the middle of a large library does" (p. 136).

On the other hand, the difficulties of computer-based instruction may often be different from those of face-to-face instruction, but they can be equally worrisome. As an example, in a study on using the Internet for English reading classes, Marandi (2011b) cites the following problems, among others: distractions caused by technology and leading to a waste of time, plagiarism and frequent copy/pasting on behalf of the students, stress created by technology in the learners, and the increased responsibility of the teacher. (Perhaps I should point out that the demerits appeared to have been balanced out by the merits, but that's a different story.)

## Be wary

You may remember that in the second article of this series (Marandi, 2011a), the importance of adopting a critical approach to CALL was emphasized, and the non-neutrality of technology as well as the "hegemonies of CALL" (Lamy & Pegrum, cited in Marandi, 2011a, p. 22) were also discussed. Bowers (2000), for example, considers that "the most dominant characteristic of a computer" is its being "a cultural mediating and thus transforming technology" (p. vii). The problem is that most people are not even aware of the often subtle

language classes and yet which requires only a minimum level of familiarity with computers and the Internet on your part. However (here comes the bad news!), there are still a few last-minute caveats that merit your attention before we actually take the plunge.  So without further ado:

**Be prepared**

This is so self-evident as to appear almost a truism, since all good teaching requires preparation; however, a CALL class requires more than most. Try to think things out in advance, and have exigency plans for those days when everything seems to be going wrong!  A good CALL teacher will always have an alternative lesson plan in mind, or will be flexible enough to adapt the current lesson plan to the unexpected demands of the new situation at hand; for example, those occasions when the computers are failing to work, the Internet connection is too slow, there is a power cut in the middle of class, the key to the computer lab has been misplaced by the last teacher to use it, or the website you have created is unexpectedly filtered.  (You may find it encouraging or discouraging to know that I have personally experienced all of the above…and yet I have survived!)

**Task 1:**  Make a list of things that could go wrong in a technology-based language class. What kind of preparation would allow you to triumph over such difficulties?  Could you turn such occasions to your advantage?

Sometimes the exigency plans might entail forgoing the use of technology for a particular session or even longer, depending on the nature of the problem.  Sometimes, however, it may require a change in the type of technology you are using or in how you are using.  In any case, it is important to bear in mind that the ideas you come up with *should be in line with your particular syllabus and lesson plan.*

The following books are full of ideas for applying technology in class (all may be found at the library of the Faculty of Literature and Languages of Alzahra University); remember, however, that it is your personal responsibility to adopt/adapt those which specifically suit your syllabus and principles.  And in fact the mere inclusion of these admittedly useful books in the article is not necessarily intended as a complete endorsement of any of them:

Bender, W. N. & Waller, L. B. (2013). *Cool tech tools for lower tech teachers: 20 tactics for every classroom.*  Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin (SAGE).

Manning, S. & Johnson, K. E. (2011).  *The technology tool belt for teaching.*  San Fransisco, CA: Jossey-Bass (Wiley).

Richardson, W. (2010).  *Blogs, wikis, podcasts, and other powerful web tools for classrooms.*  (3rd ed.).  London: Corwin (SAGE).

Stanley, G. (2013). *Language learning with technology: Ideas for integrating technology in the classroom.*  Cambridge: CUP.

Teeler, D. & Gray, P. (2000).  *How to use the internet in ELT.*  Essex: Longman.

Note that the above list consists mainly of activity books which introduce various online tools and provide suggestions on how you can create a lesson plan around those tools. They are for the main part focused on quick and practical solutions. However, while they are each useful in their own way, some lack the necessary depth that can only be created through linking such activities to acceptable language learning/teaching theories. For those interested in a book with such an orientation, I suggest reading the following, bearing in mind that some of the learning theories presented in it may have changed

# Do-it-yourself: Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

# Adopting a Balanced Approach toward CALL

**Classroom Techniques**

**By Seyyedeh Susan Marandi,** Assistant Professor of TEFL, English Department, Alzahra University, Tehran, Iran
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اشاره

مقاله‌ای که پیش روی شماست هفتمین مقاله از مجموعه مقاله‌های مربوط به آموزش زبان به کمک فن‌آوری اســت. در مقالۀ پیشین نحوۀ تشخیص وبگاه‌های مطمئن و بی‌خطر مورد بحث قرار گرفت. در این شماره سعی بر این است که نحوۀ اتخاذ رویکردی متوازن با آموزش زبان به کمک فناوری بررسی شود. در این راستا به موضوعات نظیر تربیت معلم، داشتن انتظارات واقع‌گرایانه، اتخاذ رویکردی انتقادی به آموزش زبان به کمک فناوری و همچنین استفاده کاربردی از آن مبتنی بر انتخاب کاربر پرداخته می‌شود.

## Abstract

The article before you is the seventh of a series of articles on computer-assisted language learning (i.e., CALL) appearing in Roshd FLT magazine approximately twice a year since the fall of 2011. The previous articles dealt with the basics of CALL, as well as appropriate online behavior; online privacy and safety; and recognizing reliable, safe websites. The current article deals with how to maintain a balanced approach toward CALL, covering issues such as teacher preparation; focusing on language learning; having realistic expectations; adopting a critical approach toward CALL; and selective, productive consumption.

**Key Words:** teacher preparation, critical CALL, productive consumption

## On the way to getting started with CALL

This article opens with good news: We are on the verge of finally exploring some online tools for use in the language classroom! In fact, God willing, the article following this will deal with a simple yet popular online tool which has great potential for

**homework notebooks to their learning textbooks.** I owe my understanding of the role textbook and experience of writing textbooks to my history teacher. I owe him the belief that prescribed textbooks are basically teaching books, teacher-centered, that is. In teaching certain school subjects, for instance, English as a foreign language, they need to be supported or replaced by learning-oriented or learners' textbooks. I owe him my views on 'textbooks'.

**A teacher, who liked to write 'dictations'**
I do not know what the mainstream practice is now. In our primary schooling weekly schedules we had two one-hour sessions for 'dictation'. In the fourth grade our teacher had his own way of running these sessions. We were a large class of fifty some kids. He would never dictate full passage from the reading text and take them all home for correction and scoring, as the mainstream practice was, and perhaps still is, with other teachers and classes. He would rather ask students to read certain lines from the reading passage and he himself beautifully chalked them on the blackboard. He would then mop off certain words of spelling difficulty or grammar point and called students to come to the board and rewrite the erased words. To the end of the activity students could recover and rewrite the major parts of the text, any mistake made was corrected by the students.

When teaching English, I made use of this technique. To have the attention of the whole class, I would have written short sections from the reading text on the board, did all the teaching that I could and referred to the text on the board as many times as I needed to. Then I started to mop off a few words and called up students to guess the missing words. At the end of the activity, with only a few key-words left on the board, the class could remember the whole passage, with the whole teaching done on its content: spelling, pronunciation, meaning, etc. I owe to this teacher many hours of pleasant teaching experience.

**In this note I have tried to propose:**
1. A teacher's mood and manner of presenting his/her materials play an important role in her/his success.
2. A textbook may be a 'wall' or a 'bridge' in a teacher's teaching.
3. An activity is useful and enjoyable that attracts and involves the attention of the whole.

**Questions for thought:**
1. *Where and when does a teacher's presentation of the teaching materials begin? Have you ever tried to change yours? Teachers, generally speaking, are the victim of a historical tradition. Do you think that a teacher's teaching is more often influenced by that of his/ her predecessors or the instructions in the textbooks?*
2. Could you think of 5 reasons for and 5 against teaching languages with a textbook?
3. How do you use a language textbook in the classroom? According to the instructions in it?
4. Have you ever tried to author a language teaching textbook, or rewrite an existing textbook to fit your learners' needs, level and motivation?
5. Have you ever tried to change 'teaching textbooks' to 'students' learning diaries or textbooks'?

students' names from a special attendance notebook, made a few mistakes when pronouncing some of the names. He laughed at his own mistakes. He told us that for quite some time we might not have any textbook, so we were going to write our own textbooks. He talked to us about the importance of the history. He seemed to be excited about his plans and to the end of the session he succeeded in passing it to us. Textbooks were believed to be sacred, as sacred as the Holy Book. The idea of writing a book on something we knew almost nothing about seemed as a joke and a mission impossible. However, he asked us to get a notebook with certain number of pages. In those days most of us had learned to make our own notebooks from loose sheets of paper. He taught us in the first session how to prepare the title page of the book with our names, the date and the school name in it. In those years the contents of the school history textbooks were basically the brief biography of kings, when they inherited the throne, the wars they had with foreign kings, and when they lost their throne or died. He did not show much interest in these biographies. He, each session, would put the names and the dates on the board and asked us to copy them verbatim from the board. He showed interest in how people lived, famous people, their achievements. He never dictated them for us to copy. We were to write them down at home later in the evening as our homework. To make our textbooks complete we could check them with others. **Imagine changing students'**
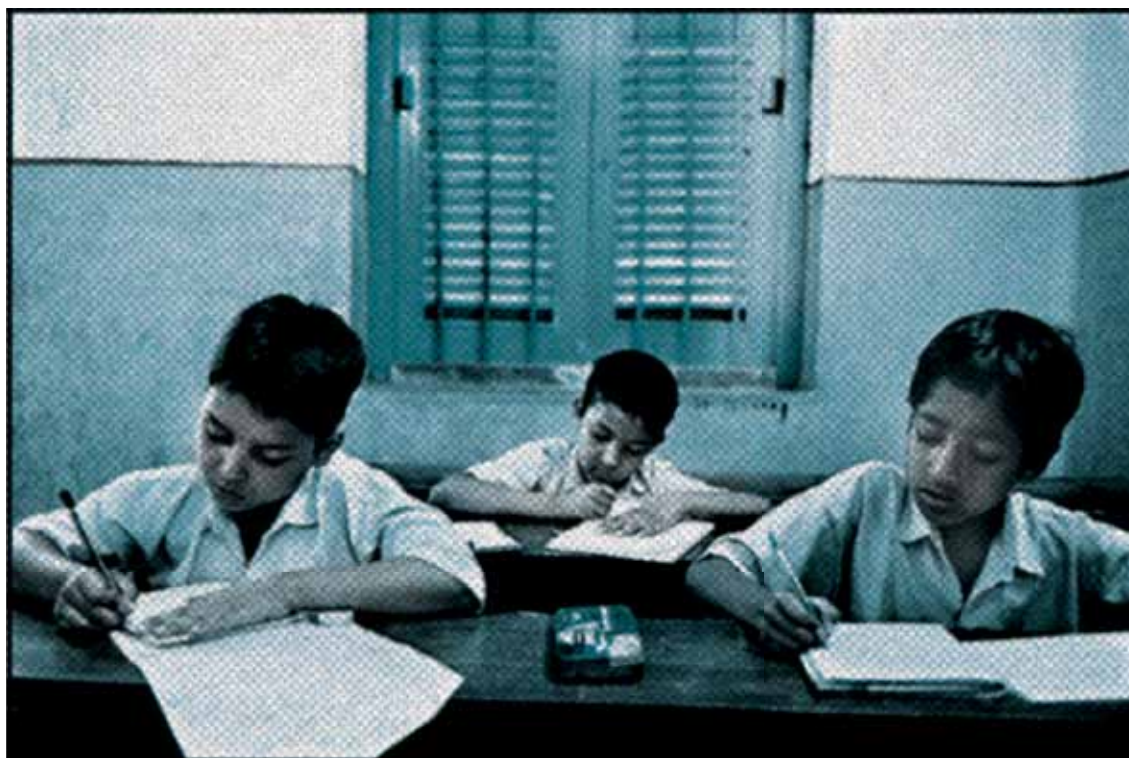
# The Unforgettable Three

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**Roshd
& Teachers**

In the life story of any individual, in the list of the unforgettable, teachers seem to occupy an enviable position. In my own list a good number of my teachers come close to the top. This note is a token of gratitude and remembrance of what I learned and owe to them.

## An older student who became a teacher substitute

It was not a rare event in the years of my primary schooling that we had no teacher for quite long periods of time. In my 5th grade, we had no teacher for two months. We were taught by assistant teachers in the morning and were left to our mischief most of the afternoons. The neighboring classes and teachers complained. The headmaster assigned a student as a teacher substitute from an upper grade with a mandate that he reports anybody who fails to behave properly. I knew the boy. He lived in the neighborhood. His father was a professional story teller and entertained people in the teahouses in the town. This boy, our teacher assistant, had gone after his father, was a born story teller. Every afternoon he would bring his father's costumes, put them on, mimic his father, and

recite stories from 'shahname,' the book of kings, a masterpiece in our epic poetry. His performance was so superb that he magnetized every student in the class. No neighboring teacher complained and no reporting to the Headmaster was made. I owe him my belief that a sure sign of a teacher's success in the classroom is his students' attention to whatever he does or says.

## My history teacher, who taught us to write our own textbooks

We do well know how solidly our system of education relies on the role of the textbook: no teacher would dare walk into the classroom, and no student would be allowed into the classroom without one. Its absence or delay in its publication could lead to national crises. My history teacher in the secondary school was a remarkable exception: he showed the least possible respect to the textbook. That year we expected to be a lengthy delay in the national distribution of the new prescribed textbook.

More than half a century gone, I still remember the first session. Our history teacher walked in, like other teachers wrote his name on the board, called up

send me a max. two-paragraph description of the website/weblog. These two para-graphs can include description, names, etc.

This way, you can introduce your website/weblog, find colleagues, and get connect-ed to colleagues form other cities around the country. Do NOT hesitate! You know where to find my email! For the time being you may want to check the following we-blogs I have checked:

1. http://chadeganenglish.blogfa.com/
2. http://www.zaban-qazvin-1.blogfa.com/

## Crossword

This crossword uses different terms for illnesses and patient-doctor discourse. I hope you will never use them in actual life!
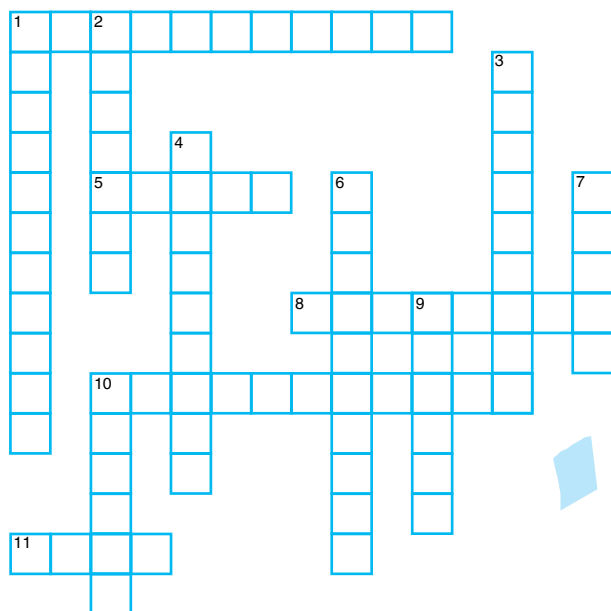
### Across

1. Doctors use a ..... to take our body tem-perature. (11)
5. Cover your mouth with a tissue when you ..... (5)
8. you feel uncomfortable because your head hurts (8)

10. you feel uncomfortable because your stomach hurts (11)
11. people easily catch a ..... when the weater gets colder. (4)

### Down

1. we use a thermometer to take body ..... .(11)
2. your ear hurts inside (7)
3. you should see a dentist when you have a ..... (9)
4. your nose is wet and you blow it regularly (9)
6. your throat hurts when you try to eat (10)
7. your body temperature is higher and you often feel exhausted (5)
9. An apple a day, the ..... away. (6)
10. When you are sick, you ..... see a doc-tor. (6)

### Answers to the Funny Riddles:
1. C-A-T
2. All of them
3. An egg
4. Baby tigers
5. W (Double u- Double you)

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*Quotable quotes:* Microsoft Encarta (2009)
*Caricature:* http://www.lolbrary.com/
*Jokes:* http://colleges.papyrusclubs.com/bsajc/entertain-ment/ha-ha-ha
*Tongue twisters:* http://thinks.com/words/tonguetwisters.htm
*Riddles:* http://iteslj.org/c/jokes-riddles.html
*Haikus:* http://www.haiku-poetry.org/famous-haiku.html
*Crossword:* www.ESLTower.com

## Tongue Twisters

Remember our discussion on Tongue Twisters in the last issue? How did it go with your students? Here are some more examples. Try them in your classes and let us know the funny sentences your students (or you yourself!) produced:

1. How much wood would a woodchuck, chuck, if a woodchuck could chuck wood?
2. Sister Susie sells seashells by the seashore.
3. Around the rugged rocks the ragged rascal ran.
4. Betty better butter Brad's bread.
5. The bootblack bought the black boot back.
6. Crisp crusts crackle crunchily.
7. Give Mr. Snipe's wife's knife a swipe.

## Funny Riddles

1.
How do you spell mousetrap?
2.
How many people are buried in that cemetery?
3.
What can't be used until it's broken?
4.
What do tigers have that no other animals have?
5.
What letter can do the work in one day that you can do in two days
(Check below for the answers.)

## Haiku

We talked extensively about Haiku in the last issue. To bring the issue to your attention again and to refresh your minds, read and enjoy the following Haikus.

1.
An old silent pond...
A frog jumps into the pond,
splash! Silence again.
*Basho (1644-1694)*

2.
Over the wintry
forest, winds howl in  rage
with no leaves to blow.
*Soseki (1275-1351)*

3.
No one travels
Along this way but I,
This autumn evening.
*Basho (1644-1694)*

4.
Don't weep, insects
Lovers, stars themselves,
Must part.
*Issa (1763-1828)*

5.
Toward those short trees
We saw a hawk descending
On a day in spring.
*Shiki (1867-1902)*

## Websites / Weblogs

A few days ago, while I was surfing on the net, looking for an article, I came across with a weblog that belonged to English teachers in one of the cities in Khouzestan. Then I looked for more relevant weblogs and, interestingly, I found so many! I was so happy to see our English teachers are so active that then immediately I thought of dedicating a section in ETFun to your online activities.

So, this is how it is going to work: the admin(s) of the website/weblog should

## No Comment!



FOR A FAIR SELECTION EVERYBODY HAS TO TAKE THE SAME EXAM: PLEASE CLIMB THAT TREE

But we want your comments! Shake a leg and send them to me at (azimi.hz@gmail.com)!

## Jokes

**1.**

Teacher: Cindy, why are you doing your math multiplication On the floor?

Cindy: You told me to do it without using tables!

**2.**

Teacher: John, how do you spell "crocodile?"

John: K-R-O-K-O-D-A-I-L"

Teacher: No, that's wrong

John: Maybe it's wrong, but you asked me how I spell it!

**3.**

Teacher: What is the chemical formula for water?

Sarah: H I J K L M N O!!

Teacher: What are you talking about?

Sarah: Yesterday you said it's H to O!

**4.**

Teacher: George, go to the map and find North America.

George: Here it is!

Teacher: Correct. Now class, who discovered America?

Class: George!

**5.**

Teacher: Willie, name one important thing we have today that we didn't have ten years ago.

Willie: Me!

# English through Fun

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**Roshd & Teachers**

## The Note

Hello Everyone! How's everything?

This academic year is a different one to the teacher of grade 7 as they are experiencing a new curriculum. Experiencing a new curriulum can be both interesting and challenging in terms of so many factors, like books, lesson plans, evaluations, etc. Roshd FLT and ETFun can be just the place to share your experienses with regard to these changes in the English curriculum. We are sure your comments will be helpful and I will personally make sure the relevant people will receive your letters. Do not hesitate and send me your precious ideas to my email address! (azimi.hz@gmail.com)

## Quotable Quotes

"The task of the educator of young children lies in seeing that the child does not confound good with immobility, and evil with activity."

- Attributed to **Maria Montessori** (1870 - 1952), Italian physician and educator.

"A teacher is one who, in his youth, admired teachers."

- Attributed to **H. L. Mencken** (1880 - 1956), U.S. journalist, critic, and editor.

"A teacher should have maximal authority and minimal power."

- **Thomas Szasz** (1920 -2012), Hungarian-born U.S. psychiatrist.

"There are nowadays professors of philosophy but not philosophers."

- **Henry David Thoreau** (1817 - 1862), U.S. writer.

"The successful teacher is no longer on a height, pumping knowledge at high pressure into passive receptacles... He is a senior student anxious to help his juniors."

- **William Osler** (1849 - 1919), Canadian physician.

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ing and explaining forms of human mental functioning is by studying the process of their development, and not the outcome of development. Development arises in the dialogic interaction that occurs among individuals and it is the interactive nature of development, as indicated in Vygotsky's theory of proximal development, which views the child (or a learner) as developing within a sociocultural context (Murphy & Maree, 2006). In point of fact, development is the result of interaction and in order to measure the development one needs to assess the individual in interaction.

## Final Remarks

Vygotsky's view of learning as a shared-joint process in a responsive social context, and his reflection of learners as far more competent performers when they have proper assistance have all been the foundation of the promising interactive assessment of DA, not just a transient fad. As such DA might truly be the commensurate reply to many concerns: To Freire (1970) and the disdain for the *banking concept of education,* to Messick (1984) and concern for, *social consequences*, to Shohamy (2001) with regard to *democratic assessment*, to Mislevy (2003) in terms of a need for *evidentiary reasoning,* to Broadfoot (2005) who cautions against *danger of making decisions in dark alleys and blind bends,* and to Rea-Dickins and Gardner (2000) and their concern with *silver bullets* and *snares.*

Perhaps, the most illuminating and commendable feature of DA is the analysis of the information gained through its interactive procedure following a test-intervention- retest format. This information, which is not readily available through standardized testing but crucial for effective remedi-

ation, is the definitive goal of DA. Hence, it is hoped that DA will find wider application in educational settings.

Indeed, the role and ultimate goal of DA is to suggest what is needed to defeat the pessimistic predictions that are often made on the basis of the results of standardized normative tests. In order to produce significant improvement DA suggests the kinds and amount of intervention needed. In other words,It responds an individual learner's potential for future development by embedding instruction in the assessment process itself.

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Agency in the UK are suggesting that the teachers' overarching task now is to provoke excitement in students not just about, but in the complex world of learning (Dann, 2002). That is, the learner is no longer to be a mere receptacle (Freire, 1970) for the insertion of tightly prepackaged knowledge; they are to be active participants in authentic learning.

"Unless the fire be lit in the mind and spirit of the students, it will be something less than that promised in such a learning experience" (Dann, 2002, p.). In other words, if individuals do not interact cognitively and affectively with their environment, learning will not occur. This perspective, according to Dann, places considerable emphasis on the role of the learner in the process of learning. As such, McNamara and Roever (2006) suggest responsibility of both candidates and test score users in the procedures for validation of test score inferences becomes imperative. They argue that within the discourse of psychometrics limits, what can be said about the social dimension of language testing is that it lacks a theory of the social context in which tests have their function.

The role of the social context is in evidence in Vygotsky's zone of proximal development, which is characterized by the independent performance of an individual in comparison to his or her performance when assisted by a more knowledgeable or older peer. The difference in performance is thus attributed to the development evident in the individual's zone of ability when aided by a more competent peer (Haywood & Lidz, 2007). Not surprisingly, the zone of proximal development is at the heart of sociocultural perspectives and defines the dialogic nature of teaching and learning processes (Nassaji & Cumming, 2000). According to Lantolf and Thorne (2006), sociocultural theory is most compatible with theories of language in that they are focused on communication, cognition, affect, and meaning, merging with a theory of mediated mental acts that lead to development. These acts occur when the learner and the "more knowledgeable other" are engaged in moving the learner forward in his or her problem solving.

As previously indicated, human learning is a dynamic social activity that is situated in physical and social contexts, and distributed across persons, tools, and activities. Final assessment examinations are the most widely used testing methods in educational settings with the main concern behind this product-oriented testing being that teachers examine the students' progress on materials they have been taught after a certain amount of time (Özgür, 2008). In order to understand learning and development according to Vygotsky (1978), however, focus should be on the process rather than product. Likewise, Lantolf and Thorne (2006) concur that the only appropriate way of understand-

**The process-oriented value system informs a theory of measuring students' attainments that has become known as assessment for learning. This approach is embedded within teaching and learning context and aims at moving learners from a lower to a higher level of proficiency in ways that enhance learner autonomy and learner motivation**

substantial information about both present and potential performance that is not readily obtainable from other sources. DA assists teachers in reorienting their practice towards the goal of supporting learners. The mediation provided may provide an indication of time and resources that might be needed to move the individual's development forward. Standard assessment procedures are not sufficient for estimating a student's learning potential and provide little help in identifying the conditions under which progress may be made (Cioffi & Carney, 1983).

Kozulin and Garb (2001) have also found DA procedures to be both feasible and effective in obtaining information on students' learning potential. They confirm that the paradigm of DA is useful not only in the field of general cognitive and affective performance but also in the EFL learning domain.

## Summary

The role of assessment in history has been primarily in its use for selection. So called intelligence tests, for example, emerged as a means of evaluating and cognitively classifying individuals, then grouping them and assigning them a socially constructed label for the purposes of organization in a given society. Indeed, assessment for selection and certification has had a key social role to play in most societies (Gipps, 1999). According to Broadfoot (1996), assessment in developed societies, whether for selection or certification, has had a single underlying rationale: to control mass education and the nature of its goals and rewards. She points out that individuals compete on an equal basis to show their competence. This assumes that the assessment used is valid in its meas-

urement. Post-modern times challenge this notion, however, and fundamentally the challenge is whether the assessment is more concerned with categorization "than with developing a common understanding through dialogue about when learning occurs" (Hargreaves, Earl, & Schmidt, 2002, p. 76).

In this regard, Bernstein (1996) puts emphasis on the need for a change from overt to covert assessment. Overt or objective assessment is based on specific criteria, precise measurement, and standardization, which purportedly allows for Comparing students and evaluating their progress based on a positivist understanding of the world. Yet, this objectivity lends a sense of legitimacy to the assessment. In contrast, Bernstein argues that assessment is covert and not precise enough to make direct comparisons between the students. Overt assessment is potentially controlling rather than progressive and liberating.

Organizations such as Teacher Training

| DA | Non Dynamic Assessment |
|---|---|
| ● It is processed-oriented. | ● It is product-oriented. |
| ● The learners' developmental changes are tracked and supported. | ● Learners are not supported. |
| ● Learners become more responsible for their own learning. | ● These tests are not designed to evaluate specific instructional strategies for remediating learning deficits. |
| ● The examiner takes an active role during the testing situation. (Anton, 2009). | ● The examiner is neutral. |
| ● The teacher acts as a facilitator of language-processing and problem-solving techniques. | ● Opportunity to directly influence learning is overlooked within the context of traditional assessment. |
| ● The student learns to become an active user of self-monitoring strategies to regulate their own understanding. | ● Traditional assessment does not recognize the learner's potential to succeed with adequate environmental support. |
| ● The goal is to enhance students' conceptual understandings and to produce more insightful intentional learners. (Campione, 1989) | ● The assumption underlying these tests are: All the students have had the same opportunities to acquire the information and skills probed in the tests. (Campione, 1989) |

As the table indicates, DA is concerned with the process of learning rather than the product. Therefore, the learners' movement and development are traced. However, there is no such regard in NDA approaches. In DA, there is an attempt to make the learner aware of his or her own learning, which is an indication of Vygotsky's movement toward self-regulation. Apparently, in such an approach the learner plays an active role in his or her own learning. In NDA approaches, there is no attempt on the part of the assessor to facilitate learning.

As to the foundations of DA, many give Vygotsky credit for his conceptualization of the zone of proximal development and mediation with regard to cognitive and affective development based on sociocultural theory. However, both Vygotsky and Feuerstein are recognized as equal co-contributors to the field (Murphy, 2008). Antón (2012) notes that "DA was first articulated and developed by Feuerstein and his colleagues in the early 1950s" (p. 107). Both Vygotsky and Feuerstein believe that human beings are not static entities, but are always in a state of transition and engaged in transactional relationships with the world. It is in these transactional relationships that cognitive and affective growth may result. Thus, the teacher and learner both have a part to play in the learning process. In DA it is assumed that if learners have a central role in the learning process through their cognitive interactions, their roles should be equally of great value in the assessment procedures. The learner cannot be regarded in isolation from others.

This process through which social interaction influences learning may be considered analogous to an apprenticeship model of learning (Dann, 2002) whereby the novice learner works alongside an expert in the zone of proximal development. Here, as in DA, it is always social interaction that is the premise for learning and it is social interaction that also promises development during the process of assessment.

DA along with other forms of assessment provides a valuable part of the assessment repertoire. The DA portion of the assemblage is necessary in that it can add

language in use (Hudson, 2005). It reflects a current appetite for language assessment anchored in the world of functions and events. Hudson believes that these developments interact to promote language assessment that recognizes the need to expand beyond a tradition that has focused on language primarily as a decontextualized cognitive skill or ability (Cumming & Maxwell, 1999). Language takes place in a social context (Murray & McPherson, 2006), as a social act, and this needs to be recognized in language assessment. Consequently, much of the recent innovative research in language assessment has been directed to DA and mediated or co-constructed assessment tasks (Shohamy & Hornberger, 2008).

## Dynamic assessment

While the limitations of the scientific approach to assessment are being increasingly recognized, it is not surprising to observe a growing interest in applying alternative assessment approaches. One such approach, DA, involves the active engagement of both learner and teacher in a process-oriented assessment framework that engages the participants in the learner's zone of proximal development. By working within the zone of proximal development, DA can now be a reply to some of the questions being asked such as those put forth by Gipps (1994, p. 27) "What form of assessment do we need to properly reflect students' learning? And what form of assessment should we use to ensure a beneficial impact on teaching and learning practice?"

> In mediation, the more knowledgeable other or teacher offers minimal hints to support and direct the learner as the learner completes a task that is beyond their capacity to some degree

DA is grounded in Vygotsky's sociocultural theory and as such engagement in DA incorporates the view that learning, culture and development are inseparable. Operationally, DA provides a kind of instructional intervention referred to as mediation (Vygotsky, 1962, 1978; Poehner & Lantolf, 2005). In mediation, the more knowledgeable other or teacher offers minimal hints to support and direct the learner as the learner completes a task that is beyond their capacity to some degree. During the process the teacher can see and record just how little or how much assistance was needed by the learner to complete the task. Thus, the purpose of mediation in DA is to reveal the depth of learners' abilities (Poehner, 2007). This in turn is part of what the learner, too, discovers.

According to Murphy (2008), DA is a reply to the need to somehow assess and assist low performing individuals. However, it can be used with individuals of any background and of any ability. Implementing DA has advantages over Non- Dynamic Assessment NDA or static methods of assessment. Most notably, Sternberg & Grigorenko (2002) assert that in DA the focus is on the future and on promoting the development of blossoming abilities whereas in NDA the focus is on the past, on what has already developed. Some of the advantages of DA have been listed in the following table.

DA and Non-Dynamic Assessment comparison extracted from Naeini & Duvall (2012)

sessment lies in the ability to individualize assessment (McNamara & Roever, 2006) to mimic good teaching practices, and to involve teachers more deeply in the assessment process.

## Alternate Modeling

An alternative model to the static psychometric model of assessment is a more dynamic one in which the student's learning potential, or capacity, is the focus (Gipps 1994, p. 30). Not only is it of interest to assess what the student already knows, but it is also fundamental to understand the student's learning strategies, their ability to be aware of their learning, and their ability to have control with regard to their learning. An interactive or mediated assessment can indicate not only what a student knows, but can also reveal what they are able to do with regard to strategies, metacognition, and regulation of learning.

McNamara (2001) states that making the needs of learners a priority represents an alternative approach to assessment, rather than an alternative assessment type. He argues that any deliberate, sustained and explicit reflection by teachers and learners on the qualities of a learner's work can be thought of as a kind of assessment. In this approach teachers and learners are engaged in systematic reflection on the characteristics of an individual performance as an aid to the formulation of learning goals in a variety of contexts. During the assessment activity the teacher is not involved in the comparison of performance of different individuals, although a comparison can create aware-

ness of the different characteristics or features.

In such assessments, there is no interest in finding out who is relatively better or worse. Performance is not considered against any particular yardstick rather performance is viewed in terms of the individual's development as per a sociocultural theory of human development. Yet, as McNamara (2001) notes, this kind of assessment activity necessarily involves record keeping and reporting to fulfill managerialist agendas. He adds that there is an ongoing need for assessment to respond to the theoretical challenges presented by advances in validity theory and in the epistemological upheavals in the social and behavioral sciences.

Nonetheless, regarding a call for a shift in educational measurement, Bachman (2000) concludes his discussion on modern language testing at the turn of the century saying that developments in language performance assessment, provided by related developments in language teaching and educational measurement, have resulted in a better understanding of the nature of the methods, or tasks that we use to elicit performance in language assessment. He also notes that this has led to a better understanding of the ways in which we can design, develop and use such tasks and evaluate their usefulness and more importantly, enriching the store of alternatives in language assessment.

In many ways, developments in language assessment attempt to address the complexity of language in the assessment of
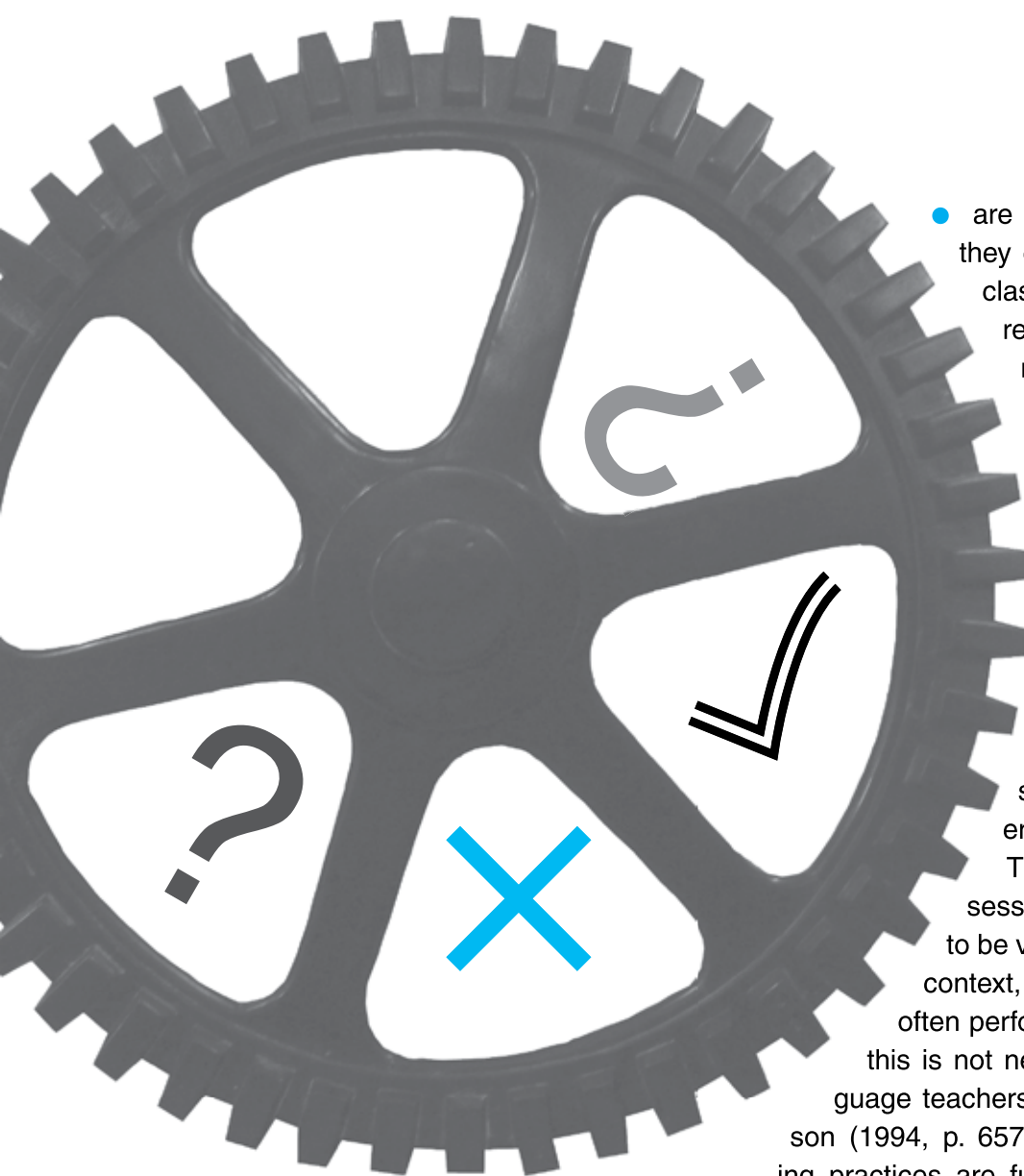
- are nonintrusive in that they extend the day-to-day classroom activities already in place in a curriculum,
  - allow students to be assessed on what they normally do in class every day,
  - provide information about both the strengths and the weaknesses of students, and
  - are multi-culturally sensitive when properly administered.

Thus, alternative assessment in general seems to be very much grounded in context, being authentic and often performative in nature. Yet, this is not necessarily new to language teachers. As Brown and Hudson (1994, p. 657) note language testing practices are fundamentally different from assessment practices in most other disciplines, not only because of the complexity of the domain being tested but also because of the different types of tests that language teachers and administrators can and do use. In other words, it is common for language teachers to use various types of language tests, including what might appear to be alternative assessment. However, despite the range of options, it is neither the tools nor the tests themselves which offer the alternative assessment.

It is the value in the selection process, as well as the product that the teacher can carefully match to the individual in order to craft the assessment to the individual. Fundamentally, the strength of alternative as-

p. 6) have devised a list of features that various forms of alternative assessment have in common. In their view, alternative assessment types:
- require students to perform, create, produce, or do something;
- tap into higher level thinking and problem-solving skills;
- use tasks that represent meaningful instructional activities;
- approximate real-world applications;
- ensure that people, not machines, do the scoring, using human judgment;
- call upon teachers to perform new instructional and assessment roles.

Furthermore, Huerta-Macías (1995) suggests that alternative assessment types:

for learning, as opposed to assessment of learning, has emerged" (Davies & Lemahieu, 2003, p. 142).

**Alternative Assessment**

It has been more than a half century that practitioners have voiced the limitations of traditional psychometric assessment procedures in measuring the students' achievement at the end of educational courses. Assessment reform movements have resulted in the emergence of diverse assessment procedures (Berry & Adamson, 2011). Although the procedures of the administration of the novel approaches may be difficult and more time-consuming, the advantages cannot be ignored. Following the reactions made against the limita-

tions of traditional psychometric assessments, current trends are no longer based on the view that language learning entails a passive accumulation of skills (Hamayan, 1994). The informative data collected through alternative approaches to assessment provide a valuable context for more valid interpretations of assessment results.

Bailey (1996) argues that because of the probable inherent errors existing in tests, it might be dangerous to rely on a single traditional test score as the basis for passing a course. She also notes that teachers are increasingly questioning the authenticity of the traditional forms of testing as measures of the learner capability. To that end, drawing on the work of several scholars, Herman, Aschbacher, and Winters (1992,

a lower to a higher level of proficiency in ways that enhance learner autonomy and learner motivation.

The shift away from a positivist (scientific) view point in second language education involves a move from the main principles of behaviorist psychology (Jacobs & Farrell, 2003). In accordance with this shift a progression towards the "cognitive, and later, socio-cognitive psychology and more contextualized meaning-based views of language" has emerged (Jacobs & Farrell, 2001). Not surprisingly, this shift is coupled by a move from product-oriented to more process oriented instruction and assessment (East, 2007). Interaction which is of great value in process-based assessment approaches has no role in product-based traditional assessment procedures. The only time interaction is considered in traditional assessment approaches is in estimating the relationship between test scores and student abilities on the targeted constructs. This is fine when ancillary abilities (Kopriva, 2008) do not interact with how the students perform on items meant to measure targeted content. However, the ancillary abilities of test takers, especially English language learners, normally impact on how they answer items.

Traditionally, the approach to assessment was a product of behaviorist assumptions about the nature of knowledge and learning. Consequently, standardized tests solely focused on memorization of isolated bits of factual knowledge and procedures that could be easily retrieved from tests composed largely of multiple-choice items (Fredericksen, 1984). In such product-oriented approach the important aspects of cognition and learning such as conceptual understanding, reasoning, and complex problem solving were often ignored.

Currently, examinations and other forms of assessment are commonly used for the certification of competence, to monitor educational standards, and to serve as an important tool in selection. Assessment procedures must, then, be capable of providing data to determine achievement across a very wide range of content and skills. Assessment procedures must also have the capacity to engage students from diverse cultural and personal backgrounds, and to offer a fair means of judging students with disabilities and other kinds of special needs.

Not surprisingly, there is increasing interest in the potential of assessment procedures that can address these requirements and alternative assessment types are being brought into play for their capacity to measure variety in cognitive capabilities across individuals. As Pellegrino, Baxter, and Glaser (1999) insist, it is crucial to create instructional activities that can enhance learning outcomes and opportunities for all students. In addition, alternative assessment of learning and achievement can be designed to provide useful information to teachers and learners to reflect on in order to consider the content and skills to be studied or taught in order to improve performance. "In this respect, as mentioned by the concept of assessment

**Assessment procedures must also have the capacity to engage students from diverse cultural and personal backgrounds, and to offer a fair means of judging students with disabilities and other kinds of special needs**

tive. A sociocultural perspective stresses how knowledge is conditioned and constrained by the technologies, information resources, representation systems, and social situations with which they interact. Contextualizing assessment exercises, according to Greeno, Collins, and Resnick (1997), decreases the assessor's control and increases the burden on the specification of distinct features of performances and performance situations.

It is not appropriate, however, according to Kopriva (2008), to measure the academic knowledge and skills of English language learners using tools which are not designed to provide valid and useful data about the students. More importantly in the era of increased accountability, the academic achievements of the students should be fairly represented. In addition, traditional testing techniques, e.g. multiple-choice, fill-in-the-blank, matching, etc., are not appropriate to the current second/foreign language classroom practices because the descriptive information needed to plan instructional strategies cannot be obtained through these limiting conventional testing methods (Barootchi & Keshavarz, 2002).

A reference to the two value systems presented by East (2007), that is, the product-oriented value system and the process-oriented value system might be illuminating. The product-oriented value system, which is rooted in traditional behaviorist knowledge-based approaches, is concerned with the static assessment of students' learning. Summative tests that take place at a particular moment in time and provide a one-time snap-shot of the test takers' abilities are the customary approach. On the other hand, the process-oriented value system is influenced by constructivist approaches. Constructive approaches, according to Meltzer and Reid (1994), represent learners as active processors of information who develop their own theories and ways of understanding through selecting, organizing, and connecting. This perspective which is more learner-centered and flexible favors a more sociocultural approach to testing such as DA. The process-oriented value system informs a theory of measuring students' attainments that has become known as assessment for learning. This approach is embedded within teaching and learning context and aims at moving learners from

ing psychological processes and cognitive development spawned a sociocultural perspective (Barnard & Campbell, 2005) in the learning sciences whereby the social context is at the heart of the learning process. One example of this, in language learning, is DA which involves the shared activity of teaching and learning based upon the engagement within the learner's zone of proximal development (Vgotsky, 1978, p. 85). In this paper, we consider the social aspects of testing as contextually relevant and propose a shift from product-oriented methods of assessment to a more process-oriented one.

## From Product-oriented to Process-oriented Assessment

In response to the evolving conceptions of knowledge and its acquisition, and the developing technologies for gathering and evaluating response data, assessment practices have changed a great deal over the past century. Not only have the forms of the data been changed, according to Mislevy (2003), but also the conceptions of what the assessment data should include, how the collected data should be interpreted, as well as the kind of inferences made have been subject to transformation.

There have been many changes in the methods of systematically assessing students' academic knowledge and skills over the years (Shohamy, 2001). However, there has not been much progress in how students' cognitive schemata, schooling environments, and backgrounds influence their test scores and experiences. That is, the inferences made about their academic achievements and learning is not fairly valid. And, as Walters (2012, p. 474) suggests, in regards to fairness and validity, "it is reasonable to assume that test bias

will be a continual concern as long as unequal societal and educational divisions continue, as along gender, ethnic, or racial lines". This is troubling because, as we add to our knowledge about the different ways students learn, access knowledge, and develop skills, we realize that scores can sometimes mean totally different things (Kopriva, 2008).

Different psychological stances underlie the assessment argument and the shifts in assessment tools. Mislevy (2003) provides a summary of the four major schools of thought that have influenced views of testing and validation during the last century. The first one is a trait perspective in which hypothetical and unobservable constructs are proposed to locate people along continua of mental characteristics, just as their heights and weights locate them along continua of physical characteristics.

The second school of thought is the behaviorist perspective. In this school, knowledge is collected through stimulus-response associations.

Assessments designed on the basis of this school of thought, estimate the probability of success in a domain based on the number of knowledge bits a student has mastered. The third school proposes the information processing perspective. The information-processing perspective examines the procedures by which people acquire, store, and use knowledge to solve problems. According to Mislevy, the assessment design considers both task features and student performances. Inferences, arising from this school of thought, are made in terms of concepts and problem solving strategies rather than indirectly in terms of the features of problems as an expert sees them.

The fourth is the sociocultural perspec-

## Paradigm Shift

Assessment is considered an information gathering activity (Bailey, 1996) used to gauge a specific quantity of knowledge or progress towards that state. Naturally, as part of the assessment process with regard to schooling, data must be collected. Yet, collecting the relevant data at the rate that progress monitoring now demands, has made students face what now appears to be an unprecedented number of exams and tests administered on a regular basis. Thus, it is essential to consider the importance of testing vis-à-vis its inherent value, as well as its implications with regard to test score interpretation, and the possible social consequences of actual and potential test use (Messick, 1995).

Consider, for example, the summative assessment, which is used to measure the accumolative achievements of students. This type of assessment, as an external force, may have a profound effect on the learning experiences of students promoting either extrinsic or intrinsic learning (Kozaki & Ross, 2011).In other words, summative assessment may potentially support learning, as well as measure it (Black & William, 2003). However, given the problematic nature of excessive testing it is hardly acceptable to look at summative assessment from a learning perspective. Considering the fact that excessive testing might lead to learning to pass the test, one might argue that revolution is needed in the field of assessment in order to address the seemingly unsolvable problem of undue and increasing amounts of testing (Kuhn, 1970). Furthermore, after overlooking the

issues of utility, fairness, flexibility and relevance for more than a century, we may well be standing at the threshold of significant change (Wyatt-Smith & Cumming, 2009, p. xi). As such, there is a need to reconsider the current assumptions we can add on assessment and the way we practice it.

Further support for change comes from the fact that education exists to improve learners' knowledge, their understandings, and their skills; and to help them develop (Dewey, 1944). Education, with its eye always on the future, also helps individuals to take advantage of new and emerging forms of learning opportunities (Broadfoot, 2005). Yet, the significant roles of the learners in the educational settings have generally been ignored. Learning, ultimately, is constructed and controlled by the student (Dann, 2002) and if assessment is to give some fair indications of the learner's level of learning and development, in ways which will support development, the learner will need to come to understand and to contribute to the process of both learning and assessment. Thus, assessment methods should seek to focus on the process of learning rather than the product of learning, and should recognize the fundamental centrality of the learner. To do so, however, there needs to be an attempt to make the role of the learner explicit contrary to the current model in which the role of the learner remains implicit in relation to learning development.

This approach to paradigm shift in assessment rests on the view that learning is a social activity as emphasized by Lev Vygotsky. Vygotsky's work in understand-

> **Assessment methods should seek to focus on the process of learning rather than the product of learning, and should recognize the fundamental centrality of the learner**

# A Journey from: Psychometric Tests to Dynamic Assessment

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**Knowledge Improvement**

**چکیده**

روش‌هـــای نمونهٔ آزمون‌های زبان در حال تغییرند. مدل‌های متداول آزمون زبان تأمین‌کنندهٔ اطلاعات کافی در مورد توانایی‌های افراد نیستند و به‌همین دلیل، اغلب مورد نقد و بررسی قرار می‌گیرند. روش‌های پیشرو مانند ســـاختارگرایی که بر اصول ارزشیابی معتبر و درست تأکید دارند، روش‌های فرهنگی ـ اجتماعی که بر مفاهیمی مانند میانجیگری و حوزهٔ تقریبی رشد (ZPD) متمرکزند و همچنین تسـاوی و انصاف در آزمون و ارزشـیابی زبان همه راه برای یک تغییری تعهدآمیز هموار می‌سازند. برای اینکه در آزمون و ارزشیابی زبان هم بر فرایند و پردازش و هم بر حاصل و نتیجهٔ فراگیری تأکید شود، روش‌های جایگزینی ارائه شده‌اند.

در ضمن ارزشـــیابی پویا ـ که یک روش آموزشـــی ـ آزمونی تعاملی و یک روش ارزشـــیابی روانی ـ آموزشـــی است (هیوود و لیدز، ۲۰۰۷) ـ به دلیل فرضیه آن در پیشـــرفت افراد از طریق داخل کردن آموزش در روند ارزشـــیابی به ســـرعت بر محبوبیت آن افزوده می‌شـــود. هدف این مقاله بررســـی پیشـــینه و ادبیات مرتبط با آزمون زبان به منظور ارائهٔ دلایل منطقی برای نیاز به تغییر روش‌های سنجش توان زبانی فراگیرندگان زبان به‌سوی یک روش پویا در ارزشیابی است.

**کلیدواژه‌ها:** ارزشیابی پویا، تئوری فرهنگی ـ اجتماعی، حوزهٔ تقریبی رشد، ارزشیابی جایگزین

## Abstract

Language testing is undergoing a paradigm shift. The prevalent psychometric models of language testing have been frequently reviewed and criticized for their limitations in providing enough information about the individuals' abilities. Progressive approaches, such as constructivism, which emphasize the authentic assessment procedures; socio-cultural approaches, which focus on the concepts like mediation and the zone of proximal development; and arguments for considering social dimensions, as well as fairness in language testing and assessments, have all paved the way for a promising paradigm shift. In order to focus on both the process and the product in language testing and assessment, some alternative assessment approaches have been suggested. Meanwhile, dynamic assessment (DA), an interactive testing - teaching model of psychological and psycho-educational assessment (Haywood & Lidz, 2007), has been rapidly evolving as an approach of interest due to its theoretical foundations which look promising for individual development through embedding instruction in the assessment procedures. The aim of this paper is to examine the available literature in order to understand why a shift in assessment procedures toward DA might be reasonable.

**Key Words:** sociocultural theory, alternative assessments, dynamic assessment, zone of proximal development

ceived by learners to be more efficient in increasing or decreasing their motivation. It can be of great help to teachers in making up their minds in dealing with discipline problems and consequently lessening their stress and anxiety in how to manage their classes, for any failure on teachers' part to satisfactorily manage students' classroom misbehavior can result in stress, and in the extreme cases, burnout (Lewis et al., 2008).

Other than this, since managing a classroom is one of the major problems for beginning teachers, in-service training programs may benefit from the results of this study. These programs may enhance the quality of English teachers' first year experiences so that they do not experience job stress and burnout in their future career. As experienced teachers attend such courses, the discussion sessions would become more educational and efficient to empower participants professionally through peer coaching.

Moreover, educational workshops should be held for teachers on the way they have to manage their classes and how to deal with disruptive behavior. School counselors can work in close cooperation with teachers and guide them on how to deal with students' misbehavior while not having destructive effect on students' learning.

The final suggestion of this study goes to  material designers that in the foreword pages of the books or teachers' manuals, should provide comprehensive guidelines on classroom management and discipline issues in EFL classes, student-teacher relationship, the importance and necessity of building a good rapport with the students and adopting a humanitarian approach to language teaching and learning.

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motivation in a number of ways.

First, two of the classroom discipline strategies naming punishment and aggression are inversely correlated with motivation. The findings show that students' motivation for learning English is likely to decrease if teachers use punishment and aggression when dealing with misbehavior. This is in line with the evidence that teacher aggression distracts students from their school work (Lewis et al., 2008) and diminishes rather than enhances student learning  and does not foster a sense of responsibility in students (Sava, 2002). Similarly, Henderson in a series of studies, demonstrated that students who perceived their teachers as admonishing and strict had more negative attitudes towards the subject being taught (e.g., Henderson, Fisher, & Fraser, 2000). The result implies that using such strategies by English teachers makes students anxious and creates a threatening atmosphere that prevents students' self-initiation and causes loss of motivation.

Second, recognition/reward, involvement, discussion, and hinting are positively related to motivation. The findings confirms the literature in the sense that the most useful discipline techniques for generating positive reactions among students are recognition of responsible behaviors and discussions with students where a negotiated outcome is achieved (Lewis et al., 2008). Many educators and researchers argue that inclusion of, and negotiation with, students increases their sense of competency and belonging (Anderman, 2002). Teachers become a good support in the eyes of the students if they recognize students' appropriate behavior, discuss with them what is expected of them, involve them in decision making and organizing class rules, and give them some hints on their misbehavior.

Third, this study represents the result of an attempt to establish a link between classroom discipline and students' motivation in learning English. Through regression analysis of the data three classroom discipline strategies namely involvement, hinting, and recognition were found to be significant predictors of students' motivation to learn English as a foreign language. This shows that providing emotional and academic support to students creates a positive classroom social climate and constitutes a motivational factor for students to instigate and pursue learning more seriously (Patrick et al., 2007). The finding is in accord with what Dornyei's (1994) *learning situation level* under which  teachers' classroom discipline can be subsumed.

It was also found that punishment was a hindrance to students' motivation. It is evident in the literature that teachers' coercive behavior towards students is one of the most common stressful school situations for students (Pierkarski, 2000). As mentioned by Sava (2002 P.1610) "when students perceive their teachers as misbehaving several negative outcomes can occur. Mainly, there are three categories of negative effects: educational, psychological, and somatic outcome". The most relevant of these is a general lack of motivation and a specific negative affect toward course material (Gorham & Christophel, 1992). The finding raises the awareness of language teachers toward the use of such strategies in their classes in a more judicious manner.

## Implications and Applications

The findings of the current study can assist EFL teachers to recognize those classroom discipline strategies that were per-

## Attitude/Motivation Test Battery

To obtain measures of students' motivation, the short form of Gardner's Attitude/ Motivation Test Battery translated and validated by Ghorban Dordinejad and Imam-Jomeh (2011) was utilized. The scale had 37 items that were clustered under 4 factors. The respondents were asked to rate themselves regarding each item of the questionnaire on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from completely disagree (1) to completely agree (4). The Cronbach's alpha reliability of the questionnaire in this study turned out to be .88.

## Results
### Inter-correlation among variables

Correlation method was used to investigate the relationship between EFL teachers' discipline strategies and students' motivation in learning English as a foreign language. The result of correlation showed that motivation was significantly and positively related to recognition/reward (r=.34, p<0.01), discussion (r=156, p<0.01), involvement (r=.37, p<0.01), and hinting (r=.33, p<0.01). Further, motivation was inversely and significantly related to punishment (r= - .27, p<0.01) and aggression (r= - .24, p<0.01).

### Predictors of motivation

In order to determine the proportion of the variance in students' motivation in learning English that could be explained by their teachers' classroom discipline strategies, multiple regression analysis was performed. The summary of the regression results is presented in Tables 1 and 2. The results indicated that more than 21% of the variance in students' motivation in learning English was explained by the independent variable of this study (teachers' classroom discipline strategies). The test statistic was significant at the 0.05 level of significance (F = 17.753; p=0.000).

**Table 1. Analysis of variance**

| Sources | Sum of squares | DF | Mean square | F | R2 | Adjusted R2 | p |
|---------|---------------|-----|-------------|-----|-----|-------------|-----|
| Model | 25213.337 | 6 | 4202.223 | 17.753 | .225 | .212 | .000 |
| Error | 86868.933 | 367 | 236.700 | | | | |
| Total | 112082.270 | 373 | | | | | |

**Table 2. Multiple regressions on dependent variable (motivation)**

| Variables | B | β | t | p |
|-----------|------|------|--------|------|
| Punishment | -.639 | -.172 | -3.264 | .001* |
| Recognition | .403 | .140 | 2.466 | .014* |
| Discussion | .112 | .029 | .504 | .614 |
| Involvement | .426 | .140 | 2.064 | .040* |
| Hinting | .656 | .191 | 2.928 | .004* |
| Aggression | -.266 | -.085 | -1.594 | .112 |

As table 2 illustrates, four types of classroom discipline strategies can explain the variance in the motivation. These strategies in order of predicative value are hinting (β=.191, t=2.92), punishment (hindrance of motivation) (β=-.172, t=3.264), recognition/rewarding (β=.140, t=2.466) and involvement (β=.140, t=2.064).

## Discussion

This study was an attempt to find the relationship between EFL teachers' classroom discipline strategies and students' motivation in learning English. The results suggest that not only is there a relation between strategies applied by language teachers in maintaining discipline in their classrooms and students' language learning motivation but also classroom discipline has the power of predictability for students' motivation in the EFL context. The findings contribute to the area of students'

concerns such as teaching large classes, teaching multiple proficiency levels in the same class, compromising with the institution, discipline and cheating (Brown, 2001). According to Wadden & McGovern (1991) factors such as the large numbers of students who are not in the classroom by choice; the number of students per class; the lack of importance students give to English in the school curriculum when compared to other school subjects such as math or science, and the fact that, in the same group, EFL teachers work with students from different cultural and academic

**English classes composed of various activities that require students' active participation, so "students usually have more opportunities in an EFL class than classes of other subjects to speak, to talk, to read aloud or even to argue with each other"**

backgrounds, can affect discipline in class. According to Brown (2001), grappling with classroom management is one of the key elements of interactive language teaching because in a poorly managed classroom, teachers struggle to teach and students usually learn less than they should, and there is abundance of discipline issues while a well-managed classroom provides an environment in which teaching and learning can flourish.

Despite recent advances in research and theorization on the relationship between learning and classroom management styles of teachers, motivation theories have seldom been linked to management practices in classroom settings particularly

in EFL classes. Based on the rationale provided, the following research questions are studied:

1. Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' classroom discipline strategies and students' learning motivation?
2. Are EFL teachers' classroom discipline strategies the predictor of their students' English learning motivation?

## Method
### *Participants*

A total of 374 male and female students from 9 junior high-schools in Sari participated in the study. Of the sample, 148 (39.6%) were female and 226 (60.4%) were male.

## Instruments

● Classroom discipline strategies questionnaire

To measure teachers' classroom discipline strategies, the 24-item questionnaire of classroom discipline developed by Lewis (2001) was used. The scale assesses six frequently discussed discipline techniques used by teachers including: punishment, recognition/reward, involvement, discussion and negotiation, hinting, and aggression.

In order to assess teachers' discipline strategies, students were asked to indicate, how frequently the teacher acted as described in the statement when trying to deal with misbehaviors on a 6-point Likert type scale from nearly always 6 to never 1. The Cronbach's alpha reliability of the whole scale was found to be .81.

Demographic information of the participants (age, grade, school type) was also gathered by a separate form.

classroom-friendly model in which L2 motivation is conceptualized on three levels. The *language level* addresses the social side of L2 motivation, subsuming Gardner's integrative and instrumental concepts. The *learner level* represents individual characteristics of the learner, and concerns internal desire for achievement and issues related to self-confidence. The *learning situation level* is associated with classroom specific motivational factors: course-specific, teacher-specific, and group-specific motivational components. According to this model, three key components of the teacher's role that impact on L2 motivation are specified: the *affiliative motive* (i.e., students' desire to please the teacher), *authority type* (i.e.

## In English classes, classroom management raises key issues, and the biggest challenges EFL teachers face is how to maintain discipline while they teach

authoritarian, democratic or laissez-faire teaching style) and *direct socialization* of *student motivation* which includes modeling, task presentation and feedback.

MacIntyre et al., (2002) hold a similar viewpoint by indicating three components that make up the motivation of L2 learning: the desire to learn L2, motivational effort, and attitudes toward learning L2. It is suggested that the frequency of using L2 can be influenced by the motivation components and learners' willingness to communicate (WTC). When students are not affectively and effectively prepared, their desire to communicate will not produce WTC, but will result in unwillingness to talk (UTT).

Many recent studies on the role of language teachers in motivating their students to learn support the fact that the teacher is of great significance in developing students' affective learning. It is also suggested that students are motivated to communicate and participate when teachers are responsive and caring and avoid placing anxiety on students. The study conducted by Yi (2006) revealed that teachers who demonstrated more leadership, as well as friendly and understanding behaviors in their interactions with learners, were found to foster greater learner achievement and to create positive attitudes towards the subject of study. Teachers who had more uncertain, dissatisfied and admonishing behavior produced the reverse effect.

### ● *Classroom discipline in language classes*

English classes are composed of various activities that require students' active participation, so "students usually have more opportunities in an EFL class than classes of other subjects to speak, to talk, to read aloud or even to argue with each other" (Yi, 2006, p. 132). Therefore, if the class is not going to be managed by the teacher appropriately, there is the risk of chaos and disruptive behavior. Research shows that too much noise in the classroom intervenes with cognitive processing of information and thus minimizes learning outcomes and motivation. Further, many students may associate the noise produced by group work with a lack of classroom management skill on teachers' part. This raises doubt about language learning and teachers' ability and consequently lowers students' motivation.

Another important aspect of classroom management centers on the issue of how to teach under 'adverse circumstances' which implies a number of management

in one's career.

Deci and Ryan (1985) classified motivation into *intrinsic motivation,* the desire to engage in activities in anticipation of internally rewarding consequences such as feelings of competence and self-determination, and extrinsic motivation, the desire to engage in activities in anticipation of a reward from outside of and beyond the self.

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) broadened the definitional framework of motivation and suggested that motivation should include four major determinants: (1) interest in learning the language, (2) relevance which involves the perception that personal needs are being met by the learning situation, (3) expectation for success or failure, and (4) extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Supporting the perception of motivation as a multifaceted complex of factors, Brown (1994) proposed a two-by-two matrix representing the combination of the intrinsic-extrinsic dimension with the conventional integrative-instrumental dimension to show that it is difficult to divide language learning motivation into two distinct types such as integrative- instrumental motivation or intrinsic-extrinsic motivation.

Dornyei (1994) developed an extended,

ply a range of rewards and recognitions for good behavior as well as punishments for misbehavior (Canter & Canter, 2002). Others argue that the aim can only be attained by less emphasis on student obedience and teacher coercion, and more on student self-regulation. This is facilitated by techniques such as negotiating, discussing, and contracting (Vitto, 2003). The third orientation favors group participation and decision making, whereby the group takes responsibility for ensuring the appropriateness of the behavior of all its members (Edwards & Mullis, 2003). In practice, however, most programs addressing classroom behavior management combine techniques from all three approaches with varying emphases.

Based on self-determination theory, social-contextual conditions that provide people with the opportunity to satisfy their basic needs lead to enhanced motivation, optimal functioning, and psychological well being, whereas environmental factors that thwart these basic needs result in opposite outcomes (Ryan & Deci, 2000). It is suggested that classroom discipline can lead to developing an effective classroom man-

agement style which maximizes students' academic performance and keeps them on task by developing a sense of responsibility in them. In doing so, an effective style of classroom discipline minimizes problems and disruptions in the classroom (Lewis, et al., 2008).

### ● *Language learning motivation*

Over the past few decades, there has been a growing interest in exploring learning motivation to understand why people learn a second or a foreign language.

The formulation of second language motivation which was first proposed by Gardner and his associates has inspired a lot of research in this field. Gardner and Lambert (1972) suggested that language learning motivation can be divided into two types; *integrative motivation, and instrumental motivation*, the former is the stimulus for learners' further language studies stemming from their desire to communicate or interact with L2 people or culture and the latter is the external influences that make learners study more such as studying English to pass an entrance examination or having adequate English ability to progress

## Introduction

Motivation is the primary impetus to initiate second or foreign language learning and it is the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process. For English teachers, students' motivation has continually become a major concern because students' motivation is critical to make the process of teaching and learning more effective.

Teachers are identified as a key factor in making learning effective and students' learning relies so much on teachers' instructional behavior. Due to this fact, students' learning attitude and learning motivation are influenced both by their perceptions of what their teachers do in the class and directly by teachers' actual behaviors (Allen et al., 2006).

Factors such as teachers' personal characteristics, strategies they use in the classroom and how well they support and care for their students all combine to determine how teachers can motivate or demotivate their students. Classroom discipline is one of the most significant issues related to teacher role and it is clearly of concern not only to teachers but also to many students and even parents (Longdon, 1996).

It is evident that motivation for learning increases when fear in the classroom is minimized (Boyle, 2000). In a supportive classroom climate where a teacher creates an atmosphere of warmth, safety, acceptance, and genuineness with his or her students, the students are more likely become more self-initiated, self-confident, self-directed, and less anxious learners. One way to create this atmosphere is to manage the class appropriately (Lewis, 2001). When teachers act offensively and coercively, learning is negatively affected and students report more psychological and somatic complaints (Sava, 2002).

In English classes, classroom management raises key issues, and the biggest challenges EFL teachers face is how to maintain discipline while they teach (Linse & Nunan, 2005). On the one hand, a language teacher tries to be a kind and loving caregiver task master so that a genuine communication can take shape in the classroom (William & Burden, 1999). On the other hand, in order for the instruction to take place, the teacher should maintain order in his/her classroom. It is not, therefore, easy for an EFL teacher to create the balance between these two, that is, a caring environment and a controlled one.

### ● *Classroom discipline*

While one disciplinary view is that discipline is punishment and control (Rowntree, 1981), Harmer (1983) believes that discipline does not mean punishment applied to misbehaving students but refers to a contract which binds a teacher and a group of students together so that learning can be more effective. According to Lewis (2001), discipline is generally represented as what teachers do in response to students' misbehavior.

**Classroom discipline is one of the most significant activities that comprise the role of a teacher and it is clearly of concern not only to teachers but also to many students and even parents (Longdon, 1996)**

There are at least three main approaches to classroom discipline, each advocating particular techniques.

Some educationalists argue that in order to promote responsibility in children, teachers need to develop clear expectations for student behavior and then judiciously ap-

# The Role of Teachers' Classroom Discipline Strategies in Motivating Students' to Learn English as a Foreign Language

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چکیده

هدف پژوهش حاضر، بررسی ارتباط راهبردهای انضباط کلاسی دبیران زبان انگلیسی در مدیریت رفتارهای ناهنجار و بی انضباطی در کلاس زبان با انگیزهٔ یادگیری زبان دانش‌آموزان بود. ۳۷۴ دانش‌آموز دختر و پســر پرســش‌نامهٔ راهبرد کلاسی دبیر زبان را تکمیل کردند که راهبردهای انضباطی را در شش محور مورد ارزیابی قرار می‌داد: تنبیه دانش‌آموزان، تشخیص رفتارهای مناسب و پاداش دادن به آن‌ها، تبادل نظر با دانش‌آموزان در مورد بی‌انضباطی، درگیر نمودن دانش‌آموزان در روند تصمیم‌گیری در مورد نحوهٔ برقراری انضباط در کلاس، تذکردادن به دانش‌آموزان در صورت بروز رفتارهای ناهنجار، و اعمال خشونت در قبال بی‌انضباطی. دانش‌آموزان همچنین آزمون انگیزه-نگرش گاردنر را تکمیل کردند. نتیجه نشان داد که انگیزهٔ یادگیری با چهار راهبرد تشخیص/ پاداش، تبادل نظر، درگیر کردن و تذکر دادن ارتباط مثبت و معنا دار و با راهبردهای تنبیه و خشونت ارتباط منفی و معنادار دارد. از این میان راهبردهای تنبیه، پاداش، درگیر کردن، و بحث و تبادل نظر پیش‌بینی‌کنندهٔ انگیزهٔ یادگیری زبان هستند.

**کلید واژه‌ها:** انضباط کلاسی، آموزش زبان انگلیسی، انگیزه، معلمان، راهبردها

## Abstract

The aim of this study was investigating the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' classroom discipline strategies and their students' motivation in learning English as a foreign language. To achieve this goal, three hundred and seventy-four junior high-school students completed classroom discipline strategy questionnaire that assessed their perceptions of the strategies their English teachers used to discipline the classroom in terms of the following six factors: punishment, recognition/reward, discussion, hinting, involvement, and aggression. They also filled in Attitude/Motivation Test Battery that assessed their motivation towards learning English as a foreign language. The results revealed that punishment and aggression strategies correlated inversely with students' motivation. Discussion, recognition/reward, involvement, and hinting were positively related to students' motivation. Further, four strategies - punishment, recognition, involvement and hinting - could explain more than 20 percent of motivation in learning English as a foreign language, while punishment was found to be a hindrance to motivation.

**Key Words:** classroom discipline, EFL, motivation, teachers, strategies

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# Appendix

## Original and nativized versions of one of the three cloze passages

### Original version

Mr. Marsh was a Senator in the government. One day he was driving to a town to (1) an important speech when he (2) at a small restaurant to (3) some coffee. When he saw that the restaurant had some nice fresh rolls, he asked the waitress for one, and she (4) it. Then he asked for some butter and jam and she (5) a very small serving of butter and a very small jar of jam.

"I'd like some more jam, please." Mr. Marsh said.

"I'm sorry," she answered, "but we (6) give one serving of butter and one jar of jam with each roll."

Mr. Marsh began to get (7). "Do you (8) who I am, young lady?" he said. "I'm the state Senator."

"And do you (9) who I am?" the waitress asked.

Mr. Marsh was (10) and said, "No."

"Well," she answered, "I'm the person who gives out the jars of jam."

### Nativized version

Mr. Tehrani was the manager of a big company. One day he was driving to a town to (1) an important speech when he (2) at a small restaurant to (3) some tea. When he saw that the restaurant had some nice fresh bread, he asked the waiter for one, and he (4) it. Then he asked for some butter and jam and he (5) a very small serving of butter and a very small jar of jam.

"I'd like some more jam, please." Mr. Tehrani said.

"I'm sorry," he answered, "but we (6) give one serving of butter and one jar of jam with each bread."

Mr. Tehrani began to get (7). "Do you (8) who I am, young man?" he said. "I'm the manager of a big company."

"And do you (9) who I am?" the waiter asked.

Mr. Tehrani was (10) and said, "No."

"Well", he answered, "I'm person who gives out the jars of jam."

pectations, readers may lack the cultural background knowledge which is assumed by the writer, and which is necessary for successful comprehension of the text. Therefore, through nativization of the culture-specific cues in the texts, the influence of cultural schemata can be triggered, and the comprehension can be facilitated.

Generally speaking, target language texts reflect some aspects of the culture of the people for whom they have been originally written. They tend to reflect the preoccupations, the values, beliefs and attitudes of a particular community and typically contain references to people, events, locations, concepts, as well as customs and institutions related to the culture of that community. As far as reading comprehension is concerned, this can be a potential source of reading difficulty for non-native readers because it is often difficult for EFL readers to associate themselves with the characters, events, places, concepts, and con-

**In recent years, as cultural factors receive more emphasis in EFL instruction, considerable attention has been drawn on understanding the role of cultural schemata in reading comprehension**

tent of the anecdotal narratives from the target language culture. Therefore, nativizing these texts to the readers' own culture would help readers activate appropriate schemata more efficiently which results in better comprehension.

Nativization is recom-

mended to EFL teachers and material designers as a new way of text modification to enhance learners' reading comprehension of narrative texts. Using nativized texts in reading classes will have positive import on the development of reading skill. Nativized texts may raise feelings of interest in the readers and increase their motivation to read further and could thus be a good stimulant for extensive reading. Longer narrative texts such as short stories, novellas, and novels can be nativized into learners' own culture and used in extensive reading programs for EFL learners.

Furthermore, nativized texts can create a strong feeling of cultural identity between the reader and the text. This, in turn, may make students more confident readers. Nativized texts may also make it easier to teach basic literary concepts to EFL students of literature. For example, concepts of characterization, conflict, or resolution may be more understandable to students in the more culturally familiar environments of nativized stories rather than in the alien contexts of original American or British stories.

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easily accessed the pragmatic relations between these forms and their referents in the world of experience, and this resulted in their better performance in reading comprehension test. In contrast, the original group lagged behind because they read narratives with surface forms which were culturally unfamiliar (or less familiar) with and which pertained to culturally unfamiliar (or less familiar) content. Therefore, the pragmatic links between these forms and their referents or content were less accessible to them, and their reading comprehension suffered as a result.

The study is also in line with Oller and Chen's (2007) ideas in relation to episod-

**When reading texts from the target language culture, readers will naturally draw upon information gained from their own cultural experiences and cultural background knowledge**

ic organization in discourse processing measurements. In simple terms, episodic organization refers to a series of episodes in a story-line as in a film or novel and is commonly manifested in the chronological arrangement of narratives and in ordinary reports of event sequences (pp. 127-128). Bringing empirical evidence, Oller and Chen showed that both second language learners and native speakers use episodic organization to fill in missing elements in a cloze task. They further argue that the depth of comprehension of episodic organization is sensitive to relatively minute elements of surface forms and more specifically to the names of persons and places in the dis-

course. That is, changing the surface forms of referring terms in a narrative text to more familiar ones would make them easier for learners to interpret. This is also borne out by this research because the texts contained a number of proper names referring to persons and places which were culturally modified in the nativized versions. This modification probably helped the subjects who read the nativized anecdotes to understand the texts better and thus could solve more cloze items in comparison to the subjects who read the original texts.

**Conclusion and pedagogical implications**

Comprehension does not occur in a vacuum, and indeed, schemata activation is an important part of the process by which meaning is created by the reader. When reading texts from the target language culture, readers will naturally draw upon information gained from their own cultural experiences and cultural background knowledge. In the case of foreign language reading, where the reader and writer presumably belong to different cultures and have distinct cultural experiences and ex-

readers' background knowledge and textual input function interactively so that a reader's weakness in one area may be compensated for by his strength in another area. In the case of this study, the subjects in the nativized group might have overcome difficult vocabulary and complex grammatical structures and thus inferred the meaning of the unknown words or phrases by drawing on their cultural background knowledge. As a result, they could solve more cloze items in comparison to the original group.

The difference between the two groups'

**The psychological processes involved in comprehension indicates that people's understanding of language is a function of their past experiences, their background knowledge or what are technically known as their schemata**

performance in comprehension can also be related to the possible interest aroused by culturally nativized texts. When readers see elements of their native culture in the texts, because of the cultural proximity they feel between themselves and the characters, they probably feel much more engaged with the plot and can more strongly identify themselves with the characters of the stories. This, in turn, leads to better understanding of the texts. In addition, research has shown that compared with the first language, the mind is less efficient in a second language at any task, and there is "an L2 cognitive deficit" as it is sometimes called (Cook, 2001, p. 87). It seems that nativizing the texts to conform to the learners' native culture enables learners to compensate for this cognitive deficit and helps them to better connect each sentence with

its subsequent and previous sentences in the text. In fact, the nativized texts put fewer loads on the subjects' memory in comparison to the original ones and results in better text comprehension.

The results of the study can also be interpreted through Oller's (2005) pragmatic or π-bootstrapping hypothesis in language processing and language acquisition. In the history of language teaching, theoreticians and methodologists have generally agreed that it is essential somehow to teach pairings of form, F, with content, C, or FC. Oller, however, maintains that the pragmatic connections between F and C, that is, the π-links (FπC) is a more complete representation (p. 94). In the formula FπC, F stands for the target language form(s) to be comprehended, or acquired, or both, C stands for the content (i.e., the referent or complex of referents) that may be referred to, and π stands for the particular act that connects F through inference with C that F signifies and to which it purports to refer. Bringing empirical evidence, Oller argues that developing proficiency in any language, or modality, depends on access to the dynamic referential relations between target forms and particular persons, things, events, and relations among them in the world of experience. Citing studies on cultural modifications of reading texts, Oller shows that merely changing the form of certain unfamiliar referring terms in a narrative text to more culturally familiar ones makes form-content relationships more accessible to EFL learners, enhances text coherence, and improves overall comprehension.

As far as this study is concerned, the nativized texts, in both surface forms and their content, were more culturally familiar to the learners. Therefore, the nativized group

students in the control group received the original version of the cloze test and the students in the experimental group received the nativized version. The subjects in both groups were given the same amount of time to complete the cloze passages.

### Scoring procedure

The cloze tests were scored according to the acceptable word method. Accordingly, one mark was given to each semantically acceptable answer and zero mark was given to each semantically unacceptable answer. The subjects' grammatical and spelling errors were ignored in the scoring procedure.

## Results

After administering the tests and correcting the papers, the collected data were analyzed. Table 4 displays the two groups' performance on the cloze tests.

Table 4
The Results of the two Groups' Performance on Cloze Test

| Groups | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Original | 30 | 11 | 24 | 17.16 | 4.02 |
| Nativized | 30 | 10 | 27 | 22.88 | 3.72 |

As shown in the table, the mean of the nativized group's scores was greater than the mean of the original group. To see if the difference between the means was statistically significant, an independent t-test was run. The result of this statistical analysis is shown in Table 5.

Table 5
Independent T-Test Comparing the Means of the two Groups' Scores on Cloze Tests

| Groups | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Original | 30 | 17.16 | 4.02 | 7.77 | 58 |
| Nativized | 30 | 22.88 | 3.72 | | |

As illustrated in the table, the observed value of t was much greater than the critical value of t, indicating that the difference between the two groups was statistically significant and, in fact, nativization of the texts had a positive effect on students' reading comprehension.

## Discussion

The results provided an affirmative answer to the research question; that is, nativization of short narrative texts from the target language culture into Persian culture facilitates Iranian EFL learners' comprehension of the texts. Comprehension, according to the schema theory, is an interactive process between the reader and the text, and successful understanding of a text depends crucially on the readers' ability to activate the relevant schemata to relate information from the text to already existing background knowledge. When a person reads a narrative text, the schemata embodying his background knowledge provide the framework for understanding the setting, mood, characters, and the chain of events. When reading the original narratives, the readers might not be able to activate their schemata as efficiently as when they read the nativized version since the original texts are not in line with the EFL readers' cultural background knowledge. So a possible reason for the outperformance of the nativized group is that the nativized narratives are more consistent with Iranian readers' cultural knowledge and thus helped them better activate their schemata regarding the content of the text and enabled them to relate the incidents in the texts to their own background knowledge and experience.

Furthermore, the interactive compensatory model (Stanovich, 2000) suggests that

and rhetorical structures of the texts intact. So this resulted in having two versions of each anecdote – one native English and one nativized.

The narrative texts were nativized in a way that reflected the learners' own culture; that is, they were re-written as if the events were taking place in Iran. Therefore, in the nativized versions all the names of the characters and cities were changed to Iranian names. In addition, a great number of concepts concerning American culture in the original anecdotes were changed in the nativized versions to reflect Persian culture. These concepts were related to cultural elements such as food, jobs, currency, interpersonal relationships, and so on.

In the first anecdote, a *Senator in the government* was changed into the *manager of a big company*, in the nativized version since in the Iranian system of government, there is no Senator; in addition, people do not typically make jokes about high-ranking government officials. As another example, *the waitress* was changed to *the waiter* because in the Iranian culture typically men serve foods and drinks in restaurants not women. Table 2 below shows the textual and contextual cues in the original and nativized versions of the first anecdote.

**Table 1**
**Textual and Contextual Cues in the two Versions of the First Anecdote**

| Original Version | Nativized Version |
|---|---|
| Mr. Marsh (3 occurrences) | Mr. Tehrani |
| a Senator in the government | the manager of a big company |
| coffee | tea |
| fresh rolls | fresh bread |
| waitress (2 occurrences) | waiter |
| each roll | each bread |
| young lady | young man |
| she (4 occurrences) | he |
| the state Senator | the manager of a big company |

In the second anecdote, *one of the girls* was changed into *one of the students* in the nativized version since in Iran, boys and girls attend separate classes in separate schools. As another example, when one of the students raises her hand and the teacher says "*Yes, Debbie?*", this was replaced by "*Yes, Karimi?*", in the nativized version, because in the Iranian culture, school teachers usually call their students by their last name in class. Table 3 demonstrates the textual and contextual cues in the original and nativized versions of the second anecdote.

**Table 2**
**Textual and Contextual Cues in the two Versions of the Second Anecdote**

| Original Version | Nativized Version |
|---|---|
| Miss Rogers (4 occurrences) | Miss Alavi |
| New York | Tehran |
| Los Angeles | Istanbul |
| 75 feet | 25 meters |
| one of the girls | one of the students |
| "Yes, Debbie?" | "Yes, Karimi?" |
| Debbie | Karimi |
| eleven o'clock | half past nine |

In the third anecdote, *Mrs. Green* was replaced by *Mr. Ahmadi* because in Iran, old women are less likely to travel alone by plane regularly. Table 4 demonstrates other textual and contextual cues in the original and nativized versions of the third anecdote.

**Table 3**
**Textual and Contextual Cues in the two Versions of the Third Anecdote**

| Original Version | Nativized Version |
|---|---|
| Mrs. Green (4 occurrences) | Mr. Ahmadi |
| an old lady | an old gentleman |
| she (6 occurrences) | he |
| Chicago | Tehran |
| San Francisco | Ahvaz |

### Administration procedure

The two versions of the test were administered to the two groups of the subjects participating in the study. Therefore, the
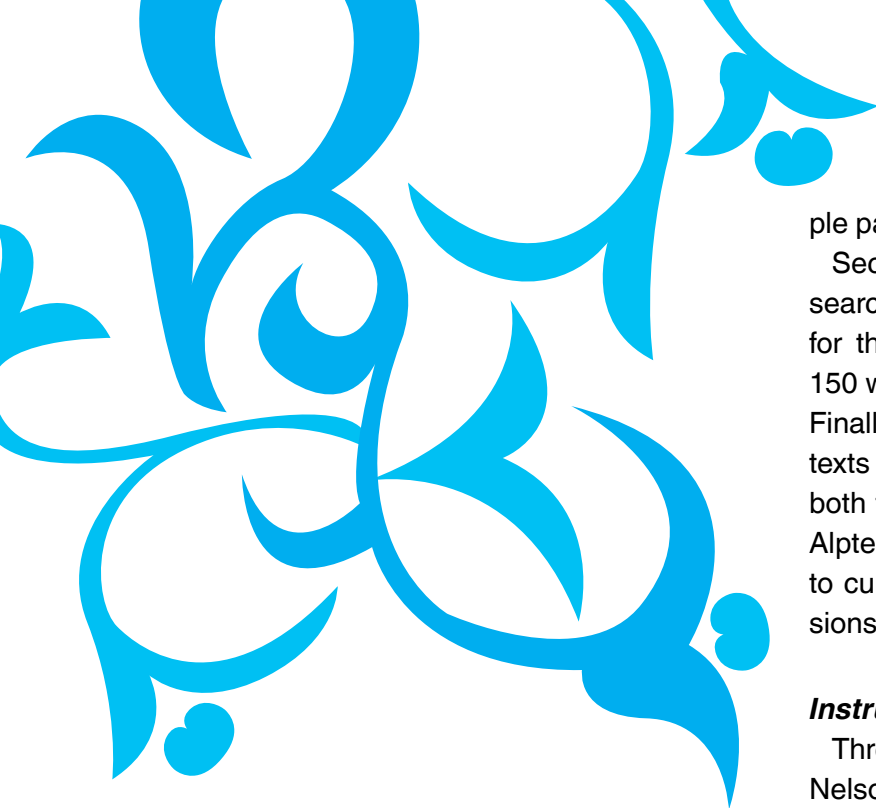
enous sample. Then, they were randomly divided into two groups of 30. One group was considered as the experimental and the other as the control group.

### Materials

Three short narrative texts were selected for the study. They were anecdotal narratives in American English taken from Hill (1980). The selection procedure was based on several factors the most important of which were the level of difficulty, the length, and the cultural load of the texts. First, an attempt was made to choose texts at the appropriate level of difficulty in terms of lexical and syntactic complexity for the participants. To accomplish this, the procedure suggested by Farhady, Jafarpur, and Birjandi (2001, p. 283) was followed. That is, Five passages were randomly selected from the first-grade high school students' English textbook. Using Fog's readability formula, the average readability level of the book was determined to be 9.5 with the approximate standard deviation of 1.5. Then, three short narrative texts with readability levels of ±1 standard deviation of the sam-

ple passages (i.e., 8 to 11) were selected.

Second, in line with the purpose of research, short narrative texts were chosen for the study. The three texts were each 150 words in length, 450 words altogether. Finally, care was exercised to select the texts which contained more cultural cues, both textual and contextual, as defined by Alptekin (2006), and lent themselves well to cultural nativization in the adapted versions.

### Instruments

Three tests were utilized in the study: a Nelson English Language Test for selecting homogeneous subjects, and two types of reading comprehension tests developed by the researcher. Both types of reading comprehension tests included three cloze passages. In one type, the cloze texts were based on the original anecdotes, while in the other, they were based on the nativized versions. In each anecdotal narrative, ten words were deleted from the text and students were required to fill in the blanks (See Appendix for the original and nativized versions of one of the cloze passages). Therefore, there were 30 blanks altogether in each cloze test.

## Procedures

### Nativization procedure

The texts selected for the study were nativized into the language learners' own culture (i.e., Persian) based on Alptekin's (2006) definition of cultural nativization. To accomplish this, first, the textual and contextual cues of the anecdotal narratives which reflected American culture were identified, and then these cues were adapted sociologically, semantically, and pragmatically in the modified versions to reflect Persian culture, while keeping linguistic features

quality of comprehension. Concerning content schemata, numerous research studies have demonstrated that a text dealing with a culturally familiar content will be easier to comprehend - all other factors being equal - than a culturally unfamiliar one (Abu-Rabia, 2003; Chihara, Sakurai and Oller, 1989; Carrell, 1987; Droop and Verhoeven, 1998; Pritchard, 1990; Rosowsky, 2000; Sasaki, 2000; Yeut Hung Chan, 2003, among others). This is because the reader is able to activate and utilize the relevant cultural schemata to facilitate comprehension of the culturally familiar text.

The notion of cultural nativization was introduced by Alptekin (2002, as cited in Erten & Razi, 2003) as a way of investigating the effect of cultural background knowledge on comprehension of short stories. Alptekin (2006) elaborated on the issue and gave a comprehensive definition of the term as "sociological, semantic and pragmatic adaptation of the textual and contextual cues of the original story into the learner's own culture, while keeping its linguistic and rhetorical content essentially intact" (p.499). By textual cues Alptekin means data which have to do with settings and locations as well as characters and occupations. Examples of Turkish nativization of textual cues given by Alptekin are changing *New York City to Istanbul*, or *organist to piano player*. Contextual cues, as defined by Alptekin, include culture-specific customs, rituals, notions, structures, and values (p. 500). An example of nativization of contextual cues is replacing the *traditional American Sunday dinner* by a *Bayram meal* for Turkish learners.

Since the concept of cultural nativization was introduced, few studies have been conducted on the role of this type of text modification in reading comprehension (Alptekin, 2006; Erten & Razi, 2003, 2009; Jalilifar and

Assi, 2008; Razi, 2004). Previous studies on cultural nativization have generally indicated that nativizing a target language narrative text to conform to the learners' cultural schemata facilitates learners' comprehension of the text. However, these studies have investigated the role of nativization in reading comprehension in relation to only short stories, so other alternatives such as longer or shorter narrative texts have not been researched yet. Furthermore, most of these studies have investigated the issue in Turkish culture and with Turkish EFL learners. As such, the studies need to be replicated and the findings have to be confirmed by other studies with learners from other cultural contexts. Taking these limitations into consideration, this study examined the effect of cultural nativization on comprehension of short narrative texts. More specifically it explored the issue in relation to Persian culture among students learning English as a foreign language. The study was an attempt to answer the following question:

1. Does nativization of short narrative texts from the target language culture into Persian culture affect Iranian EFL learners' comprehension of the texts?

## Methodology

### Participants

The subjects participating in this study were 60 Iranian EFL learners with the average age of fifteen. They were selected from among 100 first-graders in a high school in Ahvaz, based on the scores obtained from a standard proficiency test, that is, a Nelson Test (Fowler and Coe, 1976) consisting of 50 multiple choice items. On the basis of the results obtained from the test, 60 students whose scores fell between one standard deviation above or below the mean score were selected as a homog-

## Introduction

Research on the psychological processes involved in comprehension indicates that people's understanding of language is a function of their past experiences, their background knowledge or what are technically known as their schemata. The role of prior knowledge in language comprehension has been formalized in a theoretical model known as schema theory. One of the basic tenets of this theory is that texts themselves, whether spoken or written, do not carry meaning; rather, they provide signposts or clues for listeners or readers in reconstructing the meanings from their own background knowledge. Reading comprehension is thus an interactive process between the reader and the textual input, in that the reader is required to fit the clues provided in the text to his own previously acquired knowledge (Nunan, 2002).

In schema-theoretic studies, a theoretical distinction is often made between *content* and *formal* schemata. Content schemata are usually understood as the background knowledge about the content area or the subject matter of a text; in contrast, formal schemata are claimed to constitute the background knowledge of the formal rhetorical structures of different text types or genres (Field, 2004; Villanueva de Debat, 2006).

In recent years, as cultural factors have received more emphasis in EFL instruction, considerable attention has been drawn on understanding the role of cultural schemata in reading comprehension. It is argued that non-native readers' failure to activate appropriate cultural schemata during reading may result in various degrees of non-comprehension. This is because schemata, as Yule (2000) points out, are culturally determined, and people develop their cultural schemata in the context of their basic experiences. In other words, the sociocultural context in which an individual is embedded will affect his/her schemata. It follows that when a person is presented with culturally familiar information, this information will be easier to understand than culturally unfamiliar information, as the former ties in better with the person's cultural schemata.

Cultural schema has been researched in relation to both content and formal schemata, and schema-theoretic studies in both L1 and L2 reading have generally indicated that the more content and/or form of a text interact with the readers' cultural background knowledge, the better the
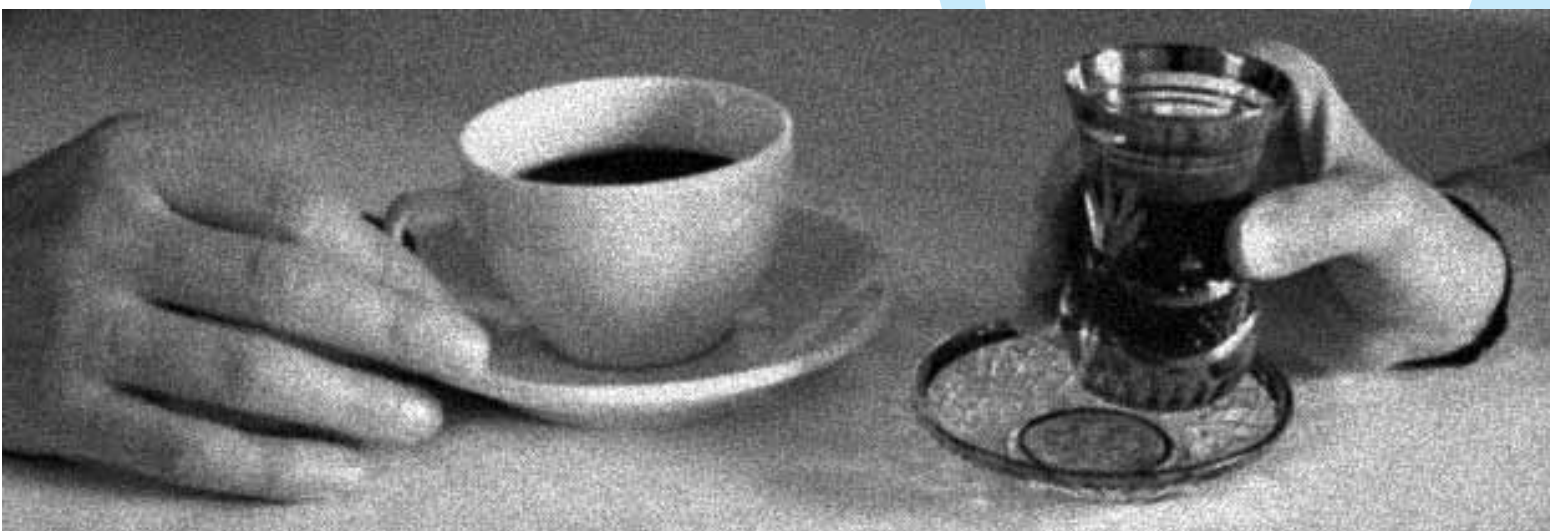
# Cultural Nativization of Short Narrative Texts and its Impact on EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension

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## چکیده

این تحقیق به بررســی نقش بومیســازی فرهنگی در فهم متون روایی کوتاه زبان مقصد توسط زبانآموزان ایرانی پرداخته است. براســاس تعریف الپتکین (۲۰۰۶) از بومیســازی فرهنگی، ابتدا ســه متن روایی کوتاه انگلیســی آمریکایی براســاس فرهنگ فارسی بومیســازی شــدند. ســپس دو نوع آزمون بسته (Cloze) برای ســنجش فهم نوشتاری زبانآموزان طراحی شــد که یکی از آنها بر اســاس متون اصلی و دیگری براســاس نســخههای بومی شــدۀ آنها بود. برای انجام تحقیق، از ۱۰۰ دانشآموز سال اول دبیرستان، آزمون استاندارد توانش زبانی (Nelson) بهعمل آمد. براساس نمرۀ این آزمون، تعداد ۶۰ نفر از دانشآموزان هم سطح از نظر توانش زبانی، انتخاب و بهطور تصادفی به دو گروه ۳۰ نفره تقســیم شــدند. برای جمعآوری دادههای موردنظر، هر نسخۀ آزمون به یک گروه شــرکتکننده داده شد. نتایج نشان داد که بومیسازی فرهنگی تأثیر بسزایی در فهم متنها داشته است. یافتههای این تحقیق، برای معلمان زبان انگلیسی و طراحان مواد آموزشی پیامهایی دارد.

**کلیدواژهها:** بومیسازی فرهنگی، فرهنگ زبان مقصد، نظریۀ طرحواره، طرحوارۀ فرهنگی

## Abstract

This study investigated the role of cultural nativization in the comprehension of the target language short narrative texts by Iranian EFL learners. Following Alptekin's (2006) definition of cultural nativization, three short narrative texts in American English were nativized into Persian culture. Then, two types of cloze tests were constructed to assess reading comprehension: one based on the original texts and the other based on the nativized versions. To conduct the research, a standard language proficiency test (Nelson Test) was administered to 100 first-grade high school students and based on their scores, 60 learners were selected as a homogenous sample. Then, they were randomly divided into two groups of 30. In order to collect the relevant data, each version of the test was administered to one group of the subjects. The results demonstrated that cultural nativization had a facilitative role in comprehension of the texts. The findings of the study bear implications for EFL teachers and material designers.

**Key Words:** cultural nativization, target language culture, schema theory, cultural schemata