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Foreign Languages Open Doors to New Horizons

مجله علمی، ترویجی

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Foreign Language Teaching Journal

فهرست

قابل توجه نویسندگان و مترجمان محترم

● مجله ی رشد آموزش زبان، مقالات کاربردی در حیطه ی آموزش زبان و همچنین اصل تحقیقات پژوهشگران در حیطه ی آموزش زبان خارجی، بویژه، دبیران و مدرسان را، در صورتی که در نشریات عمومی درج نشده و مرتبط با موضوع مجله باشد، می‌پذیرد. ● مطالب باید در دو نسخه ی تایپ شده همراه با چکیده فارسی و انگلیسی که زیر آنها کلید واژه‌ها آمده است، ارسال شود. این مورد برای مقالات فرانسه و آلمانی نیز صادق است. ● محل قرار گرفتن جدول ها، نمودارها و تصویرهای ضمیمه باید در حاشیه ی مطلب نیز مشخص شود. ● متن هایی که به زبان های خارجی (انگلیسی، فرانسه و آلمانی) ارسال می شوند، باید سلیس و روان و از انسجام کافی برخوردار باشند و از منابع جدید استفاده شده باشد.

نویسندگان و مؤلفان، نام و نام خانوادگی، آدرس پست الکترونیکی، دبیران (نام منطقه آموزشی)، دانشگاهیان نام دانشگاه و مدرک تحصیلی خود را زیر عنوان مقاله بیاورند. ● نثر مقاله ی فارسی باید روان و از نظر دستور زبان فارسی درست باشد و در انتخاب واژه‌های علمی و فنی دقت لازم مبذول گردد. ● مقاله‌های ترجمه شده باید با متن اصلی همخوانی داشته باشد و متن اصلی نیز ضمیمه‌ی مقاله باشد. ● در متن های ارسالی باید تا حد امکان از معادل های فارسی واژه‌ها و اصطلاحات استفاده شود. ● زیرنویس ها و منابع باید کامل و شامل نام اثر، نام نویسنده، نام مترجم، محل نشر، ناشر، سال انتشار و شماره ی صفحه ی مورد استفاده باشد. ● مجله در رد، قبول، ویرایش و تلخیص مقاله‌های رسیده مختار است. ● آرای مندرج در مقاله‌ها، ضرورتاً مبین نظر دفتر انتشارات کمک آموزشی نیست و مسؤولیت پاسخگویی به پرسش های خوانندگان، با خود نویسنده یا مترجم است. ● مجله از بازگرداندن مطالبی که برای چاپ مناسب تشخیص داده نمی‌شود، معذور است.

کتاب درسی یا معلم

هرگاه مطالب جدیدی در کتاب‌ها و مقالات تازه چاپ شده در دسترس قرار می‌گیرند و بر آموزش زبان در دنیای امروز تأکید می‌کنند، تأسف خواننده را برمی‌انگیزند که چرا هنوز تدریس زبان انگلیسی در ایران در جا می‌زند و هیچ تحرک و بهبودی در آموزش آن در مدارس ما به وقوع نمی‌پیوندد. وقتی به وضع آموزش این زبان در کشورهای دیگر می‌نگریم، متوجه می‌شویم که اکثر دانش‌آموزان یا فارغ‌التحصیلان آموزش و پرورش، توان گفت‌وگو یا ایجاد ارتباط را در سطحی نسبتاً قابل قبول دارند، ولی دانش‌آموزان ما هنوز در حالت بهت و ناتوانی باقی مانده‌اند و از خود حرکتی دال بر امکان استفاده از زبان نشان نمی‌دهند.

راستی تا کی می‌خواهیم این روال یا روند یادگیری و آموزش زبان را ادامه دهیم؟ آیا با این روش موفق خواهیم بود؟ آیا باید منتظر معجزه‌ای باشیم که بعضی از متخصصان خارجی ممکن است به ما نشان دهند؟ آیا با خواندن مقالات علمی کاری از پیش می‌بریم؟ آیا کسی در اندیشه‌ی اصلاح آموزش زبان در ایران هست؟ آیا همین وضع رضایت‌بخش است و احتیاجی به تغییر و تحول در تدریس زبان نیست؟ آیا... آیا... و صدها آیای دیگر که همگی تا به حال بی‌جواب مانده‌اند و بدون توجه و بررسی رها شده‌اند؛ در حالی‌که هنوز بودجه‌ها و هزینه‌ها صرف می‌شوند.

وقتی با معلمان زبان صحبت می‌کنیم، همگی گناه را به گردن کتاب‌های درسی می‌اندازند و معتقدند که مطالب آن‌ها مناسب نیستند. شاید حرف آن‌ها صحیح باشد، ولی آیا در آموزش زبان فقط کتاب و مطالب درسی حرف اول را می‌زند؟ البته مطلوب بودن مطالب یا محتوای کتاب‌ها، خود یکی از ضرورت‌های آموزشی است و شاید اگر مسئولان و دست‌اندرکاران آموزش و پرورش ضعف‌های کتاب درسی را برطرف کنند، معلمان متوجه شوند که عوامل دیگر نیز باید اصلاح شوند و خود را تا حدی مسئول بدانند. به همین دلیل، باید آن‌ها نیز درگیر کار تهیه و تدوین مطالب درسی شوند و با گردهمایی در گروه‌های آموزشی و استفاده از تجربیات افراد متخصص، کمر همت ببندند و کتاب‌هایی تهیه کنند که برای همگان جذاب و قابل استفاده باشند. چون گاهی دیده می‌شود، افرادی اقدام به تهیه کتاب می‌کنند که خود تجربه چندانی در تدریس این دروس در سطح راهنمایی و دبیرستان ندارند و سعی می‌کنند، فقط نظریه‌های بیان‌شده را جامه‌ی عمل بپوشانند که موفق هم نمی‌شوند. پس تهیه‌ی کتاب آن هم برای یک کشور و جمعیتی بزرگ، کاری آسان و قابل اجرا در زمانی کوتاه نیست و به تفکر، بررسی و کار شبانه‌روزی نیاز دارد.

گاهی نیز تصور می‌شود، مطالب یا کتاب‌های کمک‌آموزشی باید کمبودهای کتاب‌های درسی را جبران کنند، ولی چنین نیست. کتاب‌های کمک‌آموزشی را فقط افراد خاصی می‌خرند و مورد استفاده قرار می‌دهند و تمام جمعیت دانش‌آموزان قادر به خرید و استفاده از آن‌ها نیستند. علاوه بر این، گاه شکوه می‌شود که امکان پوشش یا تدریس تمام مطالب کتاب درسی میسر نیست، پس

چگونه کتاب دیگری تدریس شود یا مورد استفاده قرار گیرد؟ وقتی معلمان زبان گرد هم می‌آیند، فقط زبان به گله‌گذاری و عیب‌جویی می‌گشایند و نیمه‌ی خالی لیوان را می‌بینند، ولی هرگز به دنبال پیدا کردن راه و روش بهتری برای درس دادن نیستند. البته عده‌ی معدودی متفاوت و مستثنا هستند و کار خود را خوب انجام می‌دهند، ولی اکثریت فقط شکایت می‌کنند و نمی‌خواهند چاره‌ای بیندیشند.

ترویج اصول تهیه و تدوین مطالب درسی، و کارآموزی معلمان در این زمینه می‌تواند تا حدی راهگشا باشد و ایرادگیران را به خود آورد، تا بلکه دست به تهیه‌ی مطالبی برای کلاس درسی خود بزنند و با چند و چون قضایای کتاب‌نویسی آشنا شوند و همه‌ی مشکلات و مسائل آموزشی را فقط متوجه کتاب‌های درسی ندانند. البته کتاب درسی باید حداقل هر چند سال یک بار عوض شود و مطالب جدید و به‌روز در آن‌ها بیاید تا ذوق و شوق همگان را برانگیزد. نه آن که یک کتاب بیش از ۱۵ تا ۲۰ سال ثابت بماند و آن‌قدر تکراری و کهنه شود که دیدن آن، هم معلم و هم محصل را ناراحت کند.

کتاب درسی آن‌قدر مقدس نیست که از تغییر آن بترسیم یا وحشت کنیم و نویسنده یا نویسندگان آن هم تنها افراد متخصص کشور، و آن‌قدر کمیاب نیستند که از هرگونه اقدام یا تهیه‌ی کتاب جدید بپرهیزیم. پس باید دست در دست هم بگذاریم و برای آموزش زبان، کتاب‌های متفاوتی با محتواها و متن‌های گوناگون و جدید تهیه کنیم و در اختیار نسل در حال پیشرفت بگذاریم. به‌علاوه، جهش و رشد فکری آن‌ها را در نظر بگیریم و متوجه باشیم، جوان امروز مانند جوان ۱۵ یا ۲۰ سال پیش فکر نمی‌کند و به مسیری آماده و باز برای پیشرفت و یادگیری نیاز دارد که با دوران قبل بسیار متفاوت است. همان‌گونه که جوامع، شهرها و راه‌های کشور هر روز بیش از پیش به توجه و گسترش بیشتر نیاز دارند، آموزش جوانان به سال و حتی به ماه و روز بستگی دارد و آنچه در سال‌های پیش وجود داشته است، جواب‌گوی نیاز امروز آنان نیست و نخواهد بود.

بنابراین، باید کمر همت بست و با استفاده از آخرین یافته‌های علمی و عملی، مطالبی اصیل، جالب و مفید برای نسل قرن بیست و یکم تهیه کرد. هر روز نیز آماده‌ی تجدیدنظر، تغییر و اصلاح مطالب بود و از تألیف و ارائه‌ی بهترین مطالب برای تدریس دست برنداشت؛ چون از قدیم گفته‌اند: «اگر آب هم در یک جا بماند، می‌گندد»، چه رسد به موارد دیگر!

به همین منظور، در این شماره مقالات درباره‌ی تهیه و تدوین مطالب درسی آمده است و امید می‌رود که در شماره‌های دیگر نیز، از این نوع مقاله‌ها برای مجله برسد تا چاپ کنیم. شاید بدین‌وسیله جرقه‌ای برای حرکت و اقدام به تهیه کتاب و مطالب درسی زده شود و همه منتظر ننشینند تا فردی کتاب بنویسد و آن‌ها را تدریس کنند. بلکه خود نیز فعالانه دست به کار شوند و همکاری کنند تا مطالبی زیبا، مفید و مناسب برای تدریس فراهم آیند.

انشاءا...

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تحلیل ساختاری مجله‌ی رشد آموزش زبان از بدو انتشار تاکنون

از آن جا که آشنایی خوانندگان با روند تهیه ، تدوین ، چاپ و انتشار مجله می‌تواند ، بر دیدگاه و نگرش آنان تأثیر بگذارد ، قسمت اول تحقیقی که توسط همکار ارجمند و عضو هیأت تحریریه‌ی «رشد آموزش زبان» ، جناب آقای دکتر نادر حقانی انجام گرفته است ، تقدیم حضورتان می‌شود ؛ باشد که خوانندگان عزیز از تاریخچه و جریان امور انتشار این مجله آگاهی یابند .

انتشار مجلات تخصصی ، بیانگر میزان توجه جامعه‌ی علمی به تحقیقات ، تحولات و تغییرات حوزه‌های تخصصی و اراده‌ی پژوهشگران و سازمان‌های متفاوت در استفاده از یافته‌های پژوهشی و به عبارت دیگر ، کاربردی کردن آن‌ها از جنبه‌ی اطلاع‌رسانی تا اصلاح روش ، و افزایش کارایی در امور گوناگون است . نگاهی به گذشته ، و بررسی و تحقیق درخصوص چگونگی اجرای هدفمند ایده‌ها ، از دو منظر ساختار و محتوا ، مسیر علمی حال و آینده را نیز نمایان می‌سازد . نوشته‌ی حاضر که به بعد ساختاری «رشد آموزش زبان» ، از شماره‌ی یک تا ۸۰ می‌پردازد ، اولین مقاله از سلسله مقالاتی است که در چارچوب فعالیت‌های تحقیقاتی «مرکز پژوهشی آموزش زبان خارجی دانشگاه تهران» و با حمایت معنوی «دفتر انتشارات کمک‌آموزشی» سازمان پژوهش و برنامه‌ریزی آموزشی وزارت آموزش و پرورش و سردبیر و مدیر داخلی محترم مجله نگارش یافته‌اند .

بررسی تحلیلی مجلات از دو جهت قابل توجه است . از یک سو ، مطالعه و بررسی سیر تحول ساختاری و محتوایی یک مجله ، نگرش دقیق‌تری را نسبت به سیاست‌ها و خط مشی کلی آن به دست

می‌دهد و از این طریق ، بستر مناسبی را برای نقد علمی و مستند مجله فراهم می‌سازد . از سوی دیگر ، با نقد یک مجله ، ارزش ، جایگاه علمی و نیز خدمات مسئولین و دست‌اندرکاران آن مشخص می‌شود ؛ ضمن آن‌که بیان پیشرفت‌ها و ذکر ضعف‌های احتمالی ، راه را برای رفع نواقص ، اصلاح روش‌ها ، و ارتقای بیشتر کمی و کیفی مجله هموار می‌سازد .

در پاییز ۱۳۶۳ (۱۹۸۴ میلادی) ، اولین شماره‌ی مجله‌ی تخصصی «گروه زبان‌های خارجی» دفتر انتشارات کمک‌آموزشی سازمان پژوهش و برنامه‌ریزی آموزشی وزارت آموزش و پرورش ، با عنوان فارسی «رشد آموزش زبان» و عنوان انگلیسی "Foreign Language Teaching Roshd" ، به صورت فصل‌نامه و با قیمت ۱۰۰ ریال منتشر شد . هدف اصلی از انتشار این مجله ، ارتقای کمی و کیفی آموزش زبان خارجی در مدارس ایران ، و هم‌چنین اعتلای دانش مخاطبان این مجله بوده است . دبیران ، دانشجویان دانشگاه‌ها و مراکز تربیت معلم ، و سایر دانش‌پژوهان در رشته‌ی آموزش زبان ، مخاطبان آن را تشکیل می‌دهند . رشد آموزش زبان در طول سال‌های

انتشـار خـود و متناسـب بـا افزایش امکانـات فنـی و تجربیـات
دسـت اندرکاران، از تغییرات کمی و کیفی متنـوعی برخـوردار بوده
است . در این راسـتا، بررسـی سلسـله وار شماره های این مجله از دو
بعد ساختاری و محتوایـی، اطلاعات جالب توجهی را درخصـوص
تغییرات کمی و کیفی صورت گرفته طی ۲۲ سال انتشار آن در اختیار
خوانندگان قرار می دهد .

روش تحقیق

در تحقیـق حاضـر، استخراج اطلاعـات صرفـاً براسـاس مندرجات
موجود در هر شماره صورت گرفته است . به منظور بررسی سیر تحول
مجلـه، ابتدا کلیه ی شماره های آن در قالب فعالیت تحقیقاتی مرکـز
پژوهشـی آموزش زبان خارجی دانشگاه تهران مورد تحلیل ساختاری
قرار گرفت . بدین منظور، فهرستی از مشخصات ساختاری آن در
قالب «فهرست ارزیابی» تنظیم و بـرای هر شماره از مجله، تکمیل
شـد . سپس با بررسی مشخصات کلی مجله و تغییرات آن در ۸۰
شماره ی گذشته، مقالـه ی حاضـر تدویـن گردید . شایان ذکر است،
ارائه ی مقاله در خصوص بررسی شماره های گوناگون رشد آموزش
زبان به صورت سلسـله وار است و در مقالـه های بعدی، این مجله از
ابعاد گوناگون مورد بررسی قرار خواهد گرفت .
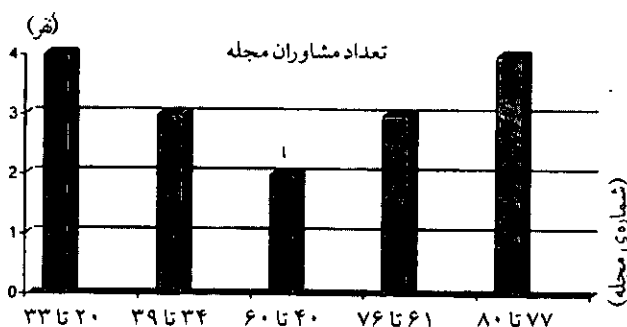
صاحب امتیاز و مسئولان اجرایی و علمی

در تحلیـل ساختاری هـر مجله، گـام اول بررسـی اطلاعاتـی است
کـه درخصـوص عنـوان، دوره، تاریخ انتشـار و نیـز مشخصـات
دسـت اندرکاران آن، از جملـه صاحـب امتیـاز، مدیرمسئول، سردبیر،
هیئـت تحریریـه و مشاوران آن ارائـه شـده است . اگرچـه در هیچ یک از
شماره های مجله رشد آموزش زبان، به طـور مشخص از صاحب
امتیاز مجله نامی برده نشده است، اما از اطلاعات غیرمستقیم موجود
در شماره های گوناگون آن و عرف متـداول مجلات می تـوان دریافت
کـه مؤسسه ی انتشار دهنده، صاحب امتیاز مجلـه بـوده است . نام
مؤسسـه ی انتشـار دهنـده در طول انتشـار مجلـه، بـه صـورت های
متفاوت، شامل «گروه زبان دفتر تحقیقـات و برنامه ریزی و تألیف
کتب درسی» (شماره های ۱ تا ۱۲)، «گروه زبان های خارجی دفتر
تحقیقـات و برنامه ریزی و تألیف کتب درسی» (شماره های ۱۳ تا ۴۶)
و «دفتـر انتشارات کمک آموزشی سازمان پژوهش و برنامـه ریزی
آموزشی» (از شماره ی ۴۷ تا ۸۰) ذکر شده است . هم چنین در دو
شماره ی اول، نـام مؤسسـه ی انتشار دهنده تحت عنوان «تهیه و تنظیم»
نام برده شده است . علاوه بر صاحب امتیاز، نام مدیر مسئول نیز تا
شماره ی ۴۴ ذکر نشده است، اما در شماره های بعدی، آقایان حسن
ملکـی، سیدمحسـن گلدانسـاز و علیرضا حاجیان زاده، به ترتیب
مدیر مسئول مجله بوده اند . هم چنین آقایان دکتر صادقیان و دکتر
سیداکبرمیرحسنی، به ترتیب مسئولیت سردبیری مجله را به عهده
داشته اند . سمت مدیریت داخلی مجله نیز تاکنون بر عهده ی آقایان

بهتـاش، محمدرضا سروش زند، احمد عالـی و خانـم شهلا زارعی
نیستانک قرار داشته است .

جدول ۱ . مسئولان اجرایی و علمی مجله

محل خدمت دانشگاهی	شماره ی مجله	حوزه ی تخصصی	نام و نام خانوادگی
مدیر مسئول			
–	۴۵ و ۴۶	–	حسن ملکی
–	۴۷ تا ۵۷	–	سیدمحسن گلدانساز
–	۵۸ تا ۸۰	–	علیرضا حاجیان زاده
سردبیر			
–	۱ تا ۵ و ۷ تا ۹	–	دکتر صادقیان
دانشگاه تربیت مدرس	۱۱ تا ۸۰	آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دکتر سیداکبر میرحسنی
مدیر داخلی			
–	۱	–	بهتاش
–	۷	–	محمدرضا سروش زند
–	۹	–	احمد عالی
سازمان پژوهش و برنامه ریزی آموزشی	۱۱ تا ۸۰	برنامه ریزی آموزشی	شهلا زارعی نیستانک

هیئت تحریریه و مشاوران

هیئـت تحریریه ی مجله در طول انتشار آن از ترکیب ثابتی برخوردار
نبـوده است . هشت شماره ی اول مجله به طور کلی فاقد اطلاعاتی
درخصوص تعداد، اسامی و حوزه ی تخصصی اعضای هیئت
تحریریه است . اعضای هیئت تحریریه در نهمین شماره ی مجله سه
نفر بوده اند . در شماره های ۱۰ تا ۱۴، اسامی و تعداد اعضای هیئت
تحریریه ذکر نشده است . این تعداد در شماره های ۱۵ تا ۳۹، مانند
نهمین شماره، سه نفر بوده است . از شماره ی ۴۰ تا ۴۷، تعداد
اعضای هیئت تحریریه با حضور چهار عضو جدید، به هفت نفر
افزایش یافت . روند افزایش تعداد اعضای هیئت تحریریه تا
شماره های ۴۷ و ۴۸ نیز ادامه داشته، به گونه ای که تعداد آن ها در
شماره های مذکور، به ترتیب هشت و نه نفر بوده است . از شماره ی
۴۹ تا ۷۱، تعداد اعضای هیئت تحریریه به هشت نفر و از شماره ی
۷۲ تا ۷۵ به هفت نفر و در شماره ی ۷۶ به شش نفر کاهش یافت .
تعداد اعضای هیئت تحریریه از شماره ۷۷ تا ۸۰ مجدداً به هفت نفر
افزایش یافته است . به جز نهمین شماره ی مجله که صرفاً اسامی
اعضای هیئت تحریریه را آورده، در سایر شماره ها، مدرک، حوزه ی
تخصصی و محل خدمت دانشگاهی اعضای هیئت تحریریه نیز ذکر
شده است . نمودار ۱، روند تغییر تعداد اعضای هیئت تحریریه مجله
را در شماره های متفاوت آن نشان می دهد . شایان ذکر است، عـدد
صفر در این نمودار بیانگر درج نشدن اسامی اعضای هیئت تحریریه
در مجله است .

تعداد اعضای هیئت تحریریه

ترکیب تخصصی اعضای هیئت تحریریه نیز در شماره‌های متفاوت مجله متغیر بوده است . علاوه بر این ، حضور اعضای جدید در هیئت تحریریه و یا حضور نداشتن برخی اعضا در این ترکیب ، تغییراتی را نیز در حوزه‌ی تخصصی هیئت تحریریه‌ی مجله به دنبال داشته است . در جدول۲ ، نام اعضای هیئت تحریریه به همراه حوزه‌ی تخصصی و محل خدمت آن‌ها ذکر شده است .

جدول ۲ . هیئت تحریریه

محل خدمت دانشگاهی	شماره‌ی مجله	حوزه‌ی تخصصی	نام و نام خانوادگی
دانشگاه تربیت‌معلم	۹	---	کیوانی
دانشگاه علم و صنعت	۹ ، ۲۰ تا ۸۰	آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دکتر پرویز مفتون
College of Rehabilitation Science	۹	---	نیلی‌پور
دانشگاه علامه طباطبایی	۱۵ تا ۳۳	آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دکتر مهدی نوروزی
سازمان پژوهش و برنامه‌ریزی وزارت آموزش و پرورش ، دانشگاه کاشان	۱۵ تا ۷۵	علوم تربیتی	دکتر قاسم کبیری
دانشگاه علامه طباطبایی	۱۵ تا ۸۰	آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دکتر پرویز بیرجندی
دانشگاه علامه طباطبایی	۳۴ تا ۴۰ ، ۴۷ تا ۷۱	زبان‌شناسی	دکتر علی میرعمادی
دانشگاه تربیت‌معلم	۴۰ تا ۸۰	زبان‌شناسی	دکتر حسین وثوقی
دانشگاه تهران	۴۰ تا ۸۰	زبان و ادبیات فرانسه	دکتر ژاله کهنمویی‌پور
دانشگاه شهید بهشتی	۴۰ تا ۷۰	زبان و ادبیات آلمانی	محمود حدادی
دانشگاه تربیت‌معلم	۴۱ تا ۶۰	زبان‌شناسی کاربردی	دکتر محمدحسین کشاورز
دانشگاه تربیت‌مدرس	۴۸ تا ۸۰	نشانه‌شناسی	دکتر حمیدرضا شعیری
دانشگاه تهران	۷۱ تا ۸۰	آموزش زبان آلمانی	دکتر نادر حقانی
دفتر برنامه‌ریزی و تألیف کتاب‌های درسی	۷۷ تا ۸۰	آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دکتر محمدرضا عنانی سراب

ترکیب تخصصی اعضای هیئت تحریریه هر مجله باید با توجه به هدف مجله و فعالیت علمی آن باشد و در مورد رشد آموزش زبان ، حوزه‌ی آموزش زبان محور اصلی فعالیت علمی و هدف انتشاراتی را تشکیل می‌دهد . بر این اساس و همان‌گونه که از جدول۲ برمی‌آید ، حوزه‌ی آموزش زبان از بدو انتشار مجله تاکنون ، بیشترین عضو را در ترکیب اعضای هیئت تحریریه به خود اختصاص داده است . از این تعداد ، سه نفر در حوزه‌ی آموزش زبان انگلیسی و یک نفر نیز در حوزه‌ی آموزش زبان آلمانی متخصص است . پس از آن ، حوزه‌ی زبان‌شناسی با سه عضو ، بیشترین عضو را به خود اختصاص داده است . در حال حاضر ، ترکیب تخصصی اعضای هیئت تحریریه از

حوزه‌های تخصصی آموزش زبان انگلیسی (۳نفر) ، آموزش زبان آلمانی (۱ نفر) ، زبان‌شناسی (۱ نفر) ، زبان و ادبیات فرانسه (۱ نفر) و نشانه‌شناسی (۱ نفر) تشکیل یافته است . همچنین ، آقایان دکتر پرویز بیرجندی و محمدرضا عنانی‌سراب ، به ترتیب باسابقه‌ترین و جدیدترین عضو هیئت تحریریه مجله هستند .
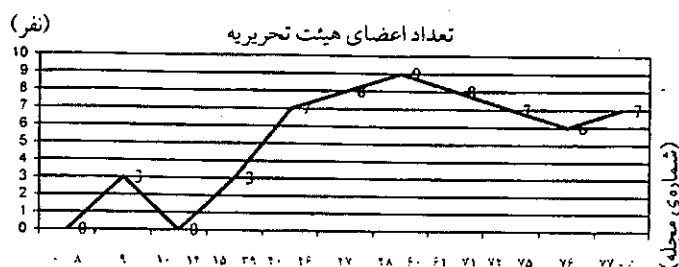
۱۹ شماره‌ی اول مجله فاقد اسامی مشاوران مجله است . براساس اطلاعات موجود در دو فصل‌نامه‌ی ۲۰ و ۲۱ ، مشاوران مجله چهار نفر بوده‌اند . این تعداد تا دو فصل‌نامه‌ی ۳۲ و ۳۳ حفظ شد و در دو فصل‌نامه‌ی ۳۴ و ۳۵ ، به سه نفر کاهش یافت . تعداد مشاوران تا شماره‌ی ۳۹ ، هم‌چنان بالغ بر سه نفر بود و در شماره‌ی ۴۰ به دو نفر رسید . در شماره‌ی ۶۱ مجله ، با پیوستن عضوی جدید ، تعداد مشاوران به سه نفر افزایش یافت و این تعداد تا شماره‌ی ۷۶ ثابت ماند . از شماره‌ی ۷۷ نیز با پیوستن عضو دیگری ، تعداد مشاوران به چهار نفر رسید که این تعداد تا شماره‌ی ۸۰ تغییری نکرده است . مشخصات مشاوران از بدو چاپ ، شامل اسامی ، مدرک تحصیلی ، حوزه‌ی تخصصی و محل خدمت دانشگاهی آنان بوده است . در نمودار ۲ ، تعداد مشاوران از بدو انتشار تا شماره‌ی ۸۰ مجله ، و در جدول ۲ ، حوزه‌ی تخصصی مشاوران و محل خدمت آن‌ها آمده است .

تعداد مشاوران مجله

جدول ۳ . تخصص مشاوران

محل خدمت دانشگاهی	شماره‌ی مجله	حوزه‌ی تخصصی	نام و نام خانوادگی
دانشگاه تربیت‌معلم	۲۰ تا ۲۷	زبان‌شناسی	دکتر الف . سهیلی
دانشگاه علامه طباطبایی	۲۰ تا ۲۳	آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دکتر ا . جاویدان
دانشگاه تبریز	۲۰ تا ۸۰	زبان و ادبیات انگلیسی	دکتر عباسعلی رضایی
دانشگاه علامه طباطبایی	۲۰ تا ۳۳	زبان‌شناسی	دکتر علی میرعمادی
دانشگاه تربیت‌معلم	۲۴ تا ۳۹	زبان‌شناسی	دکتر حسین وثوقی
دانشگاه شهید بهشتی	۲۸ تا ۸۰	زبان و ادبیات انگلیسی	دکتر ج . سخنور
دانشگاه تربیت‌معلم	۶۱ تا ۸۰	زبان‌شناسی کاربردی	دکتر محمدحسین کشاورز
دانشگاه گیلان	۷۷ تا ۸۰	علوم تربیتی	دکتر قاسم کبیری

براساس جدول۳ ، حوزه‌ی زبان‌شناسی از بیشترین تعداد عضو در بین مشاوران مجله برخوردار بوده است . حوزه‌های آموزش زبان انگلیسی و زبان و ادبیات انگلیسی نیز هریک با دو عضو ، در رتبه‌ی بعدی قرار دارند . در حال حاضر ، زبان و ادبیات انگلیسی (۲ نفر) ، زبان‌شناسی (۱ نفر) و علوم تربیتی (۱ نفر) ، تخصص‌های مشاوران

مجله را تشکیل می‌دهند . اسامی مشاوران ، حوزه‌ی تخصصی و محل خدمت آن‌ها صرفاً به زبان انگلیسی درج شده است . هم‌چنین ، اسامی اعضای هیئت تحریریه تا شماره‌ی ۵۷ ، صرفاً به زبان انگلیسی آمده است و از شماره‌ی ۵۸ تا ۸۰ ، مشخصات فارسی اعضای هیئت تحریریه نیز مشاهده می‌شود .

همکاران

علاوه بر مدیرمسئول ، سردبیر و مدیر داخلی ، عناوین دیگری نیز در شماره‌های گوناگون مجله به چشم می‌خورد که هریک عهده‌دار انجام فعالیتی در رشد آموزش زبان هستند . ذکر این عناوین ، شیوه‌ی یکسانی ندارد . به عبارت دیگر ، این عناوین به صورت ثابت در تمامی شماره‌های مجله ذکر نشده‌اند و به تناوب ، جای خود را به عناوین جدید داده‌اند . جدول ۴ بیانگر عناوین متنوعی است که در طول انتشار مجله ذکر شده‌اند .

جدول ۴ : عناوین همکاران

عنوان	نام خانوادگی	شماره‌ی مجله
مدیر فنی هنری و تولید	حسین فرامرزی نیکتام	۱۳ تا ۲۵
	مهدی کریم‌خانی	۶۸ تا ۷۴
مدیر هنری	مهدی کریم‌خانی	۷۵
مسئول هماهنگی و تولید	فتح ا... فروضی	۲۶ تا ۴۰
صفحه‌آرا	محمد پریسای و علی نجمی	۳
	خالد قهرمانی دهبکری و علی نجمی	۴
	خالد قهرمانی دهبکری	۵ ، ۱۲ ، ۲۴ ، ۲۵ ، ۲۸
	علی نجمی	۱۳ ، ۱۹ ، ۲۲ تا ۲۳
	زهرا کریمی	۲۰ و ۲۱
	ماکان رزاقی	۲۶ و ۲۷
	ندا ظریفیان صنعتکار	۲۰
	مریم نصرتی	۴۱
	طرفه سهایی	۴۲ و ۴۴
	خدیجه محمدی	۴۵ و ۴۶
	نوید اندرودی	۷۲ و ۷۴
	علی کریم‌خانی و نوید اندرودی	۷۵
امور فنی و صفحه‌آرایی	خالد قهرمانی دهبکری	۲۹ تا ۳۳
	علی نجمی	۳۴ تا ۳۹
اجرای روی جلد	میترا فرامرزی نیکتام	۵ ، ۱۰ تا ۱۲
	علی نجمی	۲۹ ، ۳۲ و ۳۳
	فریده فرخنده‌کیش	۴۱ تا ۴۶
	مهدی کریم‌خانی	۴۷ تا ۶۱ و ۶۷
طرح گرافیک	داریوش منجزی	۶۲ تا ۶۶
	نوید اندرودی	۷۶ تا ۸۰
ویراستار	بهروز اندرودی	۷۶ تا ۸۰
ناظر چاپ	محمد کشمیری	۳۹ تا ۴۶
دستیار ناظر چاپ	محمد کشمیری	۲۹ تا ۳۸

در هیچ‌یک از شماره‌های مجله ، به طور مشخص نامی از ناشر و یا دفتر انتشارات برده نشده است ، اما در شماره‌های ۱ و ۲ «معاونت فنی و هنری دفتر امور کمک آموزشی و کتابخانه‌ها» ، از شماره‌ی ۳ تا ۱۲ «واحد مجلات رشد تخصصی» ، و از شماره‌ی ۴۱ تا ۴۶ «دفتر چاپ و توزیع کتب درسی» تحت عنوان «تولید» ذکر شده است

که شاید به طور غیرمستقیم ، معرف ناشر مجله باشد .

قیمت و دوره‌ی انتشار

قیمت مجله در بدو انتشار ، یعنی سال ۱۳۶۳ ، ۱۰۰ ریال بوده است . از شماره‌ی ۲۶ تا ۳۳ ، قیمت آن به ۲۰۰ ریال و از شماره‌ی ۳۴ تا ۳۹ به ۳۵۰ ریال افزایش یافت . روند افزایش قیمت مجله در شماره‌های بعد نیز ادامه داشته است ، به گونه‌ای که شماره‌های ۴۰ تا ۴۳ به قیمت ۱۰۰۰ ریال و شماره‌های ۴۴ تا ۴۶ به قیمت ۱۵۰۰ ریال عرضه شدند . قیمت شماره‌ی ۴۷ به ۲۵۰۰ ریال رسید و مجدداً در شماره‌های ۴۸ تا ۵۳ و ۵۴ تا ۶۱ ، به ترتیب به ۲۰۰۰ ریال و ۱۵۰۰ ریال کاهش یافت . از شماره‌ی ۶۲ تا ۷۱ ، قیمت مجله ۲۰۰۰ ریال تعیین شد . شماره‌های ۷۲ تا ۷۹ نیز با قیمت ۲۵۰۰ ریال منتشر گردیدند . در شماره‌ی ۸۰ ، قیمت مجله به ۳۰۰۰ ریال افزایش یافته است . شماره‌های ۱ تا ۲۵ پایین‌ترین قیمت و شماره‌ی ۸۰ بیشترین قیمت را دارند . هم‌چنین ، بیشترین رشد قیمت نیز با ضریب تقریبی ۲/۸۵ ، مربوط به شماره‌های ۴۰ تا ۴۳ بوده است . در نمودار ۳ ، نوسان قیمت مجله در طول انتشار آن نشان داده شده است .

تغییرات قیمت مجله
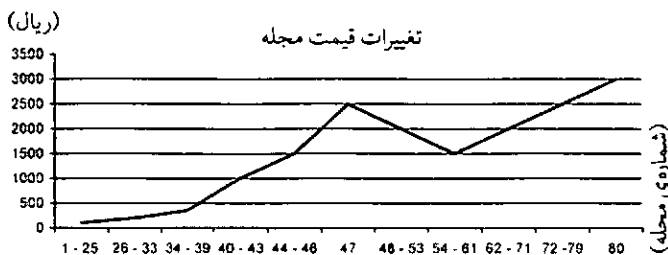
براساس مندرجات پشت جلد و یا صفحه‌ی شناسنامه‌ی مجله ، دوره‌ی انتشار مجله رشد آموزش زبان به صورت فصل‌نامه و به تناوب ، هر سه ماه یک‌بار است . با وجود این ، برخی شماره‌های مجله به صورت دو فصل‌نامه نیز منتشر شده‌اند . شماره‌های ۶ ، ۱۱ تا ۱۸ و ۲۲ تا ۲۷ از این جمله‌اند . لازم به ذکر است ، شماره‌های ۳۸ تا ۸۰ صرفاً به صورت فصل‌نامه به چاپ رسیده‌اند . با توجه به چاپ اولین شماره‌ی مجله در فصل پاییز ، سال انتشار مجله نیز از این فصل آغاز و محاسبه شده است . روند مذکور تا سال چهارم ، یعنی تابستان ۱۳۶۷ ، ادامه داشته است . پس از آن ، سال پنجم در پاییز همان سال آغاز شده است . طبق روال ، سال پنجم مجله می‌باید در تابستان ۱۳۶۸ به اتمام می‌رسید ، اما دو فصل‌نامه‌ی ۲۲ و ۲۳ که به جای پاییز در زمستان ۱۳۶۸ و بهار ۱۳۶۹ به چاپ رسیده ، هم‌چنان در زمره‌ی سال پنجم قرار گرفته است . بدین ترتیب ، سال ششم از تابستان ۱۳۶۹ آغاز گردیده است . با تغییر سال انتشار از پاییز به تابستان ، شماره‌ی ۲۸ ، مربوط به تابستان ۱۳۷۰ ، تحت عنوان سال هفتم منتشر شده است . مجدداً در شماره‌ی ۲۹ ، سال انتشار به روند سابق بازگشته که در این شماره که در پاییز ۱۳۷۰ به

شماره‌ی مجله   تعداد کل انتشار

چاپ رسیده، سال هشتم درج شده است. بر این اساس، در دو فصل پیاپی دو تغییر در سال انتشار مشاهده می‌شود. هم‌چنین، دو فصل‌نامه‌ی شماره‌ی ۳۶ و ۳۷، دارای دو سال انتشار، یعنی نهم و دهم است. تغییر سال انتشار در سال‌های نهم تا یازدهم نیز به تناوب ادامه داشته است. در سال‌های انتشار ۱۲ تا ۱۶ (پاییز ۷۵ تا پاییز ۸۰)، روند چاپ مجلات منظم شده، به گونه‌ای که پاییز هر سال برابر با شروع سال جدید انتشار بوده است. سال هفدهم مجدداً با تغییر سال انتشار همراه بوده است. شروع سال انتشار ۱۸ به دلیل ذکر نشدن فصل مشخص نیست. شروع سال‌های انتشار ۱۹ و ۲۰ مجدداً در فصل پاییز بوده است.

جدول ۵ . تغییر سال انتشار مجلات رشد آموزش زبان

سال انتشار	فصل / سال	شماره (دو) فصل‌نامه	شماره مسلسل
ششم	تابستان ۶۹	—	۲۴ و ۲۵
نهم	تابستان و پاییز ۷۱	—	۳۲ و ۳۳
دهم	زمستان ۷۲	—	۳۸
یازدهم	بهار ۷۴	—	۴۰
هفدهم	زمستان ۸۱	—	۶۶
هجدهم	—	—	۶۹

انتشار مجله از ابتدای تأسیس تا شماره‌ی ۸۰، روندی تقریباً پیوسته دارد و فقط در چند مورد، با نوساناتی روبه‌رو شده است؛ به طوری که در پاییز ۱۳۶۸، تابستان، پاییز و زمستان ۱۳۷۳، تابستان ۱۳۷۴، تابستان ۱۳۷۵، تابستان ۱۳۷۶، تابستان ۱۳۷۸، تابستان ۱۳۷۹ و تابستان ۱۳۸۲، مجله انتشار نیافته است. در تابستان ۱۳۷۹، براساس تصمیم‌گیری شورای سردبیران مجله (مورخ ۱۳۷۹/۹/۱۲)، و به دلیل تعطیلی مدارس و مشکلات توزیع کلیه‌ی مجلات رشد در فصل تابستان، رشد آموزش زبان منتشر نشد. در این خصوص، اطلاعیه‌ای در شماره‌ی ۵۷ (بهار ۱۳۷۹) به چاپ رسید. هم‌چنین، با توجه به این‌که در شماره‌ی ۶۵، فصل انتشار ذکر نشده است و شماره‌ی پس از آن، یعنی ۶۶، مربوط به فصل زمستان است، امکان تشخیص این‌که مجله در کدام‌یک از فصل‌های تابستان یا پاییز ۱۳۸۱ به چاپ نرسیده است، میسر نیست. همین مشکل در مورد شماره‌های ۶۵، ۶۸، ۶۹ و ۷۰ نیز وجود دارد. علاوه بر این، براساس اطلاعات موجود، در پاییز ۱۳۷۸ دو مجله به شماره‌های ۵۴ و ۵۵ انتشار یافته‌اند. با توجه به احتمال اشکال چاپی، ممکن است شماره‌ی ۵۴ مربوط به تابستان ۱۳۷۸ باشد. در جدول۶، نوع انتشار مجلات رشد، و در نمودار ۳ تعداد کل شماره‌های مجله ارائه شده است.

آن‌گونه که از شماره‌ی مسلسل مجله برمی‌آید، رشد آموزش زبان ظاهراً فاقد جلد شماره‌ی ۸ است، چرا که پس از شماره‌ی ۷ (پاییز ۱۳۶۵)، فصل‌نامه‌ی مربوط به تابستان ۱۳۶۵ با شماره‌ی ۹ به چاپ رسیده است. براساس توضیحات ارائه شده در شماره‌ی ۹، شماره‌ی ششم مجله که به صورت دو فصل‌نامه و با شماره‌های سال انتشار ۲ و ۳ به چاپ رسیده، در واقع دارای دو شماره‌ی مسلسل، یعنی ۶ و ۷ است. بدین ترتیب، مجله‌ی بعدی که با شماره‌ی مسلسل ۷ شماره‌گذاری شده، در اصل شماره‌ی هشتم مجله است. از شماره‌ی ۷۲، سال (انتشار) به دوره (انتشار) تغییر یافته است، به گونه‌ای که روی جلد این شماره، به جای سال نوزدهم، «دوره‌ی نوزدهم» ذکر شده است. هم‌چنین، در شماره‌های ۷۳ تا ۷۵، به جای «شماره‌ی مسلسل» از کلمه‌ی «مسلسل» استفاده شده است. کلمه‌ی مذکور در شماره‌ی ۷۶ به «پیاپی»، و از شماره‌ی ۷۷ به «پی‌درپی» تغییر یافته است.

نتیجه‌گیری

انتشار منظم مجلات رشد آموزش زبان در طول ۲۲ سال فعالیت در زمینه‌ی آموزش زبان‌های خارجی، از یک سو بیانگر سیاست منسجم دفتر انتشارات کمک‌آموزشی سازمان پژوهش و برنامه‌ریزی آموزشی است، و از سوی دیگر، نشان‌دهنده‌ی کوششی است که در راستای فعالیت علمی و به منظور حمایت از آموزش زبان‌های خارجی توسط معلمان زبان‌های خارجی در حال حاضر و یا در آینده در مدارس کشور انجام می‌پذیرد. بررسی و تحلیل ۸۰ شماره‌ی گذشته‌ی رشد آموزش زبان نشان می‌دهد که این مجله در طول انتشار خود به تناوب با تغییراتی در حوزه‌ی مسئولیت‌های اجرایی و علمی، ترکیب تخصصی هیئت تحریریه، مشاوران و همکاران مواجه بوده است. علاوه بر این، قیمت مجله و انتشار آن نیز تغییراتی داشته است. در حوزه‌ی مسئولان اجرایی و علمی، سردبیری مجله با دو مورد و مدیریت داخلی با چهار مورد، شاهد کمترین و بیشترین تغییرات بوده‌اند. ضمن آن‌که در بین تمامی موارد مذکور، صفحه‌آرایی مجله و ترکیب هیئت تحریریه به ترتیب با ۱۲ و ۱۱ مورد، بیشترین تغییرات را داشته‌اند. بیشترین موارد انتشار نیافتن مجله نیز مربوط به فصل تابستان بوده است.

جدول ۶ . تناوب نوع انتشارات مجلات

	۱ تا ۵	۶	۷ تا ۱۰	۱۱	۱۸تا۱۱	۲۱تا۱۹	۲۷تا۲۲	۲۹تا۲۸	۳۰تا۳۷	۳۸تا۸۰
فصل‌نامه		*		*		*		*		*
دو فصل‌نامه			*		*		*		*	

گفت وگو

تهیه و تنظیم : شهلا زارعی نیستانک

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کسب ۲۰ تجربه‌ی متفاوت یک عمر تلاش و وقت را می‌طلبد

خانم جمیله راحمی دبیر زبان انگلیسی با ۱۰ سال سابقه تدریس در دبیرستان‌ها و مراکز پیش دانشگاهی شهرستان‌های آران و بیدگل، کاشان و حومه هستند. ایشان در مورد سابقه‌ی کاری و سوابق علمی خود چنین می‌گویند:

O در سال ۱۳۷۰ در رشته‌ی علـوم تجربی دیپلـم گرفتم. با وجود کسب رتبه‌ی قبولی در رشته‌ی مامایی دانشگاه علوم پزشکی کاشان و تشویق فراوان خانواده به ادامه‌ی تحصیل در این رشته، به عـلت علاقه‌ی شخصی که به یادگیری زبان انگلیسی داشتم، به تحصیل در دوره‌ی کارشناسی دبیری زبان انگلیسی دانشگاه کاشان مشغول شدم و در سال ۷۴ به عنوان دانشجوی ممتاز این رشته فارغ‌التحصیل شدم. بلافاصله بعد از فارغ‌التحصیلی، خدمـت رسمی خود را در آموزش و پرورش آغاز کردم. پنج سال نیز در کنار تدریس، به عنوان سرگروه زبان انگلیسی این شهرستان‌ها ادای وظیفه کرده‌ام. مدرک کارشناسی ارشد را نیز با کسب رتبه‌ی ممتاز در رشته‌ی آموزش زبان انگلیسی در سال ۸۰ از دانشگاه الزهرا تهران دریافت کردم. در سال ۸۱، با تشویق و همکاری همسرم که مدرس زبان انگلیسی است، آموزشگاه خصوصی زبان‌های خارجه (افق) را تأسیس کردم و هم‌اکنون به طور مشترک مدیریت و تدریس در آموزشگاه را برعهده

داریم. در حال حاضر دانشجوی دکترای آموزش زبان انگلیسی در دانشگاه آزاد اسلامی تهران، واحد علوم و تحقیقات هستم.

● آیا مجله‌ی رشد آموزش زبان را می‌خوانید؟

O بله، در دوران لیسانس، به لطف آقای دکتر سید اکبر میرحسنی با مجله آشنا شدم و از آن زمان تاکنون، جزو خوانندگان تنها مجله‌ی تخصصی داخلی زبان انگلیسی هستم. ولی تا جایی که اطلاع دارم، اکثر معلمان یا از مجله و محتویات آن بی‌خبرند و یا امکان دسترسی به آن را ندارند که این جای تأسف دارد.

● بخش جالب مجله کدام است و شمـا چگـونه از آن استفاده می‌کنید؟

O برای آشنایی با جدیدترین تئوری‌ها و نظریات مربوط به رشته‌ی خود و منابع جدید موجود، بخش‌های معرفی کتاب و مقاله‌هـای تحقیقی را حتماً مطالعه می‌کنم. برخی از مقالات را که ارتباط بیش‌تری با سیستم آموزش زبان کشورمان دارند، در مجامع عمومی دبیران کاشان معرفی می‌کنم و یا نسخه‌ای از آن را در اختیار همکاران قرار می‌دهم. از بخش «Let's take a break»، هم در کلاس‌های درسی و هم در آموزشگاه خصوصی خـود، به منظور ایجاد تنوع در کلاس، افزایش علاقه و انگیـزه‌ی دانش‌آموزان و حتی به عـنوان

فعالیت تکمیلی تدریس ، در قالب مسابقه و با هدف ایجاد رقابت بین دانش‌آموزان ، بارها استفاده کرده‌ام .

● جای چه مقاله‌هایی در مجله خالی است و پیشنهاد عملی شما در مورد محتوای مجله چیست؟

O خوشبختانه با نگاهی اجمالی به شماره‌های مجله از گذشته تاکنون ، تغییرات مثبت چشمگیری در محتوای آن مشاهده می‌شود . از جمله‌ی آن‌ها ، چاپ مقاله‌های بیش‌تر در زمینه‌ی آموزش زبان در دوره‌های راهنمایی و دبیرستان است که این موضوع می‌تواند علاقه‌ی دبیران آموزش و پرورش را به خواندن مجله بیش‌تر کند . اما هنوز جای مقاله‌هایی که در آن‌ها به طور عملی و کاربردی ، روش‌هایی مناسب برای استفاده در کلاس‌های پرجمعیت اکثر مدرسه‌های کشورمان با دانش‌آموزانی مختلط و ناهمگون از نظر سطح دانش زبان و انگیزه ارائه شده باشد ، بسیار خالی است . در مقالات ، اکثراً روش‌ها و تئوری‌هایی معرفی می‌شوند که فقط در شرایط ایده‌آل خاصی قابل اجرا هستند . البته من معتقدم و به تجربه دریافته‌ام ، ما دبیران موفقی داریم که مانند کیمیاگران قادرند ، از وسایل ظاهراً کم‌ارزش مثل گچ و تخته ، به نتایجی طلایی دست پیدا کنند . من فکر می‌کنم مجله می‌تواند ، با همکاری سرگروه‌های هر شهرستان ، به کشف این افراد اقدام کند و با معرفی و انجام مصاحبه با آنان ، سایر معلمان را از تجربه هایشان بهره‌مند سازد .

علاوه بر این ، در حالی که اهمیت مقاله‌های تحقیقی در حیطه‌ی آموزش زبان را انکار نمی‌کنم ، معتقدم آموزش موفق ، تنها به آشنایی با این تئوری‌ها ختم نمی‌شود . در کنار این گونه مقاله‌ها ، نیاز به مطالب بیش‌تری در زمینه‌ی ارزشیابی ، تهیه و تدوین مطالب درسی و حتی ESP نیز احساس می‌شود . من شخصاً به عنوان یک دبیر ، علاقه‌مندم تا درباره‌ی روش‌های تهیه‌ی مطالبی که بتوانم به عنوان مکمل تدریس خود از آن‌ها استفاده کنم ، اطلاعات بیش‌تری به دست آورم .

اختصاص بخشی از مجله به مصاحبه با مؤلفان کتاب‌های درسی راهنمایی و دبیرستان و دبیران موفق ، و امکان ارتباط معلمان با این افراد ، نقش مهمی در تبادل نظرات و تجربه‌ها ایفا می‌کند . اگر بخش خاصی به چاپ طرح درس‌های نمونه‌ی ارسالی از دبیران سراسر کشور اختصاص یابد ، بانک اطلاعاتی مناسبی برای استفاده‌ی دبیران ، به‌خصوص آن‌هایی که به تازگی وارد این حرفه شده‌اند ، شکل می‌گیرد . این کار را می‌توان به شکل مسابقه نیز برگزار کرد تا با استقبال بیش‌تری همراه شود . ایجاد رقابت بین همکاران در زمینه‌ی نگارش مقاله و چاپ بهترین آن‌ها در مجله نیز ، پیشنهاد دیگر بنده برای جلب مشارکت فعالانه‌تر معلمان است .

● با توجه به تجربه و سابقه‌ای که دارید ، احساس می‌کنید نیاز معلمان بیش‌تر به چه مطالبی است؟

O در کتابی از Penny Ur (A Course in Language Teaching) مطلب جالبی آمده است : معلمانی که ۲۰ سال تدریس کرده‌اند ، به دو دسته تقسیم می‌شوند : افرادی با ۲۰ سال تجربه (۲۰ تجربه‌ی متفاوت) و افرادی با تجربه‌ی ۲۰ ساله (یک تجربه که ۲۰ بار تکرار شده است) . مسلماً کسب ۲۰ تجربه‌ی متفاوت یک عمر تلاش و وقت را می‌طلبد و چه بسا برخی از این تجربه‌ها با تلخی و با نتایج منفی همراه می‌شوند . بنابراین ، اولین نیاز معلمان ما ، تغییر نگرش آن‌ها نسبت به خود و همکارانشان است . با تجربه‌ای که به عنوان سرگروه داشته‌ام ، تعامل و همکاری بین معلمان را اندک دیده‌ام و این بسیار مایه‌ی تأسف است . اگر حس همکاری و تبادل نظر بین آنان بیش‌تر شود ، معلمان باسابقه با در اختیار گذاشتن تجربه‌های خود ، و فارغ‌التحصیلان جدید با ارائه‌ی معلومات به روز خود ، می‌توانند تیمی بسیار موفق به منظور بهبود وضعیت زبان کشورمان تشکیل دهند . این مجله می‌تواند بانی این تعامل باشد و بستری برای تبادل تجربه‌ها فراهم کند .

مطلب دیگر این که ، در کنار نیاز به کسب مهارت‌های تخصصی در زمینه‌های آموزش و ارزشیابی ، به نظر می‌رسد برخی از معلمان ما به علت دوری از محیط دانشگاه و روند تکراری تدریس ، در زمینه‌ی مهارت‌های عمومی مثل vocabulary ، listening ، speaking و ... دچار افت شدیدی شده‌اند و این با توجه به وضعیت امیدوارکننده‌ی دانش‌آموزانمان که با حضور در کلاس‌های مکالمه ، از مهارت بالاتری نسبت به گذشته برخوردار هستند ، زنگ خطری برای معلمان محسوب می‌شود . همچنین ، تسلط بیش‌تر معلمان در مهارت‌های عمومی ، تدریس با روش‌های جدید را راحت‌تر و موفق‌تر می‌کند .

● آیا تاکنون مقاله‌ای در زمینه‌ی آموزش زبان داشته‌اید؟

O بله ، مقاله‌ای در شماره‌ی قبل مجله‌ی رشد آموزش زبان به چاپ رسید . اخیراً نوشتن کتابی را برای استفاده‌ی دبیران دوره‌ی پیش‌دانشگاهی آغاز کرده‌ام که امیدوار بودم ، برای مهر ماه سال ۸۵ آماده شود . اما با حجم زیاد کار و درس‌های دوره‌ی دکترا ، مطمئن نیستم بتوانم نوشتن آن را در تاریخ مذکور به اتمام برسانم . البته سعی خود را خواهم کرد .

● برای ترغیب دبیران زبان به مطالعه و تحقیق چه روش‌هایی را پیشنهاد می‌کنید؟

O از آن‌جا که بنده مسؤولیت ارزیابی تحقیقات ارسالی همکاران به آموزش و پرورش را نیز به عهده دارم ، بارها به تحقیقاتی بسیار عالی از همکاران برخورده‌ام که طبق نظام امتیازبندی این اداره ، نهایتاً از ۱

تا ۱/۵ امتیاز بیش‌تر ندارند. به علاوه، این تحقیقات در حد
نوشته‌های روی کاغذ باقی مانده‌اند و هیچ کس جز خود محقق و
ارزیاب، از وجود یا کاربرد آن‌ها اطلاع ندارد. من فکر می‌کنم اگر
نظام امتیازبندی قدری تغییر کند و همکاران ما بدانند که از نتایج
تحقیقات آنان به طور عملی استفاده می‌شود، مسلماً با انگیزه‌ی
بیش‌تری به مطالعه و تحقیق خواهند پرداخت.

در کنار انگیزه به عنوان شرط اول انجام تحقیق، داشتن فرصت
مناسب و وقت کافی که در سؤال قبلی به آن به عنوان علت عدم اقدام
شخص خودم به چاپ مقاله‌هایم اشاره کردم، دومین پیش‌نیاز مهم
برای انجام هرگونه تحقیقی است. با پیشنهاد خانم شاه ناصری که در
شماره‌ی ۷۷ عنوان شده است، یعنی اختصاص چند ساعت از
ساعات موظفی معلمان به تحقیق و پژوهش، نیز بسیار موافق هستم.

تشکیل تیم‌های تخصصی تحقیقاتی در گروه زبان هر استان و
برگزاری کنفرانس و یا همایش‌های داخلی آموزش و پرورش هر استان
می‌تواند، زمینه‌ی شناخت نیروهای محقق و کارآمد را فراهم کند.
اختصاص مجله‌ی تخصصی گروه زبان آموزش و پرورش که توسط
خود معلمان تهیه شود و برای خود ارزش علمی و امتیاز داشته باشد
نیز راه دیگری برای جلب علاقه‌ی معلمان به امر تحقیق است و نهایتاً
برگزاری مسابقات بیش‌تر در زمینه‌ی مقاله‌نویسی و پژوهش، مؤثر
به نظر می‌آید.

● چه اندازه به ارائه‌ی مقاله در مجله علاقه دارید؟

○ صد در صد علاقه‌مندم. هم‌اکنـون سـه مقالـه در مـورد
Task-based Learning (حوزه‌ی مورد علاقه‌ی خودم)، مشکلات
بچه‌های رشته‌ی علوم انسانی در یادگیری زبان (موضوع پایان‌نامه) و
Learning Strategies نوشته‌ام که قصد دارم در اولین فرصت نسبت
به چاپ آن‌ها اقدام کنم. در حال حاضر، مشغول تحقیق در مورد
«Reflective Teaching» هستم که امیدوارم حاصل آن، مقالـه‌ی
خوبی شود.

در پایان، ضمن تشکر از تمامی دست‌اندرکاران مجله‌ی خوب
و وزین «رشد زبان»، امیدوارم مجله بتواند در آینده‌ای نزدیک به عنوان
بهترین منبع اطلاعاتی مورد استفاده‌ی تمامی معلمان قرار بگیرد و با
مشارکت آنان، کیفیت محتوای آن به منظور تحقق هدف‌های آموزش
و پرورش روزبه‌روز بهتر و غنی‌تر شود.

موفق باشید ان‌شاءالله

Researching
Second Language
Classrooms

Sandra Lee McKay

This text introduces teachers to research methods they can use to examine their own classrooms in order to become more effective teachers. Becoming familiar with classroom-based research methods not only enables teachers to do research in their own classrooms, it also provides a basis for assessing the findings of existing research. McKay emphasizes throughout that what a teacher chooses to examine will dictate which method is most effective. Each chapter includes activities to help readers apply the methods described in the chapter, often by analyzing research data.

• Chapter 1. Classroom Research, introduces the reader to major research purposes and research types as they relate to classroom research, the distinction between quantitative and qualitative research, the formulation of research questions and research designs, and ethical issues in research.

• Chapter 2. Researching Teachers and Learners, presents research methods that can be used to examine teachers' and learners' attitudes and behaviors: action research, survey research, interviews. verbal reports, diary studies case studies and ethnographies.

• Chapter 3. Researching Classroom Discourse, deals with methods that can be used to study the

شرایط:

۱ـ واریز مبلغ ۲۰/۰۰۰ ریال به ازای هر عنوان مجله درخواستی، به صورت علی الحساب به حساب شمارهٔ ۳۹۶۶۲۰۰۰ بانک تجارت شعبه سه راه آزمایش (سرخه حصار) کد ۳۹۵ در وجه شرکت افست

۲ـ ارسال اصل رسید بانکی به همراه برگ تکمیل شده اشتراک

❖ نام مجله : ....

❖ نام و نام خانوادگی:....................................

❖ تاریخ تولد:....................................

❖ میزان تحصیلات:....................................

❖ تلفن:....................................

❖ نشانی کامل پستی:

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پلاک: .... کدپستی: ....

❖ مبلغ واریز شده:....................................

❖ شماره و تاریخ رسید بانکی:....................................

❖ آیا مایل به دریافت مجله درخواستی به صورت پست پیشتاز هستید؟ بله ☐ خیر ☐

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Refernces ── ── ── ── ── ── ──

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oral and written discourse of classrooms: interaction analysis, discourse analysis, text analysis, and ways to examine the social and political assumptions underlying the choice and presentation of content in second language teaching materials.

• Chapter 4. Writing Research Reports, provides guidelines for both thesis writing and journal articles.

Researching Second Language Classrooms is an ideal text for TESOL research methods courses and an essential resource for inservice teachers who wish to undertake classroom research.
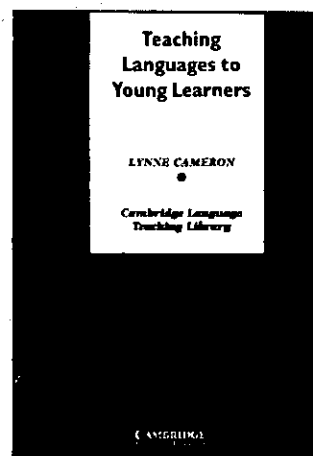
Teaching Languages to Young Learners

Recent years have seen rapid growth in the number of children being taught foreign languages at younger ages.

While course books aimed at young learners are appearing on the market. there is scant theoretical reference in the teacher education literature. This book is one of the few to explore with readers what happens in classrooms where children are being taught a foreign language. It will offer teachers and trainers a theoretical framework to structure thinking about children's language learning. The book gives practical suggestions on how to analyse and evaluate classroom activities.language use and Language development. Examples from classrooms in Europe and Asia will help bring alive the realities of working with young learners of English.

ranging from formal tests to informal assessments. However, another important aspect of evaluation involves the evaluation of the course book. Was the course book effective? In what ways? Where did it fall short? To answer these questions, two different approaches can be taken: formative evaluation and summative evaluation (see, for example, Cunningsworth. 1984).

Formative evaluation takes place during the development and implementation of the course book for purposes of modifying it as it is being developed. Summative evaluation, however, takes place after the course book has been implemented for purposes of evaluating the effectiveness of the course book.

7. Analyzing the situation

Analyzing the situation is the last step in the developmental process of a course book. The goal of needs identification, as stated before, is to collect data to be used to develop a profile of the language needs of a group of learners in order to be able to make decisions about the goals and content of a course book. Yet other factors are relevant to the design and implementation of a successful course book. Course books are taught and learned in particular contexts and situations.

The context for course books are varied: numerous variables come into play in a specific situation that are often the key determinants of the success of a course book. Some course books are developed for centrally organized educational systems where a great deal of direction and support for teaching is provided. Others are written for settings where there are limited human and physical resources.

In some contexts, proposals for the change of course books are well received by teachers but resisted strongly by others. In some situations, teachers are well trained and have sufficient time available for preparation, while in other situations, teachers have little time for preparation. It is important, therefore, to identify what these factors are and what their potential effect might be on the course book. Situation analysis is, in fact, an analysis of such factors as social, economic, and institutional.

Based on what has been presented so far, a course book has no choice but to follow the goals delineated for it. If the goal of language instruction is to enhance reading comprehension ability in the learners, the backbone of the course book should probably be structural, along with some functions, situations, and tasks. If the goal of language teaching is to promote oral communication in the learners, then functions and notions come to play, and situations and tasks are used to reinforce the functions presented; in this case, grammatical points are dealt with only marginally and unsystematically as they appear in the functions.

In conclusion it should be stressed once again that writing a course book is a very difficult enterprise. If we agree with the traditional distinction between ESL and EFL, it should be mentioned that most theories of language and learning are designed for the ESL, and not for the EFL, contexts, regardless of the number of people interested in learning English in EFL settings. Therefore, it is my firm belief that no experts in the field of applied linguistics, but only the Iranian textbook writers, who are quite familiar with the Iranian EFL setting, are qualified provide us with educationally-sound teaching materials. It is also my belief that the course books must be sensitive to our cultural heritage and values, with which no internationally well-known writers, but only Iranian course book developers, are familiar.
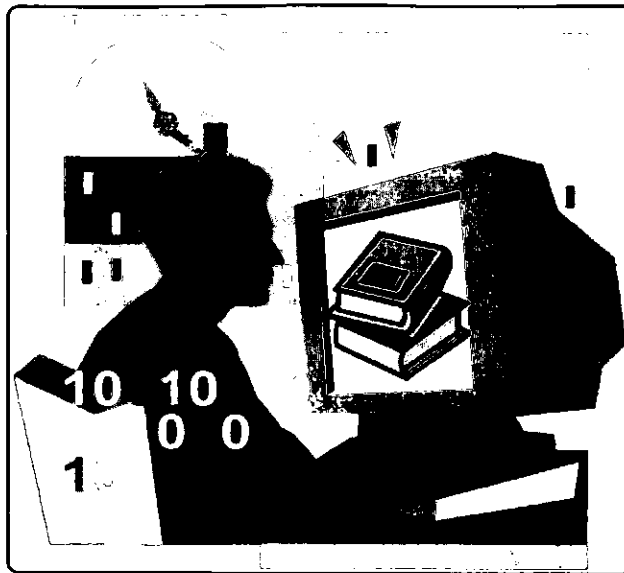
usually available in language classrooms.

- Task-based learning is not what many learners expect from a language classrooms.
- Task-based learning is not what many learners expect from a language classroom.
- Evaluation of task-based learning can be difficult.
- Task gradation is still a controversial issue.

4. Selecting and developing materials

Selecting and developing materials and activities is the next step in the process of course book development. It means *how and with what* the course book should be taught. What is the role of the teacher? What is the role of the learner?

Choosing teaching materials may mean development of new materials for which there are no suitable materials, collecting a variety of materials, or adapting existing materials (for an excellent collection of papers, see Tomlinson, 2003).

Course book developers consider a variety of factors in developing, choosing, and adapting materials. Two of the most important factors are the effectiveness of materials in achieving the goal of the course, as well as their appropriateness for the learners and the teachers. Appropriateness

includes learner comfort and familiarity with the materials, their language proficiency level, interest, and relevance. Developing materials and activities require time and a clear sense of why, how, and by whom the book will be used.

5. Organizing content and activities

Undoubtedly, part of the course book development is figuring out systems for organizing the course — the organization of each lesson, as well as the overall organization of the course.

There are two general, complementary principles of sequencing: *building and recycling*. In deciding how to sequence materials, the text book developer should consider basing the materials from the simple to the complex, from more concrete to more open-ended. The principle of recycling means that learners encounter previous materials in new ways. For example, materials covered in a listening activity may be recycled in a writing exercise.

6. Evaluating learners as well as the course

To many teachers, evaluation means evaluation within a course: assessing learners' proficiency, progress, or achievement. Course book developers usually design some form of student evaluation,

to demonstrate to be competent in a language, relatively independent of the situation or the setting in which the language can occur.

Skill-based contents group linguistic competencies, such as pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, together into generalized types of behavior, such as listening to spoken language for the main idea, reading a text for main ideas or supporting details, and so on. The primary purpose of skill-based instruction is to teach specific language skill.

Some of the positive characteristics of skill-based contents are:

- Skill-based contents are most useful when learners need to master specific types of language use, for example, when they need to read limited types of materials in a specific area.
- Skill-based contents have relevance to the needs of language learners.

Some of the negative characteristics of skill-based contents are:

- It is questionable whether ability to perform a specific language activity is dependet on or independent of the overall language proficiency.
- Serious philosophical questions have been raised about the social values of skill-based contents. It is possible that skill-based instruction can isolate learners from achievements that skills do not prepare them for.

Still another way to conceptualize content is through task-based contents. In task-based contents, teaching is not organized around linguistic features of the language being learned, but around a series of purposeful tasks that the learner wants or needs to perform to learn the language. Tasks are, in fact, activities with a purpose other than language learning. In other words, language learning is subordinated to task performance, and language teaching occurs only as the need arises during the performance of the given task. Examples of tasks are applying for a job, getting housing information over the telephone, completing different forms, etc. (see Ellis, 2003).

The learning theory underlying task-based contents is that the ability to use a language is gained through exposure to and participation in using the language. The language theory underlying task-based contents is communicative, covering linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence.

Some of the positive characteristics of task-based contents are:

- They are suitable for learners of all ages and backgrounds.
- Ability to perform a task is equivalent to the ability to use the language.
- They are very useful for learners who are not interested in traditional types of classroom learning.

Some of the negative characteristics of task-based contents are:

- Task-based learning requires a high-level creativity and initiative on the part of the learner.
- Task-based learning requires resources beyond the textbooks and related materials

A	B	C	D	E	F
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# # # #	+ + + +	+ + # #	# #	+ # + #	+ # + #
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Source: White, R. V. (1988, p. 79)

A Less well known and less widely used than structure-based content or function-based content is one in which the content of language teaching is a collection of real or imaginary situations. A situation usually involves several participants who are engaged in some kind of activity in a specific setting. The language occurring in a situation involves a number of functions. The most familiar way of presenting a situation is through a dialog.

Situation-based contents have also positive and negative features. Some of the positive characteristics of situation-based contents are:

- Situations can lead to learners' ability to communicate in specific settings.
- Situations provide contexts of discourse in which form and meaning coincide.
- Situations can break the sentence level barrier and demonstrate to learners, of course, only to some extent, how language operates in larger units of discourse.
- The use of situations in language teaching can help provide some social and cultural information about the language and its users.

Some of the negative characteristics of situation-based contents are:

- They can lead learners to rely on pre learned routines and patterns of language use rather than on the creative and negotiated use of language.
- Here it is extremely difficult to create authentic language for interactional purposes.
- Situation-based contents present grading and sequencing problems.
- The unpredictability of language structures, functions, notions, and lexical items used in a situation makes it less transferable to another similar situation.

Another type of conceptualizing content is skill-based content in which the content of language teaching is a collection of specific abilities that may play a part in using language. Skills are abilities that language users must be able

To show a difference between structure-based contents and function-based contents, one can refer to the idea that *imperative* and *would* may not appear related in the structure-based content, but they can be grouped together in the function-based content under the function of offering, as in

Have another piece of cake.
Would you like another piece of cake?

Function-based contents have also positive and negative characteristics. Some of their positive characteristics are,

- Function-based contents include information about language use.
- Materials are closer to authentic target language use.
- They are related more to current or future language needs of learners; hence, they may have motivational benefits.
- They provide reasonable mastery of communicative competencies in a relatively short time, of course, within a limited domain.

Some of the negative characteristics of function-based contents are:

- Function-based contents are limited to short utterances or exchanges; they do not involve larger stretches of discourse. Therefore, they can become a means of teaching routines and patterns. Routines, such as *No, thank you,* are frozen phrases that are used to convey an understanding of the context rather than to offer specific information. Patterns, such as *Would you like to.....?,* are utterances with open slots in which vocabulary items can be inserted.
- Sequencing, as well as grading, of functions is done arbitrarily.

Some scholars (see, for example. White, 1988) argue that perhaps as a reaction to the shortcomings of function-based contents, structure-function-based contents have become more common in recent years, in which functional and structural elements are interwoven. White proposes six types of structure-function-based contents:

TYPE A: An amount of structural component comes before an equal amount of functional component, with no connection between the two.

TYPE B: TYPE B is the same as TYPE A, but the order is changed. Here structural elements come after functional elements.

TYPE C: In TYPE C, two parallel streams, one structural the other functional, usually with no connection between the two, move together. However, it is possible that the content of one interacts with the content of the other.

TYPE D: TYPE D is an alternative to TYPE A and TYPE B, but here the structural and functional components are arranged in shorter sections. That is, in the same unit, a functional element comes after a structural element or vice-versa.

TYPE E: TYPE E is an integration of structural and functional elements.

TYPE F: TYPE F is identical to TYPE E; however, here there are free elements in which course book developers can also include materials they deem necessary or important.

The following table summarizes the different types of structure-function-based contents mentioned above, in which structural elements are shown by + +, functional elements by # #, and free elements by 0 0.

conceptualizing and categorizing content. The course book developer has to decide which approaches are appropriate, as well as feasible, for the course book and how they can be combined or integrated (see Yalden, 1983, 1987).

At first it should be mentioned that conceptualizing content requires empirical evidence. But the empirical evidence is not, in a lot of cases, compatible with one another (see, for example, Lightbown, & Spada, 1999). Therefore, the course book developer should conceptualize which choices to make among the available options. In other words, his/her decisions should be based upon a theory of language and a theory of language acquisition/learning. For this reason, s/he has to be fully aware of these theories.

Although the present knowledge about second language acquisition/learning is still fragmentary, it is the responsibility of the course book developer to base all his/her choices on experience and empirical findings as to what works and what is most effective in the classroom. However, it should be mentioned that the options chosen – whether they are words, structures, notions, functions– and the way they are to be presented–in isolation, in context, with grammar rules or without grammar rules–will influence the elements of the language that course book developers include in their books, which, in a sense, is clearly indicative of their theory of language and language learning.

The traditional way of conceptualizing content, which many of us have experienced in our own learning of English, is the structure-based content. A structure-based content is one in which the content of language teaching is a collection of forms and grammatical structures, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, statements, questions, etc. The structure-based content may also include such other aspects of language forms as pronunciation and vocabulary items.

Structure-based contents have some merits and demerits. Some positive characteristics of structure-based contents are:

- Structures are one of the components of communicative competence.
- Teachers and learners are familiar with structures.
- Contents, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, are easy to describe.
- Structures are the most measurable component of communicative competence.
- Structures prevent fossilization.
- Structures serve as the basis for monitoring the accuracy of production.
- Structures provide the teacher with a basis for giving feedback on the accuracy of language output.
- Structures are value free and culture free. They can be taught without reference to culture.

However, structure-based contents suffer from serious problems:

- Structures do not lead to language use.
- Knowledge of structures does not seem to transfer to language skill easily.
- Structures mislead learners into that they are learning a language, but, in fact, they are learning about the language.

The most popular alternative to the structure-based content is the function-based content. In the function-based content, the target language is not presented as isolated linguistic forms, but as a group of language functions, that are performed when language is used. Examples of functions include greeting, leave taking, requesting, apologizing (Munby, 1978).

means of obtaining broader input into the content of a course book, language needs identification is a very complicated task to carry out, is a time-consuming activity, is a costly effort, and is not, in some cases, a practically feasible idea. For this reason, Long (1985) remarks that needs analysis is "a notorious bottleneck" (p. 90) in the design of language teaching materials.

2. Determining goals and objectives

Another type of question that a course book developer should answer is what the goals and objectives of the course are and what language learners need to learn to achieve them. Goals refer to general statements of the overall, long-term purposes of the course. Objectives, however, express the specific ways in which the goals will be achieved. In other words, while goals of a course represent the final destination, the objectives specify the different ways leading to that destination. For example, if the goal of an English language teaching program is to improve paragraph writing ability, then some of the objectives of the course book would be helping learners with brainstorming, selecting relevant ideas, paying attention to paragraph organizational patterns, structural patterns most commonly used for such type of a topic, the topic sentence, supporting ideas, etc.

Specification of goals and objectives provide the course book developer with a coherent framework in planning the course book. Through analyzing goals into objectives, the course book developer can conceptualize the course in terms of teachable materials. Clear goals and objectives also give the course book developer a basis on which s/he can decide on the inclusion or exclusion of content and activities in the course book. Finally, goals and objectives, if clearly set, provide a framework for the evaluation of the effectiveness of content and activities included.

Of course, there is no simple answer to the question how one chooses appropriate goals and objectives. If a nationwide course book is to be developed, the goals are usually specified by the authorities of Ministry of Education. Then it is the responsibility of the course book developer to break down the goal into pedagogically sound objectives. But if a local text is to be developed, the content of the book should be compatible with the specific goal of language teaching in Iran.

3. Conceptualizing content

Conceptualizing content means what to teach. In other words, it refers to what should be included in the course book. When a course book developer conceptualizes content, s/he is, in fact, thinking about which aspects of language to include, to emphasize, and to integrate in the book. This is a very difficult task to carry out.

Almost four decades ago, language teaching was heavily influenced by a structural view of language. This impact resulted in one approach to content and method. This means that, for example, the same course book and the same language activities could be used for all those who wanted to learn English. However, this is not the case today. It suffices to mention that a lot of changes have taken place in the last four decades in the fields of applied linguistics and language acquisition/learning, as well as in approaches to language teaching methodology. Today the choices a course book developer makes are much more context dependent; therefore, a number of factors, such as who language learners are, what their language needs and expectations are, what the course book developer's belief of the nature of language is, how the learners' language needs are best met, what the institutional curriculum is, etc.

Let's now take a look at some approaches of

developed to address a specific set of educational needs and to cover a given set of unique objectives, this issue is even more crucial in our case for a variety of educational and pedagogical reasons. Hence, decisions about the content of an English course book to be acceptable by the authorities of the Ministry of Education, by Iranian teachers of the English language, and by language learners is not in all likelihood an easy task. Furthermore, another significant consideration in the decisions regarding the content of a course book is that the contents should reflect the planner's assumptions about what the most essential units of language are and how these units are to be organized in an optimal and effective way. The purpose of this paper is to help English language teachers, interested in designing teaching materials, what to observe in developing books or to modify an existing ones to produce textbooks that are educationally sound, culturally appropriate, and pedagogically compatible with the objectives of teaching English in Iran.

Key Words: course book development, language needs identification, goal and objectives, content specification, structural content, functional content, situational content, task-based content

Developing a course book is not an easy task. Writing an English course book or modifying an existing one to be used locally or nationally is not in all likelihood an easy endeavor at all. There are a lot of factors to consider in developing an English course book. English language teachers are interested in, or are being called upon, designing course book materials for a variety of educational settings, as well as for promotional incentives. The purpose of this paper is to make the interested reader familiar with the developmental processes involved in the preparation of a general English course book and determining whether writers are constructing a solid framework for their course books in our Iranian EFL context.

Graves (1996) groups the factors concerning the preparation of a course book in seven broad categories, namely

1. Identifying language needs
2. Determining goals and objectives
3. Conceptualizing content
4. Selecting and developing materials and activities
5. Organizing content and activities
6. Evaluating learners as well as the course
7. Analyzing the situation

Each of these categories will be dealt with briefly in this paper.

1. Identifying language needs

The first question that a course book developer has to answer is what the learners' language needs are. Needs identification involves determining *what the learners know* and *what they need to know*.

Concerning needs identification, two different types of language needs become apparent: objective needs and subjective needs. Objective needs are those factual information *about* learners, for example, their current mastery of the English language, their current lacks and deficiencies of language, and their possible use of language in the target situation. As a matter of fact, the content of a course book should bridge the gap between the learners' current mastery of the language and a step forward towards their immediate or future use of language in the target situation. Subjective needs, however, refer to cognitive and affective needs of the learners. Here, the question of personality type, attitude, learners' wants and expectations concerning the learning of English, as well as their individual cognitive style and learning strategies are to be considered. (see, for example, Nunan, 1999; and, particularly, West, 1994).

Although an extremely crucial factor as a

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Developing General English Course
Books for Iranian Learners:
Some Practical Guidelines

چکیده

پیشنهادات عملی در تهیه و تدوین کتب زبان انگلیسی عمومی علیرغم این واقعیت که تهیه و تدوین کتب درسی فعالیتی وقت‌گیر است ،
مشاهده می‌شود که بعضی از دبیران زبان انگلیسی به دلایل متفاوت به این مهم همت می‌گمارند . این‌گونه تلاش‌ها قابل تقدیر است . به
اعتقاد نویسنده این مقاله ، صرفاً مؤلفان ایرانی واجد شرایط لازم برای تهیه و تألیف مطالب درسی برای زبان‌آموزان ایرانی هستند زیرا با فرهنگ
ایرانی ، با اهداف آموزشی کشور ، با محیط آموزشی و نیز با نیازهای زبانی زبان‌آموزان ایرانی آشنایی کافی دارند . همان‌گونه که تلویحاً اشاره
شد ، تهیه و تدوین مطالب درسی زبان انگلیسی یکی از موضوعات جدی است که دانش کافی ، وقت بسیار و انرژی فراوانی را می‌طلبد .
اتخاذ تصمیم در مورد محتوای کتب درسی باید به گونه‌ای باشد که از یک سو مطالب درسی بر مبنای تئوری‌های شناخته شده زبانشناختی و
روانشناختی استوار باشد و از سوی دیگر مقبول سایر دبیران زبان و زبان‌آموزان قرار گیرد . در غیر این صورت ، کتاب درسی با عدم‌موفقیت
روبرو خواهد شد .

هدف از نگارش مقاله حاضر روشن کردن برخی مفاهیم است که در تهیه و تدوین کتب درسی زبان انگلیسی مدنظر قرار می‌گیرد . چارچوب
این مقاله بر اساس الگوی پیشنهاد گریوز (۱۹۹۶) بنا نهاده شده است . گریوز عوامل مؤثر در تهیه و تدوین کتب درسی زبان را به هفت مقولهٔ
تقسیم می‌کند . در این مقاله ، هریک از این مقوله‌ها به طور جداگانه مورد بحث قرار می‌گیرد و در هر مورد پیشنهادات عملی ارائه می‌شود . امید
است همکاران علاقمند به تألیف ، با درنظر گرفتن این پیشنهادات مطالبی تهیه کنند که با اهداف آموزشی زبان انگلیسی در ایران همخوانی داشته
باشد و نیز در صورتی که علاقمند به ارزشیابی سایر کتاب‌های موجود باشند ، این مقاله چارچوب مناسبی را در اختیارشان قرار دهد .

کلید واژه ها : تهیه مطالب درسی – شناخت نیازهای زبان – اهداف ، تعیین محتوا – محتوای ساختاری

Abstract

Course book preparation is one of the most basic issues dealt with in teaching English programs,
Course book development is a very crucial question. Considering the fact that a course book has to be

or activities which devalue the learners, their own ideology and cultural values.

4-Reordering

When reordering, the teacher decides that it is more pedagogically meaningful to sequence activities differently. An example is teaching grammatical points before teaching reading comprehension passage, or introducing present past participle adjectives before introducing linking verbs. Reordering can also depend on the time available and gradation principle.

5-Replacing materials

This adaptation technique can be the most frequently used procedure by teachers. When replacing materials, a teacher may decide that a more appropriate visual or text may serve as an activity better than ones used in the book. This procedure is often the case with culturally specific or time-specific activities.

As an example, some texts used in high school books are not authentic. The teachers can select some texts from magazines, newspapers or internet and replace them with those parts which are not found authentic.

Moreover, the teachers can replace one activity with another. For example, a "fill in the blank" vocabulary exercise can be replaced with word-fromation exercise to engage all learners in learning activities

Conclusion

Due to lack of congruence between the contents of recently published materials used in EFL classrooms and learning theories, innovation in teaching methods, research findings in SLA, and learners' differences in learning strategies, culture values, cognitive and affective traits, and social inequality, it is necessary for language teachers to get acquainted with adaptation reasons, objectives, and techniques. Critically speaking, the recently published materials used for teaching Iranian language learners need to be adapted One more reasons mentioned in the earlier part of the study is that teachers can make language learning more effective and challenging for all learners with different cognitive and affective traits.

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engaging, cater for all sensory learning styles, provide for more learner autonomy, and encourage higher-level cognitive skills.

Some researchers expend the list to include the following objectives.

1- To help teachers and learners to get rid of unnecessary can tents,
2- To account for individual difference,
3- To account for learners' learning strategies and their cognitive traits,
4- To respect the cultures and values of our language learners,
5 - To make teaching challenging for the highly-gifted learners,
6 - To lay emphasis on learner's interests and goals,
7- To involve learners in teaching process,
8- To make learning process less inhibitive and to reduce learner's stress by asking them to select the appropriate materials,
9 - To imply the applied linguists' research findings concerning the second language acquisition issues.
10- To make use of electronic resources, and
11- To make use of learners' cultural background to facilitate learning.

Techniques for adaptation

After recognizing lack of congruence between published teaching course books and linguistic theories and objectives of the classroom, the teachers should know that materials adaptation to their classroom needs is a necessary principle.

A list of techniques that may be used to adapt materials better to fit a specific class has been provided by McDonough and Shaw (1993) and Cunningsworth (1995). The techniques are mentioned and exemplified as follow.

1- Adding

A teacher may supplement the existing materials and provide more materials by either "extending" or expanding

As an example, a teacher can add a dialogue to a unit in order to contextualize a pattern or a new structure. Suppose one wants to teach causative structure. she/he creates the following conversation between A and B to contextualize the pattern.

A: What are you doing, Ali?

B: I am washing my clothes.

A: Do you always wash your clothes yourself?

B: No. I sometimes have them washed.

A: Pardon me.

B: I sometimes have my friend wash them or get someone to wash them.

2. Simplifying

When simplifying, the teacher can reword or paraphrase instructions, texts or exercises in order to make them more accessible to learners, or she/he can simplify an activity to make it more tangible for learners. It should be borned in mind that when simplifying a text, the authenticity of the text should hot be endangered.

3-Deleting

Sometimes a teacher can delete materials both quantitiatively and qualitatively. When quantitatively deleting, for example, one can decide to do five of the exercises practicing simple persent tense instead of the 15 in the text book. When qualitatively deleting, however, one may decide that one activity may be tedious and ineffective and decide not to do any of those exercises. The teachers can also delete the parts
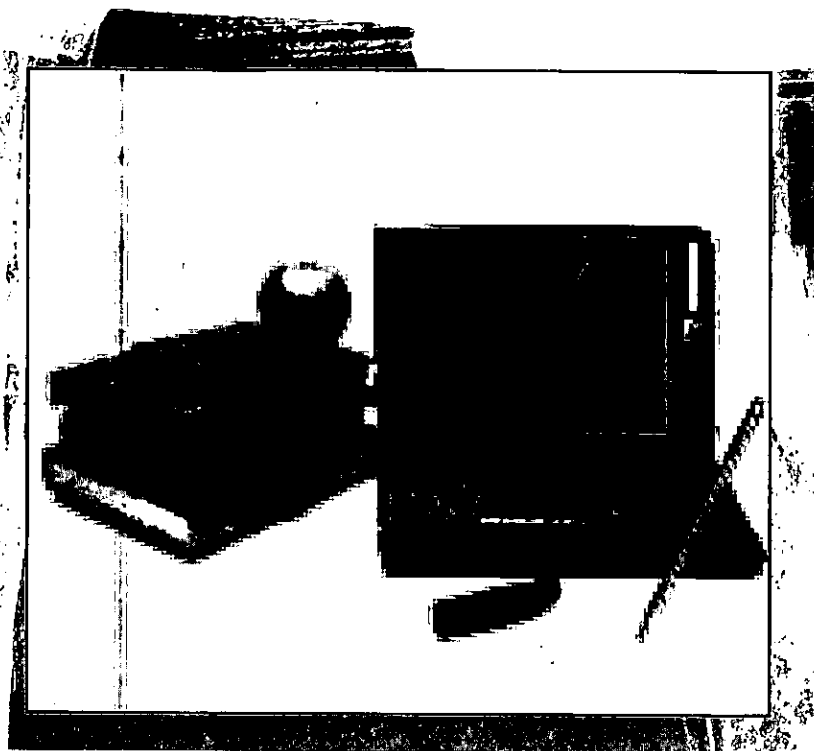
personal traits. They apply different learning activities and tasks which are appropriate for different learners. Consequently, learners should have alternatives in selecting their learning activities. As recently published materials do not provide language learners with a variety of learning activities and pedagogical tasks, materials adaptation is actually inevitable.

10- In our education system, some of the learners are late beginners. That is, there are some learners who did not have the chance of being educated at the right age. (Learners at adult schools). Meanwhile, maturational constraints as mentioned by (Long, 1990; Selinger, 1978; Cook, 1999) proved to be of much influence in learning ESL/EFL.

The textbooks used in our schools are taught to all the learners of different ages, regardless of the results of second language acquisition studies which indicate a significant difference between the rate and amount of learning by early and late beginners.

Therefore, bearing these issues in mind,

teachers actually know that some parts of the textbooks may not be appropriate to young or adult learners and they should have the chance to make some changes in the published materials.

Objectives of Adaptations

It is necessary to have clear objectives for adopting any materials. According to Islam and Mares (2003) clear adaptation objective(s) for the materials or knowing what works for your class will help and guide your choice of adaptation techniques and help to decide the suitable content of language.

MacD onough and Shaw list the objectives that a teacher may hope to achieve by adapting classroom materials.They state that, in order to obtain greater appropriacy from materials, one can adapt to: personalize, individualize, localize and modernize. Islam and mares(2003) expand the list to include:

Add real choice , make the language input more

negotiation between all participants in the learning process, and between learners,

- Activities and tasks do not promote enough meta- communication opportunities and do not promote co-participation.

A brief look at these reasons for adaptation proposed by many applied linguists and drawing conclusion from the case studies done and taking into consideration the experience of many English language teachers teaching English to Iranian students, the following reasons for adaptation of English textbooks used for teaching English, at both schools and institutes can be given.

1-Some units of textbooks (e.g.New Stream Lines, New headways, East West) are not in congruence with Iranian learners' cultural values.

2- There is too much emphasis on some skills and too little emphasis on some other skills.

As an example, in the textbooks designed for guidance schools, the number of drills used to practice structure is greater than amount of exercise need to teach sounds.

3-Due to inequality between language learners in terms of the facilities which they have, education centers which may benefit from, (e.g language institutes), some units or the whole textbook is very easy for one group of learners and very difficult for other groups. Therefore, adaptation is totally necessary.

4- Some textbooks are designed based on traditional approaches to language teaching, and the recent approaches to language teaching which are learner-oriented are not involved in the theoretical and practical dimensions of the textbooks. Therefore, innovation, and creativity on behalf of he teacher is felt necessary.

5- Recent theories of learning and teaching lay more focus on learners' roles in materials preparation, but surprisingly even after many years of English teaching in our country, one can hardly experience the roles of learners in material development. It is necessary to ask the learners what topics, units, or parts of the textbooks they like the best or not.

6- Sometimes there is no congruence between the types of structures or vocabulary used in the course books and the learners' level of proficiency. In this case, adaptation can, to a great extent, be useful and practical.

7- In teaching grammatical structures, the principle of gradation and order of presentation have been found influential. As an example, one can not teach passive unless the learners know what active sentences are. Wherever the teachers feel that replacement of structural patterns facilitate EFL learning, they can adapt the materials.

8- The second language acquisition studies verify the negative and positive impacts of cross-linguistic influence or transfer on learning the target language subsystems. Therefore, some subsystems need more exercise than the other subsystems. Surprisingly, analyzing the English textbooks taught at our schools, one can conclude that the issue of cross-linguistic influence is totally ignored by text developers. Consequently materials adaptation is felt as an obligation to make a change in the types of exercises and drills used in the course books.

9- Learners' individual differences and learning strategies have been explored by many applied linguists. (Nunan, 1998; 1989& 1999;Oxford, 1990) and the results indicate that human beings are not of the same cognitive, affective and
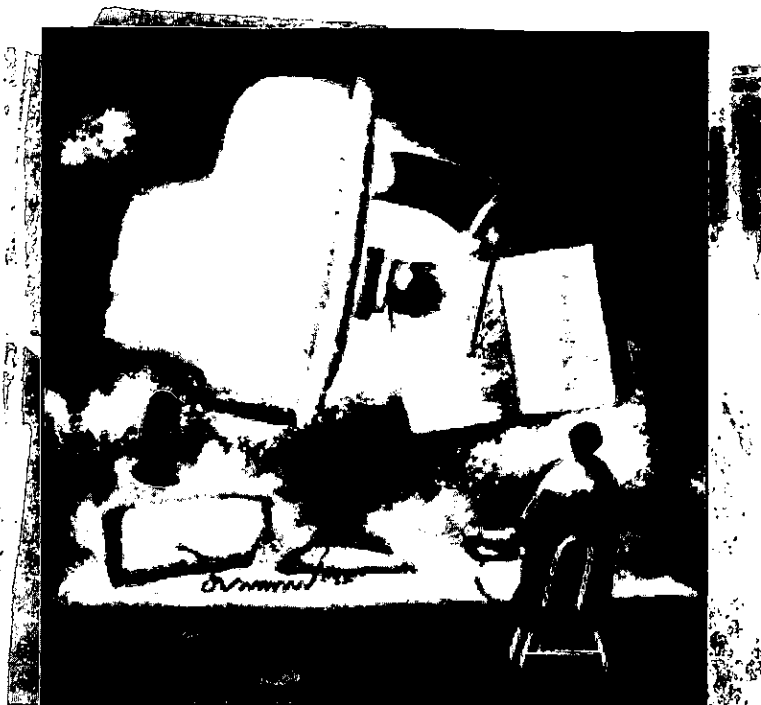
McDonough and Shaw (1993) quote that effective adaptation is a matter of achieving "congruence". The good teacher is constantly striving for congruence among several related variables: teaching materials, methodology, learners, course objectives, the target language and its context, and the teacher's own personality and teaching style.

Their list of reasons for adaptation obviously reflects a concern that communicative language teaching implies an unsystematic approach to grammar presentation and a belief that a systematic approach to grammar presentation is required. Their main reasons are listed as follows:

_"Not enough grammar coverage in general"

_"Reading comprehension contains too much .unknown vocabulary".

_"Listening passages are not authentic, because they sound too much little known".

_"Not enough guidance on pronunciation, and too much or too little variation of activities".

According to Cunnigsworth cited in Islam and Mares (2003) adaptation is necessary and depends of the factors such as:

● The dynamics of the classroom,
● The personalities involved,
● The constraints imposed by syllabuses,
● The availability of resources, and
● The expectations and motivations of the learners.

He also believes that adaptation is appropriate when materials are ideal in terms of methods, language content, in subject matter, balance of skills, progression and grading, and cultural content.

Candling and Breen (1980) believe that one reason for materials adaptation is that published materials are limited in that they do not provide learners with many opportunities for real communication, instead they only provide oral practice of linguistic structures: Their list of reasons includes:

● communicative materials do not provide enough opportunities for negotiation between learner and the text.

● Communicate materials do not provide enough opportunities for interpersonal or social

follow the contents and framework of the recently published materials. Sometimes, due to the lack of congruence between the contents of the course books used for teaching English to foreign language learners, learning theories, teaching strategies, learners individual differences, learners beliefs and perceptions about their own culture and the target culture, materials adaptation plays a critical role in EFL classrooms settings. Therefore, to provide teachers with appropriate techniques of materials adaptation to make learning process more creative and less inhibitive seems to be very essential.

Key Words: Materials, adaptation, teachers, learners, learning, EFL.

Introduction

In many cases, the teachers should not necessarily confine themselves to use the exact content of published materials. Sometimes there is no discrepancy between what the students are asked to do in published materials and what happens in real life language use. Surprisingly, sometimes a part of a course book for language learning and teaching does not seem to be adequate and effective. (Tomlinson, 1998).

Furthermore, although the recent approaches to language teaching and learning lay more emphasis on the role of learners in learning and learner-centered pedagogy, in many of published materials designed for language teaching and learning, no attention is paid to these important issues.

Many applied linguists (e.g.Tomlinson, 1988, Clarke, 1989, Madison and Brown, 1978)put more emphasis on a new process in course development known as adaptation.

As Scarceness (2003) believes, at the moment the process of material adaptation is, in great majority of cases, left in the teachers' hand and it is mainly based on their intuition and experience. Having assessed the importance of materials adaptation as probably the most relevant and useful link between the reality of the language classroom and the research findings, there is clearly a great need to develop such a process and

put into practice those theories and ideas in a more systematic manner, especially when published materials are concerned (Saracen, 2003). Therefore, this study aims at elaborating on materials adaptation process, the reasons, objectives and techniques of adaptation of EFL materials in general and materials designed for teaching English to Iranian students in particular.

Reasons for adaptation

There are always sound practical reasons for adapting materials in order to make them as accessible and useful to learners as possible. However, reasons for adaptation have fluctuated and varied as the field of language teaching has experienced a lot of innovations and views on language teaching and acquisition have become better informed by research and experience. (Islam and Mare,2003). One reason for adaptation as cited by Islam and Mares is that published materials are constrained by the syllabus, unit template and space concerns. Not all materials therefore, are fully developed.

A good teacher's guide will supplement materials and useful alternatives and adaptations, but where this does not happen or a teacher does not have the teacher's guide, adaptation will become part of the creative dialogue between teachers and published materials.

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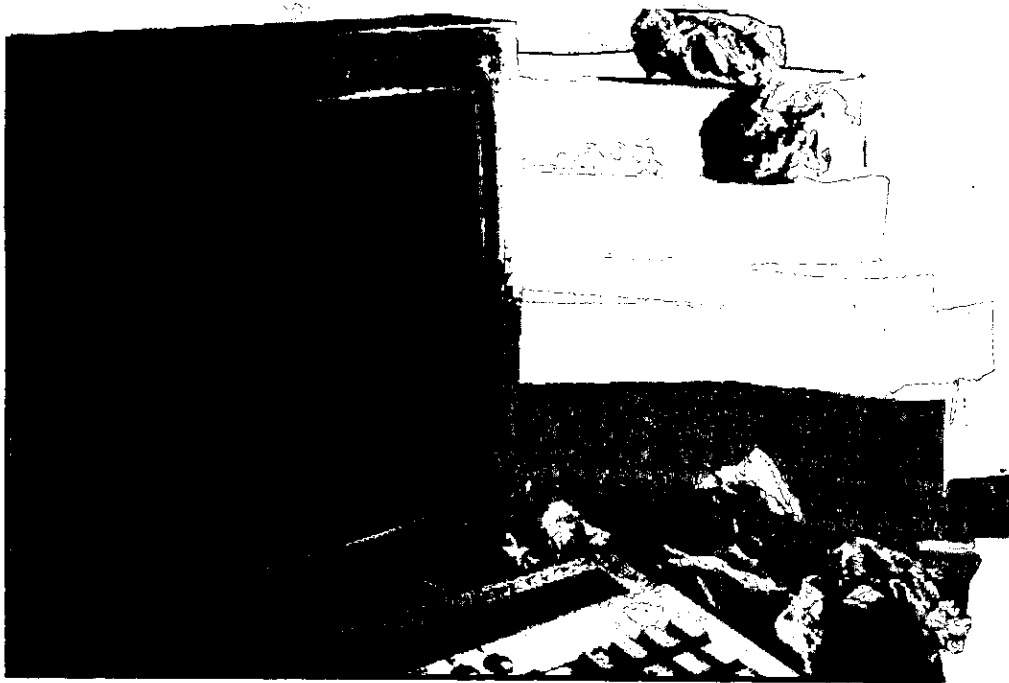
On the Importance of Materials Adaptation in EFL Classrooms

چکیده

از دهه‌ی ۹۰ قرن بیستم، مبحث اقتباس مطالب درسی مورد توجه بسیاری از اندیشمندان و صاحب‌نظران تعلیم و تربیت قرار گرفت، وارد عرصه‌ی آموزش گردید و به تبع آن به معلمان معرفی شد. هدف این فرایند یادآوری این نکته است که در تمام شرایط، معلمان مجبور به رعایت تک‌تک مفاد و رؤوس مطالب کتاب‌های درسی نیستند. گاهگاهی کتاب‌های درسی مورد استفاده‌ی معلمان زبان انگلیسی، به علل متفاوتی از جمله ناهماهنگی با نظریه‌ها و روش‌های نوین تدریس، در نظر نگرفتن شرایط شناختی، عاطفی، اجتماعی و فرهنگی زبان‌آموزان، نابرابری در توزیع امکانات آموزشی در کشور و یا منطقه، مناسب به نظر نمی‌رسد. در چنین مواقعی، معلم می‌تواند با علم به هدف‌ها و دلایل اقتباس مطالب درسی و آگاهی از روش‌های اقتباس کتاب‌های درسی، مطابق با شرایط و ضوابط، در کتاب‌های درسی تغییراتی ایجاد کند. اقتباس مطالب درسی می‌تواند، به ایجاد شرایط و جو یادگیری اشتراکی، افزایش تعامل دانش‌آموزان با معلمان و برعکس، به ترغیب دانش‌آموزان به شرکت در فرایند انتخاب مطالب مورد نیاز تدریس و ایجاد شرایط مناسب روحی، روانی، عاطفی، فرهنگی و شناختی برای تمام زبان‌آموزان منجر شود.

کلید واژه‌ها: مطالب درسی، اقتباس، معلمان، فراگیران، یادگیری، زبان‌خارجی.

Abstract

Since the 1990's materials adaptation has been discussed and introduced to language teachers. This process aims at providing the teachers with the knowledge that usually they should not always

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helps learners to see their own progress and learn that the effort pays off. Finally, teachers should provide non-threatening evaluation. To this end, evaluation should be ongoing, embedded in daily activities, focused on personal progress as it promotes the view that errors are opportunities to learn (Ley & Young.2001; Perry, et al. 2002; Thansoulas, 2000; Zimmerman, 2002).

Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications for EFL Contexts

The present paper presented an overview of self-regulated learning (SRL) by giving an account of two frequently cited models of self-regulation, characteristics attributed to self-regulated learners and ways through which SRL can be promoted in classroom settings. As indicated in the article, SRL is a valuable construct in educational psychology and in the field of second or foreign language leaning since it emphasizes the notion of learner autonomy and independence. In SRL students are active participants in their learning process who have learned how to plan, control, monitor and evaluate their cognitive, metacognitive, behavioral and contextual learning process.

Autonomous, self-regulated learning is essential for development of second or foreign language proficiency both within and especially beyond the classroom for both fluency and accuracy (Ehrman, 2000). Research has also revealed that self-regulated learners are academically more successful than other students. Teachers should then try to help students develop SRL strategies along with their language skills. EFL teachers can foster SRL in their classrooms through making students aware of their own learning strategies (i.e., metacognitive awareness) and developing the SRL strategies they lack. To this end, teachers can assign a task such as reading a text or writing a paper and they can ask students to think aloud while they are performing the task. If for instance, students do not report the required strategies for reading comprehension of the text, the teacher can help them with developing the necessary strategies. In order to create a self-regulated learning context, teachers should make students familiar with self-monitoring and self-evaluating processes proposed by models of self-regulation. EFL students can self-monitor and self-evaluate their language learning progress though writing diaries and journals.

As illustrated in the literature, goal setting and self-efficacy are critical components of SRL models. Accordingly, if EFL teachers are aiming at promoting SRL in their classes, they should try to instruct students to use goal setting efficiently. When students face a difficulty in achieving their designated goal (e.g., comprehending a long and difficult reading or listening text), teachers should provide verbal encouragement to learners to help them to sustain their goal and accomplish it. EFL teachers can help learners to set some sub-goals such as learning some vocabulary items or grammatical points to attain their long term goal which for example could be speaking English fluently and accurately. Students' self- efficacy can also be enhanced by providing a strategy that helps them succeed (Schunk, 1995). EFL teachers can help students to raise their self-efficacy for language learning by teaching them language learning strategies they lack or they are weak at.

In sum, EFL teachers can help students to become more successful language learners capable of taking charge of their own learning by scaffolding, and coaching strategy use. They can also teach them how to set goals, monitor and evaluate their own learning process.

زیرنویس

1.autonomous

2. self-regulated

3. contextual

4. self-monitoring

strategies such as repetition, note taking and questioning for clarification (Chamot, 1987). Less-experienced or naive self-regulated learners and skillful learners are also differentiated by the strategies they employ in their different phases of the self-regulated learning. In the forethought phase, naive self-regulators set nonspecific and unrealistic academic goals whereas the skillful learners set specific short term goals which are achieved more quickly and result in motivation and better self-regulation. Naive self- regulators also tend to have low levels of academic self-efficacy and interest in the task. In the performance stage, naive self-regulators do not stay focused on their original plan and cannot effectively monitor their own progress. In the self-reflection phase naive self-regulated learners tend to avoid self-judgment as compared to skillful self-regulators. Furthermore, when naive self-regulators make judgments, they are more likely to be negative. They consider ability related causes responsible for their success or failure whereas the skillful learners attribute their performance to strategy use and the amount of their practice (Zimmerman, 1998).

In general, students with higher records of academic achievement have been found to use more SRL strategies and monitor their learning process more flexibly than less successful learners (Pape & Wang, 2003). Therefore, knowing that there is a positive correlation between students' academic achievement and the amount and type of SRL strategies that they employ in their learning process, educational psychologists have proposed various instructional models and programs to promote SRL among less successful students.

Ways to Promote Self-regulated Learning in Classrooms

Educational researchers have demonstrated that it is possible to teach self-regulatory processes and strategies which increase students' motivation and

achievement. It has then been suggested that teachers can build the classrooms as self-regulated learning environments if they pursue the following guidelines: They should give students a lot of choices to take responsibility for their own learning. Students should be encouraged to choose how to accomplish learning tasks. For example, students can be asked to decide whether they should have a shared or individual reading of a text. Teachers should also emphasize concept relevance and provide students with plenty of examples to explain each concept and to relate new ideas to previously covered ones. They should model and encourage self-reflection as well. Teachers can think out loud when they are demonstrating to students how to perform a learning task or they can ask successful students to explain to their peers how they have performed the task.

Teachers need to assess students' belief about learning like their self-efficacy perception in order to identify cognitive or motivational difficulties before they become problematic. They ought to organize instruction and activities in a way that they foster cognitive and metacognitive strategies. In case of EFL/ESL contexts, the following cognitive strategies could be advocated: repetition (e.g. when students imitate others' speech in a listening task), resourcing (i.e., having recourse to dictionaries and other materials), translating, note taking, deducing, contextualizing (e.g., embedding a word or phrase in a meaningful text) and the like. These metacognitive strategies can also be encouraged: planning, self-monitoring (e.g., checking one's performance as one speaks), self-evaluating (i.e., appraising one's performance in relation to one's own standards) and self-reinforcement (i.e., rewarding oneself for success).Teachers can make students take charge of their own learning by keeping track of their own progress though portfolios. A portfolio is a collection of a learners' work over time which

success or failure. For example, if a student thinks he was successful on a test, he can attribute this to his own high ability or effort, or he can attribute it to other factors such as good luck, the ease of the test or the instructor's help and many other factors. In the same way if a student fails an exam, he can attribute it to the lack of ability or effort on his part, bad luck, the difficulty of the task and so many other factors. The type and the nature of attribution that the student makes have profound implication for future attempts at the task, and the general motivation and achievement (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996).

In sum, comparing the two models, we note that both models share the same underlying assumption. Self-regulated learning is an active, constructive process whereby learners set goals for their learning and make an effort to monitor, regulate, and control their cognition, motivation, behavior and context of learning.

Characteristics of self-regulated learners

Students can be described self-regulated to the extent that they have learned to plan, control and evaluate their cognitive, affective, behavioral and contextual processes. Broadly speaking, students who manage to self-regulate their learning display the following attributes: They are cognizant of a series of cognitive strategies like repetition, elaboration and organization. They apply these strategies to be able to attend to, transform, organize, elaborate and recover information. Self-regulated students know how to use their metacognitive knowledge to plan, control and direct their mental processes toward the achievement of their designated goal. They show a set of motivational beliefs and adaptive emotions such as a high sense of academic self-efficacy and positive emotions (e.g., joy, interest) toward tasks. They plan and control the time and effort required for a task. They can create and structure favorable learning environments by finding a suitable place to study and seeking help from teachers and classmates when facing difficulties in their learning process. Self-regulated students know how to avoid external and internal distractions in order to sustain their motivation (Corno, 2001). Moreover, self-regulated learners are flexible and typically take the following steps recursively when they face a learning task: Based on their current knowledge and belief, they initiate analyzing the task to find out its requirements. They set task-specific goals based on which they select, adapt, and possibly invent strategies that will help them to achieve their objectives. After implementing these strategies, they monitor their progress toward their goals. This will in turn generate internal feedback about the success or failure of their effort and might require them to adjust their strategies on the basis of their perception of their progress. They also use motivational strategies to sustain their effort when they get discouraged or encounter difficulties during the learning process (Butler & Winne, 1995).

Students' use of SRL strategies has been found to vary across different contexts of learning. In this respect, Wang (2004) reports that ESL students participating in his study are more likely to use goal setting and planning strategies in reading and writing contexts and not in listening and speaking contexts. Likewise, Chinese undergraduate students who participated in a self-regulated EFL writing program developed metacognitive knowledge pertinent to a mature composing process of EFL composition (Ruan, 2005). In addition, there is a significant difference in the use of strategies between ESL beginner and intermediate level students. Intermediate level students apply metacognitive strategies such as self-management, advance preparation and self-monitoring while the beginners prefer attention focusing strategies. However, as far as cognitive strategies are concerned, both groups use the same
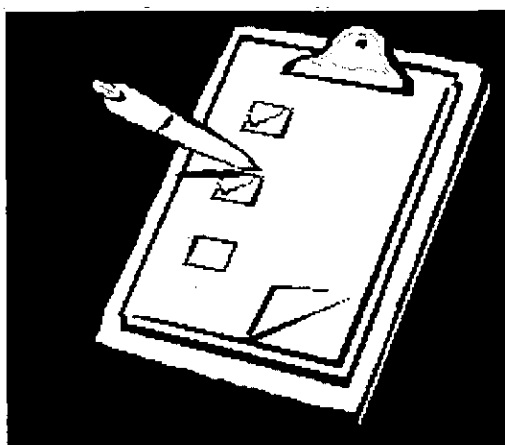
Within each of these phases, self regulatory activities are in turn structured into four areas i.e., cognitive, motivational/ affective, behavioral and contextual areas. The four phases suggested in this model represent a general sequence which a student steps through as he or she carries out the learning task. The phases can occur simultaneously and dynamically and produce multiple interactions among different processes and activities which are included in each phase.

The first phase, planning, includes activities such as: goal setting, activation of prior knowledge about the material and activation of metacognitive knowledge which consists of activities like recognizing the difficulties involved in a task, identifying knowledge and skills needed for addressing them, etc. All of these activities are related to the cognitive area of the self-regulatory process. On motivational/affective level, the phase includes activation of motivational beliefs like self-efficacy and personal interest in the task or in the content (for example, the learner holds positive attitude towards language learning). In behavioral and contextual areas, the activities respectively consist of planning the time and effort to be used in the task and the activation of perceptions regarding the task and the class context.

Within the second phase, the self-monitoring stage, students become aware of their state of cognition, motivation, emotions, use of time and effort, as well as conditions of the task and the context. Students are then involved in activities related to self-observation of comprehension. These activities are evident when students are aware that they have not understood something they have just read or heard and when they are reading too fast for the type of goal they have set (e.g., reading for the main idea). They are also aware of their own behavior (e.g., "I have to spend more time and try more to understand this chapter") and the classroom context (i.e., they know how their performance will be evaluated).

Phase three involves efforts to control and regulate different aspects of the self or task and context. For instance, as the students are performing a reading task they monitor their learning and they might realize that they are not understanding as much of the text as they had hoped to. Therefore, in the light of such metacognitive monitoring, they may decide to reread the whole text, go back over certain parts of the text or take notes on different parts of the text to repair their comprehension. Such strategies help the learners to control and regulate their learning process to get closer to the goal they had set for themselves which in this case is reading comprehension of a particular text.

The final stage, the reflection or evaluation stage involves judgments and evaluation that students themselves make about their task execution. They try to find out the causes of their

active participants of their own learning process (p.4)." Based on this definition, self-regulatory processes fall into three cyclical phases: Forethought, performance or volitional control and self-reflection.

The forethought phase refers to processes and beliefs that precede efforts to learn and consists of cognitive processes such as students' self-efficacy beliefs, motivation, goal setting and planning. Self-efficacy, defined as a learner's belief about his or her capabilities to learn or perform behaviors at designated levels, is considered to play a key role in developing self-regulated learning. Research has indicated that there is a positive relation between self-efficacy and self-regulatory strategies. In other words, students who believe they can learn and are confident in their skills are more likely to report the use of self-regulatory strategies. This finding is compatible with Ellis's (1989) argument that good language learners would rather take charge of their own learning rather than rely exclusively on the teacher. Thus, incorporating SRL strategies in instruction and enhancing students' self-efficacy beliefs help ESL students to learn English more efficiently. Students benefit from this since they have a variety of SRL strategies at their disposal when facing problems in their language learning process and since they are self-efficacious enough to persist in using these strategies (Wang, 2004).

Goal setting – the other sub process of the first phase– involves establishing a standard or objective to serve as the aim of one's action. Goals motivate learners to try hard enough to meet task demands and persist over time. Goals also help learners to focus on the task, to select and apply appropriate strategies and to monitor their progress (Schunk, 1995). Researchers have found that allowing individuals to set their goals enhances self-regulation. In an investigation into Iranian EFL learners' goal-orientated and self-

regulated learning and their language proficiency, Dehghan (2005) demonstrates that there is a positive relationship between students' goal-oriented and self-regulated learning and their language proficiency. Therefore, those language learners who focus on learning a foreign language, choose challenging tasks and are concerned with their own progress are more successful in learning a foreign language.

The second phase, the performance or volitional control, refers to processes that occur during learning and help students to focus on task and optimize their performance. Examples of these processes include attention focusing processes, imagery and self-monitoring. Self-monitoring, pivotal to SRL, refers to systematically monitoring ones' own performance. Research has revealed that students who monitor their own understanding during the learning process achieve a better outcome. Self-monitoring helps students focus their attention on the task and discriminate between effective and ineffective performance. Students can also use imagery to help them to encode information on a memory task and to visualize the implementation of a strategy (Zimmerman& Paulson, 1995).

The self-reflection phase, which is the third stage in this model, occurs after performance and learners start responding to their efforts through self judgment processes. The individuals compare the information gathered about their performance with a standard or goal. They make a judgment about whether their failure is due to their inability or inadequate effort.

Similarly, Pintrich's model of self-regulated learning (2000) attempts to clarify and analyze the different processes which play a role in self-regulated learning. In this model, regulatory processes are organized based on four phases: planning, self-monitoring, control and evaluation.

individuals who have learned to plan, control, and evaluate their cognitive, motivational, behavioral, and contextual processes. Much empirical evidence has demonstrated that the characteristics attributed to self-regulated learners coincide with those attributed to the learners who are academically high achievers. Therefore, it seems essential that teachers be aware of self-regulated learning strategies and processes to help their students to be autonomous and independent learners. To this end, the present study attempted to shed some light on the concept of self-regulated learning (SRL), attributes associated with self-regulated learners, ways to promote SRL strategies in the classroom as well as its possible pedagogical implications in an EFL context.

Key Words: self-regulated learning, goal setting, self-efficacy, self-monitoring, self-evaluation.

Introduction

Since the introduction of the concept of 'learner strategy' in educational psychology, many attempts have been made to define the notion of learning strategy in order to shed some light on its conceptual ambiguity. However, the 'clearing away' never happened and educational psychologists in the 1990s simply dropped the term 'strategy' which seemed to cause most of the confusion and focused on what was seen as the essence of strategic learning; that is, the learner's conscious and proactive contribution to development of his/her own learning process. The new term introduced to cover this learner-specific perspective was "self-regulation" (Dornyei & Skehan, 2003). Self-regulation is a more versatile concept than 'learning strategy' highlighting the learners' own strategic effort to manage their own achievement through specific beliefs and processes (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997, p. 105). Recently, the second or foreign language field has come to recognize such a transition in the psychological literature and L2 research on the concept of self-regulated learning (SRL) in EFL/ESL context is still in its infancy. Due to widely advocated view of 'independent learning' in EFL/ ESL pedagogy and the fact that the objective of SRL programs is to help learners to assume greater control over their own learning to become independent learners, it seems crucial to introduce the principles of SRL to language teachers. To accomplish this aim, the present article attempts to give account of two frequently addressed models of SRL processes, self-regulated learners' attributes, ways to foster SRL strategies and processes in classrooms as well as some pedagogical implications for EFL teachers.

A definition of self-regulated learning (SRL)

Over the past few decades, a great deal of research has focused on self-regulated learning (SRL) from the constructive, socio-cognitive, developmental, and instructional perspectives. The most commonly referred to models of self-regulation in the literature are the socio-cognitive models proposed by Barry, J. Zimmerman (1989) and Paul, R. Pintrich (2000). A brief review of each model and its subcategories appear below:

Zimmerman (1989) defines academic self-regulation as "self-regulated thoughts, feelings and behaviors intended to obtain specific educational goals, such as analyzing a reading assignment, preparing to take a test or writing a paper." Self-regulated learners are individuals whose "view of academic learning is something they do for themselves rather than something that is done to/ for them. Accordingly, they are motivationally, meta cognitively and behaviorally

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Self-regulated Learning; Perspectives for EFL Teachers

چکیده

با گذر از رفتارگرایی به شناخت گرایی در روان‌شناسی آموزشی، نقش دانش‌آموزان در روند یادگیری فزونی می‌یابد. از دیدگاه شناخت گرایی، دانش‌آموزان دریافت کننده‌ی منفعل اطلاعات درنظر گرفته نمی‌شوند، بلکه فعالانه در امر یادگیری خود شرکت دارند. به چنین دانش‌آموزانی که در فرایند یادگیری به صورت «خودگردان»[1] و مسؤولیت‌پذیر عمل می‌کنند، دانش‌آموزان «خودتنظیم»[2] اطلاق می‌شوند. این دانش‌آموزان از توانایی برنامه‌ریزی، کنترل و سنجش مراحل شناختی، انگیزشی، رفتاری و محتوایی[3] برخوردارند. شواهد تجربی نشان می‌دهند که این دسته از دانش‌آموزان، مشخصه‌های دانش‌آموز موفق را دارند. لازم به ذکر است که نتیجه‌ی تحقیقات در محیط‌های آموزشی زبان خارجی نشان داده است، یادگیری خودتنظیمی در ارتقای بسندگی زبان خارجی نقش به‌سزایی ایفا می‌کند و باعث افزایش انگیزه در دانش‌آموزان می‌شود. لذا معلمان با به کارگیری راهبردهای یادگیری خودتنظیمی، از قبیل آگاهی فراشناختی، مراحل «خودکنترلی»[4]، خودسنجشی، هدف‌آفرینی و خودکارامدی در کلاس‌ها می‌توانند، به‌دانش‌آموزانی که در یادگیری زبان انگلیسی کم‌تر موفق هستند، کمک نمایند تا آن‌ها نیز مانند دانش‌آموزان موفق بتوانند، نقش فعالانه‌ای در روند یادگیری ایفا کنند.

مقاله‌ی حاضر با توجه به اهمیت یادگیری خودگردان در زبان انگلیسی سعی دارد، با معرفی مفاهیم یادگیری خودتنظیمی، مشخصه‌های دانش‌آموزانی را که از این روش سود می‌برند و همچنین روش‌های ارتقای راهبردهای یادگیری خودتنظیمی را در کلاس درس که در حال حاضر مورد توجه بسیاری از محققان آموزشی است، مورد عنایت و توجه دبیران محترم قرار دهد.

کلید واژه‌ها: یادگیری خودتنظیم، هدف‌آفرینی، خودکارامدی، خودکنترلی، خودسنجشی.

Abstract

The shift from behaviorism to cognitivism in educational psychology has placed a premium on learners as active participants in their own learning process. Increasingly, learners are perceived to have more responsibility for their learning, and self-regulated learners are then defined as those

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the errors persist at the INT level, the learners do not in general slide in their efforts to master the tenses. To some extent they have developed their ability to use the English tense system. The development has mostly taken place in the use of the past tense in main and embedded clauses (Cat. 1 and 2). However, the learners are still lingering on a developmental stage.

Pedagogical Implications and Applications

To address the language learning problems assumes shifts in the mode of teaching and the factors related to it. First, it is essential that the teacher be aware of the difficulty in learning caused by the linguistic contrasts between Persian and English. Thus she will be able to teach at the point of the errors, explaining more carefully those areas where the error frequency is firm, as well as the areas where the errors are persistent at the higher levels of proficiency.

The remedial methods applied in class should take into consideration not only the amount of the practical drills of the tenses, but also the context of the tenses they occur as for example tense consistency in paragraphs. The practical drills may take place in oral and written forms. The use of embedded and indirect clauses may also be practiced orally and in writing in class by asking the learners to give descriptions of scenes, pictures, events and situations, as well as letting them summarize films they have watched, and retelling what people in them said. Film classes can be arranged entirely for this specific purpose.

Also, the teacher has to create confidence for the learners in using the various types of tenses as well as in using the various types of embedded clauses. For this purpose the learner should be encouraged to read authentic texts increasingly more, making it into a habit for her. Then, the texts are an ideal theme for discussion in class, the mode of the oral performance being the past tense.

In creating confidence for the foreign language learners the role of the correction is vital for learners acquiring the language in formal instruction. It will strengthen their linguistic security. The teacher may point out the errors to the learner individually or explain frequent errors to the class. The task of the teacher is also to make the learner realize and correct the errors she makes. There are several ways to go about it; Writing classes should be held important. They give feedback to the teacher for what the learner has been learning. Also, writing reflects the learners' proficiency very exactly as well as it reveals their linguistic weaknesses in the target language. On the other hand, emphasis in the writing classes should be put on the variety of the linguistic forms; compositions should not only comprise main clauses. The learners' habit to write long chains of main clauses put together with various conjunctions should be remolded. The redundant use of main clauses can be decreased by teaching the learner to use relative and other embedded clauses, as well as to-infinitives, gerunds, past participles, and preposition phrases.

Attaching significance to the oral and written drills and practices of complex sentence structures, the teacher should continuously get feedback for them. The fact is that the more complex the sentence structure is, the more the first language has influence on the target language. Feedback will keep the dedicated teacher aware of the learners' errors and give her ideas for tackling their learning problems.

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compositions. The occurrence of the correct tense in main clauses tense (Cat. 1) is very high. Similarly, the occurrence of the correct past tense in embedded clauses tense (Cat. 2) is rather high. Writing mainly these two types of clauses grants the learners at this level a higher percentage of correct occurrences. On the contrary, the learners at the INT level are more familiar with the different types of clauses, taking into consideration their scarce knowledge of the correct tense use. The overal figures demonstrate incontestably that the initial null hypothesis is invalid. The difficulty of Iranian EFL learners in using the English past and past perfect tenses is obvious.

Below a qualitative linguistic analysis of the errors is conducted with reference to books on the grammar of Persian (Hirmandi 1369, Boyle 1966, Windfuhr 1966) and English (Quirk et al. 1985) to identify the different types of errors on grammatical grounds, and the subsequent psycholinguistic considerations account for their source.

The difference between the errors in main clauses (Cat. 1) at the two levels is that the unsystematic errors are more outstanding at the PER-INT level, decreasing drastically at the higher level. By contrast, the interlingual and intralingual errors are not so outstanding at the lower level, and their frequency decreases very remarkably at the INT level.

In Cat. 2 the majority of errors for the PRE-INT level are interlingual. Although less frequently, there also occur intralingual errors. At the INT level, in contrast, only some interlingual, and even fewer intralingual errors occur.

The majority of the errors occurring in the use of the past perfect in embedded clauses (Cat. 3) for the PRE-INT level are interlingual. Only very few unsystematic errors occur. On the contrary, there occur both interlingual and intralingual errors, as well as very few unsystematic errors at the INT level. Moreover, there are occurrences of unmotivated use of the past perfect, which reveals their intralingual source; the learner tries to use the complex tense, which however is wrong in the context where it has been used.

The errors occurring in the use of the past tense in indirect clauses (Cat. 4) are entirely interlingual at both levels. The learners commit the frequent error to use the present tense to report indirect speech, as it is done in Persian.

Similarly, all the errors in the use of the past perfect in indirect clauses (Cat. 5) for both levels are interlingual. Again the learners fail to use the past perfect tense in reporting speech whose main verb is in the past tense.

Finally, a descriptive analysis of the use of the past and the past perfect tenses in embedded clauses within indirect clauses (Cat. 6 and 7) allows us to maintain that the use of the tenses in such clauses generally follows the pattern from L1: Partly the present tense has been used when it was the tense at the time of reporting. Partly the past tense has been used when that was the tense at the time of reporting. All the errors are typically interlingual.

To sum up, the tense use in embedded clauses within indirect speech is fully influenced by the use of the tenses in the learners' L1. For both levels, the linguistic and psycholinguistic analyses of the errors display that the influence from L1 is greatest in Cat. 6 and 7 and then in Cat. 4 and 5. This indicated that these are the most difficult types of clauses for the correct use of tenses for the Iranian EFL learners. In making estimation on the basis of the sources of errors and their predominance, it is also possible to maintain that the use of the past tense in main clauses (Cat. 1), and the use of the past and the past perfect tenses in embedded clauses (Cat. 2 and 3) are difficult for the PRE-INT level. Similarly, the use of the past perfect in embedded clauses (Cat. 3) is difficult for the INT level. On the other hand, it can be claimed on the same grounds that, although

henceforth referred to as the PRE-INT and INT levels. The study takes interest in the correlational relationship between the two groups of learners on the independent variable. On these grounds this ex post facto design has the following schematic representation: G1   T1
                                                    G2   T1

The data analysis of this correlational study will be based on statistical procedures of the empirical data, which will allow us to arrive at interpretable results on the nominal data on the tense use. First, a chi-square test (Seliger and Shohamy 1989: 236) will be run on the frequency counts of the incorrect occurrences of the tense use in categories 1-6 specified below. The chi-square test will help to display whether the differences in the obtained figures are large enough to say that they are truly different, as the raw occurrences are not comparable and interpretable as such. Category 7 will be subjected to a descriptive analysis owing too few occurrences in that category.

Second, a t-test will be run to determine that the differences found between the proficiency between the two groups are not due to chance (Brown 1988). At-observed value of 1.96 was obtained at 58 degrees of freedom, which is much lower than the critical value of t, i. e. 2. Thus, it can be concluded that there is no significan difference between the mean scores of the two groups of learners. That is, differences in their performance are not due to proficiency.

The following categories of clauses and tenses are surveyed.

Category 1. The past tense in main clauses

Category 2. The past tense in embedded clauses

Category 3. The past perfect in embedded clauses

Category 4. The past tense in indirect clauses

Category 5. The past perfect in indirect clauses

Category 6. The past tense in embedded clauses within indirect clauses

Category 7. The past perfect in embedded clauses within indirect clauses

Results and Discussion

The students at the PRE-INT level heavily rely on writing only main and the most common embedded clauses that is, categories 1 and 2. Categories 3 and 5 are difficult, but categories 4 and 6 are easy for the PRE-INT level. The figures indicate that these learners of English have learnt to use the past tense, even in embedded and indirect clauses (Cat. 4 and 6), whereas the past perfect (Cat. 3 and 5) is still difficult for them. Although the occurrence of indirect clauses is very rare, the use of the past tense is most often correct in them, which implies that one or two learners are able to use the correct tense in indirect clauses.

Categories 3, 4, 5, and 6 are difficult for the INT level, while they do not have problem using the past tense in embedded clauses (Cat. 2). Although the correct occurrences for the past tense in embedded clauses (Cat. 2) are high, learners have problem with the correct use of the past perfect in embedded clauses (Cat. 3), which they also clearly avoid using. Similarly, difficulty in using the past tense in the indirect clauses (Cat. 4) grants them a high number of incorrect occurrences of the tense. Despite the difficulty, these learners generally make more outstanding efforts in using the more complicated modes of clauses and tenses. They are used noticeably more often at this level than at the lower level.

On the whole, Cat. 3, 4, 5 and 6 are seemingly easier for the PRE-INT level than for the INT level. The figures for the occurrences for the PRE-INT level show the fact that there are very few occurrences in these categories, but there are one or two learners who can, however, use the tenses correctly.

Finally, the PRE-INT level has a considerably higher percentage of the total occurrences of the correct tense use than the INT level. The reason is that the learners at the PRE-INT level rely on writing only main clauses and ordinary embedded clauses with the past tense (Cat. 1 and 2) in their
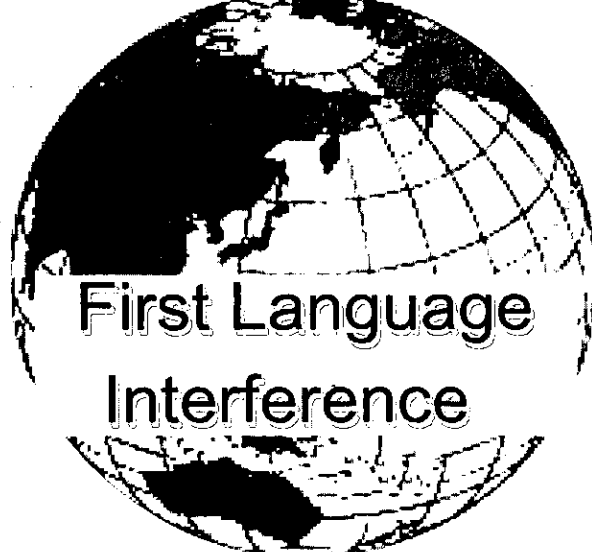
First Language Interference

phases; define the subject groups, administer the selected tests and the writing task. The subjects of the study are selected from among the 90 students who take the Nelson English Test and fill in a questionnaire after writing a composition. The criteria for selection are partly the scores in the English grammar test and partly the answers in the questionnaire. As the scores of the grammar test range from 14 to 45 on a scale from 1 to 50, a more homogeneous range of scores is considered appropriate for the purposes of the survey: The learners with very low and very high scores are excluded so that the learners who score between 26 and 45 are discriminated from the rest for the linguistic survey. The mean scores of the 30 subjects of the pre-intermediate and intermediate levels of the study are 33.9 and 32.0, respectively. Consequently, two homogeneous groups of subjects at two levels of proficiency, whose performance in writing forms a representative source of data, are obtained.

Nelson English Test starts the survey. All 90 learners take the test: 45 learners take the test 150C, and the other 45 learners respond to the test 250C. The tests are administered without previous notice. They are taken in the course of the learners' ordinary English lessons. The learners have 45 minutes to answer the 50 multiple-choice questions of the tests. The time is determined suitable as they hand in their answer sheets before the time is over.

The composition writing takes place 20 days after the English grammar tests. Again all the 90 students of Law participate. They all write on the same topic, *Last Year I Traveled to Mashhad together with My Friend/Family.* The narrative form of writing is their common genre. The subjects are given clear instructions on the writing task. A sheet or written instructions is given to each learner. The instructions are read and explained to the class before the composition writing. The role of the instructions is vital for a good elicitation of the types of sentences that the study focuses on. It is emphasized that the students write about a real journey. Those students who have never visited Mashhad are alternatively asked to write about a real trip to any other place. The composition writing assignment is arranged in the course of the learners' ordinary English lessons without prior announcement. They have 80 minutes time to perform the task. The time is determined appropriate as they neither ask for more time for the task nor linger on longer than the time allotted.

Design and data analysis

The study has an ex post facto design. It does not include any experimental treatment of either of the subject groups. (Hatch and Farhady 1981: 26) It purports to define the type and degree of relationship between the independent variable, i. e. the learners' performance, and the dependent variables, i.e. the two levels of proficiency,

employed to determine the sources of errors. The methodology will identify L1-related and L2-related features in the learners' errors. It will also specify unsystematic errors in accordance with Jain (1974). Major manual work is to extract the difficult structures and display them in the context. The contextualization is essential for the objective of disambiguation in order to establish the sources of errors.

A pilot study precedes the main study. It is carried out in order to obtain tentative results, indicative of the problem areas in the main study. The pilot study is conducted on two sample groups from each level, both involving 13 learners, totally 26. The pilot study is part of the main study.

Subjects

The subjects of the study are female students of Law, studying at Imam Sadiq(p.) University, Girls' College, Tehran, for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. Two groups of subjects are selected, one at the pre-intermediate and another at the intermediate level of proficiency in English. Nelson English Test is used as a placement test to establish the groups at these levels. The two subject groups of the study have 30 learners each, totally 60 subjects.

By the time of the survey the subjects of the two levels will be taking part in an extended program of English along their major; the former will have accomplished one full semester, the latter five full semesters. The language study is based on the Headway series of books. Both groups are taught and instructed in English by very much the same method in the classroom. Both had had the same English teacher during their first semesters, and the intermediate level had continued studying the language by the same method employed in their book.

The two subject groups are homogeneous. There are fully controlled variables, such as the subjects' major, age, sex and linguistic background as well as the formal form of instruction. Others are considered as relatively controlled; the subjects' motivation for English studies, which is generally very high, and also the criteria of enrolment and the amount of language practices engaged in.

Instrumentation

Three types of instruments are used in the study. First, Nelson English Test 150C and 250C are employed. They consist of 50 multiple-choice questions on English grammar each. The tests are administered in order to define the levels and to discriminate among the subjects. Test 150C is given to 45 learners of English at the pre-intermediate level, and test 250C to another 45 learners at the intermediate level. Totally 90 Iranian EFL learners, majoring in Law, take part in the grammar test. Two groups of 13 subjects are selected from them for the pilot study.

Second, the collection of the data for the study is performed as an assignment to the same group of 90 students of Law to write a free composition in English. The topic for it is Last Year I Traveled to Mashhad together with My Friend/Family. The topic is easy for all the learners in the sense that as Mashhad is the most famous city of pilgrimage in Iran, families and school groups travel there frequently. Therefore, most students have visited the place and have real travel experiences to write about.

Third, the subjects fill in a questionnaire directly after handing in their writing tasks. It asks the learners to give information about their linguistic background, language studies and the language of everyday communication. Moreover, they evaluate the degree of difficulty and interest of the writing assignment.

Procedure

The procedure of this study comprises three

developmental, errors (Odlin 1989:33). Dulay and Burt find convincing evidence for universal congnitive mechanisms in cases where language is learnt naturally in the target language environment. (Dulay and Burt 1974:52).

As a remedy for the inefficiencies of CA, error analysis is employed to look more profoundly at errors and the specifics of the language learning process. It is able to account for cross-linguistic influences. (Richards 1971 a and b).

Previous analyses of the acquisition problems of the Iranian learners of English in the L1 environment have described the problems taxonomically or observed their existence in the learners' written production in classrooms relating it to different levels of proficiency. Major Iranian contributions to the taxonomy of learners' errors have been made by Keshavarz (1999) and Fallahi (1991). An analysis of the fourth grade students' errors in writing has been carried out by Abdolshahi Rad (1993). Another study of the impact of language proficiency on adjacency condition detection among Iranian EFL learners has been conducted by Haghighi Irani (2002). A survey of the relationship between general English proficiency and the EFL students' errors in writing, carried out by Rowshan Zamir (1995) and a survey by Yamini (2000) of lexical cohesion in written texts with a focus on its effect on reading comprehension for foreign language learners are other examples of EFL studies.

The present study is a cross-sectional analysis of errors made by Iranian EFL learners. It focuses on the use of the English past tense in main, embedded and indirect clauses in free writing, as well as the past perfect in embedded and indirect clauses. The study describes the acquired language behavior of two groups of learners of English at the pre-intermediate and intermediate levels of proficiency. It offers the possibility to correlate the learners' performance at the two levels. The subjects receive formal instruction, which

expectedly enhances an early start of tense use in learning the new language in L1 environment. (Yang and Huang 2004)

The study allows us to draw conclusions about the problems of learning the grammatical feature submitted to scrutiny. It also enables to determine whether the errors are outstanding for the Iranian EFL learners.

The objective of the study is, first, to find out how Iranian learners of English perform in using the past and the past perfect tenses. This is first done by way of a statistical analysis, which elaborates on the scope of the difficulty in using the tenses. Secondly, the linguistic analysis carried out on the written data illuminates the grammatical aspect of the learners' difficulty. Thirdly, the study scrutinizes the sources of the errors, defining them in light of a psycholinguistic analysis. Finally, on the basis of the results the study gives pedagogical directives and implications for thoroughness in teaching.

The main impetus for the study is to respond analytically to the following research question on the basis of the empirical data. How do the learners perform in using the past and the past perfect tenses in free writing? Initially, a null hypothesis is formulated for the study to the effect that there is no difficulty for the Iranian EFL learners in using the tenses. The results of the correlative analysis enable us to determine if certain clause structures are problematic for the subjects.

Method

By way of systematic observation of frequent errors in the use of the English past tenses the study looks for some linguistic features that may be interfering the correct tense use. To reach the objective, it is necessary to combine a quantitative and a qualitative approach, comparing the statistical frequencies and the errors subjected to a linguistic analysis to identify the type of errors. A non-contrastive psycholinguistic analysis is

response patterns. Learning problems and errors in performance are due to poverty of stimulus. By contrast, Universal Grammar (UG) theory stipulates that the speaker of any language inherently knows a set of principles that apply to all languages; learning is a cognitive process, which comprises learning, in the first place, of the values of parameters that differ in particular languages. Facilitating L2 learning UG sets the boundaries of what a learner need not acquire, as UG is what the learner already knows about L2 in advance of exposure to it. (Thomas 2004:8) Consequently, learning difficulties and errors occur when the learner is not able to acquire the new settings of the parameters in the target language. (Chomsky 1980:134)

Inferable from this is the fact that when the learner is incapable of acquiring the new settings of the parameters she draws on the settings of her mother tongue. Then transfer from the first language occurs. It is shown as negative transfer in her learner language, the socalled interlanguage, introduced by Selinker (1972). These types of errors are classified as interligual due to native language influence.

Differences between language systems were considered to be the ground for learners' difficulties. Contrastive Analysis (CA) first predicted these in the 1950s and 1960s. However, the predictive power of CA was challenged as empirical research in the 1970s showed that learning difficulties were not attributable to the differences between the L1 and L2 grammars. Researchers observed that the learning problems did not always arise from cross-linguistic differences, and that the problems that did arise were not fully predicted by CA (Brown 1994:206).

Many studies even revealed that the majority of errors the learners used to make reflected the influence of the target/second language rather than the influence of the first language, i.e. the errors are of the type that monolingual children make when acquiring their mother tongue (McLaughlin 1987:67). Such errors are indicators of developmental processes found in both first and second language acquisition. They show that all language acquisition proceed largely in terms of developmental mechanisms. These errors are intralingual. They are language independent and totally out of the reach of CA. Moreover, a third type of errors is what Jain (1974) calssifies as unsystematic. They are caused by physiological factors such as performance errors.

Littlewood (1984:27) and Ellis (1985:40) point out that the researchers can not yet clearly tell to how great an extent each error arises due to cross-linguistic influence. Observations of the nature of language acquisition for learners with different native languages show that for example omitting an article in English may be a case of simplification, which is intralingual by nature, with Spanish, but a case of transfer, an interlingual error, with Finnish or Russian learners. Here the former native language has the system of articles, while the latter languages do not. Subsequently, in errors such as the omission of articles, the influence of simplification and interference, i.e. the intralingual and interlingual influences, converge. (Ringbom p.740) On these grounds one could expect that when the cross-linguistic influences are at work, the researcher would find different performances from learners speaking different languages. The fact is, however, that the occurrence of errors in learning language is not at all as varying as all that.

Language learning environment itself is yet another factor. Students in elementary and less advanced classes in the L2 environment as well as students learning the new language in class through formal instruction in the L1 environment make more errors of the interlingual type due to interference from their native tongue. By contrast, the students of more advanced level in an L2 environment make more intralingual, i.e.

به‌هرحال در گروه متوسط، تزاحم زبان مادری در استفاده از زمان گذشته در جمله‌های پایه و پیرو نقش کم‌تری دارد و به‌نظر می‌آید که این گروه در تلاششان برای تسلط بر این بخش، طبق سیستم انگلیسی پیش می‌روند.

علاوه بر خطاهایی که به دلیل تأثیرپذیری از زبان مادری ایجاد می‌شوند، خطاهای درون زبانی و غیر سیستماتیک نیز به چشم می‌خورند. سهم این‌گونه خطاها به طور کلی کم‌تر است، اما در جمله‌های پایه در سطح پیش متوسط خطاهای غیرسیستماتیک خصوصاً قابل توجه هستند. در نهایت، توجه خاصی به فرایندها و شیوه‌های تدوین زمان‌ها به این زبان‌آموزان صورت گرفته و راه‌حل‌هایی برای حل مشکل فراگیری زبان ارائه شده است.

کلید واژه‌ها: فراگیری زبان خارجی، تزاحم زبان مادری، میان زبانی، درون زبانی، خطا، جمله‌ی پایه، جمله‌ی پیرو، جمله غیر مستقیم.

Abstract

The present survey focuses upon how Iranian learners use the past tense in main, embedded and indirect clauses. The past perfect in embedded and indirect clauses is also investigated to give more insight into the issue. The study is carried out on data from free compositions written by two groups of university students at the pre-intermediate and intermediate levels of proficiency in English, respectively. A null hypothesis to the effect that there is no difficulty for the Iranian EFL learners in using the English tenses is formulated for the study. The results from the statistical chi-square analysis run on the empirical data contradict the initial hypothesis.

As the second stage, a linguistic analysis identifies the tenses the learners fail to use. A more qualitative psycholinguistic analysis of the errors reveals three types of errors, i.e. interlingual, intralingual and unsystematic errors. The analysis shows strong evidence of influence from the first language. A contrastive analysis is conducted on the errors termed as interlingual in order to ascertain their source. It is concluded that interference from L1 is greatest in indirect clauses, notwithstanding the tense required. The observation holds for both levels.

More specific for the pre-intermediate level is the noticeable difficulty caused by L1 interference in the use of the past tense in main clauses, as well as the past and the past perfect tenses in embedded clauses. Similar difficulty is evidenced in the use of the past perfect tense in embedded clauses for the intermediate level.

In contrast, comparatively less L1 interference is observed in the use of the past tense in main and embedded clauses for the intermediate level, which seems to be progressing in its efforts to master this area of the English tense system. Besides the errors due to influence from L1, even intralingual and unsystematic errors emerge. Their share in the errors is less outstanding, in general but remarkable in main clauses for the pre-intermediate level, in particular the unsystematic ones.

Finally, special attention is paid to the procedures and techniques of teaching the past tenses to Iranian EFL learners by presenting ways to tackle the learning difficulty.

Key Words: foreign language learning, first language interference, interlingual, intralingual, error, main clause, embedded clause, indirect clause.

Introduction

From among methodologies believed to promote language acquisition Jordan (2004:125,169) presents two theories of language acquisition from the 20th century as eminent, though in methodological contrast to each other; according to the behaviorist view, language competence is acquired through learning stimulus-

A Cross - sectional Study of Composition Errors Committed by Iranian EFL Learners

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چکیده

تحقیق حاضر به استفاده‌ی زبان‌آموزان ایرانی از زمان گذشته در جمله‌های پایه و پیرو و غیر مستقیم می‌پردازد و زمان گذشته‌ی کامل را نیز در جمله‌های پیرو و غیرمستقیم مورد بررسی قرار می‌دهد. این تحقیق و بررسی بر اساس اطلاعات به‌دست‌آمده از نوشته‌های دو گروه از دانشجویان سطوح پیش متوسط و متوسط زبان انگلیسی انجام شده است. بر اساس فرضیه‌ی صفر، زبان‌آموزان ایرانی در استفاده از زمان‌های انگلیسی مشکلی ندارند، اما نتایج تجزیه و تحلیل آماری x^2 و اطلاعاتی که بر اساس تجربه و مشاهده به‌دست آمده است، با فرضیه‌ی فوق مغایرت دارد. سپس با بررسی دستور زبانی، زمان‌هایی را مشخص می‌کند که زبان‌آموزان در استفاده از آن‌ها با اشکال مواجه‌اند. تجزیه و تحلیل روان زبانی کیفی‌تر خطاها، سه‌نوع خطا را نشان می‌دهد: خطاهای میان زبانی، درون زبانی و غیرسیستماتیک. بررسی‌ها بیانگر تأثیر زبان مادری بر زبان دوم است. به منظور معین کردن منبع خطاها روی خطاهای درون زبانی بررسی مقابله‌ای صورت گرفت و این نتیجه به دست آمد که تزاحم زبان مادری بیش‌تر در جملات غیرمستقیم (بدون توجه به زمان) صورت می‌گیرد. این یافته در مورد هر دو گروه صدق می‌کند. به‌خصوص در سطح پیش متوسط، مشکل قابل توجهی در استفاده از زمان گذشته در جمله‌های پایه، زمان گذشته و گذشته‌ی کامل در جمله‌های پیرو به چشم می‌خورد که به دلیل مزاحمت زبان مادری ایجاد شده است. مشکل مشابهی نیز در مورد استفاده از زمان گذشته کامل در جمله‌های پیرو در گروه پیش متوسط دیده می‌شود.

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This research like the pervious researches on the effect of computer on language learning proved that CALL has a significant impact on the teaching paragraph writing. Therefore, it is recommended to all language teachers to use the computer technology for better teaching. As Davidson et al. (1994) view:

"... A computer lab can invigorate teaching practices, inspire creative assignments development, and even bring inveterate computer-resisters into the community of enlightened practitioners of the new technology."

In this regard, it becomes clear that the use of computer as one important teaching tool facilitates the teaching languages in all stages (primary school, high school and universities), also for all ages (children and adults). Today, there are many CALL softwares and programs at hand, and most of them are applicable on the personal computers (PCs) and they can be presented easily on all conditions and situations. Teachers with some instructions about CALL will simply manage and teach the classes which are accompanied by Computer Assisted Language Learning. Therefore, it is recommended to all language teachers to use he computer technology for better teaching.

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are presented in table (2)

Table 2

T-test of the two groups' performance on the writing test at the pre-test stage.

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance	t-observed
Experimental	37.04167	8.059178	64.95035	0.14852
Control	37.45	12.72095	161.8225	
P-value=0.05,	n=30,	df=58,	t-critical=2.000	

According to table 2, there was no significant differences between the experimental and control groups in their writing ability before the instruction.

It should be said that, although the researchers selected the necessary groups from the undergraduate students existing at Islamic Azad University of Garmsar, there appeared no significant differences between the two groups prior to the instruction.

After the instruction, the next step for the researchers to undertake was to determine if any significant change appeared between the experimental and control groups regarding the subjects' writing ability after receiving the instruction. To do so, it was decided to compare the results of the performances of the experimental group with those of the control group on the writing test at the post-test stage. The statistical technique of t-test was applied for achieving this purpose. The results are given in the table (3):

Table 3

T-test of the two groups' performance on the writing test at the pre-test stage.

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance	t-observed
Experimental	82.58	8.451413	71.42632	7.654069
Control	57.61	15.7407	247.7697	
P-value=0.05,	n=30,	df=58,	t-critical=2.000	

As Table 3 demonstrates, a significant

difference appeared between the experimental and control groups after receiving the training (t-observed > t-critical). The experimental group surpassed the control group. This means that the subjects in the experimental group benefited significantly from the instruction in teaching paragraph writing with computer, and hence this made of training was significantly more beneficial than the traditional way for teaching paragraph writing.

To assure and determine if any significant change appeared in writing ability of our groups of subjects, in general, and the experimental group in particular, after receiving the treatment, the results of the performance of each group at the pre-test stage was compared with the results of its performance at the post-test stage applying matched t-test. Table (4) presents the results:

Table 4

Matched t-test for comparing each groups' performance at the pre-test, and post-test stage.

Group	Mean		Standard Deviation	
	t1	t2	t1	t2
Experimental	37	82.58	8.1	8.4
Control	37	57.61	.13	15
P-value=0.05,	n=30,	df=58,	t-critical=2.000	

As table 4 shows, the means of experimental and control groups at the pre-test stage (t1) were close together but at the post-test stage (t2) the experimental group improved significantly in the writing ability after receiving training on the computer.

Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

The conclusion of this research emphasizes the facilitating role of CALL on language learning.

paragraphs, with transitions and linking sentences. Again, students moved from a subjective response ('I took this note because I found it interesting') to a more reader-based response, where the considerations were different ('What will a reader understand about these notes?'. How can they make sense according to the point I want to make?'). At the same time, they increased their word-processing revision skills.

The fourth assignment asked students to use the computer to organize their notes in a table. (Students used the table's column to organize the following information: source; page number; note; purpose of the note. This assignment asked them to think about their work rhetorically and consider how research can help in writing a paper. Students saw how the computer could help them write outlines in greater detail than they had before. Again, they discovered the rhetorical value of a word-processing skill.

The sixth assignment asked the students to write two introductions in two separate files, each one serving a different rhetorical function. The students shared the introductions with their peers on the LAN, getting immediate feedback which then went into the text. Finally, the strongest elements of both texts were merged on the screen. Students increased the sophistications of their revision skills at a point in the semester where they were more comfortable with the revision process and had spent time writing drafts.

For the seventh assignment, students wrote a list of references, using a model which they could call upon a previously copied file. Using the switch function, students could move back and forth between their own list and the model list. This kind of modeling was introduced toward the end of the sequence. The final assignment using the computer was the paper itself. In this last step, students were introduced to the ways in which the computer could help them improve the

presentation and the academic 'look' of their work: formatting and spell-checking. These tasks were presented in a way which encouraged them to think about the academic community and its standards, and the audience which is the ultimate 'reader' of their prose.

All the groups were post-tested on the first day after the instruction had been completed. The post-test had exactly the same format as the pre-test. The results provided for the pre-test and post-test of experimental group and the control group are presented in the next part.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

To assure that there was no significant difference between the experimental and control groups' language proficiency, before the instruction, all the subjects were tested through the Michigan test of English language proficiency. Then the performances of the experimental and control groups, on this test, were compared with using the statistical technique of t-test.

Table 1
*T-test of the two groups' performance on the Michigan test*

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance	t-observed
Experimental	28.33333	9.967726	99.35556	0.252051
Control	29.03333	11.49053	132.0322	
P-value=0.05,	n=30,	df=58,	t-critical=2.000	

A careful study of table 1 reveals that there was no significant difference between the Experimental and Control groups regarding their language proficiency prior to the experiment.

After the proficiency test, all the subjects were pre-tested through the writing test, for examining their writing ability.

And also the results of the comparison of the performances on the writing test (applying t-test)
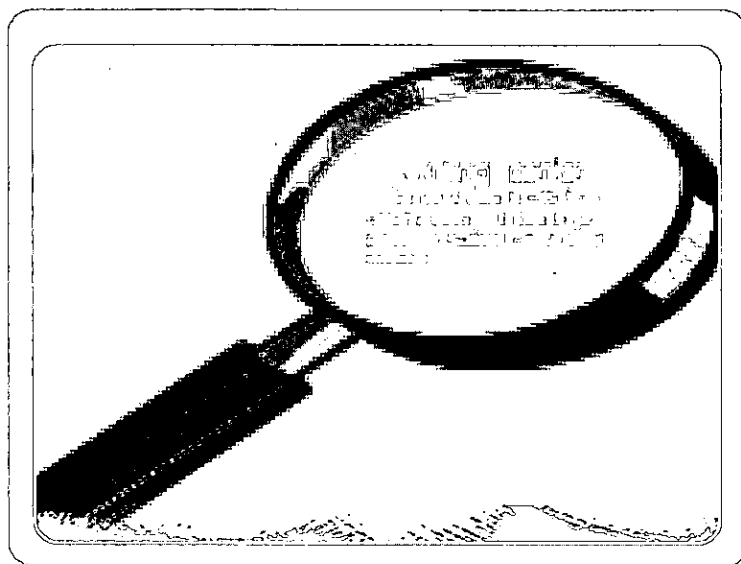
study, one testing instrument for gathering the data needed for answering the questions of the study and two others for controlling some variables which might affect the reliability and validity of the study. The first testing instrument was Michigan Language Test. This test aimed at controlling the proficiency level of the subjects.

The second and third testing instruments of the study were a composition topic and also one picture for writing composition.

Procedure

Linda Flower (1979) has pointed out that writing development should move from producing 'writer-based' to 'reader-based' prose. The traditional structure of writing classes recognizes this, moving from a 'subjective' approach where students write from their own experience, to one where they enter into dialogue with texts, and approach sources critically to write their arguments. Computer skills can also follow this progression.

The first lesson of this study allowed students to pace themselves depending on how much experience they already had in the lab. It asked for an assignment which is 'writer-based', so that students who have never used a computer before could see it as a tool for self-expression before they worry about how computers can help shape or revise their texts in relation to academic audiences. The first assignment asked students to answer a series of questions about their research topic, designed to get them to think about why they were interested in the topic and how research can help them understand it. This was a subjective activity, a kind of journal-writing. They encouraged to write without concern for correct spelling or grammar, and to express themselves directly on the screen.

The second assignment demanded a more difficult computer-based task and asked for feedback and revision; so that students could begin to see the ways in which computers can help them revise. The class wrote research questions which were given to the instructor for comment and reworked. Students moved away form a purely subjective response to their topic to one where they began to consider the question of audience at the same time that they learned how to use the computer to revise.

The third assignment involved writing a synthesis. Students brought in handwritten notes and put them into the computer. They used the block and copy function keys to creat two coherent

Finland, these classes became much more learner-centered, with learners' time and effort devoted to authentic reading and writing tasks related to the authentic communication with partners in England. Warschauer (1997) looked at the use of e-mail between a teacher and her students in a graduate ESL writing class; he found that e-mail was a powerful medium for apprenticeship learning, with the teacher able to provide students with detailed and rapid feedback on the immediate problems and questions that they had. In another study Wang (1993) compared dialogue journals written with paper and pencil (by one group of ESL students) and transmitted over e-mail (by a second group). She found that the e-mail group communicated more frequently, asked more questions, responded to more questions, and used a greater variety of language functions than did the paper-and-pencil group.

The most recent medium of computer-mediated communication used in the second language classroom is the World Wide Web (Hewer & Davies, 2005). Part library, part publishing house, part telephone, part interactive television, the Web represents one of the most diverse and revolutionary media in human history. It is already starting to transform academia, business, and entertainment; there seems little doubt that it will eventually have a profound impact on education as well.

The World Wide Web can be used in a myriad of ways for language teaching. (Felix, 2001, 2003; Gitsaki & Taylor, 2000; Windeatt et al., 2000; LeLoup J. & Ponterio R., 2003) Published accounts have discussed the use of the Web for providing linguistic exercises (e.g., Li, 1995), for accessing authentic reading materials (e.g., Lixl-Purcell, 1995), for stimulating communicative exercises such as student discussion of trips or vacations (Rosen, 1995), and for a medium of student publishing (Bowers, 1995). Because of the

relative newness of the Web, as well as the difficulty in investigating use of such a broad and complex medium, relatively little research has been conducted. An exception is an ethnographic study by Warschauer (1997), who examined the uses of the Web by four language and writing classes over the course of two years. Students in all four classes published their writings and multimedia documents on the World Wide Web. The study found that the impact of the Web-based work rested in large part on the social and cultural relevance of the writing assignments.

Research question

This research attempted to highlight the role of computer in improving the quality of students' paragraph writing and aims at answering the following question:

"What is the effect of computer in the quality of students' paragraph writing?"

Based on the above question, the following null hypothesis was developed.
*"The use of has no significant effect on the quality of students' paragraph writing."*

METHOD

Subjects

There were 60 students at the Islamic Azad University of Garmsar Branch were in their fourth semester and some were in their fifth semester. After taking the Michigan English Language Test, they were randomly divided into two groups of 30.

Instrumentation

Three testing instruments were used in this
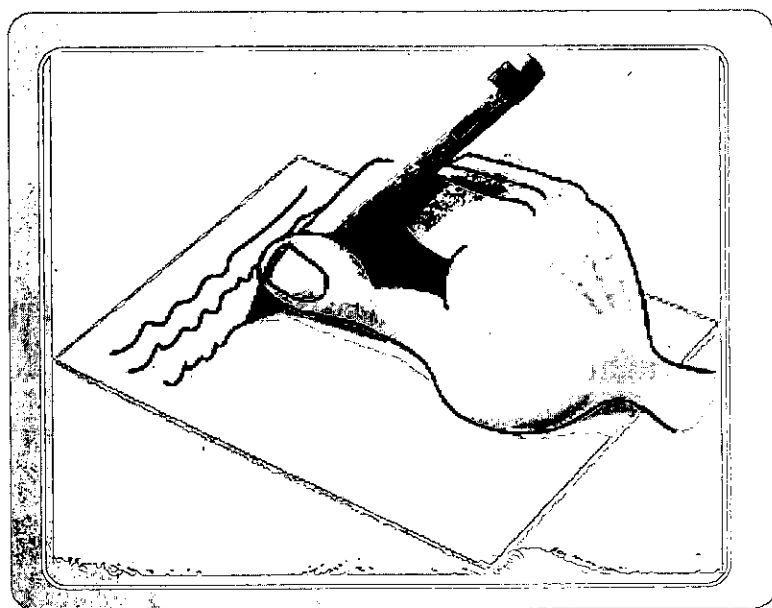
interacted (Dickinson, 1986). An ethnographic study that described a high school classroom (Herrmann, 1986) found a similar result. A variety of types of peer collaborations developed, having various kinds of influence on writing and revision; but not all students learned to collaborate successfully. The success the students had in revising their work appeared to depend, in part, on their ability to form effective collaborative relationships.

The literature suggests that the effects of peer comments on revision is not a simple cause and effect matter, but rather a complex one, dependent upon the interrelationship of multiple factors within the evolving social environment. While some of the students studied appeared to benefit from the comments of their peers, not all students in all classrooms did. Some students were unable, unwilling, or even ill-advised to follow peer reactions in revising what they had written. While there may be no one-to-one relationship between peer comments and revision, these studies, particularly the qualitative ones, suggest a range of real and potential benefits for students participating in an effective community of responsive peers.

In another study, Lewis (1997) recommends that composition for beginning learners should be a guided activity so students do not become frustrated. Writing paragraphs in a language that is still somewhat unfamiliar to students can be difficult. When using a computer, however, the use of graphics can make this much more enjoyable. Using clip art can also help students to convey their thoughts more clearly.

Mireia Trenchs (1996) performed a case study of three students learning Spanish as their second language. She discovered that using electronic mail as a supplement to the classroom curriculum can be effective. The major benefit of using e-mail as a language learning activity is the fact that students are using meaningful language and authentic text. (Turkic, 1998)

Researching the uses of e-mail in the language classroom is complicated by the fact that much of the communication takes place outside class hours and in uncontrolled conditions (Meskil, 2005; Lankshear & Snyder, 2000). At least two ethnographic studies have attempted to describe the processes and results of using e-mail over the period of a semester. Tella (1992) followed several Finnish high school classes as they carried out an exchange with classrooms in England. He found that, compared to the ordinary English classes in

Research on writing has traditionally explored how students felt about and performed with word-processors. Daiute's (1985) Writing and Computers, while not empirical research, set the stage for much of what teachers did with writing in the classroom, in the language arts as well as in foreign language teaching. Studies by Neu and Scarcella (1991) and Phinney (1991) found that students had positive attitudes toward writing with computers and less apprehension about writing, respectively. Thaipakdee (1992) found better attitudes toward writing and computers corresponded with better writing.

Researchers concerned with student writing outcomes have determined that writing performance is superior when the teaching approach emphasizes "writing as a process", rather than focusing only on the end product - the finished composition. The writing-as-a-process approach encourages students to engage in prewriting activities, followed by drafting, revising, editing, and final publication, with each step receiving considerable attention and often feedback from teachers or peer editors.

Word processing programs, with their capability to add, delete, and rearrange text, are seen as being far more congruent with the writing process than more laborious pencil-and-paper approaches. And indeed, most research in this area indicates that the use of word processors in writing programs leads to better writing outcomes than the use of paper-and-pencil or conventional typewriters. (Rendall & Davies, 2005)

Researchers are careful to point out that these improvements are obtained when computers are used as part of a holistic, writing-as-a-process approach. Only using computers for drill and practice on isolated sub-skills, such as grammar and mechanics, is not associated with improved writing achievement. As expressed by Sommers

and Collins (1984) in their article on computers and writing, "microcomputers are counterproductive when used in a theoretical vacuum" (p. 7).

According to Lewis (1997), grammar skills can also be demonstrated and reinforced using computers. The teacher can direct students to somehow highlight a specific part of speech (e.g. nouns) throughout their writing. To highlight, students have a lot of choices, such as underlining, italicizing, or changing the font size, color or type. Using a computer as a medium for studying grammar is much more motivating for a student as opposed to writing with a pencil. (Ybarra & Green 2003)

There are two useful articles that discuss in detail the effectiveness of grammar and style checkers. The first describes an experiment with students of English as a Foreign Language conducted by Yu Hong Wei at Thames Valley University. This article is available on the Web: "Do grammar checkers work?" (Yu Hong Wei & Davies, 1997). The second describes an experiment conducted by Jacobs & Rodgers (1999) with university level students of French. Both articles come to similar conclusions: that grammar checkers do have some value for learners of foreign languages but students must be made aware of their shortcomings and to treat every piece of advice with caution.

Preliminary evidence suggests that the nature of peer collaboration and feedback in classrooms where computers are used to teach writing differs from that in regular writing classrooms. Under certain conditions, computers as writing tools appear to promote a collaborative environment, both in learning to write and in learning to use the technology (Herrmann, 1986).

In a classroom of first and second grade children, the computer created a whole new social organization that affected the way the children

Abstract

The present study investigated the effect of CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) on the quality of students' paragraph writing. To do so, a pre-test/ post-test design was devised. Right after taking the pre-test, 30 students out of 60 subjects were randomly selected to form the experimental group and the rest of them formed the control group. One instructor taught paragraph writing to both groups using CALL and traditional way. The two groups were post-tested after the instruction and the results of study showed that there was a statistically significant difference at the level of $p<0.05$ between the two groups. Therefore, it was concluded that "computer can improve the quality of students' writing skill."

Key Words: computer, CALL, teaching, paragraph writing.

Introduction

In recent years, great strides have been made in the development of micro-electronic technology, in general, and the microcomputer, in particular, leading to personal computers which are capable of running large and sophisticated pieces of software. This so-called micro revolution has put computing facilities at the disposal of a greater public, resulting in the spread of computer technology to schools and homes, with greater emphasis being put on information technology by politicians and educationalists alike. Therefore more people have become involve in the use and development of software, including members of language teaching profession.

But still there is some ignorance to the nature of computer technology and its potential as an educational aid. The contact of teachers with computers in their ordinary lives does not seem to hold out great promise for their use in language teaching. Some teachers may justifiably wonder how computers can fit into the kind of teaching prevalent in today's classroom, both at a practical and a theoretical level. They find it hard to reconcile the somewhat mechanical, mindless operation traditionally linked with computers, with the way language teaching has evolved over last ten to twenty years.

The microcomputer is too flexible a tool to be squeezed neatly into a niche, and is too recent for all its applications that have already been developed. Moreover, technological advances are constantly opening new doors, and language and pedagogy keep on renewing themselves. The intention, therefore, is simple to share some personal views, based on our reflections on the results of language and psycholinguistic research, and our own involvement in language software development; and to examine and assess, in light of this, a number of possible avenues.

Review of related literature

A decade ago, the use of computers in the language classroom was of concern only to a small number of specialists. However, with the advent of multimedia computing and the internet, the role of computers in language instruction has now become an important issue confronting large numbers of language teachers throughout the world.

The question of how students interact at and with the computer has been addressed in a number of studies, with Piper's (1986) one of the earliest. In her study, the type of software and the tasks teachers set for students had a large effect on the type and quality of student interaction with each other when working in pairs or small groups.
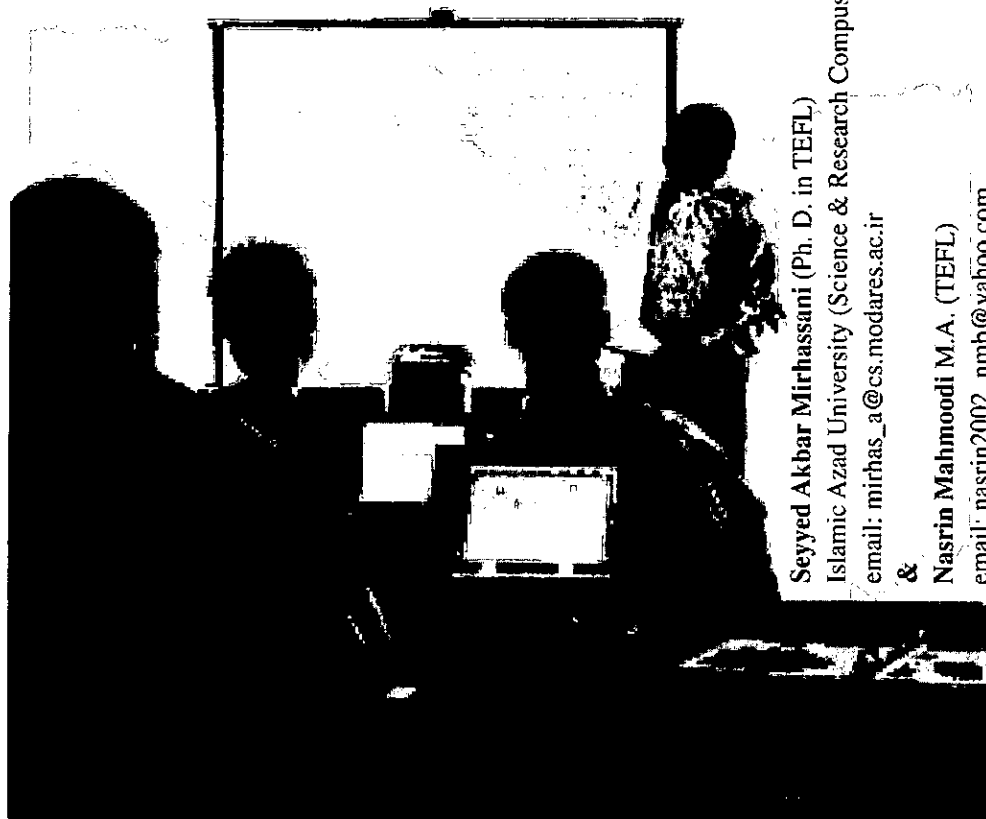
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The Effect of Computer on Teaching Paragraph Writing

چکیده

با توجه به رشد دانش انفورماتیک و تأثیر پردامنه‌ی آن بر آموزش‌های گوناگون علمی ، به‌ویژه فراگیری نگارش زبان انگلیسی ، در پژوهش حاضر کوشش شده است که این تأثیر در بهبود کیفیت نگارش زبان انگلیسی ، به‌ویژه پاراگراف‌نویسی ، بررسی شود . همچنین ، موارد بررسی برای دانشجویان فارسی‌زبان طراحی شده که بر پایه‌ی آزمایش و مطالعه‌ی جامعه‌ی آماری ، تحلیل مقتضی ارائه می‌شود . نتایج حاصله روش مناسبی را به دست می‌دهد که ابتدا نقش رایانه را در سازوکار آموزش ، نمایان می‌سازد و سپس ، درس‌هایی مبتنی بر آخرین دستاوردهای اطلاعاتی را تقدیم می‌دارد .

در این تحقیق ، جامعه‌ی آماری مورد بحث به دو گروه مساوی تقسیم شدند : یک گروه با روش‌های سنتی آموزش نگارش (قلم و کاغذ) تعلیم داده شد و گروه دیگر با استفاده از نرم‌افزارهای رایانه‌ای ویژه . نتایج این مطالعه نشان داد ، بین این دو گروه تفاوت‌های شاخص آماری وجود دارد . بدین‌معنی که گروه آموزش‌دیده توسط رایانه ، پیشرفت قابل ملاحظه‌ای در زمینه‌ی نگارش به‌دست آورد .

تجربه‌ی تلفیق استفاده از رایانه در کلاس‌های آموزش زبان ، به‌ویژه کلاس‌های نگارش ، نشان داد که حتی آزمایشگاه‌های کوچک رایانه نیز می‌توانند ، نقش مهمی در بهبود کیفی نگارش دانشجویان داشته باشند و رایانه را می‌توان به‌عنوان ابزار آموزشی مفید و خلاقیت‌زا در امر آموزش زبان انگلیسی ، به‌کار گرفت . به نظر می‌رسد ، چنانچه مسأله‌ی بهره‌گیری از رایانه در مراکز آموزشی پیش از دانشگاه ، توسط دبیران و معلمان ، و حتی در سطوح پائین‌تر نیز جدی گرفته شود ، ضمن پایه‌ریزی بهتر درک و آموزش زبان انگلیسی ، مشکلات کنونی مراکز آموزشی غیر دانشگاهی در جهت این یادگیری ، کاهش یابد .

کلید واژه‌ها : رایانه ، تدریس ، پاراگراف‌نویسی ، یادگیری زبان از طریق رایانه .

Conclusion

Au cours de cet article, nous avons remarqué que chaque film n'a pas forcémen une valeur pédagogique. Il y a des critères pour le choix du film. Nous devons considérer le niveau des étudiants, le thème, le contenu linguistique, socioculturel et vérifier la facilité d'accès aux éléments non verbaux. Nous avons proposé une démarche qui comprend quatre étapes. Après avoir appliqué la démarche ci-dessus nous avons constaté que:

- L'image sert aussi comme un aide-mémoire. L'utilisation d'un support visuel aide les apprenants à surmonter le stress d'oublier les événements. L'information visualisée reste plus longtemps dans la mémoire.

- L'utilisation d'un support visuel aide les apprenants à surmonter la crainte d'une mauvaise compréhension: le visuel assure l'accès au sens. Tout cela indique bien le rôle des documents vidéo dans la compréhension des messages. Mais, à partir de ces documents, "la compréhension va du sens à la langue". L'élève comprend la situation avant de comprendre l'acte de parole, mais il fera automatiquement le lien entre la situation et l'acte de parole; ce qui facilitera le réemploi par la suite.

- L'image animée se révèle mieux adaptée à l'activation des connaissances qu'à l'apprentissage. Mais notre travail montre que des techniques comme l'arrêt sur l'image, le ralenti ou le retour en arrière aident l'enseignant à attirer l'attention des apprenants sur le script. C'est juste que la phase du visionnement sans le son fait réactiver des connaissances déjà acquises des apprenants, mais la phase des arrêts sur l'image avec le son augmente leurs bagages linguistiques et donc leurs apprentissages.

Nous avons tenté de souligner que l'essentiel pour l'utilisation du document authentique vidéo en classe de langue étrangère, n'est pas que l'enseignant devienne spécialiste de l'étude des médias, mais que sa démarche prenne en compte la nature linguistique, vocale et gestuelle de l'oralité langagière ainsi que la dimension interactionnelle dans l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère.

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Jeunet. Il y a une adéquation parfaite entre l'image et le son, qui permet aux apprenants de deviner aisément le vocabulaire.

Le scénario: *"le père d'Amélie, ancien médecin militaire, travaille aux Etablissements thermaux d'Enghien-les-Bains. Raphaël Poulain n'aime pas: surprendre sur ses sandales un regard de dédain; sortir de l'eau et sentir coller son maillot de bain. Raphaël Poulain aime: arracher de grands morceaux de papier peint; aligner toutes ses chaussures et les cirer avec soin; vider sa boîte à outils, bien la nettoyer et tout ranger, enfin.*

La mère d'Amélie, Amandine Fouet, institutrice originaire de Gueugnon, a toujours été d'une nature instable et nerveuse. Amandine Poulain n'aime pas: avoir les doigts plissés par l'eau chaude du bain; être, par quelqu'un qu'elle n'aime pas, effleurée de la main; avoir les plis des draps imprimés sur la joue le matin. Amandine Poulain aime: les costumes des patineurs artistiques sur TF1; faire briller le parquet avec des patins; vider son sac à main, bien le nettoyer et tout ranger, enfin."

Comme nous avons déjà mentionné, avant visionner le film nous posons des questions globales sur des relations familiales et le milieu professionnel. Dans cette procédure nous pouvons préparer des questions ci-dessous:

- Quelles impressions ces deux personnages vous provoquent? comment trouvez-vous leurs caractères?

- Où se passe la scène? Est-ce que ce sont des lieux publics ou privés?

- Quels objets vous aident à distinguer les lieux?

- Quelles sont leurs professions?

- Comment ils s'habillent?

- Quelles sont les couleurs utilisées?

Maintenant c'est le tour du visionnement de la totalité de la séquence avec le son; nous posons des questions générales sur le document.

- Qu'est-ce que vous avez compris?

- Quel est le sujet principal?

- Quelle est l'image de Paris présentée dans le film? (époque, lieux, ambiance…)

Il faut répéter des séquences avec des arrêts sur l'image. Cela implique des questions plus détaillées sur le document:

- Le père (la mère) d'Amélie, s'appelle comment?

- Quel est son métier?

- Qu'est-ce qu'il (elle) aime faire?

- Qu'est-ce qu'il (elle) n'aime pas faire?

Vous avez remarqué que cette scène parle de personnages, leurs caractères et de ce qu'ils aiment ou n'aiment pas. La compétence lexicale et sémantique, c'est d'exprimer les goûts et les préférences. La compétence grammaticale consiste à l'acquisition des catégories grammaticales: aimer, préférer + infinitif, la négation.

L'utilisation de la vidéo en classe de français langue étrangère facilite l'acte pédagogique, et rend le cours plus attrayant aux yeux des apprenants, souvent habitués à des supports plus classiques. Il s'agit également d'avoir une vision plus claire de l'univers francophone, qu'ils commencent à appréhender.

Les fonctions didactiques du document

L'image animée nous aide à montrer ce que l'enseignant ne peut évoquer dans la classe, éviter des explications verbales qui accapareraient l'attention des apprenants au lieu de la focaliser sur, par exemple, un comportement socioculturel que l'image animée rend explicite. Elle facilite la mémorisation d'éléments langagiers. Le document déclenche une curiosité qui incite à l'analyser pour mieux le comprendre et en utiliser les informations.

L'image consiste à utiliser le document en dehors de l'étude de celui-ci, essentiellement comme moteur d'un travail sur le thème qu'il présente ou sur son genre.

de l'étude explicative de la classe.

Des autres possibilités du travail sur une séquence filmique ⬤

1. Nous pouvons utiliser une séquence pour compléter une histoire. Les apprenants visionneront ce passage crucial dans l'action, et devront imaginer les raisons pour lesquelles nous sommes arrivés à cette situation. On fait imaginer la scène précédente. Les apprenants travailleront une fois de plus sur l'hypothèse, en utilisant toutes les formes du possible. Ils devront aussi se justifier, et on travaille ainsi l'argumentation, et la cohérence.

Le même exercice peut être réalisé sur la suite de la séquence vidéo. Quelles sont les conséquences? Nous pourrions les faire travailler sur le futur proche, le futur simple et le présent à valeur de futur.

2. Il existe aussi un exercice qui s'appelle «l'exercice du blanc vidéo». Il est intéressant de recopier une bande vidéo en remplaçant par un blanc un passage d'environ 1 minute. Les apprenants visionneront, par conséquent, une séquence de 3 minutes dont il manquera une partie et ils devront imaginer le déroulement de cette séquence manquante.

3. Nous pouvons aussi faire sortir la moitié de la classe en leur laissant une image fixe et faire visionner le document pour les autres. Ils raconteront ce qu'ils ont vu aux autres. Puis, ils racontent ce qu'ils ont entendu de leur voisin à l'enseignant. Une autre démarche c'est que la moitié de la classe visionne le document vidéo et le décrit à ceux qui ont simplement entendu le son (il suffit de mettre le téléviseur de façon à partager la classe en deux).

4. Utiliser la vidéo comme amorce de débat: La vidéo peut être le moyen de lancer également un débat autour d'aspects culturels ou d'aspects polémiques. Toute vidéo est porteuse d'aspects caractéristiques d'une société, d'une culture, et

peut facilement entraîner une discussion. Vous devrez leur faire deviner de quoi il est question après avoir visionné la séquence, et ensuite leur faire décrire la situation, le déroulement de l'action.

5. Utiliser un film visionné dans son intégralité et en faire une synthèse: nous imaginerons un tout autre travail lié davantage à l'expression écrite. Il peut être demandé aux apprenants de:
- Faire un résumé de l'histoire;
- D'imaginer la vie d'un des personnages, suite au film;
- De composer un scénario sur la même trame.

6. Utiliser un passage de film choisi pour une activité de grammaire: dans certains films, nous pouvons choisir des extraits qui exploitent plus spécialement un point grammatical précis. Par exemple, sur l'injonction, sur l'utilisation du subjonctif, sur l'impératif.... Ce sont des points grammaticaux que les élèves savent généralement utiliser mais sur lesquels ils font encore des erreurs. Lors du visionnement de l'extrait, les apprenants devront, après avoir répondu aux questions de compréhension de l'enseignant, deviner quel est le point grammatical qu'ils vont traiter, ce qui est le plus récurrent et les relever sur un papier. (http://www.edufle.net)

Application pratique des séquences en classe de langues ⬤

lining up and shining his shoes

Nous avons choisi une séquence de film "le fabuleux Destin d'Amélie Poulain" de Jean-Pierre

effets humoristiques à forte connotation socioculturelle;

- lorsqu'on considère les éléments visuels (le personnage, le décor, les actions) (Carmen Compte, 1993, pp. 22-28).

Des possibilités de la constitution des séquences

Plusieurs schémas d'exploitation sont possibles. On peut utiliser une ou plusieurs séquences d'un film ou plusieurs séquences de films différents, constituant une sorte de regroupement thématique (par exemple l'interrogatoire policier dans le cinéma français ou les scènes de repas...

De même, on peut avoir des séquences de films différents proposant une représentation singulière ou une expression de l'imaginaire collectif. Cela peut être l'image d'autres civilisations et le travail peut, dans ce cas, adopter une perspective diachronique ou synchronique. L'étude comparée de séquences de films français et de leur adaptation par un autre cinéma est possible aussi.

Travail d'une séquence vidéo dans les cours de langue

1. Le parcours préparatoire

La première proposition est de demander des extraits courts de texte portant principalement sur le contenu encyclopédique du thème du film aux élèves; ce qui prépare l'élève aux exercices scolaires futurs (résumés, lectures-écritures de textes argumentatifs...).

2. Visionnement du document au moins deux fois sans le son

La recherche d'informations en analysant l'image est un bon moyen d'amener les apprenants à une production orale.

Nous considérons les documents vidéo en tant qu'images parlantes qui donnent des renseignements sur l'espace, le décor, les acteurs'

les lieux culturels, etc.
- Où se passe la situation?
- Où se trouvent les personnages?
- Est-ce que c'est un lieu public ou privé?
- Quels sont les objets décoratifs? (Une vase, un tableau, etc.)
- Comment s'appellent-t-ils?
- Quelle est sa profession?
- Quel âge a-t-il?

Lors du second visionnement, ils devront s'intéresser à ce que font les acteurs de la séquence vidéo, à l'enchaînement des actions. Ils décriront à l'oral ce qu'ils ont vu, et feront des hypothèses. C'est ainsi que Gisele Gschwind-Holtzer parle de l'image dans sa fonction didactique: «la représentation au service de la compréhension». (Gschwind-Holtzer, 2000, p. 94).

*3. Visionnement d'une séquence avec le son*

Les séances sont exploitées en fonction de toutes les possibilités des ressources linguistiques de la bande son. Les apprenants vont devoir focaliser leur attention sur l'image et le son à la fois, sachant que l'image sera cette fois-ci (dans bien des cas) une aide à la compréhension. La bande son permet par conséquent d'aller plus loin dans l'analyse.

4. Visionnement répété d'une séquence avec le son et arrêts sur l'image

A partir de la transcription d'un passage de la séquence avec des voix ou de toute la séquence il faudra insister sur:
- le vocabulaire et la parole des personnages;
- les actes de parole particuliers: les plus intéressants à étudier dans la perspective qui est la nôtre seront peut-être ceux qui visent une pratique sociale du langage (par exemple «saluer quelqu'un» ou encore «prendre congé»....) et ses implicites.

Ces derniers éléments sont liés à l'habitude linguistique et pourront réapparaître au cours

TIGHT LIPS HARD HEART
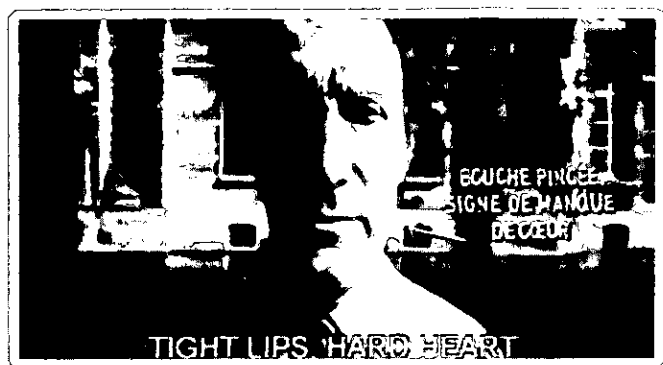
Nous considérons donc que le film (l'image animée) appartient à la catégorie de l'image situationnelle. «Son langage et ses sujets souvent familiers rapprochent l'apprenant de la vie française et de son langage quotidien» (Tina Van Arkel, 2005, pp. 26-27). L'image animée permet de décoder à la fois des termes clés, des mimiques, toute une gestuelle. L'image apparaît donc comme un médiateur opératoire pour la transmission d'informations tant linguistiques que socioculturelles ou affectives.

Elle sert d'abord à «*faire fonctionner une sorte de système 'traduction' d'équivalences entre la langue maternelle et les images.*» L'image apporte ensuite une information culturelle, chaque illustration étant dessinée à partir de lieux, de personnages ou de décors réels. Enfin, «présenter une image, c'est encore *communiquer sur et à propos de cette image.*» En ce sens, les films permettent de relier à la fois la situation d'apprentissage en milieu institutionnel et acquisition en milieu naturel.

Le choix de la séquence filmique

Tous les films ne peuvent donner lieu à une utilisation didactique. Il y a des critères de choix en fonction de l'objectif pédagogique. Le rôle des séquences est à souligner pour leur dimension à la fois langagière et communicative.

Il ne faut pas retenir comme un premier critère, les films avec un «gros succès», les films commerciaux.

Il faut éviter de choisir les films aux difficultés d'ordre linguistique ou discursif, les films aux contraintes culturelles, les truquages qui rendent premières les actions techniques, les adaptations de textes littéraires de la tradition, des séquences où l'image est redondante par rapport au verbe (Françoise Demougin et Pierre Dumont, 1999, pp. 36-38).

De même, nous devons considérer les remarques suivantes qui délimitent notre projet pédagogique: la durée de séquence doit être comprise entre cinq et dix minutes; il doit y avoir une unité du point de vue diégétique qui permet une prise de repères simple pour l'apprenant; le niveau concerné ne doit pas dépasser des connaissances techniques et culturelles nécessaires à l'étude des séquences.

- Visionner sans le son

Cela permet de juger de la relation image/verbe et de s'assurer que les éléments non verbaux et les composantes techniques fournissent suffisamment de points d'accroche pour la compréhension.

- Repérer les éléments socioculturels

Les critères qu'on utilise spontanément lors du choix d'un document sont: la durée, le format, le thème, le contenu socioculturel, le contenu linguistigue.

Leur présence à l'écran ou leur évocation doit être faite en fonction du niveau de l'apprenant.

Certaines formes d'écriture télévisuelles facilitent la compréhension chez l'apprenant:

- lorsque le sujet de l'action est présent à l'écran, s'il est dans le champ pendant qu'il agit ou parle, l'image et l'audio sont alors plus transparentes que si on évoque (en parlant sur l'image ou en voix off) une action qui se déroule hors champ;

- lorsqu'on utilise des structures narratives classiques et trans - culturelles (avec un début, un développement et une conclusion);

- lorsqu'on emploie des stéréotypes et des archétypes «universaux» (scènes d'amour, de haine, de vengeance, etc.);

- lorsque l'écriture ne s'appuie pas trop sur des

socioculturels en même temps. Ainsi donc, on considère le film comme un outil d'apprentissage. De même cet article nous aidera à prendre des considérations sur le choix du film et celui de la séquence. A ce propos, il faut éviter la sélection des films esthétiques, traditionnelles et des films aux troubles linguistiques ou culturelles. Pour le choix de la séquence, nous devons considérer le niveau des apprenants, la présence des éléments socioculturels, la relation de l'image avec la parole, etc. Cet article nous initiera des démarches pédagogiques sur lesquelles nous pouvons impliquer notre séquence préférée. La séquence sur laquelle nous travaillerons, comprendra quatre étapes: le parcours préparatoire, le visionnement sans le son, le visionnement avec le son, le visionnement répété sur séquence avec les arrêts sur l'image.

Mots clés: didactique, des démarches pédagogiques, des éléments socioculturels, film.

Introduction

Parmi tous les moyens utilisés pour l'apprentissage des langues étrangères, on constate que, dans la catégorie des aides visuelles, l'image est de tout temps présente. L'utilisation des documents authentiques, c'est-à-dire "tout document sonore ou écrit qui n'a pas été conçu pour la classe ou pour l'étude de la langue, mais pour répondre à une fonction de communication, d'information ou d'expression linguistique réelle" a été largement justifiée depuis les années 80 (R. Galisson, p. 59). En pédagogie, l'image est un "auxiliaire visuel" qui favorise la compréhension et la production. "On constate que la vidéo donne certes à l'apprenant le sentiment qu'il comprend et sait beaucoup de choses, mais ne lui laisse guère le temps d'approfondir ses acquisitions" (Paul Rivenc, 2000, p. 144). Le support pour lequel nous opterons dans cet article est le film. Le magnétoscope et la cassette vidéo ont facilité des manipulations qui intéresseraient directement l'approche pédagogique. "Les diverses fonctions du magnétoscope (arrêt, pause, visionnement rapide vers l'arrière ou vers l'avant) permettraient désormais un travail sur des séquences" (http://www.fdlm.org). À l'heure où le cinéma rencontre ces supports, il faut tenter de comprendre les avantages que l'on peut tirer de ces nouveaux modes de diffusion du cinéma. Nous nous efforcerons de montrer les critères du choix

du film et la diversité de la constitution des séquences filmiques pour nous orienter à organier un cours de langue rendant les apprenants plus interactifs. Sur la base d'une démarche descriptive et analytique, nous essayerons de présenter les parcours à partir desquels l'on peut mettre en pratique le film dans une classe de langue étrangère.

La diversité de l'image

Le recours à l'image en didactique des langues remonte à l'Antiquité. Coménius, au XVIIᵉ siècle, aurait été le premier à recommander formellement son utilisation pour l'apprentissage d'une langue.
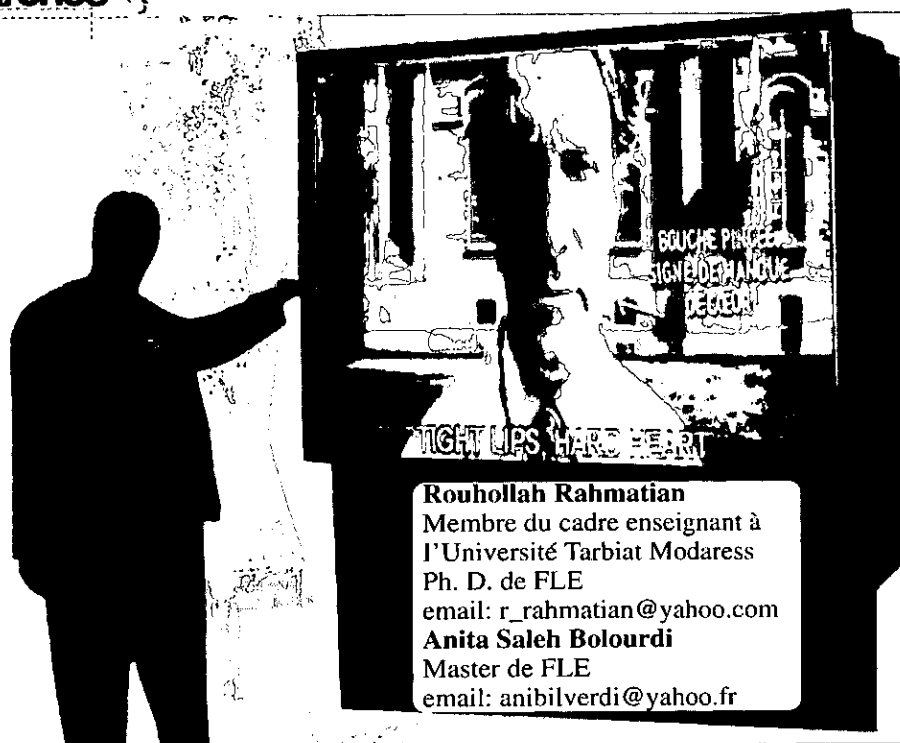
On distingue en didactique quatre sortes d'images:

- l'image pure et simple, qui reproduit une personne, un objet, un lieu (personnage d'une méthode, ballon, école),

- *l'image codée* très employée par les méthodes audio-orale et audiovisuelle au tableau de feutre et dans les films fixes: interrogation (?), négation (x), déplacement (→),

- *l'image situationnelle* qui reproduit une situation donnée (lieu, temps, personnages, etc.) dans un document écrit (bande dessinée), muet ou sonore (film fixe ou animé),

- l'image que l'on pourrait qualifier de *fonctionnelle* (schéma, croquis, diagramme, plan, carte, etc.) (Jean-Pierre Robert, 2002, p. 88).

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Comment profiter de l'image animée en cours de langue?

چکیده

این مقاله به تصویر متحرک و اهمیت آن در آموزش زبان می‌پردازد . فیلم سینمایی مثالی از گونه‌های تصویری است که عناصر زبانی ، غیرزبانی و اجتماعی را هم‌زمان در آن می‌یابیم . بر همین اساس ، فیلم را به عنوان ابزاری آموزشی درنظر می‌گیریم . در ضمن ، این مقاله بینش انتخاب فیلم و سکانس را به ما می‌دهد . موفقیت فیلم‌های سینمایی در انظار عمومی را نمی‌توان به عنوان اولین معیار برای کار در کلاس درنظر گرفت . درخصوص فیلم باید از انتخاب فیلم‌های سنتی و فیلم‌هایی با پیچیدگی‌های زبانی و معضلات فرهنگی پرهیز کرد . برای انتخاب سکانس باید سطح زبانی زبان‌آموزان ، حضور عناصر اجتماعی ـ فرهنگی ، ارتباط تصویر و مضمون کلامی و غیره را درنظر گرفت . مدت آن نباید از پنج تا ده دقیقه تجاوز کند و مضمون آن باید یکدست و ثابت باشد .

در مرحله‌ی آخر ، با مراحل آموزشی آشنا می‌شویم که می‌توانیم این مراحل را روی سکانس برگزیده‌ی خود پیاده کنیم . سکانسی که روی آن کار می‌شود ، شامل چهار مرحله خواهد بود : مرحله‌ی آماده‌سازی ، دیدن سکانس بدون صدا ، دیدن سکانس همراه با صدا ، تکرار دیدن سکانس‌ها همراه با مکث روی تصویر . در مرحله‌ی آماده‌سازی ، از زبان‌آموزان می خواهیم ، متنی درخصوص موضوع فیلم بنویسند . در مرحله‌ی دیدن سکانس بدون صدا ، درخصوص مکان ، زمان و هنرپیشه‌ها از زبان‌آموزان سؤال می‌کنیم . در مرحله‌ی دیدن سکانس همراه با صدا ، جزئیات بیش‌تری را سؤال می‌کنیم و در مرحله‌ی تکرار دیدن سکانس‌ها همراه با مکث روی تصویر ، درخصوص مکالمات و صحبت‌های شخصیت‌های فیلم کار می‌کنیم . با مراجعه به این مقاله ، با روش‌های بیش‌تری برای کار در کلاس آشنا می‌شوید .

کلیدواژه‌ها : آموزش ، مراحل آموزشی ، عناصر اجتماعی ـ فرهنگی و فیلم .

Résumé

Cet article vise l'image animée et l'importance que celle-ci joue en didactique des langues. Le film cinématographique en est l'exemple. Nous y trouvons des éléments linguistiques, non verbaux et

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