رشد آموزش زبان ۸۳

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A reflective teacher is one who can design and implement an effective educational program by adapting his or her teaching skills and techniques to the specific school situation, purpose of the lesson, and the children's abilities, interests, and needs.

آموزش زبان ۸۳

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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، به‌ویژه، دبیران و مدرسان را، در صورتی که در نشریات عمومی درج نشده و مرتبط با موضوع مجله باشد، می‌پذیرد. ● مطالب باید حد اکثر بین ۸ تا ۱۰ صفحه با فونت ۱۳ یا ۱۴ در دو نسخه ی تایپ شده همراه با چکیده فارسی و انگلیسی که زیر آنها کلید واژه‌ها آمده است، ارسال شود (چکیده ی فارسی حتی الامکان در یک صفحه ی A4تنظیم 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 ضمیمه ی 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 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.

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FLT

سخن سردبیر

ارتقای سطح آموزش و یادگیری

برای همه روشن و مشخص است که در دهه های اخیر، ابداعات محققان و متخصصان روش تدریس زبان و رشته های مربوط چون روان‌شناسی و جامعه‌شناسی زبان، پیشرفت قابل توجهی داشته است و با بررسی رویکردها و نظرات جدید و استفاده از فناوری‌های نوین، سطح آموزش و یادگیری زبان ارتقا پیدا کرده و گاه متحول شده است؛ چنان‌که عمق و گستردگی آن به‌هیچ‌وجه قابل پیش‌بینی نبوده است. البته گستره‌ی آموزش زبان و تحولات آن هم‌چنان ادامه خواهد داشت.

نگاهی گذرا به ظهور بعضی روش‌ها و فنون یادگیری و تدریس، تأثیر فراوانی بر روند کار در کلاس‌های زبان دارد و اثرات ناشی از پیشرفت علم و فناوری بر این فرایند، قابل توجه و با ارزش است.

بی‌شک یادگیری و آموزش زبان و گسترش آن در دنیا، تأثیر شگرفی بر علوم گوناگون و معرفت انسان داشته و دارد و امید می‌رود که با استفاده از شیوه‌های نوین و بهبود روش تدریس زبان، بیش از پیش به همگانی تر شدن علم و ایجاد ارتباط سالم و مفید کمک کند. ضمناً برای ارتقای بهره‌گیری و بهره‌مندی بشر از دستاوردهای علمی، ارتقای ارتباطات و فناوری، لازم است که روحیه‌ی تلاش و کار مثبت در این زمینه چند برابر شود و تقویت آن، مدنظر همه‌ی دست‌اندرکاران آموزش و پرورش، دبیران، خانواده‌ها، سازمان‌ها و جوانان قرار گیرد. سرعت پیشرفت علم هر روز بیش از پیش است و شناخت، درک، انتقال و استفاده از آن‌ها به کارایی آموزش زبان بستگی دارد تا با سرعت کافی در اختیار متخصصان و اندیشمندان قرار گیرد و به‌موقع مثمرثمر باشد.

مسلماً هیچ جامعه یا حتی اجزای آن نمی‌تواند از کاربرد زبان و جنبه‌های گوناگون و متنوع آن بی نیاز باشد. مطالعه، یادگیری و استفاده از آثار خوب و مفید دانشمندان، برای زندگی بهتر و موفق انسان ضروری است. به‌خصوص شناخت جوامع دیگر و ایجاد ارتباط سالم و تفاهم بین همه‌ی مردم، نیازمند یادگیری زبان، و از نظر عده‌ای، آموزش صحیح و کارامد آن است.

با توجه به گسترش محافل علمی در ایران و دنیا، دانستن یک زبان خارجی یا به اصطلاحی بین‌المللی، ضروری و مورد انتظار همگان است و شرکت در محافل علمی، انتشار یافته‌های هر متخصص و انتقال آن‌ها، بر اهمیت یادگیری و آموزش زبان می‌افزاید و این امر بسیج کلیه‌ی معلمان زبان را می‌طلبد. ان‌شاءالله.

***

در این شماره نیز مقالات متنوعی را برای شما خوانندگان عزیز تدارک دیده‌ایم که در بخش‌های متفاوت ارائه می‌شوند.

در بخش **رشد و معلم** (Rosh & Teachers) مطلبی برای شما در نظر گرفته شده است که به ناتوانی‌های یادگیری می‌پردازد. مؤلف این مقاله ناتوانی‌های یادگیری را چالش و مشکل مهمی در موقعیت کلاس می‌داند و ضمن تعریفی از ناتوانی یادگیری، انواع آن را معرفی می‌کند. سپس برای معلمان راهبردهایی را به منظور کاهش این ناتوانی‌ها ارائه می‌دهد. دو کتاب نیز به نام‌های Young Learners و Contemporary Issues and Decisions افست شده توسط انتشارات رهنما، در این بخش معرفی شده‌اند.

در بخش **تکنیک‌های کلاس درس** (Classroom Techniques)، روش تدریس اندیشه‌ورزانه ارائه می‌شود که نوعی تدریس همراه با کاوش و بررسی است. در این مقاله، مولف ضمن ارائه‌ی ویژگی‌های تفکر اندیشه‌ورزانه، تفاوت‌های معلم اندیشه‌ورز و معلم سنتی را مطرح ساخته و مراحلی را که هر معلم برای استفاده از روش گفته شده باید بداند، ارائه داده است.

مقاله‌ی بعدی به رویکرد طبیعی در آموزش زبان می‌پردازد و تکنیک‌ها و تمرین‌های مربوط به این رویکرد را معرفی می‌کند.

در بخش **دانش افزایی** (Knowledge Improvement) دو مقاله داریم. اولین آن‌ها در مورد تدریس موفق است و عوامل و نظریه‌های تدریس موفق مطرح شده‌اند. در این روش، هر معلم زبان باید با استفاده از تجربیات و اطلاعات نظری و کاربردی خود، در زمینه‌ی آموزش زبان، روش و متونی را در کلاس ابداع کند. مقاله‌ی بعدی در این بخش، مفعول در زبان آلمانی است. نویسنده کوشیده است، مفعول را در زبان فارسی و آلمانی مقایسه کند و شباهت‌ها و تفاوت‌های آن را با ارائه‌ی نمونه‌هایی مطرح سازد.

در بخش **تحقیق** (Researches) سه مقاله داریم. اولین مقاله، ارتباط توانایی ترجمه‌ی دانشجویان با رشته‌ی تحصیلی آنان را بررسی می‌کند. پژوهشگران میزان توانایی ترجمه و توانش عمومی زبان انگلیسی دانشجویان رشته‌های مترجمی، ادبیات انگلیسی و آموزش زبان انگلیسی را بررسی کرده‌اند. مقاله‌ی بعدی تحقیق دیگری است که تأثیر کاربردهای درک مطلب، سطح بسندگی زبان انگلیسی و جنسیت زبان‌آموزان را روی میزان خواندن و درک مطلب آن‌ها مورد مطالعه قرار می‌دهد و پس از بررسی نتایج، پیشنهادهایی برای برنامه‌ریزان درسی ارائه می‌کند. آخرین مقاله‌ی این بخش تحقیقی است در زمینه‌ی خواندن و درک مطلب. پژوهشگر کوشیده است، رابطه‌ی بین توانایی تشخیص واقعیت از عقیده با مهارت درک مطلب جامع زبان انگلیسی را مورد بررسی قرار دهد.

در پایان به این نکته اشاره می‌شود که به دلیل کثرت مطالب، از گنجاندن مبحث «گفت‌وگو» در این شماره معذوریم. ضمناً، مقاله‌ی زبان فرانسه نیز در شماره‌ی بعدی به چاپ خواهد رسید.

Knowledge Improvement

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مفعول در زبان آلمانی و دشواری‌های یادگیری آن برای فارسی زبانان

Abstract

Objekte zählen zu den komplexen Grammatikpensen der deutschen Sprache und stellen daher für die meisten iranischen Deutschlernenden einen Problemkreis dar. Vor allem der Vergleich zwischen Grundsprache und Zielsprache, welche die Lerner intuitiv anstellen, spielt in der Entstehung von Fehlern eine maßgebliche Rolle. In der vorliegenden Arbeit werden neben einer terminologischen Behandlung des Begriffs *Objekt*, Ähnlichkeiten und Differenzen zwischen der deutschen und persischen Sprache in Bezug auf Objekte thematisiert, um in Anlehnung daran Problembereiche abzugrenzen und mögliche Therapiemaßnahmen anzuführen.

Schlüsselwörter: *deutsche Sprache, persische Sprache, Objekt, Fehleranalyse, Fehlerursachen, Therapiemaßnahmen*

چکیده

مقوله‌ی مفعول در زبان آلمانی دشواری‌ها و پیچیدگی‌های خاص خود را دارد و اغلب زبان‌آموزان در به‌کارگیری مفعول و انواع آن در زبان آلمانی دچار مشکل و اشتباه می‌شوند. پاره‌ای از این اشکالات هنگامی رخ می‌دهند که زبان‌آموزان در ذهن خود، خواسته یا ناخواسته، دست به مقایسه می‌زنند و با توجه به «ظرفیت افعال» زبان فارسی، در مورد افعال آلمانی تصمیم می‌گیرند. نوشته‌ی حاضر، مفعول در زبان‌های فارسی و آلمانی را بررسی می‌کند و ضمن اشاره به شباهت‌ها و تفاوت‌ها، مشکلات زبان‌آموزان را در به‌کارگیری مفعول نشان می‌دهد.

کلیدواژه‌ها: زبان آلمانی، زبان فارسی، مفعول، تجزیه و تحلیل خطا، عوامل خطا، راهکارها.

مقدمه

مفعول و انواع آن در زبان آلمانی، به سبب ویژگی های خاص خود و تفاوت ها ی عمده‌ای که با مفعول در زبان فارسی دارد، حاوی نکات قابل توجهی است که آگاهی از آن‌ها برای هر شخصی که با آموزش زبان آلمانی سر و کار دارد، ضروری می نماید. گرچه به هنگام آموزش مفعول، غالباً از مقایسه پرهیز می شود، اما این مقایسه به طور ناخودآگاه در ذهن زبان‌آموزان صورت می پذیرد.

برای یافتن علل بروز مشکلاتی که فارسی‌زبانان به هنگام یادگیری این مبحث با آن مواجه می شوند و برای آن‌که با تجزیه و تحلیل خطاهای آنان ـ که عمدتاً بر اثر استنتاج های غلطی رخ می دهد که از همین مقایسه ناشی می شود ـ مسیرهای ذهنی نادرست، شناسایی و برای از بین بردن آن‌ها از قبل چاره‌اندیشی شود، ابتدا مفعول در زبان فارسی و پس از آن، همین مبحث در زبان آلمانی مورد بررسی قرار گرفته است. بخش پایانی به مشکلاتی می پردازد که زبان‌آموزان به هنگام یادگیری مفعول و انواع آن در زبان آلمانی با آن‌ها مواجه می شوند. این موارد از محتوای برگه‌های امتحانی درس «ساختار جمله» که در زمره‌ی درس‌های نیم‌سال دوم رشته‌ی مترجمی زبان آلمانی دانشگاه تهران است، استخراج شده‌اند.

مفعول در زبان فارسی

در زبان فارسی، تعاریف متعددی برای مفعول و انواع آن از سوی دستورنویسان و زبان‌شناسان ارائه شده است. برای مثال، طبق تعریف **انوری**، مفعول، اسم یا کلمه‌ای است که کار بر آن واقع می شود و معنی جمله را تمام می کند [انوری (ب)، ۱۳۷۹ : ۱۱۶]؛ مانند «خانه» و «کتاب» در جمله‌های: «رامین خانه را خرید» و «افشین کتاب می فروشد». این جمله‌ها بدون «خانه» و «کتاب» معنی کامل و رسایی ندارند. «خانه» و «کتاب» در دو جمله‌ی یاد شده دارای نقش مفعولی هستند. مقصود از نقش، وظیفه و عملی است که کلمه در جمله و در ارتباط با فعل و کلمه‌های دیگر دارد.

این که وجود مفعول در جمله ضروری است یا نه، موردی است که فعل جمله تعیین کننده‌ی آن است. به عبارت دیگر، وجود عضوی به نام مفعول در تمامی جمله‌ها ضروری نیست. از این دیدگاه، افعال به دو گروه عمده تقسیم می شوند: افعال لازم و افعال متعدی. برای مثال، در جمله‌ی «فریدون آمد»، فعل «آمد» معنی جمله را تمام می کند و شنونده برای دریافتن مطلب، محتاج کلمه‌ی دیگری نیست. این گونه افعال را «لازم یا ناگذر» می نامیم. اما در جمله‌ی «فریدون آورد»، فعل «آورد» برای تکمیل معنی کافی نیست. شنونده می پرسد: «چه آورد؟» پس باید کلمه‌ی دیگری را ذکر کرد تا معنی فعل «آوردن» تمام شود. مثلاً گفت: «فریدون کتاب آورد.» کلمه‌ی «کتاب» در این‌جا مفعول است و معنی فعل «آورد» بدون آن کامل نیست. این دسته از افعال که برای تکمیل معنی آن‌ها باید کلمه‌ی دیگری ذکر شود، «متعدی یا گذرا» نامیده شده‌اند.

براساس کتاب‌های دستورنویسان سنتی، مفعول به دو گروه عمده‌ی «مفعول بی‌واسطه» یا «مفعول صریح» و «مفعول با واسطه» یا «مفعول غیرصریح» تقسیم می شود [قریب، ۱۳۷۳ : ۴۴]. اما دستورنویسان متأخر، به این تقسیم‌بندی قائل نیستند. آن‌چه در زبان فارسی امروز مفعول نامیده می شود، در اصل همان گروه اول، یعنی مفعول بی‌واسطه یا صریح است که وجود حرف نشانه‌ی «را» بعد از آن، علامت مشخصه‌ی آن است [انوری (الف)، ۱۳۷۹ : ۹۲] و آن‌چه سابق بر این، مفعول با واسطه یا غیر صریح نامیده می شد، در کتاب‌های دستور جدید «متمم» خوانده می شود. متمم یا متمم فعل، اسم یا کلمه‌ای است که همراه یکی از حروف اضافه به جمله می پیوندد و توضیحی به مفهوم فعل می افزاید. برای مثال، کلمات «اتومبیل»، «خانه» و «دانشگاه» در جمله‌ی «منصوره با اتومبیل از خانه به دانشگاه رفت»، متمم فعل محسوب می شوند.

متمم با مفعول از چند جهت تفاوت دارد: اول آن‌که مفعول، مختص فعل‌های متعدی است، اما هر فعلی چه لازم و چه متعدی، ممکن است دارای متمم باشد: «بابک از خانه به دانشگاه آمد» (فعل لازم)؛ «امین نقاشی‌اش را از خانه به دانشگاه آورد» (فعل متعدی). تفاوت دیگر مفعول با متمم فعل آن است که فعل متعدی برای تمام شدن معنی محتاج مفعول است و بدون آن، معنی جمله ناقص است. اما فعل چه لازم باشد و چه متعدی، برای تمام شدن معنی، محتاج متمم نیست. متمم یک معنی اضافی به جمله می‌بخشد. این معنی اضافی گاهی زمان وقوع فعل است، گاهی مکان، گاهی غرض و منظور، گاهی ابزار و وسیله و گاهی چگونگی [خانلری، ۱۳۶۴ : ۸۲-۸۱].

غالباً گفته می شود که وجود متمم تنها یک معنی اضافه به جمله می‌بخشد. اما جمله‌ی «کتاب به معلم تعلق دارد»؛ بدون «به معلم» که طبق تعاریف موجود، قاعدتاً باید متمم فعل مرکب «تعلق داشتن» محسوب شود، فاقد معنی است. یا متمم‌های «به مدرسه» و «به مجید» در جملات «علی به مدرسه می رود» و «علی کتاب را به مجید می دهد»، اگرچه ظاهری مشابه دارند، اما از نظر نقشی که در جمله ایفا می کنند، با یکدیگر متفاوتند. در جمله اول، معنی فعل «رفتن» بدون متمم «به مدرسه» نیز کامل است، اما معنی جمله‌ی دوم، بدون متمم «به مجید» کامل نیست. به عبارت دیگر، عملی که فعل «دادن» بیان کننده‌ی آن است ـ آن‌چنان که در توصیف افعال متعدی آمده است ـ از فاعل به مفعول گذر می کند، ولی از آن نیز عبور می کند و به متمم (به مجید) می رسد. یعنی «کتاب» و «مجید» به نوعی در عمل «دادن» سهیم هستند، ولی این موضوع در مورد «مدرسه» صدق نمی کند. پس نقش برخی از متمم‌ها مشابه نقش مفعول است.

مفعول در زبان آلمانی

تعریف مفعول در زبان آلمانی و زبان فارسی با یکدیگر مشابهت دارد. عملی که فعل بیان کننده‌ی آن است، در مورد مفعول اعمال

می‌شود. مفعول در زبان آلمانی دارای چهار نوع است:

Akkusativobjekt, Dativobjekt, Genitivobjekt, Präpositionalobjekt

از آن‌جا که معادل‌یابی برای اسامی یاد شده نه‌تنها کمکی به فهم بهتر مطلب نمی‌کند، بلکه آن را پیچیده‌تر نیز می‌سازد، اسامی آلمانی مورد استفاده قرار گرفته‌اند. در اغلب موارد، فعل جمله تعیین می‌کند که کدام یک از انواع مفعول باید در جمله ظاهر شود. این همان مبحثی است که در زبان آلمانی از آن با عنوان «حاکمیت»[1] نام برده می‌شود. لازم به ذکر است، این مسئله که یک فعل، اصولاً به مفعول نیاز دارد یا خیر و در صورت نیاز به مفعول به کدام‌یک از انواع آن، از ظاهر فعل قابل تشخیص نیست. به‌ویژه، تمایز میان افعالی که به یک مفعول Akkustiv احتیاج دارند، با افعالی که به یک مفعول Dativ نیازمندند، به سختی امکان‌پذیر است. برای مثال می‌گوییم: "Er trifft *ihn*"، اما: "Er begegnet *ihm*".

افعالی را که به یک مفعول Akkustiv احتیاج دارند، افعال transitiv می‌نامند و افعالی را که بدون مفعول نیز معنای آن‌ها کامل است و یا به انواع دیگر مفعول احتیاج دارند، intransitiv نامیده‌اند.

اسامی در زبان آلمانی دارای حرف تعریف هستند. هنگامی که یک اسم از حالت فاعلی به حالت مفعولی (صرف‌نظر از نوع آن) تبدیل می‌شود، آنچه نشان‌دهنده‌ی این تغییر است، در اکثر موارد، حرف تعریف اسم موردنظر و یا ضمیری است که به جای حرف تعریف قرار گرفته است. بر این اساس، حالت دستوری اسم‌هایی که در جمله، مفعول Akkustiv، Dativ یا Genitiv واقع شده‌اند، به ترتیب Akkustiv، Dativ یا Genitiv است. این حالت‌ها نشان‌دهنده‌ی نقش اسم در جمله هستند. هم‌چنین، حالت دستوری اسمی که مفعول حرف اضافه‌ای است، یا Akkusativ است یا Dativ. آن‌چه در این خصوص گفته شد، در مثال‌های زیر به وضوح قابل مشاهده است:

Ich esse *den Apfel* (Akkusativobjekt)
Der Polizist hilft *dem Kind*. (Dativobjekt)
Er bedarf *meiner Hilfe*. (Genitivobjekt)
Die Kinder warten *auf den Schulbus*. (Präpositionalobjekt)

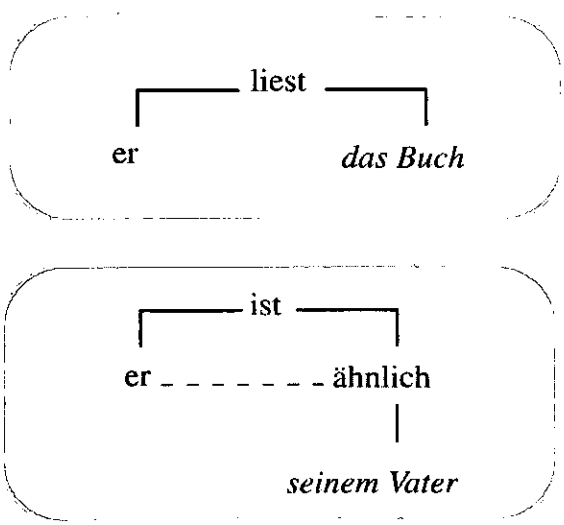
حالت دستوری مفعول یا ضمیر جانشین آن، مستقیماً از سوی فعل جمله تعیین می‌شود. برای مثال، فعل geben (دادن) تعیین می‌کند که «گیرنده» باید در حالت دستوری Dativ و «داده شده» باید در حالت Akkusativ ظاهر شود:

Der Großvater gibt *dem Enkel einen Euro*.
dem Enkel = Dativobjekt
einen Euro = Akkusativobjekt

شایان ذکر است، علاوه بر افعال، صفات و حروف اضافه نیز در برخی موارد حالت اسمی را که به آن‌ها وابسته است، تعیین می‌کنند [درسدوسکی، ۱۹۸۴: ۳۲۱]. برای مثال، صفاتی که با فعل جمله در ارتباطند و در اصل، بخشی از آن محسوب می‌شوند و معمولاً در کنار افعالی مانند sein که آن‌ها را با نام کلی sein–Verben یا Kopulaverben می‌شناسیم، حضور پیدا می‌کنند، باعث ظهور مفعول در جمله می‌شوند. نقش این صفات در جمله با عنوان Prädikativ شناسانده می‌شود [هلبیگ، ۲۰۰۱: ۲۲۴]. برخی از دستورنویسان آلمانی، این مفعول را بسته به حالت دستوری و یا ظاهر شدن یک حرف اضافه در کنار آن، در همان گروه‌های چهارگانه‌ی مفعول طبقه‌بندی می‌کنند و آن را مفعول فعل جمله[2] می‌دانند. ولی برخی دیگر آن را به سبب آن‌که نه به دستور فعل جمله، بلکه به دستور یک صفت[3] در جمله ظاهر شده است، در شمار چهار گروه شناخته‌شده‌ی مفعول‌ها به حساب نمی‌آورند و از آن با عنوان Objekt zum Prädikativ نام می‌برند. چنین مفعول‌هایی نیز دقیقاً مانند همان مفعول‌های نوع اول می‌توانند در حالت دستوری Akkusativ، Dativ، Genitiv یا همراه با یک حرف اضافه ظاهر شوند. برای مثال، در جمله‌ی "Er ist seinem Vater ähnlich"، صفت ähnlich با فعل جمله در ارتباط است و همان‌طور که گفته شد، Prädikativ محسوب می‌شود و seinem Vater که به دستور ähnlich و نه فعل sein در جمله حضور پیدا کرده است، نه یک مفعول Dativ، بلکه یک Objekt zum Prädikativ به شمار می‌آید. مثال‌های زیر که همگی دارای مفعول‌هایی از نوع یاد شده هستند، به فهم بهتر مطلب کمک می‌کنند:

Diese Ware ist *ihr Geld* wert.
Ich bin *meinem Vater* dankbar.
Er ist *seines Freundes* würdig.
Der Junge ist wütend *über den Freund*.

شکل بالا در نمودار ۱، چگونگی وابستگی یا ارتباط Objekt zum Verb و شکل پایین، چگونگی وابستگی Objekt zum Prädikativ را نسبت به فعل نشان می‌دهد:



نمودار ۱

مفعول Akkusativ نسبت به سایر انواع دیگر، از عمومیت بیشتری برخوردار است و اغلب افعال زبان آلمانی با مفعولی از این نوع همراه هستند [دریر، ۱۹۹۹ : ۷۰]. از تغییر حرف تعریف اسم از حالت فاعلی به حالت مفعولی Akkusativ، می‌توان مفعول Akkusativ جمله را شناسایی کرد. اما از آن‌جا که تغییر یاد شده تنها در حرف تعریف اسامی مفرد مذکر قابل مشاهده است، هرجا که نتوان از ظاهر یک اسم، پی به Akkusativ بودن آن برد، بهترین راه این است که یک اسم مذکر، جانشین آن گردد و یا از سؤالاتی با wen و was کمک گرفته شود. لازم به ذکر است، در کتاب‌های دستور زبان آلمانی، قواعد و دستورالعمل‌هایی وجود دارند که نه در تمامی موارد و حالات، بلکه به طور پراکنده اشاراتی در این زمینه دارند. برای مثال، اغلب افعالی که دارای پیشوندهای جدانشدنی هستند، به‌ویژه پیشوندهای -be، -ver و -zer، با یک مفعول Akkusativ همراه هستند.

در مفعول Dativ نیز حرف تعریف، نمایانگر تغییر حالت دستور اسم، از حالت فاعلی به حالت Dativ است. تغییراتی که در حرف تعریف اسم روی می‌دهند، برخلاف حالت Akkusativ در اسامی مفرد، اعم از مذکر، مؤنث و خنثا، و هم‌چنین اسامی جمع به خوبی قابل مشاهده‌اند. با کمک کلمه‌ی پرسشی wem می‌توان مفعول Dativ را شناسایی کرد.

افعالی که با مفعول Dativ همراه هستند، اغلب یک ارتباط شخصی را بیان می‌کنند:

Meine Schwester fehlt *mir*.

Du kannst *ihm* glauben.

Der Chef vertraut *seiner Sekretärin*.

امروزه در زبان آلمانی، افعالی که به یک مفعول Genitiv احتیاج دارند، به ندرت به کار می‌روند و از لحاظ مرتبه‌ی زبانی، عموماً در شمار افعال فصیح محسوب می‌شوند. از این‌رو، در کتاب‌های آموزش زبان آلمانی به ندرت می‌توان اثری از آن‌ها یافت. در این موارد یک اسم در حالت Genitiv در نقش مفعول Genitiv ظاهر می‌شود. بروز تغییرات در حرف تعریف اسمی که در این نقش ظاهر شده است، در شناسایی آن به ما کمک می‌کند. استفاده از کلمه‌ی پرسشی wessen نیز می‌تواند مفید واقع شود. امروزه در زبان آلمانی، گرایش به سمت جایگزین کردن مفعول Genitiv با یک مفعول حرف اضافه‌ای است (سایت اینترنتی دستور زبان آلمانی):

Er erinnert sich gern *seiner Schulzeit*.

→ Er erinnert sich gern *an seine Schulzeit*.

اصولاً در مکالمات روزمره‌ی آلمانی، ترجیحاً از معادل‌های محاوره‌ای این افعال استفاده می‌شود:

Er *bedarf* dringend *eines Arztes*.

→ Er *braucht* dringend *einen Arzt*.

بسیاری از افعال زبان آلمانی، با یک حرف اضافه‌ی خاص همراهی می‌شوند. یک مفعول در حالت Akkusativ یا Dativ پس از این حرف اضافه ظاهر می‌شود. حرف اضافه و مفعول، با هم یک مفعول حرف اضافه‌ای را می‌سازند:

Wir hoffen *auf bessere Zeiten*.

این که حرف اضافه‌ی خاص هر فعل کدام است و یا مفعولی که بعد از حرف اضافه قرار می‌گیرد، در کدام حالت دستوری (Akkusativ یا Dativ) ظاهر می‌شود، قاعده‌ی مشخصی ندارد (در چنین موقعیتی هرگز یک مفعول Genitiv نخواهیم داشت). از این‌رو، ترکیب خاص «فعل + حرف اضافه + حالت دستوری اسم (بعد از آن)» را باید با هم آموخت و تمرین کرد:

sich fürchten vor + D; achten auf + A

برخی از افعال، حتی به دو مفعول حرف اضافه‌ای احتیاج دارند:

Er beschwert sich *bei den Nachbarn über den Lärm*.

در چنین حالتی، مفعول حرف اضافه‌ای در حالت Dativ قبل از نوع Akkusativ آن قرار می‌گیرد. در بعضی موارد نیز، یکی دیگر از انواع مفعول‌ها جانشین یک مفعول حرف اضافه‌ای می‌شود:

Er schreibt *an seinen Vater* einen Brief.

→ Er schreibt *seinem Vater* einen Brief.

از جمله مباحثی که به هنگام بحث در مورد مفعول حرف اضافه‌ای، پرداختن به آن ضروری به نظر می‌رسد، وجود شباهت ظاهری میان این مفعول و اجزایی از جمله است که آن‌ها را با عنوان کلی Adverbialbestimmung می‌شناسیم؛ به طوری که گاه یک Adverbialbestimmung از لحاظ شکل ظاهری شبیه یکی از انواع چهارگانه‌ی مفعول است. این شباهت ظاهری نباید به اشتباه گرفتن این دو با هم منجر شود. برای مثال، den ganzen Tag در جمله‌ی "Es hat *den ganzen Tag* geregnet"، اگر چه به ظاهر یک اسم در حالت دستور Akkusativ است، اما یک مفعول Akkusativ نیست و در واقع، نشانگر طول زمان عمل است. همین جزء در جمله‌ی "Das hat mir *den ganzen Tag* verdorben" مفعول Akkusativ است، به همین ترتیب، عبارت auf dem Bahnhof در جمله‌ی "Er wartet auf dem Bahnhof" از نظر شکل ظاهری با یک مفعول حرف اضافه‌ای تفاوتی ندارد، اما یک Lokalbestimmung است. در مقابل، عبارت auf den Freund در جمله‌ی "Er wartet auf den Freund"، یک مفعول حرف اضافه‌ای است.

تشخیص این دو مورد از هم با توجه به موارد زیر، امکان‌پذیر است:

۱. مفعول‌ها را می‌توان با ضمایر شخصی جایگزین کرد:

Er las *den ganzen Roman*.

→ Er *las ihn*.

ولی به جای یک Adverbialbestimmung نمی‌توان یک ضمیر شخصی گذاشت. تنها می‌توان آن را با یک قید که دارای معنای مشابهی باشد، جایگزین کرد:

Er las *den ganzen Tag.*
→ Er las *damals/dann.*

۲ . حرف اضافه‌ی موجود در مفعول‌های حرف اضافه‌ای معنی مشخصی ندارد، درحالی‌که حرف اضافه‌ی موجود در یک Adverbialbestimmung، از لحاظ معنایی در ارتباط با اسمی است که بعد از آن حرف اضافه قرار دارد.

۳ . حرف اضافه‌ی موجود در مفعول‌های حرف اضافه‌ای وابسته به فعل است. به گونه‌ای که نمی‌توان آن را تغییر داد، حال آن‌که حرف اضافه‌ی موجود در یک Adverbialbestimmung می‌تواند به‌راحتی جای خود را به حرف اضافه‌ی دیگری بدهد:

Er wartet *auf* den Freund. (Präpositionalobjekt)

Er wartet { *vor* / *neben* / *hinter* } *auf* dem Bahnhof.

(Adverbialbestimmung)

نمودار ۲

دشواری‌های زبان‌آموزان فارسی زبان در یادگیری مبحث مفعول آلمانی

از آن‌جا که «ظرفیت افعال» در فارسی و آلمانی الزاماً مشابه نیستند، نمی‌توان با استناد به نوع و وضعیت افعال زبان فارسی در مورد افعال زبان آلمانی تصمیم گرفت. به همین دلیل، باید با اشاره به موارد عدم تشابه، زبان‌آموزان را از همان ابتدا از مقایسه بازداشت. یکی از روش‌های یادگیری این مطلب که یک فعل به چه نوع اجزا یا مکمل‌هایی احتیاج دارد، تمرین این موارد در قالب جملاتی است که به عنوان الگو به زبان‌آموز کمک می‌کنند، جزئیات مربوط به هر فعل را بهتر به خاطر بسپارد. ناآگاهی از نحوه‌ی «حاکمیت فعل» بر اجزای جمله نیز، به بروز اشتباهاتی منجر می‌شود که جملات زیر (مستخرج از برگه‌های امتحانی دانشجویان) نمونه‌هایی از آن هستند:

* Er bezeichnet *seinem Freund* als Vorbild.
* Ich habe *von dem Lehrer* gefragt.
* Er liest *ihm* das Buch.

در بخش دیگری از همین آزمون، از دانشجویان خواسته شد که در جمله‌های زیر، نقش بخش‌هایی را که به صورت مایل نوشته شده‌اند، مشخص کنند:

1. Wir dachten *an die schönen Somm-erferien in Schwarzwald.*
2. Er bedarf dringend *meiner Hilfe.*
3. Das hat mir *den ganzen Tag* verdorben.

یافته‌های حاصل از بررسی پاسخ‌های ۲۵ نفر از دانشجویان در جدول ۱ مشاهده می‌شود.

جدول ۱

جمله	پاسخ درست	تعداد	پاسخ نادرست	تعداد	پاسخ مبهم	بدون پاسخ
۱	Präpositionalobjekt	۹	Akkusativobjekt	۵	۱۰	۱
۲	Genitivobjekt	۱۲	Dativobjekt	۷	۵	۱
۳	Akkusativobjekt	۷	Temporalbestimmung	۱۴	۳	۱

با نگاهی به جدول ۱ مشخص می‌شود، دانشجویان، انواع مفعول‌ها را با هم و یا با انواع دیگری از اعضای جمله اشتباه می‌گیرند. علل دشواری یادگیری هریک از انواع چهارگانه‌ی مفعول برای فارسی‌زبانان در ادامه مورد بررسی قرار می‌گیرد:

۱ . مفعول Akkusativ

اشتباهات مربوط به مفعول Akkusativ ناشی از این شبهه است که هر فعل «متعدی» در زبان فارسی، در زبان آلمانی transitiv است و هر فعلی هم که در زبان فارسی «لازم» است، در آلمانی intransitiv محسوب می‌شود. اما در واقع افعال لازم بسیاری را در زبان فارسی می‌توان یافت که معادل‌های آلمانی آن‌ها transitiv هستند و به یک مفعول Akkusativ احتیاج دارند. عکس این مورد نیز صادق است. برخی از افعال آلمانی که به انواع دیگر مفعول احتیاج دارند، در فارسی فعل متعدی محسوب می‌شوند و با مفعول صریح همراه هستند. جدول ۲ حاوی نمونه‌هایی از هر دو مورد است.

جدول ۲

heiraten + A	transitiv	Sie heiratet *einen Ausländer.*	او با یک خارجی ازدواج می‌کند.	لازم	ازدواج کردن
folgen + D	intransitiv	Der Detektiv folgt *dem Dieb.*	کارآگاه دزد را تعقیب می‌کند.	متعدی	تعقیب کردن
gedenken + G	intransitiv	Die Bevölkerung gedachten *der Kriegsopfer.*	مردم یاد قربانیان جنگ را گرامی داشتند.	متعدی	یاد کسی را گرامی داشتن

۲ . مفعول Dativ

یک اسم در حالت Dativ را آن‌گاه می‌توان مفعول Dativ محسوب کرد که به حکم فعل جمله، در حالت دستوری Dativ ظاهر شده باشد:

Die Regierung hilft *den Geschädigten.*

بنابراین هر اسم در حالت Dativ، الزاماً یک مفعول Dativ

نیست، چنان‌که گاه یک اسم، به سبب تأثیر حرف اضافه‌ای که قبل از آن اسم قرار دارد، در حالت‌های Dativ ظاهر می‌شود. در این صورت، ترکیب «حرف اضافه + اسم»، یا یک مفعول حرف‌اضافه‌ای، و یا یک Adverbialbestimmung است. این امر، خود یکی از مشکلات یادگیری مفعول برای فارسی‌زبانان محسوب می‌شود، برای مثال، هنگامی که از دانشجویان خواسته شد، انواع مفعول در زبان آلمانی را نام ببرند و هر یک را در قالب جمله‌ای معرفی کنند، تعدادی از آن‌ها برای مفعول Dativ چنین جملاتی را نوشتند:

Ich habe *mit dem Mann* geredet.

Er wohnt *bei seiner Tante.*

Mein Bruder arbeitet *in einem Reisebüro.*

ترکیب «حرف اضافه + اسم» در جمله‌ی اول، یک مفعول حرف‌اضافه‌ای و در دو جمله‌ی بعدی یک Lokalbestimmung است و هیچ‌کدام یک مفعول Dativ نیستند. هم‌چنین، گاه یک اسم، بدون اثرپذیری از یک حرف‌اضافه و بدون آن‌که مفعول Dativ باشد، در حالت Dativ ظاهر می‌شود؛ مانند آن‌چه در جملات زیر مشاهده می‌کنیم:

Meinem Vater schmertz der Kopf.

Er sieht *seiner Tochter* in die Augen.

Der Pförtner öffnet *der Frau* die Tür.

این گونه اسامی را که برخلاف مفعول Dativ، ارتباطی با فعل جمله ندارند و به «حکم» فعل، در جمله ظاهر نشده‌اند، با عنوان Freier Dativ می‌شناسیم.

۳. مفعول Genitiv

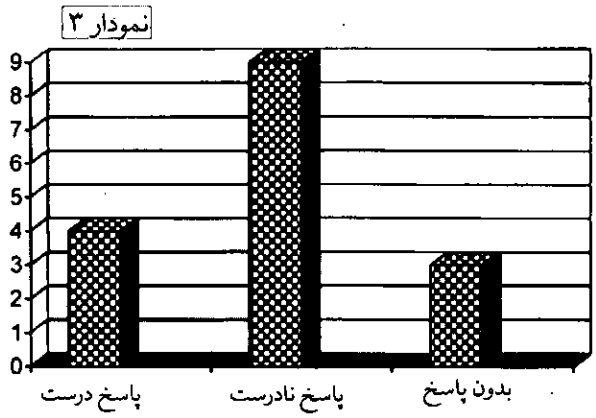
دانشجویان در شناسایی و به‌کارگیری مفعول Genitiv نیز غالباً دچار مشکل هستند و در اکثر مواقع نمی‌توانند بین مفعول Genitiv و اسم‌هایی که به دلایل دیگری در حالت Genitiv ظاهر شده‌اند، تمایز قائل شوند. این امر از آن‌جا ناشی می‌شود که معمولاً زبان‌آموزان، برای نخستین‌بار، یک اسم در حالت دستوری Genitiv را در قالب یک Genitivattribut (حالت اضافی یا مضاف و مضاف‌الیه) مشاهده می‌کنند. پس از آن در مبحث حروف اضافه‌ای که همراه با Genitiv می‌آیند، با حروف اضافه‌ای مانند trotz، wegen و während آشنا می‌شوند. از آن‌جا که تناوب افعال با مفعول Genitiv در آلمانی پایین است، زبان‌آموزان معمولاً در مراحل اولیه‌ی آموزش با این افعال آشنا نمی‌شوند و به همین دلیل مدت‌ها طول می‌کشد تا با این قبیل افعال روبه‌رو شوند. از این‌رو پذیرفتن این امر که یک اسم با حالت دستوری Genitiv می‌تواند مفعول جمله واقع شود، برای آن‌ها ساده نیست. گاهی نیز یک Temporalbestimmung اسمی در حالت Genitiv است که این خود بر پیچیدگی مطلب می‌افزاید. برای مثال، طی آزمونی از دانشجویان خواسته شد، جمله‌ای بنویسند که در آن یک مفعول Genitiv وجود داشته باشد. جملات زیر نمونه‌هایی از پاسخ‌های دانشجویان هستند.

Er ist der Lehrer *meines Freundes.*

Er besuchte uns *eines Abends.*

Während des Essens spricht man nicht.

همان‌گونه که ملاحظه می‌شود، هیچ‌کدام از سه اسمی که در جملات فوق در حالت Genitiv ظاهر شده‌اند، مفعول Genitiv نیستند. بررسی آماری کلیه‌ی پاسخ‌ها در نمودار ۳ منعکس شده است.



۴. مفعول حرف اضافه‌ای

فراوانی تعداد افعالی که در زبان آلمانی با یک حرف اضافه‌ی خاص همراه هستند و این واقعیت که برای تعیین حرف اضافه‌ای که یک فعل را همراهی می‌کند، هیچ قاعده و قانون مشخصی وجود ندارد، از دلایل عمده‌ی دشواری این مبحث به‌شمار می‌روند. تصمیم‌گیری در مورد حالت دستوری اسمی که بعد از حروف اضافه ظاهر می‌گردد (Akkusativ یا Dativ)، به آسانی ممکن نیست:

Teil nehmen an + D اما denken an + A

گاهی یک فعل با بیش از یک حرف اضافه ظاهر می‌شود. در این حالت، ممکن است در معنا و یا کاربرد آن تغییر حاصل شود. برای مثال، چنان‌چه فعل sich freuen با حرف اضافه‌ی auf مورد استفاده قرار گیرد، از نظر زمانی به حال و آینده اشاره دارد و در صورتی که با حرف اضافه‌ی über به کار رود، به زمان گذشته بازمی‌گردد:

sich freuen auf + A: Die Kinder freuen sich auf Weihnachten.

sich freuen über + A: Er hat sich über meinen Besuch sehr gefreut.

به همین ترتیب، فعل leiden با حرف اضافه‌ی an به معنی «مبتلا بودن (به بیماری)»، و با حرف اضافه‌ی unter به معنی «رنج بردن از چیزی» است:

leiden an + D: Sie leidet an Krebs.

leiden unter + D: Sie leidet unter Schlaflosigkeit.

شایان ذکر است، برخی از افعال که در زبان فارسی با مفعول صریح همراه هستند، در آلمانی توسط یک مفعول حرف‌اضافه‌ای

همراهی می‌شوند. افعال زیر نمونه‌هایی از این مورد به شمار می‌روند:

sich besinnen auf + A = کسی یا چیزی را به یاد داشتن

→ Ich besinnen mick kaum *auf ihn.*

sich verlangen nach + D = کسی یا چیزی را خواستن

→ Der Chef verlangt *nach dir.*

→ Der Kranke verlangt *nach Wasser.*

نتیجه‌گیری

تجزیه و تحلیل خطاهایی که زبان‌آموزان فارسی‌زبان به هنگام به‌کارگیری مفعول در زبان آلمانی مرتکب می‌شوند، نشان می‌دهد که پاره‌ای از این خطاها به تأثیر ناخودآگاهی برمی‌گردد که زبان فارسی و قواعد آن بر ذهن زبان‌آموزان بر جای می‌گذارد. مبنا قرار دادن ظرفیت افعال زبان فارسی برای تصمیم‌گیری در خصوص نحوه‌ی عملکرد افعال زبان آلمانی، از جمله‌ی این موارد به شمار می‌رود. گروه دیگری از اشتباهات، ناشی از تسلط ناکافی زبان‌آموزان بر قواعد دستور زبان آلمانی است. ناتوانی در تشخیص حالت‌های چهارگانه‌ی اسم از یکدیگر و نداشتن شناخت کافی از نقش‌های متفاوتی که اسامی در جمله ایفا می‌کنند، باعث می‌شود که مفعول‌ها با یکدیگر و با سایر اجزای جمله اشتباه گرفته شوند.

زیرنویس

1. Rektion
2. Objekt zum Verb
3. Prädikativ

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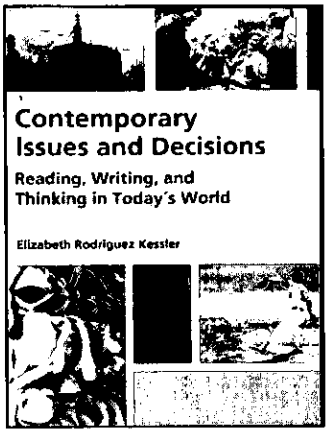
Roshd & Teachers Books



Sh.Zarei Neyestanak

This new rhetorically organized rhetoric/ reader provides students with accessible, step-by-step instructions on how to read and write in the rhetorical modes, along with short reading selections that exemplify the mode.

The readings present students with a wide array of contemporary American issues, from serious subject matter such as whether women should be required to register for the draft, to more lighthearted pieces like surviving car clutter. Each reading is accompanied by discussion questions and writing assignments concentrating on the theme of the reading and the rhetorical mode.

FEATURES

- Chapter 11, "Reading and Writing About Visual Literacy", presents students with a variety of images in writing assignments that allow students to incorporate multiple modes of development and critical thinking skills.
- Numerous sample paragraphs and model essays throughout provide students with samples from a variety of sources.
- A boxed summary highlights key content for every topic.
- Each reading is preceded by author bios and reading head notes, prewriting questions, and vocabulary words, and followed by reading comprehension questions and writing assignments.
- Reflection questions at the end of each chapter allow students to reflect on how they have grown or changed in their writing.

دفتر انتشارات کمک آموزشی

آشنایی با مجله های رشد

مجله های رشد توسط دفتر انتشارات کمک‌آموزشی سازمان پژوهش و برنامه ریزی آموزشی وابسته به وزارت آموزش و پرورش تهیه و منتشر می شوند.

مجلات دانش آموزی (به صورت ماهنامه و ۸ شماره در هر سال تحصیلی منتشر می شوند)

- رشد کودک (برای دانش آموزان آمادگی و پایهٔ اول دورهٔ ابتدایی)
- رشد نوآموز (برای دانش آموزان پایه های دوم و سوم دورهٔ ابتدایی)
- رشد دانش آموز (برای دانش آموزان پایه های چهارم و پنجم دورهٔ ابتدایی)
- رشد نوجوان (برای دانش آموزان دورهٔ راهنمایی تحصیلی).
- رشد جوان (برای دانش آموزان دورهٔ متوسطه).

مجلات عمومی (به صورت ماهنامه و ۸ شماره در هر سال تحصیلی منتشر می شوند)

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

مجلات تخصصی (به صورت فصلنامه و ۴ شمارهٔ در سال منتشر می‌شوند)

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مجلات رشد عمومی و تخصصی برای آموزگاران، معلمان، دبیران و کادر اجرایی مدارس، دانشجویان مراکز تربیت معلم و رشته های دبیری دانشگاه ها و کارشناسان تعلیم و تربیت تهیه و منتشر می شوند.

تهران، خیابان ایرانشهر شمالی، نبش خیابان شهید مفتح، پلاک ۲۶۸، دفتر انتشارات کمک آموزشی

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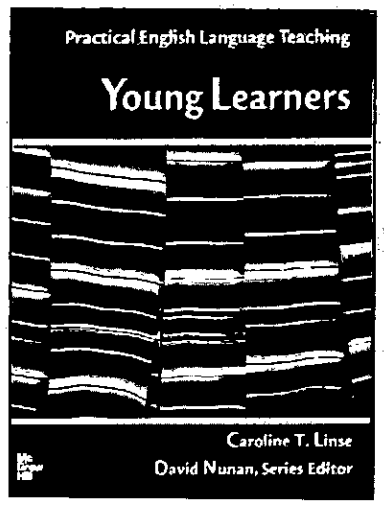

The *Practical English Language Teaching* series is designed for practicing teachers or for teachers in preparation who may or may not have formal training in second and foreign language teaching methodology. The core volume in this series, *Practical English Language Teaching*, provides an overall introduction to key aspects of language teaching methodology in an accessible yet not trivial way. The purpose of this volume is to explore issues as they relate directly to the teaching of English to young learners. The focus of this volume is on the education of children who are between the ages of five and 12 years of age.

This volume draws upon and combines content from three different professional arenas. First, this book is based on developmentally appropriate practices because it is necessary to always consider the children's physical, emotional, and cognitive development. Second, this volume considers both the abilities of native English speakers and the English content they are taught because children learning English as a Second or Foreign Language should not be expected to do something in English that would be beyond the reach of a native speaker. In addition, there are many strategies and techniques which are effective for children learning English as a native language that can be adapted to the ESL and EFL classroom. Finally, this book draws upon applicable content related specifically to ESL and EFL. Information, strategies, and techniques used with learners over 12 have been carefully selected and adapted for use with young learners.

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not strictly a characteristic of what is commonly referred to as learner-centered language pedagogy. Negotiation is classroom-group centered, serving a collective teaching-learning process and, thereby, individuals are located as members of a group (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000).

Conclusion

The role of the teacher in fostering language acquisition has frequently been in question, often limited to the provider of tasks that generate circumstances where interaction between two or more learners will occur. However, the theory of mediation presented in this article maintains that the teacher can play an important role in prompting effective learning in other significant ways. Rather than being peripheral, the teacher is vital in fostering the right climate for learning to take place, for confidence to develop, for people's individuality to be respected, for a sense of belonging to be natured, for developing appropriate learning strategies, and moving towards learner autonomy. Teacher's action in the classroom and their interactions in the classroom and their interactions with their learners will mirror, either implicitly or explicitly, their own beliefs about learning, their views of the world, their self-views, and their attitudes towards their subject and their learners. Thus, whatever methodology teachers purport to adopt, whatever course book or syllabus they are following, what goes on in their classroom will be influenced by their beliefs about the learning process. As we have seen, the whole context has a significant influence on any learning that takes place. This applies not only to the immediate context of the classroom; it also applies to the broader social, educational and political context within which language learning experiences are occurring. In addition, the cultural background of the learners will influence the sense they make of the learning situation, and their views of the culture to which the foreign language belongs (Brown, 2001).

Developing from moves towards communicative language teaching, recent innovations in classroom practice have emphasized the value of collaborative learning, learner-centeredness, autonomy and shared decision-making in the classroom. The motivation for developments in this area have come from many sources but a strong element in this is to create forms of classroom interaction which gives voice to students in the management of their learning. Through making exlicit the typically hidden views of students, the intention is to arrive at more effective, efficient and democratic modes of classroom work. Negotiation in short, refers to discussion between all members of the classroom to decide how learning and teaching are to be organized. In a nutshell, an effective teacher is an autonomous, resourceful mediator and a reflective co-communicator who makes his classroom decisions, based on his negotiations with the learners.

Notes

1- Post-method
2- Meditation
3- Mediator
4- Interaction hypothesis
5- Comprehensible output
6- Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)
7- Reflective teaching

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purposes of reflective teaching, such visits should be planned to be different from the kinds observations carried out by supervisors. In an effort to improve teachers' self-awareness in this respect, some educational theorists have fostered the notion of critical reflection. The intention here is to enable teachers to become reflective practitioners; thereby they subject their everyday professional practice to ongoing critical reflection and make clear their own particular world view by means of such consideration (Carter & Nunan, 2002).

Negotiation and Decision-making

Over recent years, interests in the concepts of *negotiation* and *process* in language teaching have come from two main areas of professional debate. On the one hand, research has looked closely at the process of a second language acquisition and how interaction may contribute. The use of the concept of *process* and *negotiation* has recently emerged in the realm of classroom pedagogy. In this, *process* has been defined as taking students through various stages in producing language, most notably in the area of academic writing where students are encouraged to collect ideas, draft, seek feedback and negotiate with peers and with the reader to accomplish a successful text (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000).

The original use of the term *negotiation* in the sense we refer to here derives from researchers investigating the nature of conversational interaction. Here the negotiation is overtly social and occurs when people use language either to indicate their understanding on their failure to understand what another person has said, or in order to modify and restructure their language to make things clearer so that they will be understood. Long (2005) and other researchers who acknowledged the centrality of conversational interaction in SLA later adopted the term negotiation to describe it and, more recently, specified it as *negotiation for meaning*. Interactive negotiation, therefore, occurs in an ongoing and usually spontaneous way within immediate social activity. From the perspective of language acquisition research, however, it also has a psycholinguistic purpose in that it is seen as a facilitative means for generating comprehensible input.

Four principles underlie negotiation in the language classroom. First, negotiation is a means for responsible membership of the classroom community. Next, negotiation can construct and reflect learning as an emancipatory process. Third, negotiation can activate the social and cultural resources of the classroom group. Finally, negotiation can inform and extend a teacher's pedagogic strategies. Clearly, the teacher is at the center of the negotiation process. In the context of negotiation, the teacher has the opportunity to act as a role model for active learning. The teacher can welcome learner's alternative interpretations and proposals as equal but also identify them as open to the group's judgements, selection and agreement. He can encourage learner's own gradual explicitness and greater precision in the identification of preferred learning purposes, content, ways of working and ways of evaluating outcomes so that such preferences become available for everyone as reference points and alternatives for action (Nunan,2006). Negotiation should be viewed as a means for a teacher and students to share decision-making in relation to the unfolding language curriculum of the group. Teacher and students should identify and address those decisions from the full range which may appear to be most appropriate and feasible for them to negotiate in the context in which they work. Negotiated decision-making enables learners to exercise their active agency in learning. Being an active agent of one's own learning in a classroom entails optimizing the collective resources of a gathering of people, including a teacher who probably has greater experience of helping people to learn than others in the room. Negotiation is

is close to the next form that would be acquired naturally in the learner's interlanguage. According to this hypothesis, the psycholinguistic processing devices acquired at one stage are a necessary building block for the following stage. This implies that structures cannot be taught successfully if the learner has not learned to produce structures belonging to the previous stage. Instruction can only promote acquisition if the interlanguage is close to the point when the structure to be taught is learnable without instruction in natural setting. A central process in Vygotsky's account of learning is the scaffolding during a shared activity provided by social interaction between a learner who is not yet capable of independently achieving something and a person who is already knowledgeable and capable (Ellis, 2003).

Reflective Teaching

Gaining teaching experience, participating in teacher-development courses, thinking about and discussing published scholarship, attending conferences, consulting colleageues, and getting to know students better are but some of the many ways that English language teachers can grow as professionals. An important characteristic of an efficient teacher is to have an increased capacity for self-reflective thought. The purposes of reflective teaching are three folds (Kaplan, 2002):

1. To expand one's understanding of the teaching – learning process;
2. To expand one's repertoire of strategic options as a language teacher;
3. To enhance the quality of learning opportunities one is able to provide in language classrooms.

Richards and Lockhart (1994) define reflective teaching as an approach to second language classroom instruction in which current and prospective teachers collect data about teaching, examine their attitudes, beliefs, assumptions, and teaching practices and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection about their efforts in language courses.

As there are many topics to be explored by reflective teachers, there are many different ways or tools for reflective teaching. These tools are: *Five-minute papers, Formative teacher assessment survey, Student focus group, Retrospective field notes*, and *Formative feedback from peers*. Regular use of five-minute papers is a direct way of finding out how learners perceive and respond to our efforts as teachers. A few minutes before the end of the lesson, the teacher asks everyone to take out a sheet of paper and put down their feelings and suggestions which might help to improve the teacher's future decision-making. A complement to five-minute papers is to schedule several surveys of students' perceptions of how well the course is going. Teachers are advised to implement such surveys three times during the span of an entire course. These surveys should be included in the course syllabus on the first day of class so students will know from the start that their impressions will be solicited, and what the survey will include. The use of student focus group has proved helpful for fine-tuning the teachers' planning decisions and increasing awareness of their strengths as well as areas they could improve. A very effective situation for those interested in student focus group is to build toward a reciprocal peer arrangement in which two teachers may serve as the discussion facilitator for each other's classes (Celce-Murcia, 2001). Ideally, a mutually supportive collaboration evolves between teachers that could develop over time.

There are many ways in which a teacher may collaborate with others to gain a deeper understanding and awareness of the teaching-learning process. A classic way of gaining access to formative feedback is to invite a peer, that is, another language teacher whose opinion you respect to visit one or more of your classes. For

that they are both able and willing to attempt is, so that they will approach the task in a focused and self-directed way. This produces in the learner what Feuerstein calls a *State of Vigilance* and a sharpness of purpose and perception (William & Burden, 2000). This does not necessarily imply that reciprocity is a one-way process with every decision being made by the teacher. Since the ultimate purpose is to encourage autonomous learning, negotiation becomes an increasingly important aspect of this process. Michael Long's *Interaction hypothesis* also emphasized the importance of comprehensible input but claims that it is most effective when it is modified through the negotiation of meaning (Long, 1985). Merrill Swain (1985) formulated an alternative hypothesis, which she called the *Comprehensible output hypothesis*. She has suggested that teachers should give learners opportunities to produce language. According to Swain, there are a number of ways in which learners can learn from their own output. Output can serve a consciousness-raising function if teachers help learners to notice gaps in their interlanguages. That is, by trying to speak or write in the L2 they realize that they lack the grammatical knowledge of some feature that is important for what they want to say. Second, output helps learners to test hypotheses. They can try out a rule and see whether it elicits negative feedback. Third, learners sometimes talk about their own output, identifying problems with it and discussing ways in which they can be put right (Nunan, 1999). The same conclusion was reached by Schmidt (1983) who carried out a case study of his own experiences learning Portuguese in Brazil. He found that formal instruction plus opportunities to communicate out of class were both necessary for acquisition. He also challenged the idea of subconscious acquisition, arguing that he only acquired items when they were consciously noticed. Out of his study he formulated what he called the *notice the gap* principle. This is based on the insight that learners' knowledge of a foreign language improves when he notices the gap between his own production and that of the teacher with whom he is interacting.

Vygotsky's ZPD

Vygotsky's most widely known concept is probably the zone of proximal development, which is the term used to refer to the layer of skill or knowledge which is just beyond that with which the learner is currently capable of coping. Working together with another person either a teacher or a more competent peer at a level that is just above a learner's present capabilities is the best way for the learners to move into the next layer. The concepts of mediation and zone of proximal development are important ones in social interactionist theories (Vygotsky, 1978). ZPD is a notion that has been enthusiastically taken up by some educational psychologists because it has important implications for teachers with regard to what they can do to help children in their learning. It suggests that the teacher should set tasks that are at a level just beyond that at which the learners are currently capable of functioning, and teach principles that will enable them to make the next step unassisted. Bornstein and Bruner (1989) have used the term *laddering* to refer to his process. Comparative research has shed light on how teachers engage learners in their ZPD through instructional conversation that scaffold novices into an L2. The extent to which instruction in the classroom does help learners to acquire linguistic rules is a topic that has been hotly debated in language teaching. Some researchers such as Ellis (1984) suggest that it may be that instruction helps only when the learner is ready to acquire the form being taught, that is, when the form is in the learner's ZPD. Pienemann (1989) also picks up this concept in his Teachability hypothesis where he maintains that instruction can promote acquisition of language if the form to be acquired

spoke of the death of methods and approaches and the term *Post-method era* was used (Richards & Renandya, 2002). In the *Post-method era*; attention has shifted to teaching and learning processes and the contributions of the individual teacher to language teaching pedagogy. According to post-method condition, the interaction between one's approach and classroom practice is the key to dynamic teaching. The best teachers are able to take calculated risks in the classroom. As new student needs are perceived, innovative pedagogical techniques are attempted, and the follow-up assessment yields observed judgment on their effectiveness. Initial inspiration for such innovation comes from the approach level, but the feedback that teachers gather from actual implementation then reshapes and modifies their overall understanding of what learning and teaching are –which, in turn, may give rise to a new insight and more innovative possibilities, and the cycle continues. Teachers, in Post-method era, have the authority to make decisions and generate innovative techniques specific to their own classrooms. These autonomous teachers seek to devise a systematic, coherent, and relevant alternative to conventional methods of language teaching through constructing classroom-oriented theories of practice. An enlightened teacher is reqired to diagnose the needs of students and to use the cumulative body of knowledge and principles in order to treat students with successful pedagogical techniques, and to assess the outcome of those treatments. An approach to language pedagogy is not just a set of static principles set in stone. It is, in fact, a dynamic composites of energies within a teacher that changes (or should change if one is a growing teacher) with continued experience in lerning and teaching. One teacher's approach may, of course, differ on various issues from that of a colleague, or even of experts in the field, who differ among themselves (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

In brief, an efficient teacher uses his teaching experiences and his knowledge of teaching and learning principles to create a set of learning experiences that are appropriate, given specific contexts and purposes, for realizing established objectives and is in keeping with the dynamics of the classroom itself.

Theory of Mediation

To provide learning experiences which are truly educational, the teacher can mediate in a number of different ways. Feuerstein (1980) identifies twelve features of mediation. The first three features are considered by Feuerstein to be essential for all learning tasks. The first key feature of mediation is called *Significance* – any learning task must have value or personal meaning to the learners. In mediating in this way, the teacher's role is to help learners to perceive how the activity is of value to them. If learners do not find personal significance in a task, then it lacks the necessary vitality or relevance. Closely linked to this is the second feature of mediation, *Purpose beyond the here and now*. Feuerstein refers to this characteristic as transcendence. Learners must be aware of the way in which the learning experience will have wider relevance to them beyond the immediate time and place. They should learn something of more general value than the actual item taught by the task. For example, in learning vocabulary, they might learn a strategy that will help them to learn further items of vocabulary more easily. The teacher, therefore, needs to be aware of the more general learning value of a task, and to convey this to the learners. Once the teacher is clear in his mind what it is that he wants his learners to do and why, he needs to consider the third feature of mediation, *Shared intention*. Feuerstein refers to this as intentionality and reciprocity. In presenting learners with any learning task, teachers should ensure that learners understand exactly what is required of them, and

معلم موفق از طریق مذاکره و گفت‌وگو با نوآموزان و استفاده از تجربیاتی که در ضمن برگزاری کلاس به‌دست می‌آید، می‌تواند به اتخاذ تصمیمات آموزشی مؤثر مبادرت ورزد. این امر زمانی میسر است که او با ایجاد رابطه‌ای دوستانه در محیطی دموکراتیک، نوآموزان را ترغیب کند تا به صورتی مسئولانه در مورد مسائل یادگیری و آموزش، اظهارنظر کنند و معلم را در تصحیح تصمیمات گذشته و اتخاذ تصمیمات جدید مساعدت نمایند.

کلیدواژه‌ها: دوره‌ی فراروشی، نظریه‌ی میانجیگری، فرضیه‌ی تعامل، پل ارتباطی بین دو سطح متفاوت از آمادگی زبانی، تدریس اندیشه‌ورزانه، تصمیم‌گیری از طریق گفت‌وگو و مذاکره، فرضیه‌ی قابلیت یادگیری.

Abstract

This article aims at providing language teachers with an introduction to several key issues and recent developments in effective teaching that will help them to understand better the ways in which their learners learn, and which will provide a fund of knowledge which they can apply to their classroom practices. The principles which are to be discussed are applicable to teachers of English as a foreign language and those involved in the management of teaching or teacher training organizations, such as head teachers or inspectors. Key issues such as Post-method condition, Mediation theory, Zone of proximal development, Reflective teaching and Negotiated decision making are to be dealt with in detail.

Key Words: *post-method era, mediation theory, interaction hypothesis, zone of proximal development (ZPD), reflective teaching, negotiated decision making, teachability hypothesis.*

Introduction

How do we feel that language teaching profession will move ahead in the near, or even more distant, future? The approaches and methods presented so far have identified a number of issues that we expect to continue to shape the future of language teaching in different ways. Some of the responses to these issues may take the form of new approaches and methods; others may lead to a refining or reshaping of existing approaches and methods as the teaching profession responds to the findings of new research and to developments in educational theory and practice. The initiatives for changing programs and pedagogy may come from within the profession-from teachers, administrators, theoreticians, and researchers. Incentives or demands of political or social, or even fiscal nature may also drive change, as they had in the past. This article aims to identify and elaborate on some of the factors that influenced language teaching trends in the past and that can be expected to continue to do so in the future.

Post-method era

The notion of teaching methods has had a long history in language teaching, as has been witnessed by the rise and fall of a variety of methods throughout the recent history of language teaching. Many teachers have found the notion of methods attractive over the last one hundred or so years, since the offer apparently foolproof systems for classroom instruction and are hence sometimes embraced enthusiastically as a panacea for the language teaching problem. The 1970s and 1980s were perhaps the decades of greatest enthusiasm for methods. In 1990s, the notion of method came under criticism, and a number of limitations implicit in the notion of all-purpose methods were raised. By the end of the twentieth century, mainstream language teaching no longer regarded methods as the key factors in accounting for success or failure in language teaching. Some

Effective Teaching

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چکیده

مقاله‌ی حاضر عوامل و نظریه‌هایی را معرفی می‌کند که براساس آن‌ها ما می‌توانیم، به آموزشی موفق و مؤثر در زمینه‌ی آموزش زبان دست یابیم.

اولین نظریه‌ی مطرح شده در این مقاله، «فراروشی[1]» نام دارد که ما را در تدریس زبان به دوره‌ی جدیدی، یعنی دوره‌ی فراروشی وارد می‌کند. در این دوره برخلاف دوره‌های پیشین، روش یا متد خاصی مدنظر نیست، بلکه تأکید بر این نکته است که معلم زبان باید با استفاده از تجربیات و اطلاعات نظری و کاربردی خود در زمینه‌ی آموزش زبان، روش و فنونی را در کلاس ابداع کند که جواب‌گوی نیازهای زبانی، عاطفی، ذهنی، اجتماعی و فرهنگی نوآموزان زبان باشد. معلم، طبق این نظریه، به صورت کاملاً مستقل و رها از قیودات و محدودیت‌های آموزشی و بدون پیروی از روش و یا برنامه‌ی درسی خاصی، با توجه به ویژگی‌های منحصر به فرد شاگردان خود، به اجرای فنون و روش‌های ابتکاری می‌پردازد. شعار دوره‌ی فراروشی این است که یک روش آموزشی خاص نمی‌تواند پاسخ‌گوی نیازهای نوآموزان متفاوت در فضاهای گوناگون آموزشی باشد. بنابراین، تدریس زبان زمانی مؤثر و موفق است که با نیازهای زبانی یک گروه خاص در یک محیط خاص مطابقت داشته باشد.

مقاله، در ادامه به بررسی نظریه‌ی دیگری به نام «میانجیگری»[2] می‌پردازد. طبق این نظریه، مدرس زبان برای تدریس مؤثر باید به سه صورت در یادگیری نوآموزان خود، به عنوان یک میانجی[3]، مشارکت و دخالت مثبت داشته باشد. برای موفقیت لازم است، ابتدا نوآموزان زبان را از اهداف برنامه‌ی آموزشی آگاه کند و سپس آن‌ها را برانگیزد، در ضمن فراگیری زبان، به نکات و موضوعاتی فراتر از محتوای درسی دست یابند. در ادامه، مدرس باید مشخص کند تا چه حد در انتقال مفاهیم و مقاصد موردنظر خود به نوآموزان موفق بوده است. مقاصد ما گاه چنان که مدنظر ماست، به نوآموزان منتقل نمی‌شود و یا به غلط برداشت می‌شود.

مایکل لانگ و مریل سواین در همین راستا با طرح نظریه‌ی تعامل[4] و نظریه‌ی «برون‌داد قابل فهم»[5]، هرچه بیشتر بر نقش تعامل و تبادل معنایی برای قابل فهم کردن مطالب ارائه‌شده، تأکید دارند. آن‌ها عقیده دارند، مطالب آموزشی که معلم به نوآموزان عرضه می‌کند، می‌تواند از طریق تعامل و گفت‌وگو بین معلم و شاگردان، به صورتی قابل فهم درآید؛ به شرط آن‌که مطالب با ترتیبی منطقی و منطبق بر سطح آمادگی نوآموزان ارائه شوند.

در تأیید مطلب فوق می‌توان به نظریه‌ی «پل ارتباطی بین دو سطح متفاوت از آمادگی زبان»[6] اشاره کرد که طبق آن، خلأ بین سطح آمادگی کنونی یک نوآموز و سطح بالاتری از آمادگی وی، زمانی پر می‌شود که معلم با مشارکت و مساعدت خود، او را در ارتقا به سطح بالاتر یاری کند و هم‌چنین، نوآموز نیز از نظر رشد فکری و اطلاعاتی، آمادگی عبور از این پل ارتباطی و رسیدن به سطح بالاتر را داشته باشد.

نکته‌ی مهم دیگری که مقاله به طرح آن می‌پردازد، رویکرد تدریس اندیشه‌ورزانه[7] است. طبق این نظریه، مدرس باید لحظه به لحظه فرایند تدریس خود را مورد ارزیابی و سنجش قرار دهد و از طریق گرفتن بازخورد از نوآموزان و همکاران، و هم‌چنین ثبت و ضبط فعالیت‌های کلاس، به صورتی منصفانه مهارت و ابتکار خود را در زمینه‌ی آموزش محک بزند.

مقاله‌ی حاضر، پس از بررسی نظریه‌های یاد شده، به مسئله‌ی بسیار مهم تصمیم‌گیری از طریق گفت‌وگو می‌پردازد و تأکید می‌کند،

giving evidence from your self-observation.

c) Read

If you think you need to find out more about a certain area, you can study books or magazines on pedagogy. You can even surf the Net and visit websites for teachers to get useful teaching ideas or more academic articles.

d) Ask

Pose questions to websites or magazines to get ideas from other teachers. Or if you have a local teachers' association or opportunities for in-service training, ask for a session on an area that interests you.

e) Try

The next time you go to the class, try the new ideas and practices. Again observe the class events and think about the results. Don't forget that reflection is a continuous cyclical process.

Conclusion

" Reflection practice offers practical options to address professional development issues. It encourages practitioners to generate and share their insights and theories about teaching." (Florez, 2006, P. 3). Reflective practice compels teachers to look at the reasons and theories behind their practices and forces them to examine factors such as beliefs and assumptions about learning, students' needs, and the teachers' relationship with the larger community. Although there are barriers to reflective teaching (e. g. lack of time, fear of failure, and fear of judgment by others, etc.), it is a really useful practice which prepares the teachers for serving the needs of their students and the community as a whole (Pickett, 2006). As a result of reflection teachers may decide to do something in a different way, or they may come to the conclusion that how they are doing is the best posible way of doing it. And this is what professional development is all about.

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work as they had never done something like this before. But I think because I demonstrated how to do the task by doing a sample task with Asifa, everyone had a much clearer idea of what they needed to do. I Should have done the demo with my 9B class too, rather than simply explaining what to do. It was actually a great success as everyone (even Hashim!!) was using English to talk with their partner and solve the picture riddles. I must find some more of these riddles for a later class. They really seemed to enjoy it!"
Excerpt taken from Mohamed (2006)

b) Record a lesson

You could audio or video record the lesson, making sure the students are aware of the purposes of the recording. Of course many students tend to be self-conscious and less willing to participate in a class if they are being recorded. Lesson recordings can help you determine how much you talk, how much time you allocate to student talk, whether you give equal attention to all students, your movements in the classroom, your tone of voice, the clarity of your instructions and explanations, where you strand, etc.

c) Obtain feedback from students

You can do this by speaking with the class as a group or individually. You can ask them to comment on what they like or don't like about your teaching as well as about the new things they like you to include. You could also ask them to complete a questionnaire; this may be related to your teaching practice in general, or a particular aspect of your teaching (for example, error correction). Students are generally quite open about what they think of your teaching, and provide some very good suggestions about new activities they like to try. You can also ask your students to maintain a learning diary as part of class work or as a regular homework activity.

d) Invite a colleague to observe you

By observation we mean a purposeful examination of teaching events through systematic processes of data collection and analysis. Formal observations be a superior can be embarrassing, so getting feedback on your teaching through a colleague is better. Again you may ask your colleague to focus on a particular aspect of your teaching (e. g. your patterns of interaction with students), or to comment on your teaching in general. The observer can take down notes. Immediately after the lesson discuss the points with your observer (Tice, 2006; Bailey, 2001).

● What to do next

a) Think

You may notice patterns occurring in your teaching through your observation. You may also notice things that you were previously unaware of. You may be surprised by some of the feedback of your students. You may already have some is ideas for changes to implement. Think about and analyze the following questions:

- ❒ What were your goals (for a particular lesson)?
- ❒ How did you intend to achieve those goals?
- ❒ What actually happened?
- ❒ How do you feel about this?
- ❒ What could you do/ have done differently?

b) Talk

Just by talking about what you have discovered - to a supportive colleague, a friend, or your university professors - you may be able to come up with some ideas for how to things differently. To do this, you and your colleagues can meet to discuss issues. Or you can use a list of statements about teaching beliefs (e. g. "Pairwork is a valuable activity in the language class." or "Lexis is more important than grammar.") and discuss which ones you agree or disagree with, and which ones are reflected in your own teaching

dynamic approach to teaching which distinguishes him/her from an invariant teacher. The following are some of these differences: A reflective teacher is one who can design and implement an effective educational program by adapting his or her teaching skills and techniques to the specific school situation, purpose of the lesson, and the children's abilities, interests, and needs. An invariant teacher is one who uses one approach and predetermined curriculum or content in all teaching situations, regardless of the class/ school characteristics. A reflective teacher bases progression on such factors as the student's rate of improvement, physical skill needs, and interests, while an invariant teacher bases progression on such factors as six-week units, and amount of material to be covered in a semester. A reflective teacher modifies activities and lessons to available equipment and facilities, while an invariant teacher teaches only those activities and lessons that use available equipment. A reflective teacher attempts to understand management problems, seeks the causes, and then modifies teaching procedures accordingly, whereas an invariant teacher assumes that students are misbehaving and resorts to punitive measures to modify individual and class behavior. A reflective teacher assesses the students regularly and seeks constructive criticism about his/ her teaching from children and colleagues but an invariant teacher assesses sporadically and often bases assessment on whether children liked the lesson, how long they remained interested, and how well they behaved (Pickett, 2006; Gimenez, 1999).

Becoming a reflective teacher

● The first thing to do

There is no one way to explore one's own classroom practices but it is important to begin by collecting information about what happens in the classroom. The following are some suggestions for gathering classroom data.

a) ***Maintain a teaching diary***

This is a daily record of your professional experiences, particularly focusing on the events in the classroom. It will help to clarify your thinking. Include in your diary not only the events that occurred during the lesson, but also your own thoughts and feelings about it as well as your students' reactions and responses. The following is an excerpt taken from the diary of a teacher who teaches EFL to teenagers:

"I was apprehensive about whether it would

Introduction

By three methods, we may learn wisdom: first, by reflection, which is noblest; second, by imitation, which is easiest; and third, by experience which is the bitterest. (Confucius, Chinese philosopher, 479-551 B. C.). The word *reflection* generates connotations of mirroring, meditation, deep thinking or thoughtful consideration (Mohamed, 2006). Reflective teaching is a movement in education in which teachers analyze their own practice and consider alternative means of achieving their ends. Surely it doesn't simply involve thinking for example *"Oh I don't think that activity went very well; maybe I'll try it in groups next time."* Reflective teaching entails a systematic approach in which teachers collect data about teaching, examine their attitudes, assumptions, and teaching practices, and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection about teaching. It is a process of self-observation and self-evaluation. By collecting information about what goes on in our classroom, and by analyzing and evaluating the information, we identify and explore our own activities and the underlying beliefs. This may then lead to changes in our teaching (Tice, 2006; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Pennington, 1992).

The nature of reflective thinking

Reflection is a specialized form of thinking stemming from doubt and perplexity felt in a directly experienced situation, and leading to purposeful inquiry and problem resolution. Bartlett (1990) proposes a model for reflection; this model includes five elements in the cycle of reflective thinking: 1) *mapping* which, with the emphasis on individual observations, addresses the question *What do I do as a teacher?*, 2) *informing* which, with the focus on the meaning of teaching, asks *What did I intend?*, 3) *contesting* which asks *How did I come to be this way?* and *How was it possible for my present view to have changed?*, trying to uncover the assumptions behind the actions, 4) *appraising* which asks *How might I teach differently?*, leading to a search for alternative actions which are consistent with our new understanding, and 5) *acting* which asks *What and how shall I now teach?*

Sparks-Langer and Colton (1991) list three elements important to reflective thinking: the cognitive element, the critical element, and the teacher narrative. *The cognitive element* describes how teachers process information and make decisions; here six categories of knowledge are to be addressed: (1) content/ subject-matter knowledge, (2) pedagogical methods and theory, (3) curriculum, (4) characteristics of learners, (5) teaching contests, and (6) educational purposes. *The critical element* focuses on experiences, goals, values, and social implications that drive thinking. *The teacher narrative* refers to the teacher's own voice and interpretations of the context where professional decisions are made. The main purpose of reflection is to raise consciousness among educators, to challenge attitudes and beliefs, and to engender a high degree of professional practice and development through a continuos cycle of self-observation and self-evaluation (Florez, 2006; Richards & Lockhart, 1994).

Some scholars differentiate between *reflection-in-action* which is during teaching with the aim to fine ways to solve unexpected problems while teaching, and *reflection-on-action* which is after teaching with the aim to decide whether what went on in the class was fruitful or changes are necessary (Pickett, 2006; Tice, 2006). Gimenez (1999) adds one more to these, reflection *before* teaching, which refers to the preparation needed before a teacher starts his/her teaching. So a teacher should include reflection as an important part *throughout* the cycle of teaching.

The differences between a reflective teacher and an invariant teacher

A reflective teacher follows an active and

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How to Become a Reflective Teacher

چکیده

تدریس اندیشه‌ورزانه رویکردی است با این پیش‌فرض که معلمان می‌توانند، کیفیت تدریس خود را با تفکر انتقادی درباره‌ی تجربیات خود در کلاس‌هایشان بهبود بخشند. این رویکرد، یعنی مشاهده‌ی آنچه در کلاس انجام می‌دهید، فکر کردن به این‌که چرا آن را انجام می‌دهید، و این‌که آیا روش شما کارامد است یا نه [ریچاردز و دیگران، ۱۹۹۲].

نوعی تدریس همراه با کاوش و بررسی است که معلمان را در چرخه‌ی تفکر و عمل- براساس تجربیات حرفه‌ای- درگیر می‌کند. لازمه‌ی انجام این کار، برخورداری از رویکردی نظام‌مند است که به بسط عمق و دامنه‌ی سؤالاتی منجر می‌شود که معلمان درباره‌ی تدریس خود می‌پرسند [پیکت، ۲۰۰۶].

در این مقاله، ابتدا ویژگی‌های تفکر اندیشه‌ورزانه مورد بحث قرار می‌گیرد و سپس تفاوت‌های معلم اندیشه‌ورز و معلم سنتی و تغییرناپذیر مشخص می‌شود. درنهایت نیز مراحلی که معلمان برای تدریس اندیشه‌ورزانه باید طی کنند، ارائه می‌شوند.

کلید واژه‌ها: تفکر اندیشه‌ورزانه، تفکر انتقادی، معلم اندیشه‌ورز، معلم تغییرناپذیر.

Abstract

Reflective teaching is an approach to teaching based on the assumption that teachers can improve their understanding of teaching and its quality by thinking critically on their teaching experiences in their classes to improve classroom practices. Reflective teaching means looking at what you do in the classroom thinking about why you do it, and thinking about if it works (Richards, et al, 1992). Reflective teaching is a kind of inquiry-oriented teaching practice which engages educators in a cycle of thought and action based on professional experiences. It requires a systematic approach and leads to the expansion of the depth and range of questions teachers can ask about their own teaching (Pickett, 2006). In this article, first the nature of reflective thinking, then the differences between a reflective teacher and an invariant teacher, and finally the procedures of becoming a reflective teacher are discussed.

Key Words: *reflective thinking, critical thinking, reflective teacher, invariant teacher.*

- a quiet, uncluttered homework space;
- alarm watch;
- purchased texts that can be marked with a highlighter;
- a homework assignment diary coordinated between home and school;
- study skills instruction; and
- a personally-developed date-book or scheduler.

12. For students who copy inaccurately, but need written practice to solidify learning, changes that may help include: leaving a space directly under each word, phrase or sentence, or having handouts on the desk for those who can't copy from the blackboard or take dictation accurately. For left-handed students, place the list of words at the right margin. For students whose writing is large, provide enlarged spaces for "fill in the blank" activities.

13. For students who seem to process auditory information slowly (e.g., not fully understanding questions asked, recalling needed information, or forming an appropriate answer), be patient. Allow sufficient "wait-time for the answer or provide the questions in written form."

14. Oral and written language should be taught together as much as possible. Illustrations in a book being read should be used to generate conversation, vocabulary and concepts that will relate to what is to be read. Material that is read can be translated into a verbal summary, a word web, a visual organizer, or a computer presentation.

15. For students who find reading slow and difficult, supplement the subject matter being read with video tapes., DVDs, captioned TV programs, or computer software (LDA, 2005).

It is fair to assume some students to be learning disabled. However, learning disabilities are not obviously recognized or are recognized but not dealt with. When we see a student floundering, a students who, in Levine's words, seems capable of more, we have the best indication that the problem may be an L.D. (learning disability) problem. There is much that we as classroom teachers can in fact do to improve that student's learning condition.

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2. For students with memory problems or difficulty taking notes, a fellow student might share notes; the student might tape the lesson; or the teacher might provide a copy of the lesson outline.

3. For students who read below expected levels, educational videos and films or talking books can provide the general information that cannot be acquired from the printed page.

4. For student with short term memory problems (e. g., understand math processes, but have short term memory problems that interfere with remembering math facts), a table of facts or a calculator could be provided.

5. For the student whose handwriting is slow, illegible or includes many reversed letters, a cassette recorder or a computer with word processing software could be used for written work or tests.

6. For the student who has difficulty with spelling, a "misspeller's dictionary" or computerized spell checker can help make written materials readable.

7. For students who have difficulty reading cursive, small, or crowded print, typed handouts, large print, or double spaced materials can help.

8. To develop memory and listening skills, poetry, rhymes, songs, audio-taped materials and mnemonics may improve performance.

9. To teach spelling, use a multi-sensory approach which combines saying, spelling aloud, and writing words.

10. Ways to improve vocabulary and comprehension can include a student-developed file of vocabulary words and the use of word webs and visual organizers to relate words and ideas heard or read on paper. A dictionary or thesaurus, suited to the child's learning level, is also an excellent tool for building vocabulary, spelling and reading comprehension.

11. For students who have difficulty organizing time, materials and information, a variety of approaches can be used, including:

f. response delays as the student attempts to sort out verbal confusion

3. Classroom behaviors associated with visual, association confusions:

a. higher-level difficulties with if-then and the causal relationships
b. higher-level difficulties with inferential reasoning and reading between lines
c. irregularities regarding perception of conceptual gestalt
d. tendencies toward being excessively attentive to non-salient/irrelevant details
e. tendencies toward being pulled to salient details to the exclusion of other associated events

4. Classroom behaviors associated with limited concept manipulation, inner language skills:

a. limited self-generation and use of strategies
b. compromised memory styles
c. reduced efficiency/ accuracy
d. compromised summarization/ paraphrasing competencies
e. restricted inferential reasoning skills
f. tendencies toward being concrete with inordinate difficulties with abstract events
g. questionable appreciation and use of humor
h. restricted competencies for reading between lines
i. limited appreciation of if-then relationships
j. limited skill generalization from one event to another
k. limited skill for offering alternatives
l. limited skill at hypothesis generation
m. limited skill at hypothesis testing
n. restricted mathematic problem solving activities

(Martha-Sue Hoffman, 1984)

We all know the student who constantly fidgets, who does not finish his/her work, never knows what page we are on, or does not hear the assignment. It may be true in some cases that people displaying these and other behaviors are simply unfocused or even lazy; learning disabled people are often termed lazy. They are always being told to try harder. Moreover, there is little understanding of the fact that it is not the matter of having them do it differently. Anyway, the burden is on us as teachers to ensure that the classroom environment does not perpetuate learning failure.

Pedagogical Implications

Teachers can improve the learning climate for many students and most assuredly for those with a learning disability by planning tasks so that different intelligences are called upon and by balancing the involvement required of each hemisphere of the brain (Root, 1994).

Listed below are some suggested ways to aid students with specific learning disabilities (SLD) learn more effectively at home or at school. Using the possibilities must be based on the individual needs of each learner.

Information and ideas from a multidisciplinary team, including the parents and student, are important for developing an Individualized Education Program (IEP) that meets the unique needs of each student with learning disabilities. A carefully developed multidisciplinary approach will make classroom instruction meaningful for the student.

1. For some students who read slowly or with difficulty, a "read-along" technique in which taped texts and materials allow learning of printed materials.

called a fine motor disability.

Gross motor disabilities can cause the child to be clumsy, to stumble, to fall, to bump into things, or to have trouble with generalized physical activities like running, climbing, or swimming.

The most common form of fine motor disability shows up when the child begins to write. The problem lies in an inability to get many muscles in the dominant hand to work together as a team. Children and adolescents with this "written language" disability have slow and poor handwriting (Silver, 1990).

What are some signs that a person may have a learning disability?

Warning signs of learning disabilities in students occur as a pattern of behavior, over time. They include the following:

- ***Language/Mathematics/Social Studies***
  - a) Avoidance of reading and writing
  - b) Difficulty of summarizing
  - c) Tendency to misread information
  - d) Poor reading comprehension
  - e) Difficulty of understanding textbook subject area
  - f) Trouble with open-ended questions
  - g) Continued poor spelling
  - h) Poor grasp of abstract concepts
  - i) Poor skills in writing essays
  - j) Poor ability to apply math skills

- ***Attention/Organization***
  - a) Difficulty of staying organized
  - b) Trouble with test formats
  - c) Slow work pace in class and in testing situations
  - d) Poor note taking skills
  - e) Poor ability to proofread or double check work

- ***Social Behavior***
  - a) Difficulty of accepting criticism
  - b) Difficulty of seeking or giving feedback
  - c) Problem negotiating or advocating for oneself
  - d) Difficulty of resisting peer pressure
  - e) Difficulty of understanding another person's perspectives (Focus Adolescent Services , 2000)

Martha-Sue Hoffman (1984) divides ways that learning problems manifest themselves in school into four categories of difficulties. Although they were written to describe native-speaking, school aged children, many of them provide helpful insights for all teachers.

Categories of Difficulty

1. Classroom behaviors associated with word-retrieval difficulties:

a. an appearance of persistent verbal reticence
b. a diminishing verbal spontaneity
c. a tendency to raise one's hand presumably with correct answer, but ending up not knowing when actually called upon
d. a tendency to express the wrong answer
e. increasing difficulty in getting started, both verbally and graphically
f. an inordinate amount of difficulty with phonics acquisition and application

2. Classroom behaviors associated with selective attention immaturities:

a. inconsistent levels of task-attentiveness
b. diminishing levels of concentration vigilance and maintenance
c. variable levels of performance accuracy
d. inconsistent levels of task-completeness
e. an appearance of being forgetful when, in fact, the information is never really received or processed

which you store information that you have repeated often enough. You can retrieve this information quickly by thinking of it _ you can come up with your current address and phone number quite readily, for example_ or you may have to spend a little more time and effort to think or it _ your mother's home address, for example.

If your child has a memory disability, it is most likely a short-term one. Like abstraction disabilities, long-term memory disabilities interferes so much with functioning that children who have them are more likely to be classified as retarded. It may take ten to fifteen repetitions for a child with this problem to retain what the average child retains in three or five repetitions. Yet the same child usually has no problem with long-term memory. Your child probably surprises you at times by coming up with details that you have forgotten about, something that happened several years ago.

A short-term memory disability can occur with information learned through what one sees _visual short-term memory disability_or with information learned through what one hears _ auditory short-term memory disability. Often the two are combined. For example, you might go over a spelling list one evening with your son. He looks at it several times, listens to you, and can write down the spellings correctly from memory. He seems to have it down pat, but that's because he's concentrating on it. The next morning he has lost most or all of the words. Or a teacher may go over a math concept in class until your daughter understands it _ she's concentrating on it. Yet when she comes home that night and does her homework, she has completely forgotten how to do the problems.

Output Disabilities

Information comes out of the brain either by means of words_language output_or through muscle activity, such as writing, drawing, gesturing, and so forth-motor output. A child or adolescent may have a language disability or motor disability.

- ***Language Disability***

Two forms of language are used in communication, spontaneous language and demand language. You use spontaneous language in situations where you initiate whatever is said. Here you have the luxury of picking the subject and taking some time to organize your thoughts and to find the correct words before you say anything. In a demand language situation, someone else sets up a circumstance in which you must communicate. A question is put to you, for example. Now you have no time to organize your thoughts or find the right words; you have only a split second in which you must simultaneously organize, find words, and answer more or less appropriately. Children with a specific language disability usually have no difficulty with spontaneous language. They do, however, often have problems with demand language. For example, if a child comes across a demanding situation in which he or she should response, he or she may ask you to repeat your question in order to gain more time for thinking and answering. If the child is forced to answer, the response may be so confusing or so circumstantial that is difficult to follow.

- ***Motor Disabilitiy***

If a child has difficulty in using large muscle group, this is called a gross motor disability. Difficulty in performing tasks that require many muscles to work together in an integrated way is

example, "the dog" and "your dog" have very different meanings. The ability to draw general applications from specific words and to attach subtle shading to the basic meanings of words is referred to as "abstract thinking".

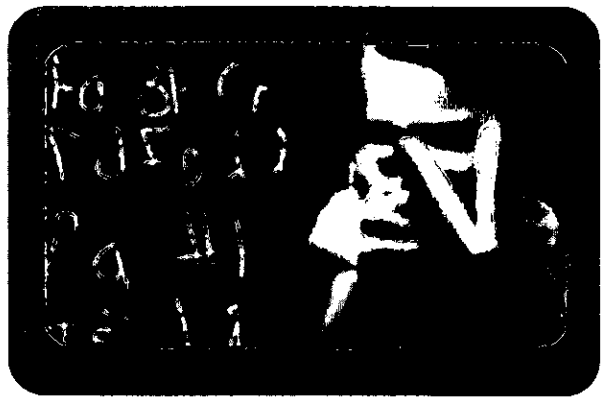
• ***Sequencing Disability***

A student with such a disability might hear or read a story, but in recounting it, start in the middle, go to the beginning, then shift to the end. Eventually the whole story comes out, but the sequence of events is wrong. Or a child might see the math problem as 16-3=? on the blackboard, but write it as 61-3=?

Spelling words with all of the right letters in the wrong order can also reflect this disability. Or a child may memorize a sequence_the days of the week, for example_and then be unable to use single units out of the sequence correctly. If you ask what comes after Wednesday, the child cannot answer spontaneously, but must go back over the whole list, "Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday...", before she or he can answer. This may also happen with regard to the numbers or the months of the year.

• ***Abstraction Disability***

Once information is recorded in the brain and laced in the right sequence, one must be able to infer meaning. Most learning disabled children have only minor difficulties in this area. Abstraction_the ability to derive the correct general meaning from a particular word or symbol_is a basic intellectual task. If the disability in this area is too great, the child is apt to be functioning at a retarded level. Some children do, however, have problems with abstraction. The teacher may be doing a language-arts exercise with a group of students. He or she reads a story about a police officer, let us say. The teacher begins a



discussion of police officers in general, asking the pupils if they know any men or women who are police officers in their neighborhoods, and if so, what do they do? A child with an abstraction disability may not be able to answer such a question. He or she can only talk about the particular officer in the story and not about law officers in general. Older students might have difficulty understanding jokes. Much of humor is based on playing on words which confuses them.

• ***Memory Disability***

Short-term memory is the process by which you hold on to information as long as you are concentrating on it. For example, when you call the information operator for a long-distance number, you get a ten-digit number with an area code. Like most people, you can probably retain these numbers long enough to dial the number if you do it right away and nothing interrupts your attention. However, if someone starts talking to you in the course of dialing, you may lose the number. Or, you might go to the store with five things in mind to buy, but by the time you get there so many different impressions have intervened that you've forgotten an item or two on your list.

Long-term memory refers to the process by

and instructions into an appropriate order so that tasks can be successfully completed (pp. 1-2).

Types of Learning Disabilities

First of all let us quickly outline a simple scheme describing what the brain must do in order for learning to take place. The first step is "input, getting information into the brain, primarily from the eyes and the ears. The second step is called "integration" in which the brain needs to make sense out of the arrived information. The next step is the storage and retrieval of the information, the "memory" process. And the last step is sending some kind of message back to the nerves and muscles, its "out put" (Silver, 1990). Now let's look at each area of learning disability specifically:

Input Disabilities

Information arrives at the brain as impulses, transmitted along neurons, primarily from eyes_called "visual input"_and from our ears_called "auditory input". This input process takes place in the brain. It does not pertain to visual problems such as nearsightedness or farsightedness, or to any hearing problems. This central process of seeing, or hearing, or in any other way taking in or perceiving one's environment is referred to as "perception". Thus we speak of a child who has a perceptual disability in the area of visual input as having a visual perceptual disability, and one with a disability in the area of auditory input as having an auditory perceptual disability. Some children have both kinds of perceptual disabilities, or they may have problems when both inputs are needed at the same time.For example, seeing what the teacher writes on the blackboard while listening to the explanation of what is being written.

- ***Visual Perceptual Disability***

Your student may have difficulty in organizing the position and shape of what he or she sees. Input may be perceived with letters reversed or rotated: An emight look like a 9; and E might look like a W, or a 3, or an M. The student may confuse similar looking letters because of these rotations or reversals: d, b, p, g, and q, may be confused with any one of others. The word "was" might be perceived as "saw".

- ***Auditory Perceptual Disabilitiy***

As with visual perception, your student may have difficulty with auditory perception. Those who have difficulty distinguishing subtle difference in sounds will misunderstand what you are saying and respond incorrectly. Words that sound alike are often confused-"blue" and "blew", or "ball" and "bell". You may ask a child, "How are you?" He may answer, "I'm nine". He thought he heard an "old" instead of "are".. or in addition to the "are."

Some students cannot process sound input as fast as normal ones can. This is called "auditory lag." If you speak at a normal pace, the student may miss part of what you are saying. You have to speak slower, or give separate instructions, before he or she can follow you.

Integration Disability

Once the information coming into the brain is registered, it has to be understood. At least two steps are required to do this: sequencing and abstraction.

Suppose that your brain recorded the following three graphic symbols: d, o, g. No problems with visual perception. But to make sense, of the perception, you have to place the symbols in the right order, or sequence. Is it d-o-g, or g-o-d or d-g-o, or what? Then you have to infer meaning from the context in which the word is used, both a general meaning and a specific meaning. For

remove or diminish these learning barriers? What are different types of learning disabilities? In this paper "**Input**", "**Integration**", and "**Output**" disabilities as three different types of learning disabilities are going to be dealt with. Those who have "input" disabilities have actually problems with perception and visualization of the materials. The students having "integration" disabilities show problems about sequencing and abstracting the materials. And the learners with "output" disabilities have actually problems with language and motor disabilities. So, this paper attempts to make classroom teachers more familiar with learning disabilities as well as offering some practical techniques to classroom practitioners for working more fruitfully with learners having learning disabilities.

Key words: *input disabilities, integration disabilities, output disabilities, language disabilities*

What is learning disability?

Learning disability means a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language which may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or to do some mathematical calculations (Public Law 1977. pp. 76-104).

This term encompasses such conditions as dyslexia, minimal brain dysfunctions, brain injury, perceptual handicaps, and developmental aphasia. The term does not include children who have problems that are primarily the result of visual, hearing, or motor disabilities, or mental retardation, emotional disturbance, or of environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage.

Levine (1984) believes that learning disability interferes with someone's ability to store, process, or produce information. He also says that learning disabilities create a gap between a person's true capacity and his day to day production and performance. It is not obvious that a person has learning disability. What may prove this shortcoming may be academic failure or unachievement by some one who seems capable of more (Levine 1984, p.1).

According to Saltus (1991) learning disabilities might have been inherited. It seems that they are caused by a neurological malfunction or processing glitch which renders written text-deciphering, sound-symbol connections and/or the sequencing of information very difficult. A learning disability does not necessarily show less intelligence. In fact, those who have a learning disability are often very bright, even gifted people (Vail 1987). However, it is true that their short circuit or processing glitch causes them to see things differently and sometimes obscures their intelligence.

While they cannot be cured, they can be taught compensatory strategies. Dyslexia is the term that is usually used to cover a very broad range of learning disabilities which involve language processing deficits. In brief, Levine (1984) describes these dysfunctions in terms of problems relating to 1) attention; 2) language, difficulty in interpreting and / or remembering verbal messages and instructions; 3) spatial orientation, poor reading and spelling skills; 4) memory, difficulties with retrieval of presumably stored information because it is mis-stored and cannot be found spontaneously; 5) fine motor control; 6) sequencing or difficulty organizing information

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Learning Disabilities

چکیده

بسیاری از معلمان، در موقعیت‌های کلاسی همواره با چالش‌ها و مشکلاتی روبه‌رو هستند که یکی از آن‌ها، «ناتوانی‌های یادگیری» بعضی از دانش‌آموزان است. لیواین (۱۹۸۴) معتقد است، ناتوانی یادگیری، در ذخیره‌سازی، پردازش و تولید اطلاعات افراد دخالت می‌کند و باعث ایجاد شکاف بین ظرفیت واقعی شخص و تولید و اجرای وی می‌شود. هر چند که ظاهراً مشخص نیست که او دچار ناتوانی یادگیری است، اما آن‌چه که این نقیصه را می‌تواند به اثبات برساند، عدم موفقیت شخص در موقعیت‌های تحصیلی است. ناتوانی‌های یادگیری از چه منابعی نشأت می‌گیرند؟ وظیفه‌ی ما به عنوان معلم در این زمینه چیست؟ و چه‌قدر می‌توانیم به فردی که دچار چنین مشکلی است، کمک کنیم؟ انواع ناتوانی‌های یادگیری که در این مقاله به آن‌ها اشاره شده است عبارت‌اند از: ناتوانی‌های **درون‌دادی**، ناتوانی درخصوص **تلفیق مطالب** و ناتوانی‌های **برون‌دادی**.

فردی که دچار ناتوانی‌های درون‌دادی است، با دریافت داده‌ها به‌صورت دیداری یا شنیداری و یا هر دو، مشکل دارد. فراگیرنده‌ای که دچار ناتوانی‌های تلفیق است، معمولاً در دو حوزه‌ی توالی و انتزاعی کردن مطالب، با مشکل روبه‌روست. هم‌چنین، فردی که دچار ناتوانی‌های برون‌دادی است، مشکلاتی درخصوص ناتوانی‌های زبانی و یا ناتوانی‌های عملی دارد. هافمن (۱۹۸۴) مشکلات یادگیری فراگیران را به چهار بخش تقسیم کرده است که در ادامه‌ی مقاله به آن‌ها اشاره خواهد شد. در این مقاله، ضمن بررسی این‌گونه ناتوانی‌ها، چندین راهبرد برای معلمان ارائه می‌شود که می‌تواند، در ارتقای سطح یادگیری افرادی که دچار ناتوانی‌های یادگیری هستند، مفید واقع شود.

کلید واژه‌ها: ناتوانی یادگیری، ناتوانی درون‌دادی، ناتوانی تلفیق، ناتوانی برون‌دادی، ناتوانی زبانی.

Abstract

Many of us who teach EFL are faced with setting where a certain student might have a learning problem which blocks or impedes his/her progress in English. So, what it the solution? How can we

and output has also remained an untouched area in this regard.

The ideas behind the Natural Order Hypothesis are also criticized by some scholars. Widdowson (1990) believes that the existing empirical evidence shows that there is an accuracy order in the performance of the learners and not in their acquisition of the second language. He adds:

> We may wish to assume that an accuracy order is the same as an inquisitional order, but such an assumption is not warranted by the evidence, it is based on the speculation that language learners will reveal what they know, that their performance will be a reflection of their competence. (p. 17)

Conclusion

Many do not agree with the natural approach. However, most will agree that the work of Terrell and Krashen have challenged us to evaluate what we are doing in the classroom and, most importantly, evaluate why we are doing it.

It is the responsibility of the teacher to create interactive, communicative activities and employ meaningful strategies to help the students acquire and apply the information they learn. Special consideration should also be given to learner variables. Learning how your students perceive the world around them will help to develop effective teaching strategies and meaningful activities (Mirhassani, 2003).

Therefore, teachers should try to use effective and useful techniques of this approach and combine them with other techniques in order to have better classes. Some of the useful strategies of this approach include: needs analysis, high interest and low anxiety of classroom procedures, meaningful materials, meaningful communication, etc.

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- A wide range of useful vocabulary for personal communication must be included.
- Any focus on grammatical structures should be resisted (Bowen et al, 1985 & Krashen and Terrell, 1983).

Discussion

The Natural Approach has some disadvantages. Among the disadvantages of this approach are:

- It is not based on a profound learning theory.
- It may not be easily applicable in advanced classes.
- It is difficult to apply in heterogeneous classes.
- Listening may be emphasized at the expense of speaking, neglecting hypothesis testing and other functions of learners' speech.
- The emphasis on communication can be justified in any instructional approach and not only this one.
- Krashen believes that language learning doesn't necessitate production which is not acceptable these days.
- It is not clear whether the crucial factor in this approach is:
  simplicity or comprehensibility.

A number of criticisms have also been presented on the theoretical and practical aspects of the Natural Approach.

As far as first hypothesis is concerned, it has been said that acquisition and learning are two distinct processes: one resulted from communication and the other from instruction. Widdowson (1990) states:

> The sharp dualism that is proposed whereby acquisition and learning are two quite distinct processes, would seem to force the conclusion that if you think carefully, choose your words, take your time before making your conversational contribution you cannot communicate, or at any rate not very effectively, because you are interfering with the natural function of the acquired system. And since acquisition depends on communication, your deliberate delivery will impede your progress in learning the language as well. (p. 21)

Another point to be mentioned is the appropriacy of Monitor Model. Even native speakers of a language constantly think about what they are going to say next. They model and modify the message they are communicating. In situations when there is an imbalance of power (social, economic, scientific ...) between the two participants, the less powerful party perpetually seeks structures which can compensate for his shortcomings. Morrison and Low (1983) mention that monitoring is a crucial feature of combinative intercaction. However, to Krashen, it does not seem to play any positive part in communication whatsoever.

With regard to comprehensible input, the Natural Approach believes that comprehensible input is the initiator of learning/acquisition. On the other hand, it is believed that acquisition is triggered by communicative activity and not only through comprehensible input (Widdowson, 1990). Moreover, what is comprehensible to language learners is in itself controversial. The learners' interest, with its determining role, has been ignored here.

Another neglected area in the Natural Approach is the learners' *INTAKE*. What type and how much of the input is transformed to be the learners' *INTAKE*. The relationship between input, intake,

classroom situations. The basic tenets expressed by the Natural Approach are: comprehension prior to production, lower affective filter, and communicative goals.

Characteristics of Natural Approach

The characteristics of natural approach depend on the following factors:

A. *Classroom Practice*

- Errors are not directly corrected, except in written assignments.
- The method is believed to be good for beginners to become intermediates.
- The skills to be achieved are classified into:
  (1) Basic personal communication skills: Oral (e.g., listening to public announcements) and written (e.g., reading and writing personal letters).
  (2) Academic learning skills: Oral (e.g., listening to giving a lecture) and written (e.g., taking notes in class to writing a paper).
- The purpose of a language course will vary according to the needs of the students and their particular interests (Needs analysis) (Krashen, 1985).

B. Learners

- To minimize students' stress, they are not required to say anything before they feel ready.
- Learners are processors of comprehensible input who are to lose themselves in activities involving meaningful communication.
- Learners' role change according to their stage of linguistic development. Their roles are classified into three stages:
  (1) The pre-production stage in which students participate in the language activity without having to respond in the target language.
  (2) The early-production stage in which students produce language in a controlled limited manner.
  (3) The speech-emergent stage in which students involve themselves in free communication.
- Students should learn how to tolerate a certain amount of language flow that is not completely comprehensible, because they are simply believed to need to get the gist of what they hear (Terrell, 1982).

C. Teachers

- The teacher is the main source of comprehensible input in the target language.
- The teacher is responsible for creating an interesting and friendly atmosphere of low affective filter.
- The teacher should choose the best of what others have experimented with, and adapt those insights to his own situation.
- The teacher should choose and organize a rich mix of classroom activities, involving a variety of group size, content and context (Krashen and Terrell, 1983).

D. Materials

- Materials should be as meaningful as possible.
- Materials should promote comprehension and communication.
- The needs and interests of students should be considered in materials.
- Materials must supply the extralinguistic context in order to facilitate learning.
- Materials should create a low affective filter by building up an interesting, friendly and relaxed atmosphere.

structures or morphemes are acquired before others in a first language, and the same order can be found in foreign language learning. It does not mean that all learners learn language in the same order and at the same time. Errors are signs of naturalistic developmental processes and during learning similar developmental errors may occur in learners no matter what their mother tongue is.

According to Krashen (1985) individual differences might be due to:

- Learners' first language, frequency of some forms in the input and different learning strategies.
- Existence of several streams of development taking place at the same time.

D.The Input Hypothesis

"Human acquires [or learns] language in only one way-by understanding messages, or by receiving '*comprehensible input*' ... We move+ from i, our current level, to i + 1, the next level along the natural order, by understanding input containing i + 1" (Krashen, 1985, p. 2).

This hypothesis simply states that learners learn language by understanding input that is a little beyond their current level of competence. Input refers to the language to which learners are exposed. As a result, listening and reading comprehension are of primary importance in language programs, and the ability to speak and write will emerge in time. Input Hypothesis involves four main issues.

First, it relates mainly to acquisition, and somehow to learning. Second, input which is slightly beyond the learners' current level of understanding will result in learning/acquisition. Third, the ability to speak fluently can not be taught directly; rather, it emerges independently in time, after the learner has built up linguistic competence by understanding the input. Fourth, if there is proper amount and type of comprehensible input, learning/acquisition will automatically appear. Care taker speech, foreigner talk, and teacher talk are instances of comprehensible input. Therefore, if input is understood, and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided. Speaking is a result of learning/acquisition and not its cause. It emerges on its own as a result of being exposed to comprehensible input. Formal instruction in a foreign language is helpful only because it is a source of comprehensible input. According to the theory, acquisition is not affected by negative data or specific structural teaching. Thus, correction is not suggested. Large fresh doses of comprehensible input will do it (Krashen, 1985).

E. Affective Filter Hypothesis

Krashen (1985) theorizes that in unfavorable circumstances, individuals develop negative attitudes that result in an affective filter, or mental block, that prevents them from using the input to internalize the language. If the filter is down, the input reaches the LAD; if the filter is up, the input is blocked. Highly motivated learners who have positive self-concepts are more successful. Research in second language acquisition has identified three kinds of affective or attitudinal variables: motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety.

It is mentioned that learners with a low affective filter seek and receive more input, interact with confidence, and are more receptive to the input they receive.

The proponents of Natural Approach claim that it is one of the communicative approaches of second language learning. It is highly flexible with regard to teaching techniques, and effective in

elaborated the theoretical rationale for the Natural Approach. Their approach should first be viewed through its theoretical foundations.

Communication is the primary function of language. Therefore, the focus of teaching is believed to be on teaching communicative abilities. In Natural Approach, not much attention is paid to the theory of language. Krashen and Terrel emphasized the primacy of meaning. They believed that acquisition can take place only when people understand messages in the target language. They also emphasized the significance of vocabulary both in the construction and interpretation of messages. Although lexical items are grammatically structured, they felt that grammatical structures do not require explicit analysis or attention (by the teacher, the student or the teaching materials). To them, language is a vehicle of communicating meanings and messages. In fact, language is considered to be a combination of items, structures, and messages.

In Natural Approach, there are some hypotheses which were put forward by Krashen. A short description of the hypotheses is as follows:

A. Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

According to Krashen (1985), there are two distinctive ways of developing competence in a second or foreign language. Acquiring a language is "picking it up", i.e., developing ability in a language by using it in natural situations. It is a sub-conscious process identical in all important ways to the process children utilize in acquiring their L1. Acquisition results from meaningful communication.

Learning, by contrast, refers to a process in which conscious rules about a language are developed. It results in explicit knowledge about the forms of language, and appears as a consequence of instruction (Terrell 1977). Moreover, learning does not turn into acquisition. There is no interface between the two processes, and adults acquire language using the same LAD that children utilize.

B. Monitor Hypothesis

Learning has only one function, and that is as a monitor or editor. Monitor Model Hypothesis was put forward on the basis of Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis in order to show the distinction between the two. It is believed that the acquired linguistic system helps the language users to initiate utterances in a second or foreign language. Conscious learning can function only as a monitor or editor that checks and repairs the output. In other word, learned knowledge is only used to correct the communication. The proponents of the Monitor Model believe that knowing the rule can not serve as a system to generate utterances in the language. It can serve only to screen beforehand what the speaker plans to say. Thus, learners utilize monitor to increase their competence and not their performance.

For a language learner to be able to monitor the language there must be three conditions: (1) sufficient amount of time, (2) focus on the form, and (3) knowledge of the rule. Monitor users are divided into three groups of over, optimal, and under users. Over-usage of monitoring system impedes communication. Optimal users activate the monitoring system only when they can. This monitoring system does not interfere with communication. Under users do not use this system in correcting their language use frequently (Brown, 2000).

C. Natural Order Hypothesis

This hypothesis claims that acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predictable order. Research supports the idea that certain

messages that can be understood. It is also based on a number of theories and hypotheses.

Of course, this approach has some advantages and disadvantages, which should be taken into account by language teachers. In fact it is the responsibility of the teachers to create interactive, communicative activities and employ meaningful strategies to help the students acquire and apply the information they learn. Special consideration should also be given to learner variables.

Key Words: *natural method, input, hypothesis, approach, affective filter, learner, materials.*

Introduction

An approach to language teaching that constantly recurs through the centuries is the attempt to achieve a language learning situation, which resembles as closely as possible the way the children learn their first language. The experience of little children seems to us so effortless, so enjoyable, and so successful in contrast to most classroom learning that the possibility of reproducing it with adolescents or adults acquire irresistible fascination (Mirhassani, 2003).

The history of naturalistic attitude towards language teaching can be classified into two different eras. The first refers to the 19th century "Natural Method", sometimes called "Direct Method", which rejected the use of books and taught learners to rely on their ears, thus "picking up" the language as an immigrant might do when acquiring the language informally in a new country. However, this method was strongly criticized for its highly demanding prerequisites, and also its dissatisfying results. Later, numerous studies were done to investigate the effect of formal language learning on the development of a second language. The outcome of such studies proved that instruction plays a signifcant role in language proficiency.

The second era occurred as a consequence of rejecting Audio-Lingual method of foreign language teaching. Towards the end of 60s, an interest in naturalistic approaches to language teaching was intensified among scholars and methodologists. As mentioned by Richards and Rogers (1990), this was an attempt to develop a language teaching proposal that incorporated the naturalistic principles that researchers had identified in studies of second language acquisition. Language teachers of this period found themselves in a quandary. On the one hand, they were willing to state that the processes involved in learning L1 and FL were the same. On the other hand, obvious reasons, empirical research, as well as biological factors revealed that many differences existed between the processes involved in learning L1 and FL. In this regard, overwhelming arguments were provided to reject the exact equivalence of L1 and FL (Prator, 1969; Cook, 1969).

The Modern Natural Approach

The new Natural Approach was developd by Krashen and Terrel (1983). Terrel, a teacher of Spanish in California, was first inspired through a set of his own experiences in language teaching situations, He outlined a proposal for a new philosophy of teaching. Krashen, an applied linguist at the University of Southern California,

The Natural Approach

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چکیده

«رویکرد طبیعی»، در سال ۱۹۷۷ توسط ترل و کرشن معرفی شد. این رویکرد تأثیر زیادی بر آموزش زبان در آمریکا و سرتاسر جهان گذاشت.

رویکرد طبیعی، تکنیک‌ها و تمرین‌هایی را معرفی می‌کند که از منابع مختلفی گرفته شده‌اند. تمرکز این رویکرد بر استفاده از تکنیک‌های متفاوت برای ایجاد توانایی صحبت کردن در زبان‌آموزان است و زبان را شامل مجموعه‌ای از پیغام‌های قابل فهم می‌داند که زبان‌آموزان باید آن‌ها را درک کنند. البته این رویکرد برخی نکات مثبت و منفی نیز دارد که مدرسان زبان باید به آن‌ها توجه داشته باشند. در واقع، این مسؤولیت مدرسان زبان است که تکنیک‌ها و تمرین‌های مفید و معنی‌دار را استخراج کنند تا از این طریق، به دانش‌آموزان در فرایند یادگیری زبان کمک نمایند.

کلیدواژه‌ها: روش طبیعی، درون‌داد، فرضیه، رویکرد، کنترل عاطفی، یادگیرنده، مطالب.

Abstract

The Natural Approach was developed by Tracy Terrell and Stephen Krashen, starting in 1977. It came to have a wide influence in language teaching in the United States and around the world.

The Natural Approach adopts techniques and activities from different sources but uses them to provide comprehensible input. The Communicative view of language is the view behind this Approach. Particular emphasis is laid on language as a set of

items is believed to be more reliable and practical than essay type items for measuring translation ability (Ghonsoli 1985), it would be more realistic if a passage were also administered to the candidates of the study, to find the relationship between students ability in writing the translation and their ability in choosing the best answer among a number of choices in a translation test.

As for English program at the Iranian Educational centers, from kindergartens to the university levels, the following points are suggested:

1. Teaching both native and foreign language should have a definite objective and be clarified for both teachers and students, Yarmohammadi (1994).

2. Necessary facilities should be prepared by schools in which Content-based English is being taught.

3. Teaching English effectively at the primary schools should be encouraged.

4. Any educational and communicative need of the society should be a decisive factor for the EFL program at the high schools and junior high schools.

5. Importance of proficiency in native language requires that the objectives of teaching Persian Literature to students be clarified. Students are not expected to be literary people, rather, they are supposed to be familiar with the literary works, develop their creativity, and get familiar and enjoy the Literature culture, Yarmohammadi (1994).

6. Teacher training should follow a sound strategy. This is the key concept in EFL programs. It is very important to train interested, motivated, and knowledgeable teachers for junior high school and high school levels.

7. And last but not least, the English teaching program at the university is not an exception. The same considerations should be taken into account for the EFL higher education programs.

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presented in ANOVA analyses, too.

8. The superiority of males' performance on the tests did not follow a regular pattern.

9. On the basis of the factor analysis, translation ability is located on a separate factor indicating that it measures a construct, which is not necessarily measured by the proficiency test.

10. Statistical findings were supported by the answers of the students to the questionnaire.

11. Questionnaire results indicate that 42% of students had gained more than 70% of the score for the University Entrance Exam. 88% were successful students at the high school concerning their English lesson scores. 73% had chosen translation because it was their favorite major. 51% had attended the English institutes before attending the university.

Conclusion and Implications

Comparing the percentage of students who attended the institutes and the successful students in Konkoor we come up with a 37% of successful high school students who were motivated and prepared for their favorite field of study. This raises an important issue that our English curriculum needs more consideration. According to yarmmohammadi (1994), this problem is not limited to English as a course or major field, it is observed in other disciplines and in other countries, for that matter. Yarmmohammad (1994) states that there are many reasons for this situation, among which one can refer to the lack of enough motivation, not using the language properly, the large size of classes, the lack of motivated and efficient teachers, the aptitude of students, their native language proficiency, and the teaching materials. Another interesting issue is that most of the researchers in our country believe that we should only focus on the applied issues in teaching and learning. However, the theoretical foundations should equally be taken into consideration.

Although the translation test, which, had been administered in the entrance exam and had served as the instrument of this study, was quite functional, the original data of the pilot study needs more detailed analysis.

The ability for translation loaded on a separate factor in the factor analysis. It would be an interesting issue if the items of the test went under an extensive factor analysis to clarify what they actually measure.

Although administration of multiple choice

reading and writing.

Responses to the Questionnaire

An analysis of the 112 responses to the questionnaire gave rise to the following information:

40 percent of the students had gained the scores about 75% and 42 percent above 75% in The University Entrance Exam-KonKoor.

54% had gained the scores about 17 and 34% around 20 out of 20 in their English lessons, at the high school.

For 73.5% of students, Translation had been their favorite major.

68% wanted to continue their studies either to improve their translation ability or their English proficiency.

51% had attended English institutes between 2 to 24 semesters before their attendance to the University.

56% of students felt the responsibility for their own improvement or failure, from whom 38% believed that they had improved in both translation and in English proficiency.

66% had a positive view about their future. 33% were positive that they could continue their studies in their own field, and 30% believed that they could be functional in any job related to English language.

The responses to above questions were backed by those given to Likert type questions.

Discussion

The primary purpose of this study was to find any relationship between the EFL senior undergraduates' translation ability and their majors, although the questions of the study were later extended to cover the relationship between the translation ability of students and their gender and the translation ability and the university in which the students study. The overall results on both instruments of the study gave rise to a number of points as follows:

1. Students majoring in translation in any branch of the Azad University performed better on the translation test than did those in other two majors.

2. Students of translation in the multi major branches like Karaj, Takistan, and Roodehen performed better on the translation test than did those in other two fields of study in the same branch.

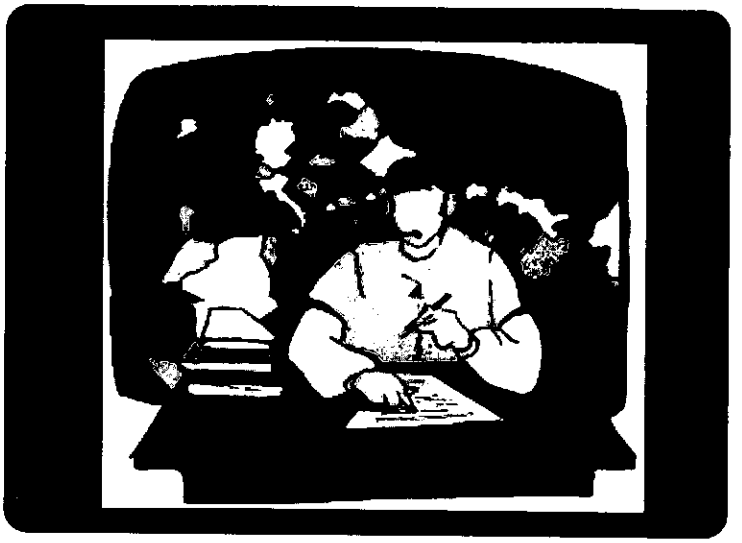
3. Comparing the performance of students with the major of translation on the translation test, the following pattern was observed: The Central Branch, the North Branch, the Roodehen University, the Karaj University, and the Takistan University could be listed respectively with the first one holding the highest mean.

4. The effect of the university was also observed in the performance of students on the proficiency test. The pattern was exactly the same observed in the performance of students on the translation test.

5. The descriptive statistics supported the high reliability coefficients. The coefficients show the consistency of scores on both the translation test and the proficiency test.

6. Significant results of the ANOVA indicate a close relationship between the translation ability of the students and their translation majors. Translation students did better on the translation test than did the students studying Teaching English and English Literature.

7. The effect of the university in which students study was the third factor with significant results



The results of the first analysis show that students of the Central Branch and the North Brach of the Azad University had the highest mean. The lowest mean, however, belonged to the students studying Translation at the Takistan University.

The descriptive statistics conducted for the performance of the three majors of different Universities on the proficiency test showed the following results: The Central Branch, North Branch, South Branch, Translation major of Roodehen, Translation major of Karaj Universities, Literature major of Karaj, Literature major of Roodehen, and Translation major of Takistan Universities showed the means of 56.69, 49.32, 42.71, 40.37, 39.29, 37.04, 36.60, 34.25, and 27.13 respectively.

According to the analysis, students of the Central Branch and the North Branch had the highest mean. The lowest mean belongs to the students studying Translation at the Takistan University.

The reliability estimate for the translation test and for the proficiency test are 0.88 and 0.93 respectively, using KR-21 formula.

The validity issue was considered from two perspectives: the correlations and the factor analysis. Since the correlation is the best available indicator of criterion validity, this measure, was used to estimate the correlation between the translation test and the criterion measure. Correlation was calculated to ascertain the extent to which the ratings of the proficiency test were indeed measuring the translation ability of students. The results of the correlation between the translation test and the TOEFL test were quit significant at the 0.01 level, although with a medium degree of coefficients. The correlation coefficients between the translation test and the grammar test turned out to be .55, the correlation between translation test and the reading turned out to be .49, and that between translation test and the total proficiency test was .56.

To measure the construct validity of the test, to see if the tests were using the same criteria, and to examine the patterns of correlations among the tests within and across each university, exploratory factor analysis was conducted. To minimize the number of variables that have high loadings on each factor, Varimax Rotation method was applied. The data from grammar, reading, translation tests fell on separate factors, indicating that they measure different constructs while each factor shares a minimum amount to the variables of

University test, 19 items and from the 51 items of the University test, 21 items whose discrimination level fell above 30 and whose difficulty ranged from 36 to 63 (Farhady, Jafar pour, Birjandi 1994) were chosen for the main phase. Reliability of the tests were also examined carefully, using KR-21 formula. Reliabilities for the test turned out to be 0.45 and 0.61 for the Azad and the State Universitie tests respectively.

The Main Phase

550 male and female senior students of translation, English Literature, and Teaching English participated in the main phase of the study. To find their possible difference in English language proficiency, a TOEFL test was administered to the sample to find their possible difference in translation, a test of translation was also administered. to know about the attitude of subjects toward their major, a questionnaire was also administered to a sample of the students of Translation. The subjects for this phase were students of translation from the Central Branch, the North Brach, and the South Brach of the Azad University, Karaj, Roodehen, and Takistan Azad Universities.

Administration of the two test in the pilot phase gave rise to a revised form of the translation test including 40 M/C items with accepted difficulty and discrimination levels. This test was administered with the 1986 version of the TOEFL test, which was used as a criterion. Based on the purpose of the study, the writing and the reading section of the test were administered.

The data gathered from the main phase were also subjected to statistical analysis using SPSS-the statistical package for the social science.

The two phases of the study were conducted with a one-semester interval.

The procedure for constructing the questionnaire was as follows: first, the participants were asked to write descriptively about their attitudes toward their field of study, their satisfaction with their achievement and their view about their future profession. Their ideas were then converted to a questionnaire with 9 M/C questions and 6 Likert type items.

Analysis of the data

Descriptive statistics were used to show the mean and variance of the scores on both test. The reliability indices were also calculated through the formula. Two sets of ANOVA and a t-test were used to compare the performance of participants on the tests, and to compare the performance of the male and female participants respectively. Also, to find the validity of the tests, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation formula was employed. Finally, the underlying constructs of the tests were distinguished through factor analysis. The results of the qualitative analysis of the questionnaire are presented below.

Results

Descriptive statistics of the performance of students in three majors on the translation test showed the means of 16.21, 15.49,11.91, 11.85, 11.81, 11.67, 11.61, 10.54, and10.01 for the Translation majors of the Translation majors of the Central Branch, of the North Branch, of Roodehen University, Literature major of Roodehen University, Teaching English major of the South Branch, Translation major of Karaj University, Teaching English major of Roodehen, Literature major of Karaj, and Translation major of Takistan Universities, respectively.

consisting of a proficiency test to measure the students' general knowlege in English, and a translation test to get an account of their translation ability were used.

Statement of the problem

According to Birjandi and Keyvanfar (1999) the Supreme Council of Programming for the Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology in Iran has set the following two objectives for the undergraduate English Language Program for Translation:

1. To improve students proficiency in four skills of English language.
2. To develop translation ability and provide adequate opportunities for students to be able to translate different types of texts.

Authorities and instructors believe that the syllabus for translation is designed in a way to train competent translators in different types of texts, they assert that textbooks are chosen efficiently, and instructors do their best in transferring the knowledge to students. Meanwhile, they contend that the students of translation show difficulty in understanding and completing the academic work related to translation, and hence, the assumptions of the Supreme Council of Programming do not come true, students of Translation are not qualified enough when they graduate, and what they have gained is far below the objectives of the program. The mentioned situation was the incentive for conducting the present study.

This study was designed to test the following hypotheses:

1. There is no relationship between the ability of translation of students who major in translation and other EFL students, i.e. those who major in English Literature, and those in Teaching English
2. There is no relationship between the gender and the performance of the students who major in Translation and those who major in English Literature and those in Teaching, on a translation test.
3. There is no relationship between the location in which students study and their performance on the translation test.

Methodology

Procedure

This study consisted of two phases: the pilot phase and the main phase.

The Pilot Phase

In the pilot phase, two translation tests, which had been used for the admission of applicants to MA translation program in both Azad and State Universities, were used. Both forms of tests were administered to 145 senior EFL students of the three majors. The students were from the Azad University Central Branch, the North Branch, and the South Branch, and the Azad University of Roodehen. They took the two tests in the previous academic year. The test for the Azad University consisted of 40 multiple-choice items and the one used by the State Universities consisted of 51 M/C items. Both tests included items for translation from English to Persian and from Persian to English on different issues of political, economic, and legal documents, Islamic texts, and some idiomatic and literary terms.

The data collected in this phase of study were analyzed using Iteman software version 3.5 for the analysis of items. Out of 40 items of the Azad

as well as in the universities of Iran, the academic achievement of students who study translation has attracted considerable attention.

Curriculum for English Programs in Iran

The English curriculum in Iran consists of two phases: undergraduate program and graduate program.

A.Undergraduate Program

The English undergraduate program in Iran includes Translation studies, English Literature, and Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). All applicants for language studies in general, and English Majors in particular have to take an entry examination (Konkoor) to start higher education.

BA in Translation

Students of Translation undergo a four-year instruction program. The classes are held about 18 hours a week in a 16-week semester. The whole course is run in English. During the first two semesters, students take basic English credits such as reading, listening, conversation, writing, and study skills. Teaching translation begins in the third semester. At this stage, students gain some linguistic background knowledge, terminologies and interpretation. Among other subjects of study, they take up some courses in Persian as well. From the second year, students are given some oral practices in translation, as well as contrastive linguistics and terminologies, which consolidate their skills in understanding the target language. The main topics they take in translation are as follows: the theoretical concepts of translation, interpretation, translation of simple prose, advanced translation of the prose texts, translation of economic and political texts, translation of formal documents, literary translation, individualized translation, translation of journal articles, the usage of terminology in translation, and the translation of Islamic texts. In addition, students have to write a short term paper as their term projects corresponding to the objectives of the course. They take almost 30 credit units in translation in their major.

BA in Literature

Except reading, writing, oral proficiency, study skills and literature subjects, students who study English Literature, cover translation of simple texts, literary translation and surveying translated Islamic texts. They take 10 credit units to get exposed to translation studies.

BA in Teaching English

Besides taking more than 30 credits to help them develop their English skills and few credits in literature, the TEFL students, too, take about 10 credits in translation, including translation of simple texts, translation of prose and poetry, the usage of terminology in translation, and principles of translation.

B. Graduate Programs in Iran

MA in Translation

The MA in translation admits students with the BA in translation, English Literature and Teaching English majors. Students take a proficiency test and a translation test, preferably Multiple-Choice in format, for their entrance exam. As MA students, they don't get much practice in translation, but study about research in translation, theoretical principles of translation, educational philosophy, models of translation and research in translation, among others. In the present study an entrance examination for the MA program

about thirty years ago, cited in Farahzad (1993). Since then an interest emerged in studying translation and its evaluation strategy. Departments of translation in Iran present the course of Translation with the objectives of increasing students' general English proficiency and their translation ability. Although academic achievement of students who study Translation has long been of a major concern, it has not received enough attention. 550 senior students of three English majors, i.e. "Translation", "English Literature", and "Teaching English" participated in this study. A TOEFL and a translation test were administered to the three groups of participants to measure their language proficiency and translation ability respectively. The results of the application of the statistical analyses including reliability, validity, factor analysis and ANOVA on the three majors in different universities indicated that students majoring in translation performed better on both the translation test and the proficiency test than did those in other two majors. Some differences were also observed in relation to their place of education.

Key Words: *translation ability, translation major, translation test. general English proficiency.*

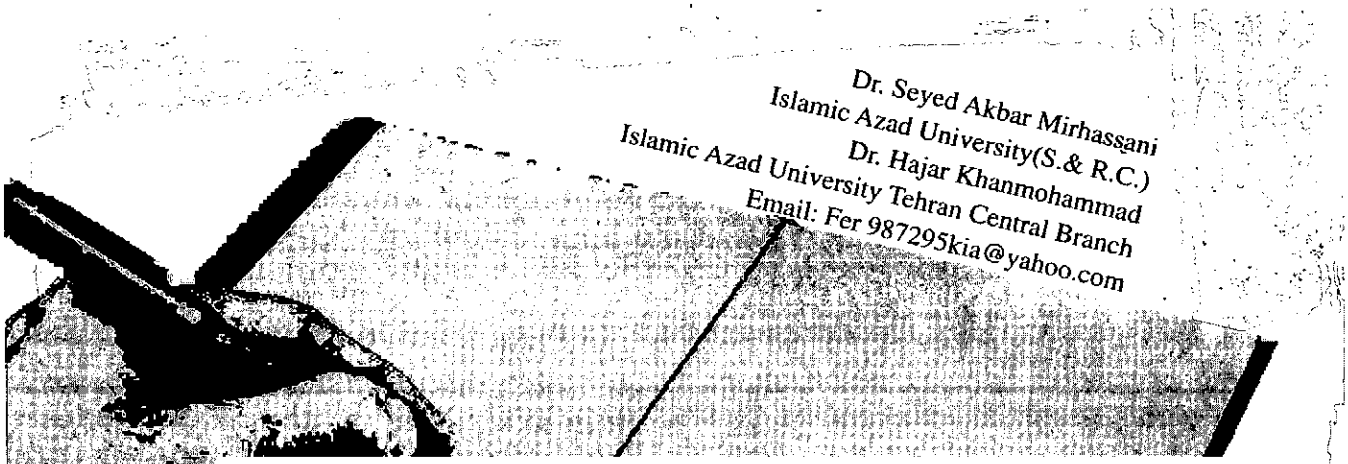
Introduction

Translation serves as a cross-cultural, bilingual communication vehicle among people, and hence, the translator plays the important role of a bilingual or multi lingual cross cultural transmitter by attempting to interpert concepts and speech in a variety of texts, as accurately and as faithfully as possible. In the past few decades, this activity has developed because of the rising international trade, increased migration, globalization, the recognition of linguistic minorities, and the expansion of mass media and technology (Gerding Salas2000).

Theorists of the early 19th century considered translation as a creative power in which cultural and social functions, languages, and literature with specific strategies could develop. The Mid 19th century witnessed the issue of translatability, literary criticism, and linguistics with the notion of separating translation from culture. Translation was considered as a process for communicating the foreign text through establishment of identity and analogy (Venuti 1986). The 1990s specifically observed the authority gained by translation studies. The period was flooded by translator training programs and scholarly publishing (Venuti 2000). After its appearance in the academic field, for about two decades language teaching communities ignored translation. For a long time the purpose and place of translation in the educational systems was not known, its nature was misunderstood and it was taught in language institutes rather than universities (Darwish 1998). Since then a number of articles were written about translation and its evaluation system: Buck (1992), Stansfield et.al (1992), Waddington (2001), Riazi (2004).

Today, translation is flourished in many countries as an undergraduate and a graduate course with the objective of training professional and semi professional translators. Hence, translation as a formal professional activity with a theoretical background in faculties is of a higher level in relation to the style followed before, "when this subject was first included in our syllabus" (Darwish 1998).

Since its recognition as a field of study in more than 250 universities (Paknazar 1999) in the world,



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The Relationship Between Major and Translation Ability of Iranian EFL Undergraduates

چکیده

این مقاله به بررسی ارتباط توانایی ترجمه ی دانشجویان و رشته ی تحصیلی آنان می پردازد. طبق گفته ی نیومارک (۱۹۸۲)، تاریخ ترجمه و معرفی آن به صحنه ی آموزش به ۳۰ سال قبل برمی گردد. از آن زمان به بعد، ترجمه خود به عنوان یک رشته ی تحصیلی و هم چنین روش های سنجش آن، مورد توجه و مطالعه قرار گرفت. هدف رشته ی مترجمی در ایران، افزایش توانش عمومی زبان انگلیسی و توانایی ترجمه ی دانشجویان بوده است.

گرچه که موفقیت این دانشجویان همواره مدنظر مسئولان آموزش کشور بوده، لیکن این امر چندان مورد پژوهش واقع نشده است. برای یافتن میزان توانایی ترجمه و توانش عمومی زبان انگلیسی دانشجوی رشته های مترجمی، ادبیات انگلیسی، و آموزش انگلیسی، یک آزمون ترجمه و یک آزمون تافل به دانشجویان دانشگاه های آزاد واحد مرکز، واحد شمال، واحد جنوب، دانشگاه آزاد رودهن، دانشگاه آزاد کرج و دانشگاه آزاد تاکستان ارائه شد. تحلیل آماری شامل تحلیل عامل ها و آنالیز واریانس نشان داد، دانشجویان رشته ی مترجمی در مقایسه با دانشجویان رشته های ادبیات انگلیسی و آموزش انگلیسی، از توانایی بیشتری هم در زمینه ی ترجمه و هم از نظر توانش عمومی زبان انگلیسی برخوردارند. عوامل دیگر مورد بررسی در این مقاله عبارت بودند از: دانشگاه محل تدریس، جنسیت دانشجویان، و رضایت یا نارضایتی ایشان از پیشرفت تحصیلی شان. نتیجه ی این بخش آماری در مقاله به تفصیل شرح داده شده است.

کلید واژه ها: توانایی ترجمه، رشته ی مترجمی، آزمون ترجمه، توانش عمومی

Abstract

The present study investigates the relationship between the translation ability of students who major in Translation, and those who major in English Literature and in Teaching English. According to Newmark (1982) the history of translation and its introduction to the academic field date back to

materials. Instructions about reading comprehension strategies can be added into regular classroom activities in a natural, comfortable, but explicit way and students' knowledge of reading comprehension strategies as well as their effective use of such strategies can be evaluated and possibly corrected by the teachers. Since female students indicated to be higher strategy users, they might be able to help their male classmates in becoming better readers through activating appropriate strategies.

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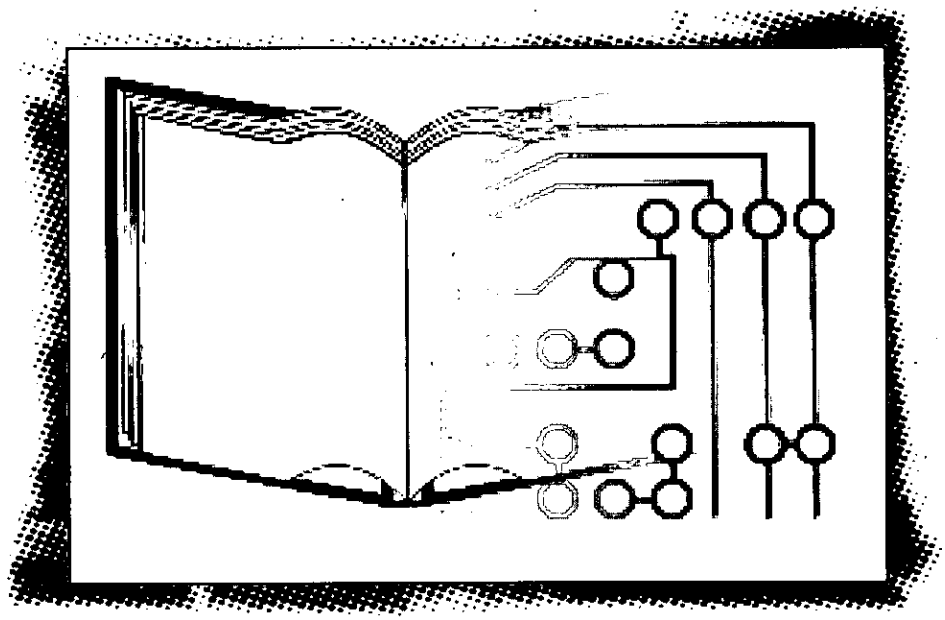


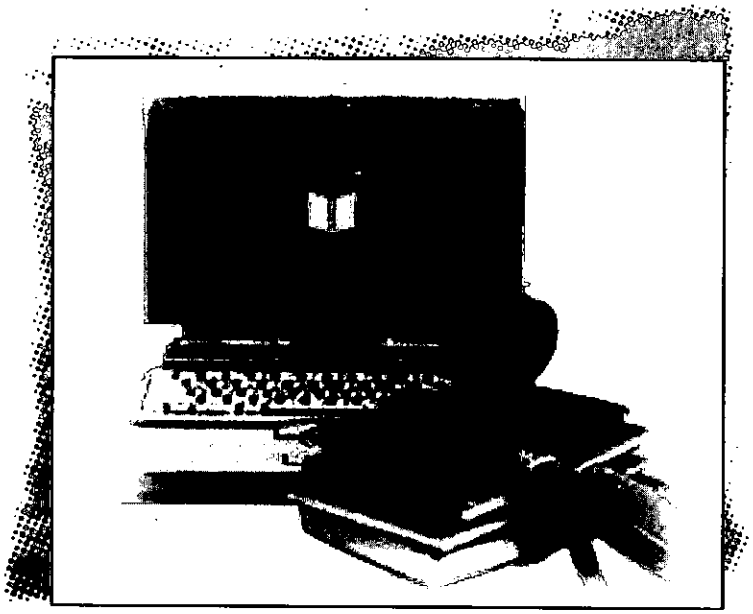
fact that exploiting reading comprehension strategies effect EFL learners' reading comprehension performance. In particular, cognitive strategies highly accounted for reading performance (beta equal to 0.45). This category of strategies includes integrating information, questioning information in the text, interpreting the text, paraphrasing, and so on. In contrast, metacognitive strategies had the least power of predicition on readers' reading performance (beta equal to 0.13). Nevertheless, what can be implied by an overall regression coefficient of 0.96 is that students' success in reading comprehension in this specific domain is obviously dependent on their using of RC strategies.

The fact, however, should not be ignored that other facotrs are involved in reading comprehension success. As Swanson (1999) states failure in reading comprehension is sometimes attributable to other factors such as lack of interest, lack of concentration, learners' characteristics (e. g., age, experiences, knowledge, intelligence) and intervention parameters (e. g., number of instructional sessions).

Conclusion

Research on learning strategies has been motivated, in part, by the desire to discover the factors that may help less effective learners. The present research intended to examine the relationship between EFL learners' level of English proficiency and gender and their reading comprehension strategy use on the one hand, and the impact of using RC strategy use on their reading performance on the other hand. Findings of the study indicated that, overall, females were higher users of RC strategies and that high proficient learners used more RC strategies. It was also found that RC strategies can be considered as a good predictor for EFL learners' reading performance. Of different categories of strategies, cognitive strategies had the highest rate of prediction; while metacognitive strategies had the least power of prediction for this domain of EFL learners.

Findings of the study are self-explanatory in emphasizing that instruction of reading comprehension strategies should form an essential part of reading comprehension courses and



use, with females showing a greater tendency than males to engage in out of class social interactions. Also, McGroarty's study (1987) showed a gender difference in strategy use with the females using significantly more strategies than males. Table 2 also indicates that social strategies had the highest rate of usage (Males' mean=2.29, Females' mean=2.91). Using social strategies, students asked their teachers and other people including their classmates to clarify the parts or points in the texts for them which they had difficulty with. This might be an indication that social strategies were more familiar and feasible for the students. In contrast, metacognitive strategies had the lowest rate of usage (Females' mean= 2.1, Males' mean= 1.73), signaling that metacognitive strategies were unfamiliar and unknown to students. A major aspect of metacognition in reading is the awareness of the learner of his or her own characteristics, background knowledge, degree of interest, skills, and deficiencies, and of how these might affect their reading. Students' unfamiliarity with the above factors results in lower use of metacognitive strategies.

Another finding of this study was that high proficient students and low proficient ones were different in their use of strategies. The high proficient learners turned out to use a wider range of strategies as compared to low proficient students. Result of the One-Way ANOVA analysis and the Scheffe Test supports the fact that there is a strong relationship between reading strategies used by readers and their proficiency levels ($F= 196.19$, $P<0.001$). With this finding the second research hypothesis is refuted meaning that more proficient EFL students use more reading comprehension strategies. This finding of the study supports the earlier findings as reported by Barkon (1986) as he also inferred that adequate language proficiency largely leads readers' attention to text integration and comprehension. Also, it is in line with Schuller's (2000) findings which indicated that proficient language learners were aware of the strategies they used and that they could modify them according to task demands.

Results of the present study demonstrated that readers had developed strategies which could serve them in their reading comprehension performance. This finding also refutes the third research hypothesis of the study supporting the

Table 2: Independent t-test on different categories of strategies as reported by males and females

Reading strategies	Gender	Number	Mean	SD	df	t	Level of significance
Cognitive Strategies	Male	30	2.03	0.45	69	5.83	0.001
	Female	41	2.62	0.42			
Metacognitive Strategies	Male	30	1.73	0.45	69	4.14	0.001
	Female	41	2.1	0.45			
Affective Strategies	Male	30	1.93	0.98	69	4.15	0.001
	Female	41	2.76	0.55			
Social Strategies	Male	30	2.29	0.86	69	3.42	0.001
	Female	41	2.91	0.56			
Memory Strategies	Male	30	2.06	0.61	69	6.05	0.001
	Female	41	2.48	0.41			
General Fix-up Strategies	Male	30	1.94	0.67	69	2.85	0.001
	Female	41	2.38	0.60			
Comprehension Strategies	Male	30	1.95	0.54	69	4.63	0.001
	Female	41	2.55	0.52			

To find out the relationship between students' level of proficiency and their rate of strategy use, a one-way ANOVA was used. The result of the one-way ANOVA indicated that there was a significant difference of strategy use as related to students' level of proficiency. A Scheffe-Test showed that there was a significant difference among the three proficiency levels, namely, high, intermediate, and low, and the use of RC strategy use. That is, the higher the level of proficiency the more strategies were used. The same results were obtained for all the seven categories of strategies through ANOVA and subsequent Scheffe-tests. For cognitive and memory categories of strategies the difference was significant among all the three levels of proficiency; however, in the other five categories of strategies significant results were found only between intermediate and low and high and low groups. Table 3 shows the mean of strategy use for all the three levels of proficiency.

Table 3: Mean of strategy use among the three proficiency group for the seven categories of the strategies

	Low	Intermediate	High
Cognitive Strategies	1.91	2.34	2.87
Memory Strategies	1.95	2.54	2.98
Metacognitive Strategies	1.62	2.01	2.31
Social Strategies	2.05	2.8	3
Affective Strategies	1.78	2.54	2.8
Comprehension Strategies	1.85	2.33	2.67
Fixed-up Strategies	1.7	2.22	2.61

A Multiple Regression analysis was performed on the students' use of RC strategies and their scores on the reading comprehension test. The seven categories of reading comprehension strategies were considered as predicators for reading comprehension performance as a dependent variable. Findings from the Multiple Regression analysis suggested that one category of strategies, namely, cognitive strategies, significantly predicted the reading comprehension performance (beta was equal to 0.45). The regression coefficient of metacognitive strategies was 0.13 which was the least among the seven categories of strategies. The overall index of regression coefficient was equal to 0.96.

Discussion

As indicated in Table 1, females' mean of overall strategy use (2.4) was significantly higher than that of males' (1.90). This significant difference was further supported in Table 2 where females, compared with males, indicated to be better strategy users in all the categories. With this finding the first research hypothesis of the study is refuted indicating that female EFL learners use more RC strategies. This finding is in line with previous studies done by Politzer and McGroarty (1985) on French, Spanish and German students is that they also found sex differences in strategy

Method

Participants

Seventy-one sophomore students (41 female and 30 male) of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) at one of the Iranian universities took part in this study voluntarily. They were all native speakers of Persian with the average age of 22. After graduation, most of these students hoped to teach English at Iranian schools.

Instruments

Data were collected through a RC questionnaire and students' performance on an English language proficiency test and a reading comprehension test.

The constructed reading comprehension questionnaire was based on Block's (1986), Ehrman and Oxford's (1990), and Oxford and Crookall's (1989) reading strategy inventories. Forty one strategies in seven categories were listed on the questionnaire for the students to report, using a Likert scale, the type of the strategies and the rate of their use while reading English texts. Also, an open-ended question was provided at the end of the questionnaire for the students to add any other strategies they used, but not included in the questionnaire. The reliability of the questionnaire was checked through Alpha Cronbach coefficient and was found to be 0.81. A copy of the RC strategy questionnaire is available upon request.

For the English proficiency test, the Oxford Placement Test (Allen, 1985) was used which consisted of 50 multiple choice questions. Students' scores on the test were used to divide them into different proficiency levels. We used the 27 percent of the top and low students to represent the high and low proficiency levels and the rest to represent the intermediate level.

The third instrument used in this study was a reading comprehension test constructed by the researchers which included 30 multiple choice items on five passages. Reliability of the test calculated through alpha coefficient was 0.80. The correlation between the students' scores on the reading comprehension test and that of Oxford Placement Test was 0.98 indicating a high criterion-related type of validity.

Results

Table 1 presents the results of an independent t-test on the overall pattern of strategies use by male and female students.

Table 1: Independent t-test on the males and females overall use of RC strategies

Gender	Number	Mean	SD	df	t	level of sig.
Male	30	1.90	0.23	69	10.84	0.0001
Female	41	2.40	0.20			

As Table 1 shows there was a significant difference between male and female students' use of reading comprehension strategies with female students using more strategies. Also, in order to compare students' use of strategies in each of the seven categories, independent t-tests were used for each category of strategies. As can be seen in Table 2, in all strategy categories female students indicated use of more strategies than male students. Table 2 also indicates that social strategies, one of the seven categories, had the highest mean while metacognitive strategies, one of the seven categories, had the highest mean while metacognitive strategies had the lowest mean for both male and female students.

aware of how or when to apply the knowledge they do have (Alderson, 2000). Nyikos and Oxford (1993) contended that in academic settings, learning strategies are technically defined as steps taken by learners to facilitate acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information. Several studies (see, for example, Forlizzi (1992); Barkon (1993); Jordan (1996); Zhang (2001); Sheoryey and Mikhtari (2001); Singhal, (2003) have studied the pattern of RC strategy use by language learners and discuss the importance of reading strategies in understanding the text, their effects in improving students' reading skill, and the relationship that the strategies have with some of the learner variables. According to Farrell (2001), studies in second language reading have shown that reading strategies cannot only be taught to students, but that their use will help students with their performance on tests of comprehension and recall.

As relates to the factors affecting the choice and rate of strategy use, Politzer and McGroarty (1985) indicated that many variables were influential in strategy use including professional interests, sex, motivation. course level, teaching methods, and study goal. Therefore, a given strategy is not intrinsically suitable for all situations, purposes, or people. They also found an intriguing sex difference in Language Learning Strategies (LLS) use, with females showing a greater propensity than males to engage in out of class social interactions.

Al-Melhi (2000) also conducted research on a group of fourth-year Saudi college students. This study examined the reported and actual reading strategies and the metacognitive awareness of a random sample of fourth-year Saudi college students as they read in English as a foreign language. Results of the study showed among other things, that some differences did exist between skilled and less-skilled readers in terms of their metacognitive awareness, their perception of a good reader, and their self-confidence as readers.

In brief, we can say that strategic competence and strategic processing is the ability to control and manage one's own cognitive activities in a reflective, purposeful fashion so that one can get the best from his/her language learning endeavors. In other words, strategic processing and metacognition can help learners overcome their comprehension problems.

Objectives of the study

Among various factors that may affect language learner's use of strategies, gender and level of proficiency have a major role in the learners' choice and frequency of strategy use. As such, the present research studied the relationship between EFL learners' gender and level of English proficiency and their use of reading comprehension strategies on the one hand, and the effect of RC strategy use on the students' reading performance. Drawing on the previous studies as a theoretical platform, the present study was inspired to particularly test the following research null hypotheses:

1) There is no significant difference in EFL male and female students' use of RC strategies.
2) There is no significant difference in EFL students' use of RC strategies as relates to their level of English proficiency.
3) EFL students' use of RC strategies does not have any significant effect on their reading performance.

sophomore students (30 male and 41 female) participated in the study. The required data for the study were collected through a questionnaire, an English proficiency test, and an English reading comprehension test. Students filled out a 41-item RC strategy questionnaire, and took proficiency and reading comprehension tests. Results of the study revealed that while both sexes used reading comprehension strategies, females indicated to be higher strategy users. It was also found that level of English proficiency had a significant effect on the rate of strategy use with more proficient students using more strategies. Also, results of a Multiple Regression indicated that RC strategy use accounted for 96 percent of reading performance indicating the importance of RC strategies. Based on the results of the study we can suggest that training and using reading comprehension strategies are included in EFL curriculum.

Key Words: *Reading comprehension strategies, Reading comprehension, Proficiency, Gender*

Introduction

Language learning strategies, in general, and reading comprehension strategies, in particular, have inspired a lot of empirical research in the last few decades. Findings of the empirical research have enhanced our understanding of this aspect of language learning and have enriched our pedagogical practices.

Of the four language skills, namely, listening, reading, speaking and writing, reading is extensively used by English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners, mostly in academic settings. University students need to have efficient reading skills and strategies to comprehend a large mass of materials both in their studies at university and at home. Viewing reading as a communicative process, Chastain (1988) argues that "language teachers shall encourage students to guess, to tolerate ambiguity, to link ideas, to paraphrase, and to summarize so that they stop dwelling in isolated words which often do not provide comprehension (p. 224)." This is a clear point of departure and a demand for going beyond the mere teaching of unknown words and grammatical structures in teaching reading to encourage students to use strategies to become more proficient readers.

Strategic reading involves the use of techniques and clues in the process of deciphering meaning from the written text in an effective and efficient way. With regard to studies on reading comprehension, the following two issues seem crucial and are worth attending to:

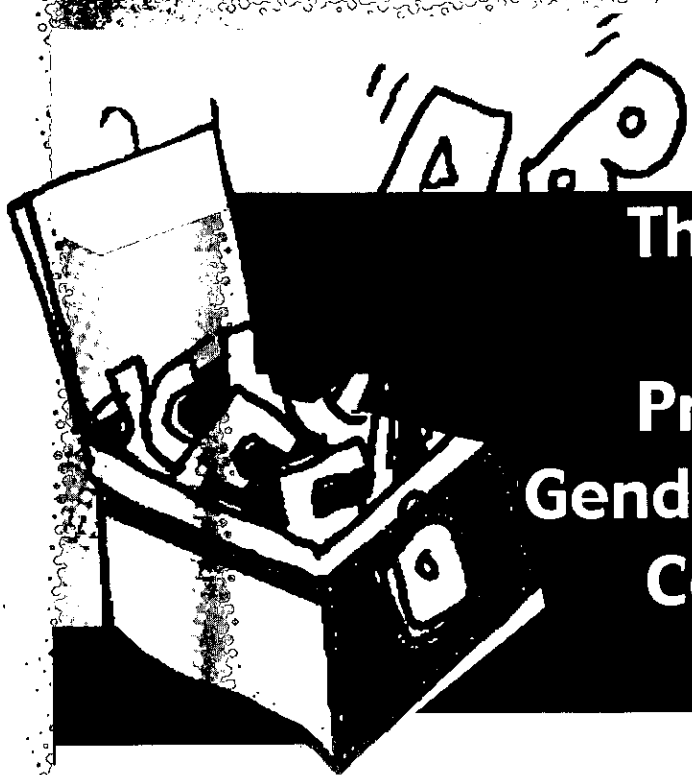
1 Determining factors affecting EFL readers' use of reading comprehension strategies.

2 The rate of reading comprehension (RC) strategy use affecting reading comprehension performance.

The present study intended to attend to these two issues.

Background to the study

Comprehension strategies reveal a reader's resources for understanding. As Block (1986) contended, comprehension strategies indicate how readers conceive a task, what textual cues they attend to, how they make sense of what they read, and what they do when they do not understand. It is generally believed that poor readers do not possess knowledge of strategies, and are often not



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The Impact of RC Strategy Use, Proficiency, and Gender of EFL Reading Comprehension Performance

چکیده

تحقیق حاضر، تأثیر کاربرد راهبردهای درک مطلب، سطح بسندگی زبان انگلیسی و جنسیت زبان‌آموزان انگلیسی را روی میزان خواندن و درک مطلب آن‌ها در زبان انگلیسی مورد مطالعه قرار داد. ۷۱ نفر از فراگیران زبان انگلیسی (۴۱ دختر و ۳۰ پسر) از دانشجویان سال دوم، در این تحقیق شرکت کردند. اطلاعات مورد نیاز تحقیق با استفاده از سه ابزار جمع‌آوری اطلاعات به‌دست آمد. این دانشجویان پرسش‌نامه‌ای ۴۱ ماده‌ای را تکمیل و دو آزمون بسندگی انگلیسی و خواندن و درک مطلب انگلیسی را انجام دادند. نتایج تحقیق نشان داد، درحالی‌که هر دو گروه دختران و پسران از راهبردهای درک مطلب استفاده می‌کنند، میزان استفاده از این راهبردها توسط دختران بیشتر است. هم‌چنین، مشاهده شد که سطح بسندگی زبان تأثیر معناداری بر به‌کارگیری راهبردهای درک مطلب دارد؛ به‌نحوی که میزان استفاده‌ی دانشجویان با سطح بسندگی بالاتر از راهبردهای درک مطلب بیشتر بود. درنهایت نیز، نتایج رگرسیون نشان داد، کاربرد راهبردهای درک مطلب قادر به پیش‌بینی ۹۶ درصد از واریانس خواندن و درک مطلب هستند. این موضوع اهمیت استفاده از راهبردهای درک مطلب را نشان می‌دهد و لذا پیشنهاد می‌شود، آموزش و به‌کارگیری راهبردهای درک مطلب در برنامه‌ی درسی آموزش زبان انگلیسی گنجانده شود.

کلید واژگان: راهبردهای درک مطلب، درک مطلب، سطح بسندگی، جنسیت.

Abstract

This study examined the relationship between EFL learners' reading comprehension (RC) strategy use, level of proficiency, and gender and their reading performance in English. 71 Iranian EFL

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Discussion and conclusion

The ultimate goal of the present study was to know whether there is any relationship between the ability to recognize fact/opinion and overall reading comprehension. On the whole, the results showed a significant correlation between the overall reading comprehension, as measured by a subsection of the MTELP, and the scores obtained on the F/O test (r=.3587, p<001). The results, however, were modified when we calculated the correlations separately for each group. That is, no significant correlation was observed between the MTELP and F/O scores obtained by the L (r=.13, p<05) and M groups (r=.29, p<05). However, the results were significant in the case of the A group (r=.46, p<05). Overall the results suggest a relationship between the ability to recognize fact/ opinion and the overall reading comprehension skill at the more advanced level of proficiency in FL. It is to be noted that the relationship that is explored here seems to increase with the proficiency level. Thus it may be hypothesized that the ability to recognize fact/opinion is not a sub-skill of the general FL reading skill at lower levels of proficiency but may develop, or become a sub-skill, as the level of FL reading proficiency increases.

In sum, we observed a relationship between the ability to recognize fact/opinion and overall reading comprehension in the more advanced group of participants in our study. This suggests that the nature of reading skill may be different at different levels of proficiency in FL. The findings derived from this study have theoretical as well as pedagogical implications.

With respect to theoretical implications, we can say that in any discussion of evaluation in reading, it is first necessary to define those skills which are essential to reading act. In other words, in order to measure any behavior, it is necessary to know that behavior and what the basic components of that behavior are. As was mentioned at the outset of this paper, there were controversial issues about the nature of reading comprehension and its components. With the above-mentioned discussion in mind, it seemed that there are not sufficient reasons to assume that several clearly distinguishable and (from the point of view of a psychologist or reading specialist) meaningfully interpretable sub-skills (recognition of fact and opinion) of reading comprehension exist among low and intermediate levels.

With regard to pedagogical implications, it must be noted that in order to improve the ability of EFL students to comprehend reading texts presented in English, it is crucial to understand which types of sub-skills should be focused and used for EFL learners at the beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels. Material designers and textbook writers can take the results of this study into account. It seems that textbook writers should provide specific texts including fact/ opinion at advanced level. Clearly more research is needed to throw light on the nature of sub-skills at each stage in the development of proficiency in FL.

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RC test, we calculated the correlation between the scores obtained by the participants on this test and those received on the MTELP subtest. The correlation was found to be significant (r=.6471, p<.001), which was an index of the criterion-related validity of the RC test.

Procedure

Three steps were taken in this study. First, the MTELP was administered to the participants. Next, the F/O test was distributed and the participants were required to determine whether the passages included factual information or the author's opinion. The difference between fact and opinion was explained using the following guidelines:

Fact is that which is provable. An opinion is a judgment. Thus, the sentence, '*Her hair is black*' states a fact. The sentence, 'Her hair is *beautiful*' states an opinion. (Source: Cheek and Collins, 1985).

During the third step, after participants finished determining whether the paragraphs represented fact or opinion, they were asked to go through the paragraphs again and answer the 20 short-answer comprehension questions (i.e., RC) that were provided. The tests were all administered to participants in one session lasting about one and a half hour.

Data Analysis

The analysis of the data was carried out using the t-test and the Pearson correlations formula. First, all the obtained raw scores of the two tests (i.e., MTELP and F/O) were standardized using z-scores. Second, the means obtained on MTELP and RC were compared using a t-test. Next, the relationship between MTELP, F/O, and RC scores was computed using the Pearson correlation formula. Correlations were also computed for each proficiency group (i.e., L, M, A) separately.

Results

As indicated earlier in this paper, the RC test was constructed to ensure that the 9 paragraphs were appropriate for the participants in terms of their difficulty level. To determine this, the results obtained by the participants on this test were compared with those received on MTELP using a t-test. The results show ($M_{RC} = 14.17 > M_{MTELP} = 8.82$, $p < .001$), the mean score obtained on RC was significantly higher than that obtained on MTELP, which is an indication that the 9 paragraphs were at the comprehension level of the participants.

Due to the fact that the highest score on MTELP was 20 and it was 9 on F/O, the scores were standardized using z-scores before computing the correlation. The correlation between MTELP and F/O test scores was found to be .3587 which was significant. The result presented in Table 1 indicated that there was a relationship.

Table 1. Correlation between MTELP and F/O scores (z-scores)

Correlation	F/O
MTELP	.3587(92) p. .000

As mentioned earlier, the MTELP and F/O correlation was also computed for each proficiency group separately. The results showed a significant correlation for group A (r=.46, p<05) but not for groups L (r=.13, p<.05) and M (r=.29, p<.05) (see Table2).

Table2. Correlation between MTELP and F/O scores (z-scores) at three levels of proficiency.

Group L	Group M	Group A
r=.1352(17) p=.605	r=.2988(57) p=.24	r=.4677(18) p=.05

put it, lexical units seem to be the classical example for fact/opinion information.

Graney (1990) attributes the capability to determine fact/opinion to 'sophisticated' readers and maintains that "when a somewhat sophisticated reader directs attention towards this task [determination of fact and opinion], he can do it, he can say whether a text is more fact or opinion" (1990, p. 148). In other words, Graney views the ability to determine fact and opinion as one of the sub-skills of reading ability in skilled readers. On the other hand, Harrison (1995) argues it is naive or wrong to say that just because it is important to be able to discriminate between fact and opinion imagine that there are entirely separate sets of "fact discrimination skills", "opinion discrimination skills", each of which needs to be taught separately. Harrison (1995, p. 105) focuses on information skills and says, "Information skills are those which enable one to select, comprehend, and integrate information, usually from a number of sources". In the present study researcher aimed at finding out if there is any relationship between overall reading comprehension skill and the ability to recognize fact and opinion in three levels of proficiency in EFL. The results can enhance our understanding of the cognitive capabilities involved in L2 and FL reading comprehension.

Method

Participants

Participants were 92 (31 male and 61 female) Iranian university students randomly selected from volunteers who were at the time majoring in English at Khorasgan Azad University. Participants' level of proficiency in English was determined by the reading section of Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP, form Q) (Corrigan, et al 1979). The obtained scores were converted to z-scores and the participants were then assigned to three proficiency groups (i.e., two or three standard deviations below the mean, L; one standard deviation below or above the mean, M; two or three standard deviation above the mean. A). There were 17 participants in group L, 57 in group M, and 18 in group A.

Materials

The materials used in this study were Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (herein referred to as 'MTELP') and nine paragraphs of fact and opinion (herein referred to as 'F/O'). The MTELP consisted of five self-contained texts followed by 20 multiple-choice questions. The F/O consisted of nine paragraphs extracted by Graney (1990) from three newspapers: *The New York Times, The Washington Post, and The Philadelphia Inquirer*. The paragraphs were from news articles and editorials whose understanding required no technical knowledge (Graney, 1990, p. 155). The texts were typed on a single booklet and each text was followed by three alternatives ('fact', 'unable to decide', 'opinion') to be selected by the participants. To ensure that the 9 paragraphs included dominant factual information or an opinion, three university lecturers in TESOL were asked to read the passages. All three verified that every paragraph was clearly dominated by either fact or opinion.

To measure participants' comprehension of the nine paragraphs, twenty short-answer reading comprehension questions were prepared (herein referred to as 'RC'). A comparison of the score for these questions with the mean score of the MTELP subtest would reveal the level of difficulty of the paragraphs for the participants. To estimate the reliability of the RC test, the KR-21 formula was applied and the obtained reliability of the total test (n=92) was found to be r=.71.

To measure the criterion-related validity of the

refers to recognizing and interpreting the linguistic features of the text (e.g., referents, word meanings, discourse indicators). Hughes maintains that micro skills should be taught not as an end in themselves but as a means of improving macro skills.

In this context, Cummings (1983: 1) adopts a middle-ground position and maintains that "early reading consists of interrelated sub-skills, but .... skilled reading is holistic". According to this position, sub-skills of reading comprehension are induced and developed separately in children and later, by constant practice, they are fused into an integrated and holistic skill. Naturally, the proponents of this position propose the testing of different sub-skills of reading comprehension during the first years of reading instruction.

Critical reading and recognition of fact and opinion

Critical reading demands that readers evaluate the text they are reading (Goatly, 2000; Graney, 1990; Lewis, 2002; Wallace, 2001). This usually involves mapping what is represented in the text against our own experience and knowledge (Wallace, 1996). Critical reading also involves an attempt to understand the purpose or the motivation behind the creation of a text. This is because the writer's purpose directly affects the way the text is constructed. In this context, Graney (1990, p. 148) views the ability to determine whether a text is fact or opinion as one of the elements that contributes to a reader's evaluation task. He maintains that in deciding whether a text is fact or opinion a reader relies on both linguistic knowledge and background knowledge, which aids the reader in putting the text into a perspective.

The question for Graney (1990) was what aspects of a text readers use in making the determination. The results of his experiment showed that context, established through headlines, had a significant effect on determining fact and opinion. He further that readers use specific types of words to make fact/opinion determinations. These mainly included adjectives, factual/counterfactual verbs, implicative verbs and modals. Kirparsky and Kirparky (1970) viewed factivity/non-factivity a product of the presupposition of many predicates. A predicate such as *tragic*, for example, presupposes that the accompanied information is factual. Hermann and Rubenfield (1985) observed that participants in their study associated fact and opinion with certain lexical items. For example, words such as *officer* and *clerk* were associated with factual information while words such as *punk* and *hippie* were associated with opinion. Overall, as Graney (1990)

و درک مطلب بستگی به سطح زبانی زبان خارجی دارد و در سطح پائین‌تر زبانی نمی‌توان مهارت تشخیص واقعیت از عقیده را از خرده مهارت‌های مهارت خواندن دانست. این بدان معناست که متخصصین باید در امر تهیه و تدوین مطالب درسی و همچنین ارائه راهکارهای تدریس مهارت خواندن، تقویت مهارت تشخیص واقعیت از عقیده را درنظر داشته باشند.

کلیدواژه‌ها: مهارت خواندن و درک مطلب، عقیده، واقعیت، فراگیران زبان خارجی، مهارت زبانی، خرده مهارت‌ها.

Abstract

The aim of this inquiry was to find out whether there is any relationship between the ability to recognize fact and opinion, and overall reading comprehension skill in Foreign Language (FL). This question was explored across three proficiency levels. Ninety-two (31 male and 61 female) Iranian senior university students participated in the study. The overall reading ability was measured by the reading subsection of a version of MTELP. Participants were provided with nine paragraphs selected from English newspapers and were asked to recognize whether each paragraph dominantly presented factual information or an opinion. The correct responses received a score of 1 and the incorrect ones received 0. Overall, the results showed a significant correlation between the ability to recognize fact and opinion, and general reading comprehension skill. However, when computed separately, only the results with the higher proficiency group showed a significant correlation. Thus, it may be hypothesized that the ability to recognize fact/opinion is not a sub-skill of general reading skill at lower levels of proficiency in FL but tends to develop, or becomes a sub-skill, as the FL proficiency increases.

Key Words: *comprehension, reading skill, opinion, fact, proficiency sub-skills, FL*

Introduction

Despite the fact that psychologists and educators have been conducting research on various aspects of reading skill for more than a century (e.g., Alderson, 1990a, b, 2003; Alderson & Urquhart, 1983; Alexander & Fox, 2004; Field, 2003,2004; Johnson, 2001; Ushiro, 2004), there are still controversies surrounding the exact nature of skill, or skills, that are involved in reading comprehension, either in L1 or L2. The analysis of the studies that have been conducted appears to be complicated by the fact that usually many different dimensions are found and similar dimensions are often named differently, as well as different dimensions being named alike. In general, however, studies that have addressed the nature of reading skill(s) seem to have subscribed to one of the two views: a) reading skill is a unitary, holistic, and indivisible skill which cannot be split into different sub-skills (e.g., Alavi, 2002; Alderson, 1990 a, b; Jenkins & Pany, 1980; Rosenshine, 1980; Rost, 1993), and b) reading skill consists of various sub-skills (e.g., Lewis, 2002; Mirhassani & Khosravi, 2002; Mirhassani & Rahmani, 2003; Munby, 1978).

According to Downing (1982), skilled readers often use particular sub-skills of their reading skill simultaneously over the years and these sub-skills, originally distinct, become fused and no longer activated separately. Hughes (1989) refers to "macro skills" and "micro skills" of reading comprehension. The distinction between these two levels of sub-skills is not made explicit, but it appears that the term "macro skills" refers to understanding the general ideas in the text (e.g., information, gist, argument) while "micro skills"

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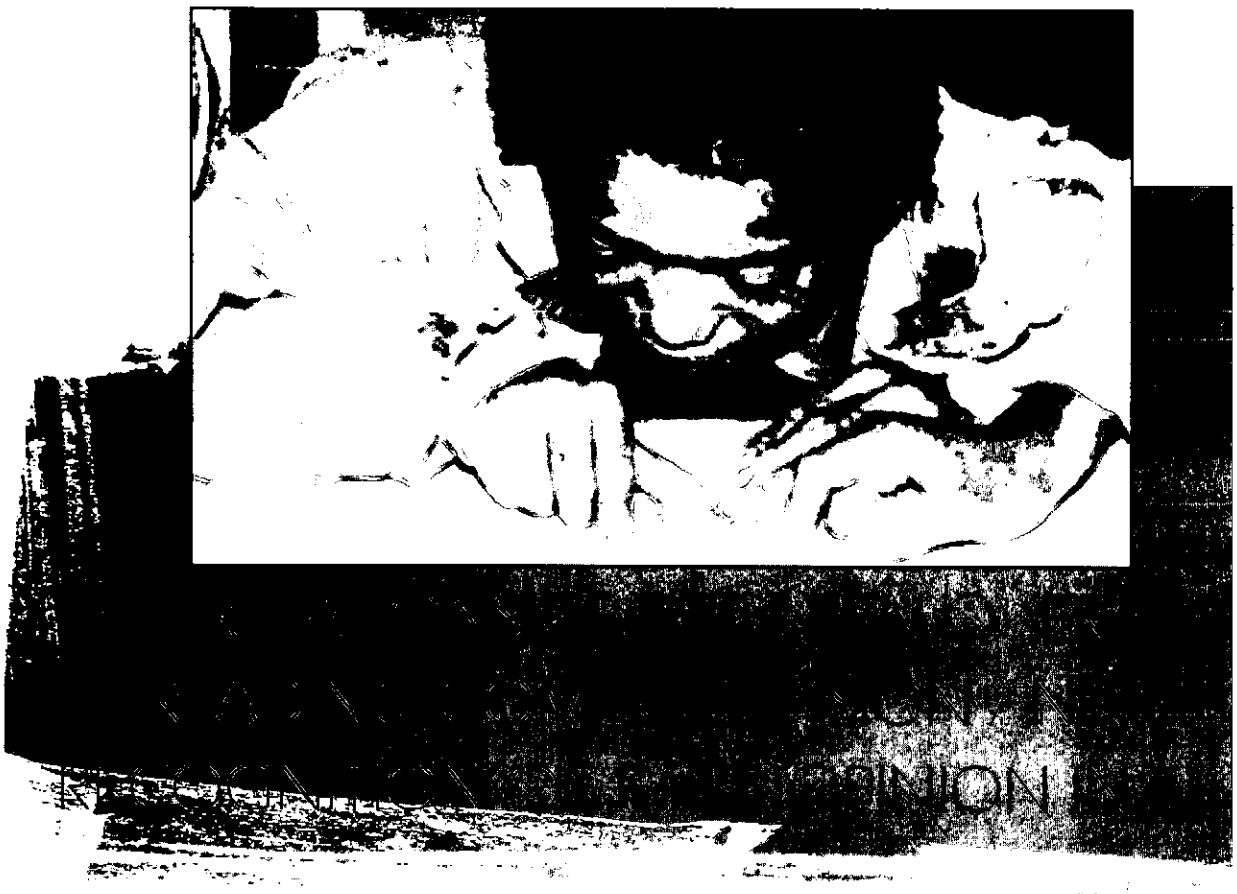

چکیده

خواندن و درک مطلب یکی از موارد اساسی و مهم، پیشرفت تحصیلی به شمار می‌آید. در سال‌های اخیر مطالعاتی که بر روی یادگیری زبان انگلیسی به عنوان زبان خارجی انجام شده، معطوف به درک محتواست که درنهایت بر فراگیری زبان تأثیر می‌گذارد. بعضی از محققان، تهیه‌کنندگان مطالب درسی و معلمان بر این باورند که خواندن و درک مطلب از خرده مهارت‌های دیگری (مانند خواندن اجمالی، خواندن سطحی، تشخیص واقعیت از عقیده و...) نیز تشکیل شده است. از طرف دیگر، بسیاری از صاحب‌نظران معتقدند که خواندن و درک مطلب نبایستی به خرده مهارت‌های دیگری تقسیم شود بلکه باید در حالت کلی درنظر گرفته شود. این تحقیق تلاشی است در جهت روشن نمودن این که تفکیک واقعیت از عقیده جز خرده مهارت‌های خواندن و درک مطلب جامع زبان انگلیسی است یا خیر. به عبارت دیگر آیا رابطه‌ای بین توانایی تشخیص واقعیت از عقیده با مهارت خواندن و درک مطلب جامع در زبان انگلیسی وجود دارد یا خیر؟ این سؤال در سه سطح مهارت زبانی مورد بررسی قرار گرفت. ۹۲ نفر از دانشجویان (۳۱ نفر پسر و ۶۱ نفر دختر) رشته ترجمه زبان انگلیسی مقطع کارشناسی دانشگاه در این آزمایش شرکت نمودند. توانایی خواندن جامع آزمودنی‌ها به وسیله بخش خواندن و درک مطلب آزمون مهارت زبان انگلیسی میشیگان مورد اندازه‌گیری قرار گرفت. آزمودنی‌های این تحقیق براساس نمراتی که در آزمون مهارت میشیگان کسب کرده بودند به سه سطح زبانی تقسیم شدند. از شرکت‌کنندگان خواسته شد تا در نُه متن کوتاه که از روزنامه‌های انگلیسی انتخاب شده بود واقعیت را از عقیده تشخیص دهند. برای پاسخ‌های صحیح نمره یک و برای پاسخ‌های غلط نمره صفر درنظر گرفته شد. به طور کلی نتایج نشانگر معنی‌دار بودن میزان همبستگی بین توانایی تشخیص واقعیت از عقیده و مهارت خواندن و درک مطلب جامع است. بنابراین می‌توان این چنین فرض نمود که ماهیت خواندن

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