



وزارت آموزش و پرورش  
سازمان پژوهش و برنامه ریزی آموزشی  
دفتر انتشارات کمک آموزشی

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# آموزش زبان

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### اعضای هیات تحریریه

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## فهرست

□ سخن سردبیر / ۲

- What Words to Teach, How many, and How? / Dr. G.H. Karbiry./ 10-4
- Let's Take a Break! / Dr. P. Maftoon/ Books/16-11
- Teaching Reading Skills: What a language Teacher Should Know / A.R. Ethtesadee Roudi/ 31-19
- Listening Comperhersion / M. Amini /38-32
- Recent Developments in Foreign language Teaching: A Brief Review / Dr. R. Akbari/ 46-39
- A Functional Analysis of Relative Clauses in Written Narratives by Iraninan EFL University Students / Dr. H. Chokouhi & A. Sabisa /56-47
- Commint Intégrer Internet dans l'enseignement de FLE / Dr. R. Rahmatian et M. Hadi /64-57

### قابل توجه نویسندگان و مترجمان محترم

● مجله رشد آموزش زبان، مقالات کاربردی در حیطه آموزش زبان و همچنین اصل تحقیقات پژوهشگران در حیطه آموزش زبان خارجی، به ویژه، دبیران و مدرسان را، در صورتی که در نشریات عمومی درج نشده و مرتبط با موضوع مجله باشد، می پذیرد. ● مطالب باید در دو نسخه تایپ شده همراه با چکیده فارسی و انگلیسی که زیر آنها کلید واژه ها آمده است، ارسال شود. این مورد برای مقالات فرانسه و آلمانی نیز صادق است. ● شکل قرار گرفتن جدول ها، نمودارها و تصویرهای ضمیمه باید در حاشیه 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، 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 واژه های علمی و فنی دقت لازم مبذول گردد. ● مقاله های ترجمه شده باید با متن اصلی همخوانی داشته باشد و متن اصلی نیز ضمیمه مقاله باشد. ● در متن های ارسالی باید تا حد امکان از معادل های فارسی واژه ها 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 مورد استفاده، باشد. ● مجله در رد، قبول، ویرایش و تلخیص مقاله های رسیده مختار است. ● آرای مندرج در مقاله ها، 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 نمی شود، معذور است.

# سخن‌پیر

همه‌ی دبیران و استادان محترم با مسأله یا مشکل آموزش زبان در ایران روبه‌رو شده‌اند و هستند، ولی کم‌تر به همه‌ی جوانب آن توجه شده است. عده‌ای، ضعف معلمان را مسؤول اصلی عدم موفقیت آموزش و یادگیری زبان می‌دانند، جمعی، نارسایی‌های کتاب‌های درسی را تنها عامل شکست آن قلمداد می‌کنند و معدودی نیز بی‌علاقگی زبان‌آموزان را مطرح می‌نمایند. ولی کدام یک واقعاً باعث این نارسایی و ایجاد مشکل می‌شود: معلم، کتاب، محصل یا هر سه؟

اکثر متخصصان آموزش و یادگیری زبان معتقدند که محصل یا زبان‌آموز، خود مسؤول یادگیری است و معلم، راهنما، کمک‌کننده و هدایتگری بیش نیست. بنابراین، اگر زبان‌آموز برای یادگیری آماده باشد، یعنی از نظر ذهنی بتواند مطالب را دریافت کند، و صحنه‌ی یادگیری به شیوه‌ای آماده شود که با وضع او سازگار باشد و ناهماهنگی و عدم تعادل مشاهده نشود، زبان‌آموز علاقه‌مند به فراگرفتن زبان-اگر به زبان هم نیاز داشته باشد- به راحتی زبان خارجی را می‌آموزد و با موفقیت به خواسته‌ی خود دست می‌یابد. در چنین حالتی، معلم راهنمایی‌های لازم را در اختیار او قرار می‌دهد و کار یادگیری زبان را آسان می‌سازد. اما اگر زبان‌آموز به یادگیری تمایل نداشته باشد یا نداند که چرا باید یک زبان خارجی را یاد بگیرد، خواه‌ناخواه بی‌علاقه می‌شود و زبان را به نحوه‌ی شایسته و خوب یاد نمی‌گیرد. عده‌ای نیز روش تدریس را مهم و مؤثر می‌دانند و آن را علت موفقیت یا شکست زبان‌آموز قلمداد می‌کنند. چون از نظر آنان، یادگیری زبان به روش تدریس آن بستگی دارد و رمز موفقیت اکثر مؤسسه‌های خصوصی و تجاری، روش و شیوه‌ی آموزش آن‌هاست که به کمک آن، ظرف چند ماه یادگیری حاصل می‌شود. البته مخالفان این دیدگاه، روش را کم‌اهمیت جلوه می‌دهند و تنها علاقه، نیرو و تلاش زبان‌آموز را عامل اصلی می‌دانند.

بعضی‌ها هم معلم را تنها عامل مهم در یادگیری زبان به شمار می‌آورند و می‌گویند، روش تدریس به معلم و تبحر او بستگی دارد و وسیله‌ای برای انتقال مطلب است. استفاده از راهبردها و فنون گوناگون در هر روشی، به معلم مربوط می‌شود و اوست که کتاب و روش تدریس آن را خوب یا بد جلوه می‌دهد. کتاب‌ها همگی وسایل کار و ابزار آموزش هستند. معلم خوب از ابزار خوب بهترین بهره‌برداری را می‌کند و معلم ناتوان، استفاده‌ی بهینه از هر کتابی را غیرممکن یا مشکل می‌سازد. البته ابزار نامناسب هم کار معلم را سخت می‌کند، ولی اگر او مهارت و تبحر داشته باشد، استفاده از آن‌ها برایش غیرممکن نخواهد بود.

با توجه به دیدگاه‌های گوناگون می‌توان نتیجه گرفت که محصل، معلم، کتاب و روش تدریس آن، سه عامل مکمل هم هستند که به ترتیب، در صورت علاقه، تبحر و کارایی می‌توانند، آموزش

زبان را به بهترین وجه به ثمر رسانند. البته عواملی چون جامعه، شرایط زندگی، و توجه مسئولان و کارفرمایان ادارات در استفاده از افراد زبان دان نیز نقشی واسطه‌ای یا بنیادینی دارد. مقاله‌ی «مقایسه‌ی تطبیقی برنامه‌های درسی زبان انگلیسی در دو نظام رسمی و غیررسمی کشور»، نوشته‌ی دکتر محمدجعفر جوادی که در شماره‌ی ۱۵۲ «فرهنگ و پژوهش» به چاپ رسیده خود گویای حقیقتی در این زمینه است که باید به آن توجه داشت.

این مقاله یکی از مهم‌ترین عوامل را چنین بیان می‌کند: «شاید مهم‌ترین وجه تمایز آموزشگاه‌ها از مدرسه‌های دولتی در داشتن هدف‌های متفاوت، در انتخاب معلمان بهتر و مجرب‌تر، به کارگیری رویکرد ارتباطی، و انتخاب محتوای مناسب‌تر و پیرانگیزه‌تر باشد... و سرانجام این که می‌توان، انگیزه‌های بیش‌تر زبان‌آموزان و... را عوامل مؤثر در پیشرفت درسی بهتر آن‌ها به حساب آورد.» در ایران متخصصان آموزش زبان کم نیستند و همه‌ی آن‌ها با مشکلات، کاستی‌ها و نیازها آشنایی کامل دارند، ولی باید کمک، راهنمایی و معدودی از آن‌ها به اجرای پروژه‌های چندمیلیونی بی‌محتوا و نظری محدود نشود، بلکه به جای نوشتن گزارش‌های تکراری، وارد عمل شوند: بر تدریس معلمان نظارت و با آنان همکاری کنند، دیدگاه‌های تجربی چندین ساله‌ی خود را به اجرا درآورند و نشان دهند که امکان اصلاح آموزش زبان وجود دارد، عوامل بازدارنده را با همان بودجه‌های کلان برطرف کنند، و به سؤال‌های تکراری و مسأله‌های ظاهراً بی‌غرنج آموزش زبان خارجی در ایران، پایان بخشند. ان شاء الله

\* \* \* \* \*

در این شماره، استثنائاً تمام مقالات به زبان انگلیسی و فرانسه هستند و مقاله‌ای به زبان فارسی ارائه نشده است.

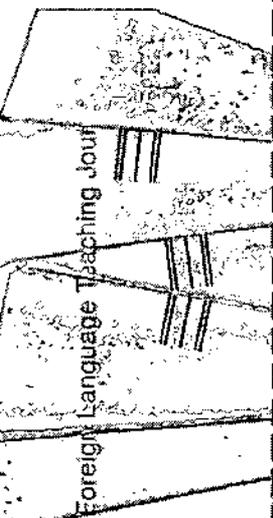
در بخش «Roshd & Teachers»، مقاله‌ای در زمینه‌ی واژگان داریم که به ارائه‌ی شیوه‌ها و نظرات آموزش واژگان برای افراد بزرگسال می‌پردازد. دو کتاب نیز در زمینه‌ی آزمون‌سازی و اینترنت در این بخش معرفی شده‌اند.

مطالب متنوعی از جمله: کلمات قصار، جدول، لطیفه، نکته‌هایی برای دبیران و... نیز در مقاله‌ی «Let's take a break» آمده است که استفاده‌ی آن را در کلاس درس به دبیران محترم توصیه می‌کنیم. در بخش «Classroom Techniques» دو مقاله؛ یکی در زمینه‌ی مهارت‌های خواندن که به‌طور دقیقی، روش‌ها و شیوه‌های آموزش این مهارت را به معلمان معرفی می‌کند و مسؤولیت معلم را در این حیطه خاطر نشان می‌سازد، و دیگری به معرفی مهارت درک شنیداری می‌پردازد و دو فرایند ذهنی و شناختی را در برقراری ارتباط دخیل می‌داند. طبق این دیدگاه، درک شنیداری جزو فرایندهای فعال شمرده می‌شود. ضمناً، تمرین‌هایی نیز در زمینه‌های مهارت شنیداری ارائه شده است.

در بخش «Knowledge Improvement» مقاله‌ای داریم که مروری است بر تحولات آموزش زبان انگلیسی در ۲۰ سال گذشته. نویسنده‌ی مقاله تغییراتی را که برای دبیران زبان انگلیسی ناشناخته هستند، مطرح می‌کند.

این مقاله برای دو شماره‌ی مجله در نظر گرفته شده که بخش اول آن در این شماره آمده است. در انتها، در بخش «Researches» دو مقاله معرفی شده‌اند: یکی به زبان فرانسه که به نقش اینترنت در کلاسی درس می‌پردازد و دیگری که تحقیقی است به زبان انگلیسی، نقش‌های نه‌گانه‌ی کلاسی را در داستان مورد مذاقه و تجزیه و تحلیل قرار می‌دهد. پژوهشگر درصدد پاسخ به این سؤال است که آیا زبان‌آموزان ایرانی می‌توانند، این نقش‌های نه‌گانه را در داستان نویسی به کار ببرند؟

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always select the appropriate word over the more general one. One of the problems with artificial selection criteria is that they ignore the influence of collocation by which words co-exist in specific patterns. Take the sentence below:

*My sister is always trying to... her cast off clothes on me.*

The word for the gap is "foist" but is would hardly feature in any lists of frequency or coverage.

It is specific to the context, but native speakers have no difficulty with such unusual collocations.

- c. **Rituals.** Lexical chunks can be associated with certain rituals, telephoning for example. They help us to predict certain set expressions that occur in this activity: *Who's calling? Hold on. Who shall I say is calling?* Often these chunks are not easy to be translated into another language.

## Recommendations

General strategies to keep in mind to teach and learn vocabulary are:

- a. **Encourage wide reading.** Poor students often read less, because reading is difficult and frustrating for them. The natural word acquisition process (as this occurs in first language acquisition) consists of gradual acquisition of the various properties of a word through repeated exposure in a wide range of authentic contexts illustrative of its various features (Groot, 2000).
- b. **Emphasizing learning from context.** Exposure to words in context is

preferable to exposure to word in isolation. Only context will fully demonstrate the semantic, syntactic, and collocational features of a word the learner has to process in order to establish the numerous links and associations with other words necessary for easy accessibility and retrieval (see also Nation, 1990, & Singleton, 1999, for summary of the arguments and evidence supporting this position).

- c. **Extending instruction through reading aloud and discussion.** Reading aloud can be a good strategy to use with students who have smaller vocabularies. Researchers have found that a certain group of students learned about as many words from a single listening as they would from a single reading (Stahl, 1999).
- d. **Using suffixes and prefixes.** Students encountering an unknown word should learn to analyze it. This means they should identify all the roots, prefixes, and suffixes in the word. This method will seem hard at first, but becoming familiar with more and more word parts, you will soon find that it becomes much easier. Students will take interest in how words are formed and how they have developed and changed over the years.

If that happens, they will be surprised at how fast their vocabulary grows.

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As for adults and proficient readers who would like to learn a large number of words, in a short space of time, to make the learned words the basis for learning other words, it is a different story. For them the exposure to new words, is considerably less intensive and varied. These people can undoubtedly learn a limited number of high frequency words incidentally but that is not possible for the much larger number of less frequent words that must be learned at the same time if they wish to speak of functional proficiency.

To make it possible the suggestion is to expose the learners to authentic L2 material and train them in communicative strategies, such as contextual deduction of the meaning of new words so that incidental acquisition can take place (Krashen 1989). But the problem with this proposition is that authentic language material is generally not produced with the intention of illustrating to learners the meaning or usage of certain words but rather to convey information to other native speakers who are already familiar with these words (Groot 2000). To overcome the problem so that the learner can pick up new words from authentic context he/she should have a large vocabulary (Horst, Cobb, & Meara, 1998)

### **How many words?**

There is no standard number. It all depends on the purpose. But we should never allow our students believe that knowing such and such number of vocabulary is all that English is about; steer them away from this quantitative thinking. Yet, it can be mentioned that during the initial stages of English teaching as a second language proficiency, however, requires mastery of a considerably larger number of words.

To the extent that reading comprehension is dependent on word knowledge, there is empirical evidence that for an adequate understanding of academic texts, a vocabulary of at least 7000 words is required (Hazenberg and Hulstijn, 1996) mention an even higher number 10000). Nation (1993) and Laufer (1997) suggest a target vocabulary of 5000 as the minimum lexical requirement for understanding general, non-specialised texts. Various studies (Hazenberg & Hulstijn, 1996; Hirsh & Nation, 1992; Laufer, 1987) have demonstrated that for adequate comprehension of texts at this level, readers must be familiar with more than 90% of the word used.

### **How to select words?**

When you plan your approach to teaching vocabulary some issues should be considered:

- a. External and internal words. words can refer to phenomena in the world we perceive: ice-cream, ship, pigeon, chair, or to the concepts by which we organize our world: Wednesday night, hundred, but also the relationships between words within the syntactical structures we use: the, if, under, unless. Lexical chunks bridge the gap between the external and internal worlds by offering us 'prefabricated' lexical items for specific functions: for the most part, once and for all, as I was saying.
- b. Selection criteria. Published courses invariably apply selection criteria based on such principles as frequency, coverage, or distribution. Unfortunately this can throw up anomalies. for example, the word 'vehicle' appears to be more useful on the basis of coverage than the word train. But native speakers

of L2 learners, this could be related to their often felt need for dictionary access. Second, learners should be encouraged to process information about words at a deeper level. Among L2 learners this could be reflected in the emphasis on authentic communicative activities. Finally, learners need multiple exposure to words. Extensive reading is the most often cited remedy for this lack. Context has a large role to play, too, both in helping students learn new vocabulary and in establishing how words are actually used in speech and writing. Most drills, unfortunately tend to take shotgun approach to vocabulary. Words seem to be grouped into lessons according to frequency rather than according to meaning. When drills can be customized, teachers can select words that fit into a context, preferably one introduced in the classroom.

On the one hand, Benston (2002) maintains that use of the heritage language holds back English development, the families that "refuse to teach their native language to their children are helping their children acquire English, and that using the heritage language" makes it hard for us to live and work together. On the other hand, according to Cummins (1994) "Primary language support can serve as a scaffold to facilitate the link between background knowledge and the acquisition of a new language."

I personally agree with Cummins, but am great advocate of avoiding using the primary language in the English classroom. Translation is unnecessary and indirect and also creates a dependence in students that is later hard to cure.

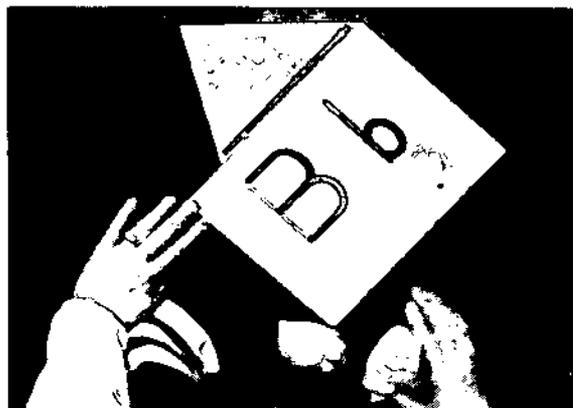
## Methodology

The traditional way vocabulary is taught in language classrooms-words, then definitions-

is contrary to the "natural way" a child learns his/her native tongue. Students should be hearing only the target language from the instructor, in this case English.

With young children vocabulary learning is relatively easy. The words they need are the words they would use in their mother tongue too, they are concrete things they can see, touch, taste, play with, etc. So it is easy for the meaning of the words to be made apparent without resorting to translation or complicated explanations. How better to teach the word "apple" than to show the children an apple? The sooner students are able to communicate ideas in English, the more motivated they will be, so giving them a bank of vocabulary to draw on is necessary.

Elley (1980, 1989) and Elley and Mangubhai (1983) examined the second language vocabulary acquisition of children who listened to stories. They found rapid growth in English language development for children with greater amounts of free reading exposure. In Elley's study (1989), students exposed to a story three times without intervention showed a mean vocabulary gain of 19% while students exposed once with minor explanation gained 20%, and the mean gain for students exposed 3 times with explanations was 33%. Elley concluded that stories read aloud with brief explanation offer a great resource for vocabulary acquisition in that students with limited vocabulary gain at least as much from the reading as the other students and that this learning is relatively permanent. Factors that influenced the acquisition of the vocabulary items include frequency of occurrence of word in the story, amount of help that the context offered and the frequency of the word in picture form within the context.



include "joyful, gleeful, and jovial." And then we might learn "sad, morose, and tearful", because they have a meaning opposite of "happy" (Dennis Keen, 1989).

For vocabulary building purposes, texts-whether spoken or written-have enormous advantages over learning words by other means. For a start, the fact that words are in context increases the chances of learners appreciating not only their meaning but their typical environments, such as their associated collocations or grammatical structures, (Scott, 2003).

But how important is direct study of vocabulary? Like so much in language learning it depends. Ask someone who speaks a Latin-based language about how much emphasis to place on vocabulary from context is fine. Ask someone who comes to English from a non-cognate language like Farsi, and suddenly there may be far more emphasis on the need to memorize words and just focus on vocabulary in early stages of language learning.

Even with cognates, there's going to be a certain amount of work required to

1. recognize that a string of letters is a word;
2. be able to recognize the meaning of a word; and
3. use the word appropriately in speech and writing.

James Coady (1997) offers a synthesis of research on second language vocabulary acquisition. He suggests these implications for pedagogy:

Three main principles appear to underline effective vocabulary teaching. First, learners should be provided with both definitional and contextual information about words. In the case

story in Spanish after the reading in order to reinforce important points (review).

All three groups were given a post-test of the same vocabulary items after the treatment and one week later to examine gains in scores. Results in the preview-review group score significantly higher than the control and concurrent translation groups, the concurrent translation group scored the lowest of all three groups and improved slightly one week after treatment. These findings demonstrate positive implications for the use of strategies which build background as a means of teaching second language vocabulary to English learners.

### **How should the words be presented?**

Traditionally, vocabulary used to be offered to learners in the form of lists. Some have said we should read as much as we can, write down all the words we do not know, and then look them up in a dictionary. Other systems involve writing down and memorizing words every day. Another suggestion is to learn words related to a basic idea. For example "happy" is a common word. We should try to learn a number of synonyms for "happy". These might

## Introduction

Learning a foreign language, like English, and learning words through which we understand the ideas of others express our own ideas lies at the heart of the drive to raise standards in our contact with people of that particular language, and as for English, in our communication with English speaking people which number one fourth of the whole population of the globe. Words are the building blocks of a language and having a good supply of them is very important for students right from the beginning of the English learning.

Studies have shown that reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge are strongly correlated (Reading Framework available on line Accessed 2003), and researchers have found that word knowledge at school can predict how well students will be able to comprehend text they'll read later (Biemiller, 2000).

Teaching vocabulary sets out an ambitious agenda for all abilities. Most of all, it equips all students for the world in which they will live and work-a world which places a high premium on the written and spoken word.

## First Language (L1) & Second Language (L2)

In teaching a foreign language there are at least two languages to be taken into consideration: The first one is a primary language, or a mother tongue, like Farsi, or L1, and the second one which is a foreign language, a L2, in our case, English. Since the mother tongue is taught and learned much earlier than L2 is, it can serve as a scaffold to facilitate the link between background knowledge and the acquisition of the new language (L2) (Cummins, 1994).

Second language learners can make use of what they know in their native language to better understand what they are learning in English.

When used appropriately the primary language assists promoting meaningful learning, which further builds the network of schemata available to the second language learner. The connections made between the students' first and second language thus serve to facilitate new learning.

In order to explore the impact of using the primary language as a scaffold to facilitate vocabulary development for second language, Sharon H. Ulanoff from California State University and Sandra L. Pucci (1999) from University of Wisconsin conducted a study which compares the gains made in second language vocabulary as a direct result of different literacy lessons implementing two bilingual methodologies: concurrent translation and preview-review, the explanation of which will follow.

Students in the three randomly selected third grade classes in the Los Angeles area were chosen to serve as the control (not treatment), concurrent translation, and preview-review groups. The children were given a pre-test to assess their knowledge of selected vocabulary items. After the administration of the pre-test students in group 1 (control) listened to a story in English with no intervention or explanation of the story. Students in group 2 listened to the same story in English with the reader using the concurrent method (translating the story from one language to the other). Group 3 heard the same story in English after having the teacher build background knowledge by previewing important points and difficult vocabulary in Spanish (preview). They also reviewed the



# What Words to Teach, How many, and How?

Ghassem Kabiry, Ph. D.

Gilan University

gkabiry@yahoo.com

چکیده

روش سنتی تدریس واژگان در کلاس‌های زبان انگلیسی، با «شیوه‌ی طبیعی» یادگیری زبان مادری مغایر است. به عبارت دیگر، در چنین روشی دانش‌آموزان فقط باید به زبان مقصد گوش کنند. به نظر می‌رسد که انتخاب واژگان و ارائه‌ی آن‌ها، تعداد کلمات مورد نیاز برای شروع و روش مورد استفاده برای آموزش زبان، از همان ابتدای یادگیری زبان انگلیسی از اهمیت برخوردار است. آموزش واژگان به کودکان کم سن و سال، تا حدی آسان است. آن‌ها همان واژگانی را که در زبان مادری از آن‌ها استفاده می‌کنند، می‌آموزند. اما یادگیری واژگان زبان دوم یا خارجی برای افراد بزرگسال موضوع دیگری است. این مقاله، شیوه‌ها و نظرات متفاوتی را برای بررسی این موضوع مطرح می‌کند. کلید واژه‌ها: هم‌نشینی، زبان غیرشناختی، ترکیب، محتوایی، اصیل و موثق.

## Abstract

The traditional way vocabulary is taught in language classroom is contrary to the "natural way" a child learns his/her native language. In other words, students should be hearing only the target language from the instructor.

Selecting and presenting words, number of words needed to begin with, and techniques used to teach them seem to be important for students right from the very beginning of English learning.

With young children vocabulary learning is relatively easy. They learn the same words that they use in their mother tongue, but the second language vocabulary acquisition of adults is a different story.

This paper presents different approaches and opinions to address these issues.

**Key Words:** collocation, non - cognate language, synthesis, contextual, authentic

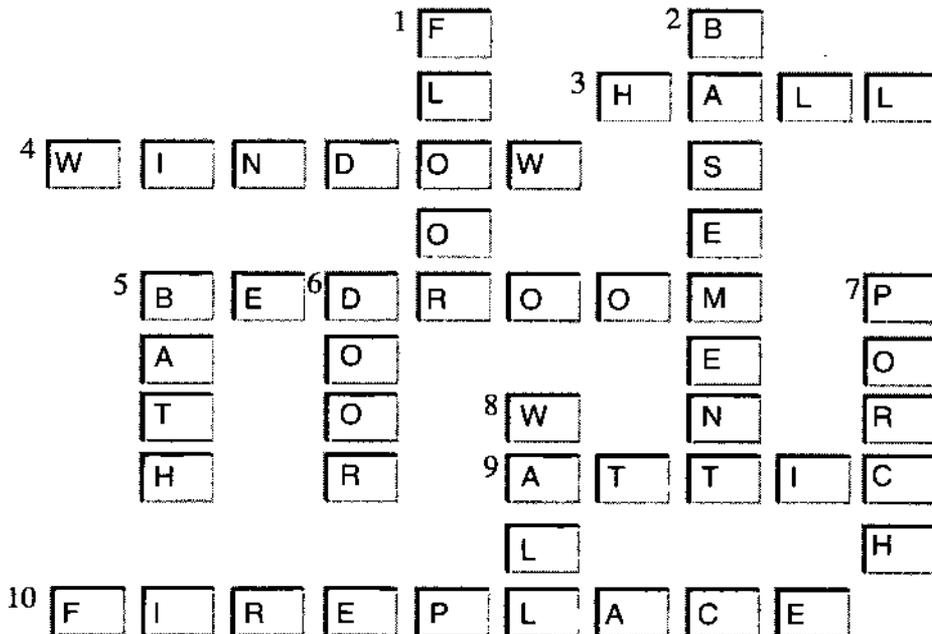
## MISSING DICTIONARY DEFINITION

- A **mathematician** is a person skilled in a science dealing with the exact relations existing between quantities or magnitudes.
- A **sculptor** is an artist whose occupation is to carve things representing human beings and animals.

## SCRAMBLED SENTENCES

- All's well that ends well.
- He is the best general who makes the fewest mistakes.
- Love makes the world go round.
- Time cures all things.
- The proof of the pudding is in the eating.
- Laughter is the best medicine.
- Out of sight, out of mind.
- Never speak ill of the dead.
- Actions speak louder than words.
- There is more than one way to skin a cat.

## CROSSWORD PUZZLE



## **TEACHING TIPS**

### **LESSON PLANS**

Don't be lazy! Please, prepare a proper lesson plan for every class. A proper lesson plan for a children's class includes more activities than you have time for. Be over prepared in case one or more games don't please the students that day. Always have several backup activities.

Lesson plans need to have a clear language target. What sentence pattern are you focusing on? What vocabulary? What are you going to review? A lesson plan that answers all these questions clearly is one that provides focus and direction for the teacher. In practical terms, it can mean help in choosing the type of activities you will do. Having a clear focus also helps to build on previous lessons and to integrate the vocabulary and patterns of old lessons into new ones.

Even very experienced teachers should have detailed lesson plan. If you think you can do it off the top of your head, then you're doing it by ROTE!

## **KEY TO THE QUESTION**

VOL. 19. NO. 74

## **BRAIN TEASERS**

- Tooth or teeth
- Rasputin
- Tree
- Moon
- Beetle
- Particle
- Turkey
- Cabbage
- Universe
- Rail

When a dog ----- its tail, it repeatedly waves its tail from side to side.

### SCRAMBLED SENTENCES

The following proverbs are all mixed up. Your job is to put them in order so they make sense.

- is ... healer ... great ... time ... a
- gained ... nothing ... nothing ... ventured
- bring ... May ... April ... flowers ... showers
- one ... two ... are ... better ... heads ... than
- a ... a ... everything ... is ... time ... place ... there ... for ... and
- bad ... alone ... in ... than ... be ... company ... to ... better
- nothing ... something ... you ... for ... get ... don't
- are ... to ... sides ... every ... two ... question ... there
- houses ... stones ... not ... those ... throw ... live ... who ... in ... should ... glass
- unto ... unto ... do ... do ... would ... as ... to ... you ... you ... others ... like ... them

### CROSSWORD PUZZLE

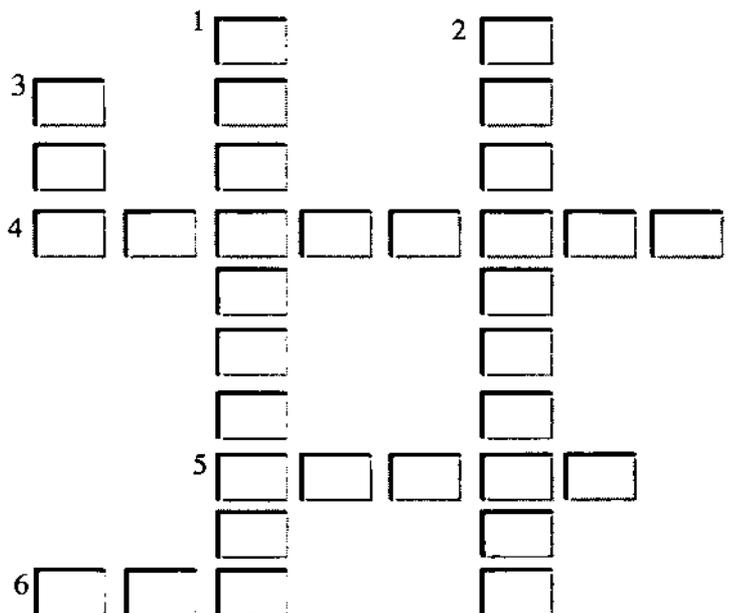
#### TRANSPORTATION

#### ACROSS

- 4. Takes you out on the water
- 5. Big and spacious to carry things
- 6. Most common vehicle on the road

#### DOWN

- 1. It has wings to propel it
- 2. Rides on two wheels
- 3. A public transportation means



## BRAIN TEASERS

*Can you solve these brain teasers?*

- I am an action that cleanses and protects. My last four letters identify one unit of a connected series. My last three letters are often seen on paper. What am I?
- I am a nation. My first four letters denote a part of your upper anatomy. What am I?
- My first three letters identify a type of primate, and I am the “highest point .” What am I?
- My first half is a thick, dark, sticky substance. My last half means “to acquire.” What am I?
- I am a city in the Middle East. The last half of my name is the past tense for moving quickly by a series of small jumps. What am I?
- I am related to the ear and to sound. My last half is a number, and my first four letters indicate a series of words or numbers. What am I?
- Fire is often maintained above me, and if you remove my first letter, you will find the home shared by everyone you have ever known. What am I?
- I am a sensation experienced when you suddenly feel cold. My last three letters denote a state of sickness. What am I?
- Remove my first letter, and you have a non-living thing that has a root. My last three letters are composed mostly of nitrogen on our planet. What am I?
- My name rhymes with the dish on which a cup is placed. I produced a famous fictional set of stories told by people on a pilgrimage to a cathedral. Who am I?

## MISSING DICTIONARY DEFINITION

*Here is a dictionary definition, but the word being defined has been blanked out from the definition. Can you guess what word or phrase is being defined? It may be a single word or a compound or an idiomatic expression. Each missing word is indicated by five hyphens, no matter how many letters are in the missing word itself.*

If someone or something is ----- by an event or occurrence, they are not changed by it in any way.

- If you really want to do something, you will find a way. If you don't, you will find an excuse.
- Sharing money is what gives it its value.
- The happiest people don't necessarily have the best of everything. They just make the best of everything.
- When you do not listen to your conscience, it's because you do not want advice from a stranger.

## JOKE

### The Young Business Man on the Phone

A young businessman had just started his own firm. He'd rented a beautiful office and had it furnished with antiques. Sitting there, he saw a man come into the outer office. Wishing to appear busy, the businessman picked up the phone and started to pretend he had a big deal working. He threw huge figures around and made giant commitments. Finally, he hung up and asked the visitor, "Can I help you?" The man said, "Sure. I've come to install the phone!"



## SLANG FORUM

### HOLE IN THE WALL

**Definition:** A small, simple place, particularly a shop or a restaurant

**Example:** Let's go to that restaurant on Smith Street. It's just a hole in the wall, but the food is excellent.

**Etymology:** This phrase has been used since the early 1800s. A hole is an empty space, and a wall is a simple, undecorated space in a building.



# LET'S TAKE A BREAK!

---

Prepared by Parviz Maftoon (Ph.D. in TEFL)

p\_maftoon@iust.ac.ir

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## QUOTATIONS

- Act as if it were impossible to fail.

*Dorothea Brande*

- To create, you must quiet your mind. You need a quiet mind so that ideas will have a chance of connecting.

*Eric Maisil*

- I detest the man who hides on thing in the depths of his heart and speaks forth another.

*Homer*

- God looks at the clean hand, not the full ones.

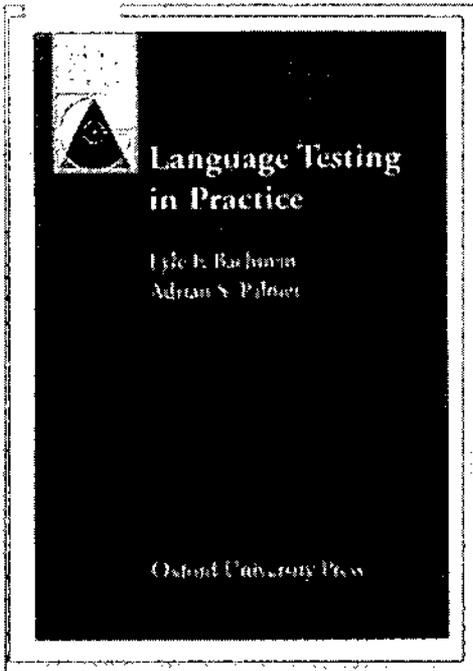
*Publilius Syrus*

- The reason that worry kills more people than work is because there are more people who worry than work.

*Rebert Frorst*

## WORDS OF KNOWLEDGE

- The easiest thing to find is fault.



### Language Testing in Practice

**WINNER MLA KENNETH W MILDENBERGER PRIZE**

### Language Testing in Practice

**WINNER MLA KENNETH W MILDENBERGER PRIZE**

Lyle F Bachman and Adrian S Palmer

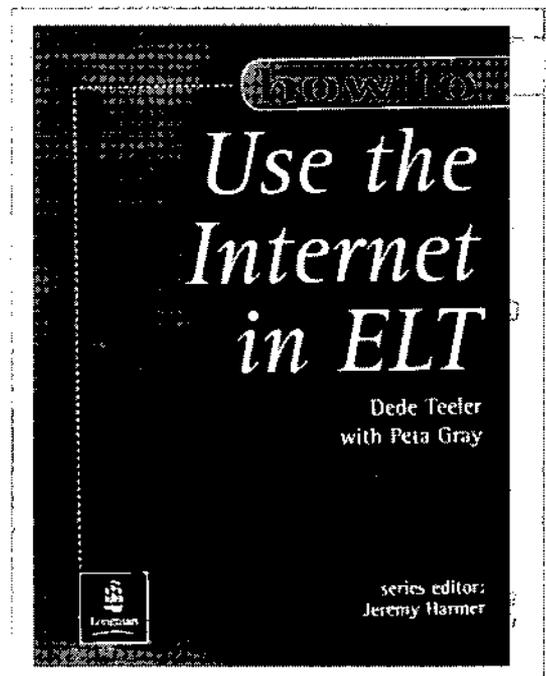
This book relates language testing practice to current views of communicative language teaching and testing. It builds on the theoretical background expounded in Bachman's *Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing* and examines the design, planning, and organization of tests.



### How to Use the Internet in ELT

Dede Teeler with Peta Gray  
Series editor: Jermeiy Harmer

How to Use the Internet in *ELT* is a book for teachers of English who have little or no experience of the **Internet** and are intrigued to discover how to master it for the benefit of themselves and their students. Those more experienced with the Internet may also find ideas and resources described in the book that can extend their knowledge and skills.





دوره نهم، شماره ۷۵



دفتر انتشارات کمک آموزشی

آشنایی با  
مجله های رشد



برگ اشتراک مجله های رشد

شرایط اشتراک



به ازای هر عنوان مجله درخواستی. واریز مبلغ ۲۰۰۰۰ ریال به عنوان علی الحساب به حساب شماره ۲۹۶۶۲۰۰۰ بانک تجارت شعبه سه راه آزمایش (سرخه حصار) کد ۲۹۵ در وجه شرکت افست و ارسال رسید بانکی به همراه برگ تکمیل شده اشتراک الزامی است.

- مجله درخواستی: .....
- نام و نام خانوادگی: .....
- تاریخ تولد: ..... • تحصیلات: .....
- تلفن: .....
- نشانی کامل پستی: .....

استان: ..... شهرستان: .....

خیابان: .....

کوچه: .....

پلاک: ..... کدپستی: .....

- مبلغ واریز شده: .....
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امضا:

نشانی: تهران - صندوق پستی ۱۵۸۷۵/۳۳۳۱  
 نشانی اینترنتی: [www.roshdmag.org](http://www.roshdmag.org)  
 پست الکترونیک: [info@roshdmag.org](mailto:info@roshdmag.org)  
 تلفن امور مشترکین: ۷۳۳۵۱۱۰ و ۷۳۳۶۶۵۶

- لطفاً مشخصات و نشانی خود را کامل و خوانا بنویسید. (هزینه برگشت مجله در صورت کامل نبودن نشانی، به عهده مشترک است).
- ارسال اصل رسید بانکی ضروری است.
- مبنای شروع اشتراک از زمان وصول فرم درخواست است.
- برای هر عنوان مجله، فرم جداگانه تکمیل شود (تصویر فرم نیز مورد قبول است).

مجله های رشد توسط دفتر انتشارات کمک آموزشی سازمان پژوهش و برنامه ریزی آموزشی وابسته به وزارت آموزش و پرورش، با این عناوین تهیه و منتشر می شوند:

- مجلات دانش آموزی (به صورت ماهنامه - ۹ شماره در سال - از مهر تا خرداد - منتشر می شوند):
  - رشد کودک (ویژه دانش آموزان پیش دبستانی و پایه اول ابتدایی)
  - رشد نوآموز (ویژه دانش آموزان پایه های دوم و سوم ابتدایی)
  - رشد دانش آموز (ویژه دانش آموزان پایه های چهارم و پنجم ابتدایی).
  - رشد نوجوان (ویژه دانش آموزان دوره راهنمایی تحصیلی).
  - رشد جوان (ویژه دانش آموزان دوره متوسطه).

مجلات عمومی (به صورت ماهنامه - ۹ شماره در سال و از مهر تا خرداد منتشر می شوند):

- رشد آموزش ابتدایی، رشد معلم، رشد تکنولوژی آموزشی، رشد مدرسه فردا و رشد مدیریت مدرسه.

مجلات تخصصی (به صورت فصلنامه و ۴ شماره در سال منتشر می شوند):

- رشد برهان (مجله ریاضی، ویژه دانش آموزان دوره راهنمایی تحصیلی)، رشد برهان (مجله ریاضی، ویژه دانش آموزان دوره متوسطه)، رشد آموزش معارف اسلامی، رشد آموزش جغرافیا، رشد آموزش تاریخ، رشد آموزش راهنمایی تحصیلی، رشد آموزش زبان و ادب فارسی، رشد آموزش زبان، رشد آموزش زیست شناسی، رشد آموزش تربیت بدنی، رشد آموزش فیزیک، رشد آموزش شیمی، رشد آموزش ریاضی، رشد آموزش هنر، رشد آموزش قرآن، رشد آموزش علوم اجتماعی و رشد آموزش زمین شناسی.

مجلات عمومی و تخصصی برای معلمان، آموزگاران، مدیران و کادر اجرایی مدارس

دانشجویان مراکز تربیت معلم و رشته های دبیری دانشگاه ها و کارشناسان تعلیم و تربیت تهیه و منتشر می شوند.

• نشانی: تهران، خیابان ایرانشهرشمالی، ساختمان شماره ۲ آموزش و پرورش، پلاک ۲۶۸، دفتر انتشارات کمک آموزشی.

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### ***The Last Words***

As the last point of this article, it should be said that a distinction is usually made between two types of reading: intensive and extensive.

Intensive reading is the careful and detailed reading of the text, which is usually done in the classroom and under the supervision of the teacher. In this type of reading, students are expected to understand everything they read and to be able to answer detailed vocabulary and comprehension questions. The points discussed in this article are mostly intensive reading matters.

Extensive reading, on the other hand, is reading the text to get a general understanding. This type of reading is usually done outside the classroom and the purpose is to get pleasure and enjoy reading. Reading teachers should be aware of the benefits of extensive reading and besides working intensively on the text in the classroom, should encourage students to read freely other interesting texts outside the class. Day and Bamford (2000) emphasizing the importance of extensive reading maintain that weak and uninterested readers can be reached and discover the joy of being able to read in English if extensive reading is incorporated into EFL curriculums. They maintain that researches and studies done in this respect show that extensive reading results in students' making significant gains in other aspects foreign language competence such as listening, writing and vocabulary. This may be due to the fact that extensive reading provide increased exposure to English. Moreover, successful extensive reading and experiencing the joy of reading for pleasure can also lead to positive attitudes toward reading and foreign

language learning in general.

However, reading teachers should take care that in extensive reading, reading is its own reward, therefore, material for this type of reading should be at a lower level of difficulty than that for intensive reading and few or no follow-up activities should be done after reading.

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item or vocabulary and consolidate what has been read by relating new information to the learner's knowledge, interests and opinions (Dubin & Bycina, 1991; Nuttall, 1998). Teacher's innovations are a good source for devising many new and interesting activities for this stage, but the following are some of the commonly used activities:

#### Reading Comprehension questions:

Answering reading comprehension questions after reading the text is the commonest post reading activity. There are three kinds of these questions. In the first kind, the answer can be read directly from the text. The answer to the second kind of comprehension questions can be inferred from the text. The last kind of comprehension questions is external questions where it is necessary to understand something outside the text (Lewis, 1990). It should be noted that answering the first kind of comprehension questions which simply echoes the vocabulary and grammar of the text does not require understanding on the part of learners and answering them successfully may not provide proof of successful comprehension. On the other hand, the second and third kinds of reading comprehension questions invite some measures of interpretation and application of the readers background and will demand a real comprehension (Ur, 1996).

#### Matching sentence halves

In this activity, some sentences from the text are split into halves written in two columns and students match them (Willis, 1991).

#### Jumbled key points

The teacher writes a list of main ideas in the passage and copies them in wrong order.

Students must number ideas in order they are expressed in the passage. Care must be taken to disguise the wording of the main ideas so that students can not recognize a similar sentence in the text and perhaps get the right order without understanding the text (Willis, 1991).

#### Gapped texts

In this activity, in the last paragraph of the text some gaps are left. Students should understand the text to be able to fill the gaps in.

#### Innovating an ending

If the text is a story, students can be asked to write a new ending to the story. This can be done in pairs or groups.

#### Time-line

Texts that incorporate passage of time lend themselves well to this activity. Here, the teacher provides a table of time and students fill in the blanks with the importance of the time mentioned or the actions happened in that period.

#### Hot seat

After biographies, one student is asked to sit on the hot seat and others ask him questions about his life.

#### Monster cloze

The teacher writes the title on the board and students say what ever they can remember from the text. The teacher writes them in order they appear in the text. Then, students using their knowledge of the text and language complete the text.

#### Discussions

If the text is an argumentative one, after reading, students can express their own ideas and reasons for or against the content.

through the assigned reading and indicates what information is important, how a paragraph or section is organized and what is to be learned. Of course, providing guide-o-ramas demands more work on the part of the teachers.

As you read pages 64 and 65 of your text, follow the instructions listed below:	
Para#1	This paragraph provides a transition from the previous section and a definition of culture. What is that definition/What is meant by "ways"? Give more examples.
Para#2	This paragraph lists the main parts of the text. Convert the four subtopics into questions.
Para#3	Paragraphs 3 and 4 deal with the first subtopic: cultural change. In addition to language (given) what other cultural traits have changed?
Para#4	Why do culture change? (three reasons)
Para#5-#7	These paragraphs deal with second topic: simple and complex cultures. What are the aims of simple and complex cultures? How are they different in terms of food procurement and tool use? Do you know any other simple cultures that still exist today?
Para#8-#13	These paragraphs deal with the third point: cultures are learned. Summarize the main points of paragraphs 8,9 and 13. How many inventions can you find mentioned in paragraphs 10-12?

A guide-o-rama (Dubin & Bycina, 1991, p.204)

### Modelled reading

Modelled reading is reading the text aloud using appropriate stress and intonation and trying to bring the text to life and showing students that print has meaning. Some people believe that modelled reading should be done as the first activity in while-reading stage, but the present writer personally thinks that, if the text is read to learners before they are familiar with the gist of the passage through skimming and scanning activities, they will hardly listen to and follow the text. Moreover, if a learner comes across a difficult word or structure in the text, it may abandon him from listening to the text. Therefore, it seems more useful to do the modelled reading after students get familiar with the text through other activities.

### Read and look up technique

As Paulston and Bruder (1967) say this technique was originally developed by Michael West (1941) to give maximum individual

practice in meaningfully reading for large classes. In this technique, the teacher divides the reading text into syntactic word groups and speaks them rather than read them. In beginning levels, the teacher first models the reading passage by pauses or by saying slash where students are to mark word group intervals with slashes. The students then read either individually or chorally, the first group silently, then look up and speak it aloud from memory. They continue with the second word group and so on. The major teaching point in this technique is to train students to read by syntactic units, but it is also remarkably efficient in improving short-term memory.

### Shadow Reading

If the tape reading the text is available, the teacher can ask students to listen and follow the text from their own copy. Sometimes, the teacher can ask students to read aloud with the tape. It is useful because it demonstrates how meaning is made through text and how stress, intonation and the pattern of spoken language are related to the word on the page.

### Pause and predict

One of the techniques of while-reading stage is that the teacher, if he reads the text for students, can stop at significant points and ask questions e. g. 'what do you think is going to happen? The goal of these questions is to engage learners in the process of meaning making not to have them verbalize the right answers.

### Post Reading Activities

The purpose of post reading activities is to review the content and focus on specific language study such as particular grammar

sentence on the board and asks students to predict what the text will be about.

#### Predicting from a key illustration

If a self-explanatory picture accompanies the text, the teacher can ask students to look at the picture and guess what the text will be about. Otherwise, the teacher can bring a picture related to the topic of the text and ask student to predict the content from that picture.

#### Story-telling

If the text is a narrative, the teacher can tell students part of the story and encourage them to read the text for the rest.

#### Anticipation guides

An anticipation guide is a series of statements which are intended to challenge student's knowledge and beliefs about the content of the passage and students should express agreement or disagreement to them.

#### Surveying and previewing

The purpose of this activity is to quickly determine the structure of the text and to identify the key ideas. It usually involves examining the title, subtitles, conclusion and pictures accompanying the text. This activity corresponds to skimming which is sometimes classified as a while-reading activity.

#### ***While-reading activities***

The aim of these activities is to help students to understand the specific content and to model good reading strategies for them.

#### Skimming and scanning

As West (1941) says "the efficient reader does not drift through the passage like a boat carried by the stream. He drives through it looking for something" (p.8, cited in Rivers, 1988, p.279). Skimming is reading quickly just

to get the main idea and the general point of the text. But when the reader searches for a specific piece of information, a name, a date, a number, etc he scans the text and reads quickly just to find the required piece of information.

#### Reading for details

After students have skimmed and scanned the text, the teacher can ask them to read the text again but this time more carefully. He can ask them to underline difficult and unknown words and he reminds them of word attack skills to guess the meaning of a new word, e.g. using the language that surrounds the word, using knowledge of the topic, using knowledge of similar words and word formation, etc.

#### Summarizing the text

The teacher gets students to write a summary of the text. He limits the number of words and sentences they can use pointing out that this means that they must focus only on most important points.

#### Using guide questions

Guide questions are a set of statements in true or false format which are given to the students before reading the text and they are asked to read the statements and while reading the text to determine their truth or falsity. Dubin and Bycina (1991) believe that the statements in guide questions should address three levels of understanding. The explicit level, which solicits literally stated information, the implicit level, which asks for information that can be inferred and applied level that necessitates relating new ideas to previous knowledge or experience.

#### Using guide-o-ramas

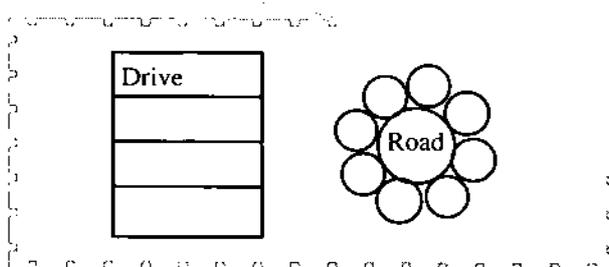
A guide-o-rama is a series of statements, instructions, or questions that leads students

The following are some of the commonly applied pre-reading activities.

#### Introducing new vocabulary and grammar

Giving the meaning and pronunciation of new words and explaining new structures before reading the text is a controversial issue. Some scholars believe pre-teaching vocabulary may have negative effects on reading comprehension. Instead, they recommend pre-reading activities that builds students' general knowledge of the topic. They believe this activation of the prior knowledge will enable learners to guess the meaning of the new words from the context; then in post reading activities, students' guesses can be confirmed or disconfirmed and activities that check and consolidate meaning can be done (Seal, 1991; Chastain, 1988). Some scholars, on the other hand, believe that vocabulary and reading have symbiotic relationship and one is not possible without the other (Dubin & Bycina, 1991). Decarrico (2001) also believes that unless a high percentage of words on a page are known, it is very difficult to guess the meaning of new words from context. She maintains that "a two or three thousand word base is considered the minimum threshold that enables incidental learning to take place when reading authentic texts" (p.289). In general, pre-teaching key words which have an important role in understanding the gist of the text, especially in case of low proficiency level readers seems necessary but when readers acquire a good storage of vocabulary and structures or as Jeong and Scharllert (1997) call it, a "threshold level of language proficiency", they may be asked to apply word attack skills to get the meaning of the new words.

Various techniques can be used in introducing new words. One technique suggested by Lewis (1985) is called "word-ladders" or "word roses". For these, the word, which is central to the content of the text, is written on the top of the ladder or in the center of the rose like this:



Students fill the other steps of the ladder or petals of the rose. In case of the ladder each word they fill in should be connected to the previous step, in the case of rose, each word must be connected to the central word.

#### Pre-questions

Pre-questions are comprehension questions asked before the students read the text. They help students understand the text by focusing attention on key words and ideas.

#### Do-it-yourself-questions

The teacher may tell the learners what the topic of the text is going to be and invite them to form their own questions.

#### Predicting content from words

The teacher can put a word from the text on the board and ask students to say what they think it will be about. Students will give the words and ideas they think are related to the key words and the content of the passage. The teacher can write what students say on the board and develop a semantic web.

#### Predicting from title or first sentence

The teacher writes the title or the first

authentic" (p.233). She believes that generally any text that is written to communicate a message is authentic because it has an authentic purpose and conforms to authentic language use.

Ur (1996) also states that with less proficient readers simplified texts are more appropriate and "the use of authentic texts with less proficient readers is often frustrating and counter-productive" (p.150).

Sun- Young Oh (2001) also makes a distinction between two forms of modification to reading texts: simplification and elaboration. Simplification includes the use of shorter sentences, simpler syntax and simpler lexis. In elaboration, on the other hand, unfamiliar linguistic items are offset with redundancy and explicitness such as using paraphrases, synonyms and restatements. Reporting on the result of her experiment of the two types of modified texts with low and high proficiency level Korean students, she asserts that simplified texts can not benefit significantly the low proficiency level students while elaborated texts enhance the reading comprehension of both high and low proficiency levels.

Another point to keep in mind is the difference between simple texts and simplified texts. Authentic simple texts can be located in the real world. However, if authentic simple texts can not be found and the simplification must be done, "it is important to preserve the natural redundancy and other captivating features of the original material" (Brown, 2001, p.314).

Another relevant issue is the length of the reading texts. Language teachers usually prefer

short reading texts. This may be due to the fact that teachers expect their students to know all the vocabulary and grammar points in a text, but Chastain (1988) maintains that recent reading theorists recommend that students read longer passages. She refers to Anderson's (1984, p.94) comment that "research on reading miscue has demonstrated that short items are harder to read than longer ones, because reading involves building up expectations on the basis of redundancies" (p.234).

## 5. Choosing and Devising Effective Reading Tasks and Activities

The last responsibility of a reading teacher discussed in this article is to choose and devise appropriate reading tasks and activities. Reading activities in general should fulfill two major functions. They should help readers understand the particular texts they are reading, and they should help readers to develop reading strategies for reading other texts. Teaching reading is generally divided into three stages of pre-, while and post reading and in each stage certain activities are usually used.

### *Pre-reading Activities*

The goal of pre-reading activities is to activate or build, if necessary, the students' knowledge of the subject and to provide any language preparation that might be needed for coping with the passage and finally to motivate learners to read the text. According to Taglieber et al. (1988) pre-reading activities prepare the readers for "the concepts that follow, make reading task easier, connect the new content more meaningfully to prior knowledge and make reading more enjoyable" (p.456).

of a text should be appropriate for the readers. There are different ways to determine suitable reading texts. The first is the use of readability formulas. The core of these formulas is the belief that the more polysyllabic words in a sentence, the more difficult it is and the less sentences in a paragraph, the more difficult the paragraph will be. One of these formulas called Fog index of readability is:

$$\frac{W}{S} + \frac{HW}{W} : 100) 0.4. \text{ In this formula}$$

(S) stands for the number of sentences in the text, (W) stands for the number of words, and (HW) stands for the number of three-syllable words in the text (Fog Index, 2004; The Fog Index and Readability Formulas, 2004). According to the instructions, texts with indexes below 12 are easy and suitable for elementary levels, texts with indexes between 13 and 16 are appropriate for intermediate levels and texts with indexes above 16 are suitable for advanced levels. However, it should be kept in mind that these formulas are not a hard and fast guarantee and to ensure the appropriateness of the texts, the experts' judgements on difficulty levels of the texts should be sought.

Another procedure for determining the difficulty level of a text is "cloze procedure" which, by Paulston and Bruder (1976) is believed to be the most successful procedure.

Bowen et al. (1985) argue that high student interest can automatically simplify many a difficult texts. However, they suggest that "texts which introduce only one new word in thirty five can be regarded of appropriate level of difficulty for second language learners" (p.231).

Chastain (1988) also states that the interactive view to reading which maintains that meaning is created through the interaction between reader's background knowledge and the text has led to the view that background knowledge and interest in the text are more important factors that affect the readability and comprehensibility than linguistic complexity. She also believes that an important factor affecting the comprehensibility in language classes is the lack of familiarity students may have with the foreign culture. Brown (2001) also reminding us of the importance of affective factors and culture in the success of reading says, "we cannot simply assume that cognitive factors will account for the eventual success of second language readers" (p.301).

Another matter related to the reading text is the matter of authenticity. Nuttall (1998) defines authentic texts as "texts written for use by the foreign language community, not for language learners" (p.177). She believes that authentic texts are the ideal for the language classroom and argues that "to pursue the crucial text attack skills, we need texts that exhibit the characteristics of true discourse: having something to say, being coherent and clearly organized" (p.177). She believes that simplification carries risk and even with linguistically difficult texts, the teacher should make more use of top-down strategies and tasks, which do not demand detailed understanding. Chastain (1988) also presenting a similar definition of authenticity maintains that due to problems students have with such texts because they are not familiar with the culture, one may think of "materials written by native speakers for language students as

Schema theory suggests that our past experience or the world knowledge we have in our mind is organized into interrelated patterns. This enables us to make predictions about what we may expect to experience in a given context. According to this theory, if students do not have sufficient background knowledge, they should be given at least minimal background knowledge from which to interpret the text.

Carrel (1988) distinguishes between two types of schema in reading. **Content schemata** include what we know about people, the world, culture and the universe, while **formal schemata** consist of our knowledge about discourse structures and how different parts of a text are put together.

#### 4. Choosing Suitable Text to Work on

In evaluating text for reading, the teacher should pay attention to some criteria.

##### *Suitability of the content*

Suitability of the content means that the passage should be interesting to the reader. As Chastain (1988) puts it, "interest in the content rises to a level of importance higher than that of linguistic complexity because on reading will take place if readers are not interested enough to continue reading" (p.231)

##### *Exploitability*

We should make use of the text to develop students' competence as readers. Apart from the content we teach, we want to teach them some reading skills on how to derive meaning from the text (Nuttall, 1998). Therefore, we should be able to use the text to teach students:

- a. flexibility in techniques: Depending on the purpose of reading, students should be able

to read fast or slow, scan or skim.

- b. Strategies of utilizing non-linear information: Non-linear information is the information that is not part of the text like titles, headings, indexes and blurbs.

- c. Word-attack skills: Students should be able to use structural, morphological and contextual clues to guess the meaning of a word. For example, in the non-sense sentence "The sploony urdle departed", based on the position and format of "sploony" students should be able to recognize it as an adjective.

- d. Text-attack skills: These are the skills, which enable students to get the meaning of a text. Among the many text-attack skills, the following can be referred to:

- *interpreting pro-forms:*

Pro-forms are words like it, our, this, then, comparatives, etc. The writer uses these words to avoid needless repetition. The reader should be able to interpret these words. For example, in the sentence "He handed her a letter. This gave her food for thought." What made her think? The letter or the fact that he gave it to her?

- *interpreting ellipsis:*

Ellipsis is when the writer omits repetition and the reader's common sense should supply the information e.g. "They came although they were asked not to."

- *Interpreting lexical cohesion* i.e. synonymy, hyponymy, etc (Nuttall, 1998).

##### *Readability*

Proponents of bottom-up theory of reading, which maintains that meaning resides in the texts itself, believe that the level of difficulty

- distinguishing between literal and implied meaning
- detecting culturally specific references and interpreting them in a context of appropriate cultural schemata
- developing and use of a battery of reading strategies (p. 306)

Paulston and Bruder (1976) also quoting Goodman (1970) maintain that the act of reading depends on three kinds of information: graphonic information (sound/ symbol relationship), syntactic information and semantic information.

It is also of paramount importance for the reading teacher to be familiar with different theories of the recreation of meaning in the reading process.

The first of these theories is called **bottom-up** or skills-based theory. This theory maintains that meaning resides in the text itself i.e. text-based factors determine meaning and the reader uses the letters, words, and structures in the text to get the meaning. In other words, the reader builds up a meaning for a text from the smaller textual units at the “bottom” (letters and words) to larger and longer units at the “top” (phrases, clauses, and sentences). This approach is a linear theory, that is the reader perceives every letter, organizes them into words, then the words are organized into phrases and so on. This theory of reading implies that the proper approach in teaching students to read is to teach them first the language forms they need to be able to comprehend the text.

The second theory, which is a newer model, is called **top-down** or holistic or strategies-based theory, In this model, the role of readers

is considered to be quite active. They predict meaning as they read and they take in large chunks of language at a time. They do not attend to separate letters rather they match what they already know with the meaning they derive from the text. According to Goodman (1967) who first presented this theory, making sense of a text is a four-step process. 1. predicting 2. sampling 3. confirming 4. Correcting (cited in Mirhassani & Khosravi, 2002). That is, the reader first based on his background knowledge, titles, headings, etc predicts the content of the text and forms hypotheses. Then he reads that part of the text. This sample may confirm his hypotheses and prediction. If so, he goes on with the rest of the text, otherwise, he corrects his hypotheses based on the sample he has read. According to this theory, reading is a psycholinguistic guessing game.

The third theory of reading is **interactive** theory. This theory maintains that “in practice, a reader continually shifts from one focus to another, now adopting a top-down approach to predict the probable meaning, then moving to a bottom-up approach to check whether that is really what the author says” (Nuttall, 1998, p.17). Interactive theory of reading not only acknowledges the role of background knowledge, but also it stresses the significance of processing the actual words of the text.

Another important theory relevant to reading is **schema theory**. Rumelhart (1977) defines schemata (plural of schema) as “packets or units of knowledge that represent our beliefs about objects, situations, events, sequence of events, actions and sequence of actions” (cited in Hawkins, 1991, p. 176).

as “a process in which either the participants convert the received oral or written message from language to thought or they convert their own thoughts while speaking or writing to language” (p. 218). The term “reading” when used in reading programs usually means this reading for comprehension.

## 2. Aims of a Reading Program

Nuttall (1998) states the aims of a reading program as “to enable students to enjoy reading in the foreign language, and to read without help unfamiliar, authentic texts, at appropriate speed, silently and with adequate understanding” (p.31). However, it should be noted that reading will be developed best in association with writing, listening, and speaking activities, and “even in those courses that may be labeled ‘reading’ your goal will be best achieved by capitalizing on the interrelationship of skills especially the reading-writing connection” (Brown, 2001, p.298).

## 3. Teacher’s Responsibilities in a Reading Program

### *Enjoying and valuing reading*

The first responsibility of a reading teacher is to enjoy and value reading himself and to show this to students and help them to enjoy and value reading as well. To do so, the teacher, for example, can take a newspaper, a magazine or a book written in English to the class and while students are doing exercises or they are taking a short rest, s/he can begin reading the book or the magazine and show off the enjoyment of reading. S/He may also talk about the interesting books, news, etc he has read and

encourage students to read as well.

In fact it is up to the teacher “to impart a positive attitude about the activity of reading. Many students need to be introduced to the idea that through reading there lies an entire world of new ideas, fantasy and wonderment. (Dubin, F. & Bycina, D., 1992, p.201)

### *Understanding what reading involves and how language conveys meaning*

If we are to help students to develop reading skills in a foreign language, it is important to understand what is involved in the reading process itself.

First of all, the reading teacher should know that reading is a complex skill that involves a whole series of lesser skills. Brouchton (1994) classifies the microskills of reading into “lower order mechanical skills” and “higher order comprehension skills” (p. 211). The lower order mechanical skills included:

- recognition of letter shapes
- recognition of linguistic elements (phoneme/ grapheme, word, phrase, clause, sentence, etc)
- recognition of sound letter spelling pattern.
- slow reading speed

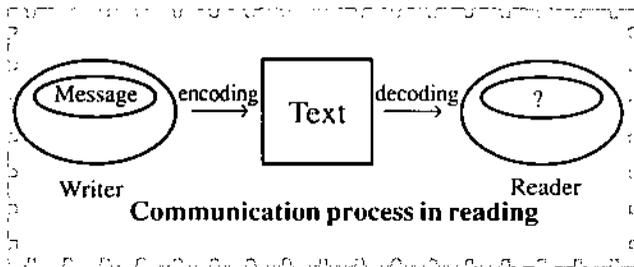
Brown (2001) lists the following as the microskills of reading. These correspond to what Brouchton calls higher order comprehension skills:

- recognition of the plain sense i. e. the meaning a sentence has on its own even if it is not in a context
- recognition of the communicative functions of written texts
- inferring context that is not explicit by using background knowledge

## 1. What Is Reading?

Reading is often the chief goal of learners in countries where English is taught as a foreign language, therefore, it has attracted the attention of many scholars and researchers. Most of these researchers are convinced that reading is a multifaceted process which involves complex interactive processes that are dependent on multiple subskills (Hawkins, 1991). Thus, providing a comprehensive definition of reading seems to be a difficult task. However, some researchers have tried to define this skill.

For Nuttall (1998), reading is “The transfer of meaning from mind to mind” (p.4). In her view, in a reading process, there are three elements: a writer, a text and a reader. The writer has a message in his mind; he encodes this message in a written form and puts it in a text. The reader, while reading, decodes the written form to get the message.



Thus, here reading is the decoding or identifying the message of a written text. Davies (1995) also defines reading as a “mental or cognitive process which involves the reader in trying to follow and respond to a message from a writer who is distant in space and time” (cited in Mirhassani & Khosravi, 2002, p. 23). Chastain (1988) reminds us of the fact that though the reader does not produce messages in the same sense as a speaker or a writer,

reading is not a passive skill because it requires active mental processes.

It is worth here to distinguish between two different views of reading i.e. phonics or decoding view and reading for comprehension. A phonics view teaches the phoneme-grapheme correspondences and the emphasis is on the sound-symbol (letter) relationships rather than on meaning. Therefore, it is usually in the form of reading aloud. However, to many researchers, reading aloud is primarily an oral matter which is closer to teaching pronunciation than teaching reading (Brouchton et al., 1994; Ur, 1996) and as Chastain (1988) puts it “reading to improve pronunciation, practice grammatical forms and study vocabulary does not constitute reading at all” (p. 218). These researchers support the other view of reading i.e. reading for comprehension. Ur (1996) in defining reading says “reading means ‘reading and understanding’” (p. 138). If someone reads the words and does not understand what they mean, he is not reading in fact. In reading for comprehension which is also called “silent reading” (Doff, 1992). The reader does not have to read or pronounce every word. He may confront new vocabulary and structures but he should learn to deal with linguistic material over which he has no control. In reading for comprehension, readers should try to reach a level at which they have confidence in their ability to overcome temporary lapses of understanding and continue reading until they understand the writer’s message. Chastain (1988) considers this reading for comprehension a “communication process” in that it involves converting the written message to thought. She defines communication process



# Teaching Reading Skill:

## What a Language Teacher Should Know

Ahmad Reza Eghtesadee Roudi (MA in TEFL),

English Teacher- Ghouchan

### چکیده

مهارت خواندن و درک مفاهیم از جمله مهارت‌های یادگیری زبان است که به ویژه در محیط‌های آموزش زبان انگلیسی به عنوان زبان خارجی، دارای اهمیت فراوان و نقشی خاص است. در ایران نیز پرورش توانایی خواندن و درک مفاهیم، هدف اصلی آموزش زبان انگلیسی در سطوح متوسطه و دانشگاهی تلقی می‌شود. در همین راستا نیز اخیراً کتاب زبان انگلیسی دوره ی پیش دانشگاهی به طور کلی مورد تجدیدنظر قرار گرفته و محتوای آن بر آموزش این مهارت زبان‌آموزی استوار گردیده است. لذا انتظار می‌رود، معلمان زبان آشنایی دقیق‌تری با نظریه‌ها و مهارت‌های متفاوت آموزش خواندن و درک مفاهیم داشته باشند و در تدریس کتاب جدید نیز این نظریات و مهارت‌ها را مدنظر قرار دهند. مقاله‌ی حاضر به بررسی این نظریه‌ها و مهارت‌ها می‌پردازد و وظایف و مسؤلیت‌های معلم را در این حیطه یادآور می‌شود.

کلیدواژه‌ها: نظریه‌های خواندن کل به جزء، جزء به کل، الگوی تعاملی، انتخاب مطالب درسی، قابل خواندن بودن، پیش‌خوانی، اصالت مطلب

### Abstract

Reading skill is one of the language learning skills which is of paramount importance especially in foreign language learning settings. In Iran, it is also viewed as the aim of language teaching and learning programs in secondary and tertiary levels of education. Along these lines, the English textbook for pre-university students has recently been drastically revised and the focus of the newly published book is on teaching this language skill. Thus, English teachers are expected to get a deeper understanding of reading comprehension theories and to get familiar with different techniques in teaching reading comprehension. This article reviews the important theories and techniques in teaching reading and investigates the role and responsibilities of a reading teacher.

**Key Words:** reading theories, top-down, bottom-up, interactive models, material selection, authenticity, readability, pre-reading, while-reading, post-reading activities.

8. **Predicting:** The students have to predict the causes, effects, or outcomes of events.

There are different types of listening comprehension activities and the criterion for choosing them must be the degree to which relate to teaching rather than testing objectives.

### **Post-listening**

Post-listening activities complete the sequence begun in the pre-listening phase. The preview prepares the students for the task, the review provides feedback on how well they have understood the text. Post-listening activities might deal with a) linguistic purposes: looking for parts of language e.g. phrases used in agreement or b) non-linguistic purposes: focusing on meaning. The follow-up activities might deal with possible answers to pre-listening questions or provide additional practice.

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### **Web watch**

In case you have access to the internet, the following links might be of help to you:

- <http://www.esl-lab.com/>
- <http://www.englishlistening.com/theory.phtml#section4>
- <http://www.unc.edu/cit/iat-archive/publications/noblitt/noblitt3.html>
- <http://www.veen.com/veen/leslie/Curriculum/listening.html>

then dictates one word from each such set, which the students have to identify by marking in some way.

### Writing the Right Word

A series of words is dictated and the students are asked to write them down provided that they are already familiar with the sounds of English language and their correspondence to conventional written forms.

### Listening for Comprehension

#### Listening aided by Visuals

In this type of exercise, learners look at visual materials while simultaneously following a spoken description of it. A simple, large, clear drawing can be used, put up on the board, or a number of small pictures can be distributed among the learners.

### Pictures

The descriptions can simply be based on what is seen around: the classroom environment. Or the teacher can describe a particular object in the class (a vase of flowers) or a member of the class.

#### • Diagrams

Maps, plans, grids, family trees and so on can be used: their content can be described and the students can be asked to link the spoken description with what they see. With diagrammatic material; however, the activity is slightly more challenging, more appropriate for older students. Following a route on a map is a good example of this type of activity.

#### • Songs and stories

If the students are listening to something entertaining, then they are likely to attend and get full benefit from the listening experience.

Moreover, the occasional introduction of pleasurable components like songs and stories into English lessons can improve student motivation.

#### • Listening and making short responses

In these exercises, the students are given commands, and show comprehension by complying with them. Commands may be as simple as: stand up, sit down, put your hand on (something), etc.

#### • Picture Dictation

Drawing a picture from verbal instruction is an activity that is more readily done by younger learners.

According to Richards (1983:235), there are different types of listening comprehension activities:

1. *Matching or distinguishing activities*: Students have to choose a written/visual response; e.g., they listen to an advertisement and choose the product described.
2. *Transferring activities*: The students receive the information orally and transfer it to other forms e.g., listening to a phone call and drawing a map.
3. *Transcribing*: Here the students listen and write down what was said e.g., taking message from a roommate.
4. *Scanning (specific information)*: The students, for instance, listen to news cast to find about the results of an election.
5. *Label-extending*: The students listen to segments of conversation and try to provide the missing parts.
6. *Condensing*: Here the students listen to reduce what is heard to an outline.
7. *Answering*: The students have to answer questions about the content.

methodology, the focus is on including unknown words and grammatical patterns and having students recover their meaning in the context.

2. *Background information*: Listeners activate relevant schemata and use background knowledge to comprehend what a speaker is saying. The teacher should make sure the topic is familiar to all.
3. *Interest*: The teacher should resort to proper materials in which the students are interested and introduce the topic after warm-up stages.
4. *Motivation*: the students should be interested in the topic. They should have a specific task to accomplish. And they need to feel that they are equipped with the abilities necessary to complete the task.
5. *Purpose*: The teacher should establish a communicative purpose for the listening activity.

### **Listening**

Understanding foreign speech is a complex activity involving a large number of different skills and abilities. It follows from this that classroom listening practice is also complex, and that no one type of exercise—nor two, nor half a dozen—can possibly satisfy the needs of most foreign language students. The teacher should therefore have at her/his fingertips a large battery of different exercises designed to give practice in most, if not all, of these various skills. Moreover, listening should be practiced very frequently, so that such exercises will be in constant use, Penny Ur (1991).

#### ● **Listening for Perception**

The main aim of this type of exercise is to

give the learner practice in identifying correctly different sounds, sound-combinations and intonations. It is the only category where actual comprehension is a secondary consideration, the emphasis being on aural perception. Thus, in most of the examples, visual and contextual clues are eliminated or kept to a minimum in order to induce the learner to rely upon his ear.

#### ● **Word level**

At early stages, students need practice in hearing and saying the sounds of isolated words. At this level, the listener's main problem is simply to identify the right phoneme(s) and hence the right word.

#### ● **Repetition**

Exercises should be based on short, easily memorized words. The teacher says, or plays on the tape recorder, a word or two, asks individual students to repeat them, and corrects where necessary. For example, in practicing consonant-clusters (as in *string, risks, gentle, comfortable*), learner repetition can help the teacher make sure that the sounds have all been heard in the right order and without extra vowels.

#### **Same or Different?**

Using minimal-pair distinctions, the teacher calls out two words and challenges the students to say if they are the same or different. The teacher says, for example, 'pin, pin, bin, pin', the students say three.

#### **Identifying the Right Word**

The class is given duplicated sheets consisting of sets of two or three words with minor auditory differences between them. The teacher

8. Real communication occurs in real context. Teachers should prepare the students to listen by establishing a context within which the speech sample takes place.

According to Mendelson (1994):

1. Linguistic goals should be made explicit: the students should know what they are listening to and why.
2. Schemata building (exercises through which the necessary vocabulary and grammar is introduced) should precede listening.
3. Strategies for successful listening should be incorporated.
4. The listening tasks should provide opportunities for the listeners to play an active role.

According to Penny Ur (1984), most real language listening activities share some common characteristics. We listen for a purpose and with certain expectations. We usually can see the person talking and we respond to what we hear. Normally, we hear discourse in short chunks, and we have some visual or contextual clues as to the meaning of what is heard. Most heard discourse is spontaneous and therefore differs from the formal spoken prose in the amount of redundancy, noise and colloquialisms. Teachers should be aware of their responsibility to provide listening activities that conform to these general characteristics.

### 3. What Makes Listening Difficult

According to Dunkel (1991), Richards (1983), Ur (1984) et al, listening is made difficult due to:

1. *Clustering*: In written English we attend to sentences as units of meaningful analyses. The unit of analysis in spoken English in contrast are chunks. We should thus train

our students to attend to chunks rather than whole sentences.

2. *Redundancy*: A real listening practice is full of repetitions, elaborations, pauses and hesitations. Students must be trained to expect such redundancies.
3. *Reduced forms*: A major problem of our students is the fact that they have problems identifying reduced forms such as I'll.
4. *Performance variables*: Different speakers have different accents and personal styles and use different gap fillers.
5. *Colloquial language*: A major problem of our students is their lack of familiarity with idioms, slangs, etc.
6. *Rate of delivery*
7. *Prosodic features*: Our students often are not trained enough to stress, rhythm, intonation, etc.
8. *Cultural information*: According to Donaldson Evans (1981), lack of sufficient amount of shared cultural and linguistic (vocabulary and grammar) knowledge is a common cause of our students' failure in listening.

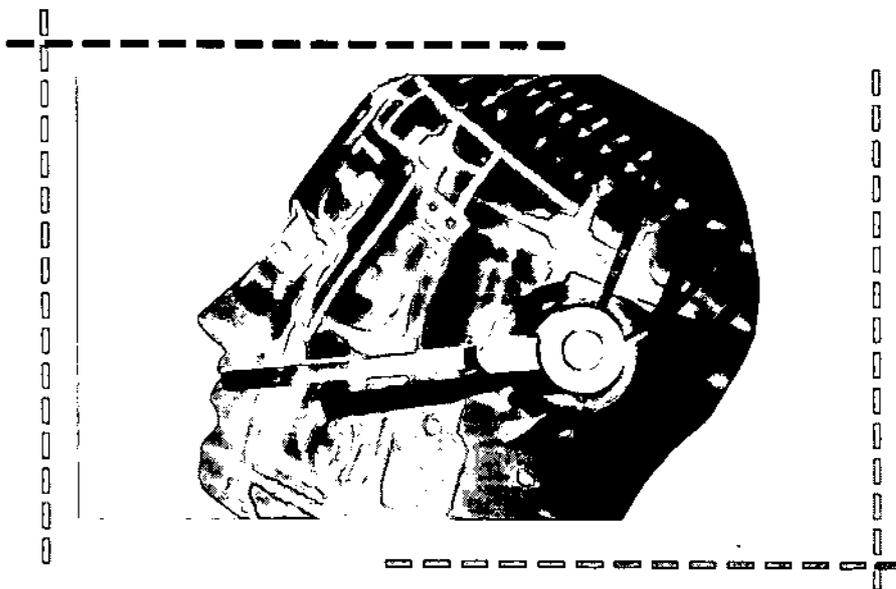
### 4. Classroom Sequence

A listening task usually consists of pre-listening, listening and post-listening activities.

#### *Pre-listening*

Here the students are provided with the necessary background and direction to achieve the objectives of the activity.

1. *Linguistic knowledge*: Even though the focus might be on top-down, meaning-oriented listening activities, the number of unknown linguistic forms and vocabularies often affect the listening comprehension of the students. Of course within the recent



### Strategy (listening for...)

### Example

Gist	Is the speaker describing a vacation?
Purpose	Is the speaker arguing? Or discussing sth?
Main idea	Did he like or dislike the movie?
Inference	What was implied by...?
Specific information	How much did the tickets cost?
phonemic distinction	Did he say 'I can' or 'I can't'?
Tone/pitch to identify attitude	Did she enjoy the wedding or not?
Stress	What's more important? <i>Where he bought the watch or when?</i>

## 2. Some Factors to Consider

Teachers should be aware of some important factors in performing listening activities. Chastain (1988:190) presents a list of such factors as:

1. The activities should be meaning-centered and the focus must be on content.
2. The activities should resemble those in real-language situations and those to which the students are accustomed in their everyday life.
3. Teachers should set their goals realistically. They should not expect the elementary students to be able to describe all that understand. Students often comprehend without being able to remember the content.
4. Listening practice should entail situations with which students have some experience and the requisite background knowledge.
5. Teachers and students should be aware that the ability to comprehend the language will be at a higher level than the ability to produce it.
6. They should be aware that real language includes much redundancy and that trying to attend to every word is counter-productive. Teachers should teach them to avoid overloading their mental processes by focusing on linguistic elements.
7. Native speakers regularly make intelligent guesses as to the meaning of unknown elements in their language. Teachers should help the students to learn to make the same types of guesses.

## 1. Listening Comprehension

Under audio-lingual methodology, popular in the early 1960s, many SL programs and materials placed primary emphasis on the oral proficiency. However in the later years many educators recognized the need to introduce comprehension-based activities and materials into the curriculum. As Hadley (2003) points out "attitudes about the importance of comprehension skills in language acquisition have been influenced in large part by developments in L2 acquisition theory". Certainly Krashen's (1982) views about the need for comprehensible input in language acquisition have sparked interest in comprehension-based methodologies and materials. Potovsky (1981:171) also stresses individual internal mental processes as the basic component in L2 learning. He counters the audiolingual position that speaking is the primary means of language learning. He argues that students must have the ability to comprehend and process language before they can speak it. James (1986) advocates the direct teaching of listening skills for motivational reasons. He suggests that introducing more listening activities early into the learning process will be motivating to learners and allows them to experience success. Long (1986) argues that teaching oral skills is only teaching half of the process of communication, and adds that students gain a sense of confidence with the language when their listening abilities are well-developed. Feyon (1991) further comments that the field of language teaching has moved from a

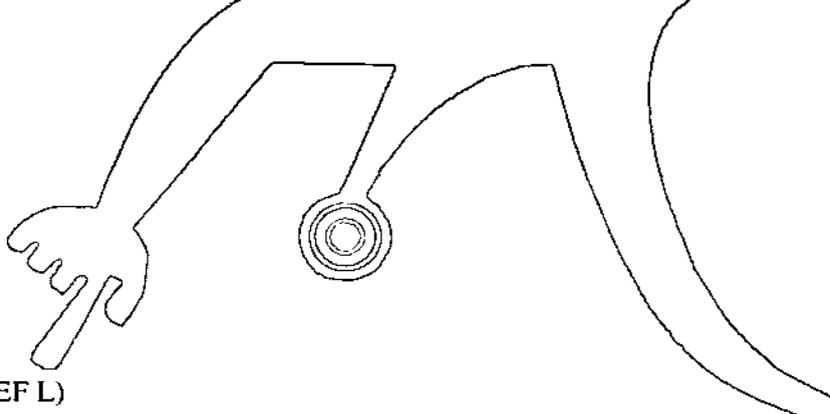
"response-oriented paradigm to one of the input or stimulus-oriented learning" (p.175), and adds that listening should not be thought of as an "activity" but taught directly as a skill in its own right (Hadley 2003:164).

### *Listening as a Top-down versus a Bottom-up Process*

Listening as a *bottom-up* process involves the decoding of sounds linearly. The phonemic units are decoded and put together to form words, phrases, utterances and texts. In a linear processing, which is also viewed as the tape-recorder view, meaning is derived as the last step. In *top-down* processing, the listener actively constructs the original meaning using the incoming sounds as clues. S/he also makes use of her/his prior knowledge of context and situation.

### *Types of Listening Activities*

Listening activities are classified into different types according to different variables the listening purpose, the role of the listeners and the type of the listening text. A listening text might either be a monologue such as a lecture, news broadcast, or a dialogue which can be social, interpersonal or transactional. The listening purpose might either be looking for some general ideas, details or information. As far as listening is concerned, different task types can be classified according to a) the role of the listener (involved in either a receptive or non-receptive listening), b) strategies demanded of the listener which might include:



Mohadeseh Amini, Ph.D. Student, (TEFL)  
Islamic Azad University, Research and Science Campus  
E-mail: m\_amin58@yahoo.com

# Listening Comprehension

## چکیده

برقراری ارتباط، در برگیرنده دو فرایند ذهنی- شناختی فعال است. برای تولید گفتار، گوینده از دانش جهانی و دانش زبانی خود بهره می گیرد تا افکارش را در غالب زبان بیان کند. برای درک گفتار نیز، شنونده با توسل به همین دانش آنچه را که می شنود، به افکار تبدیل می کند. طبق چنین دیدگاهی، هر دو فرایند فعال و مستلزم درک شناختی هستند. به گفته ی چستن (۱۹۸۷)، برقراری ارتباط ممکن است در سطح تولید و یا درک، دچار شکست شود. درک شنیداری از این منظر دیگر نه تنها غیرفعال نیست، بلکه همانند مهارت های گفتاری جزو فرایندهای فعال به حساب می آید. همان طور که ریورز (۱۹۸۰) اشاره کرده است، سخن گفتن به خودی خود ضامن برقراری ارتباط نیست، مگر آن که تولید گفتار با درک شنونده همراه شود.

در این مقاله ابتدا نظری اجمالی بر فرایند درک شنیداری خواهیم داشت و سپس به ارائه ی چندین تمرین و فعالیت علمی در زمینه ی مهارت درک شنیداری خواهیم پرداخت.

کلید واژه ها: درک شنیداری، پرهیب (نظریه ی تصورات)، دانش زمینه ای، فعالیت های پیش شنیداری، فعالیت های پس شنیداری.

## Abstract

Communication involves active, cognitive conversion processes of two basic types. To produce a message the speaker uses world knowledge and language knowledge to convert thoughts to language. To receive a message, s/he uses this knowledge to convert language to thoughts. Viewed in this way, both processes are active, cognitive processes to create or to recreate meaning for some purpose. According to Chastain (1987), communication may break down at the point of production or at the point of reception. Listening comprehension, then, under this outlook is no more considered a passive decoding skill but it is as active and productive as the speaking process. As Rivers (1980) notes "speaking does not itself constitute communication unless what is being said is comprehended by another person."

In this paper, we would first take a brief look at the process of listening comprehension and then present a number of practical listening comprehension tasks and activities.

**Key Words:** Listening comprehension, schema (theory), background knowledge, pre-listening activities, post-listening activities.

replace this relatively narrow definition of good research  
*to be continued*

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in quantitative research, a minimum of 33 (Hatch and Lazarson 1991) is needed for the application of many relevant statistical techniques. And when quantitative research tries to find inexact generalities which are applicable across an amorphous body of samples, qualitative research tries to see what is particular to a given context or individual, without having pretension to its universality. In the words of Stephen J. Gould (1987), "...close observation of individual differences can be as powerful a method in science as the quantification of predictable behavior of a zillion identical atoms... (cited in Tannen, 1989:35).

In qualitative research, a distinction is usually made between *emic* and *etic* perspectives to data collection. In the *emic* perspective, the researcher does not impose his/her interpretation on what the participants do or say; instead, he or she tries to find the participants' interpretation of how things are; in other words, the researcher attempts to gain an insider perspective of the event as it is experienced by the actors in a specific cultural/education context. The *etic* view, on the other

hand, is what is practiced in quantitative research. In this tradition, data is collected on an "objective basis", without any regard for what is happening in the mind of the subjects and what is going on in the context around them. The term objective was put in a quotation mark in the previous sentence, since followers of the qualitative paradigm believe that there is no objectivity in research, that the personal theories of the researcher, his/her life history, as well as his/her apprenticeship into the practice of research will determine what kind of topics he/she chooses for his/her project and how the data is collected and interpreted.

Two other terms are of importance in the discussion of qualitative research: grand theory and grounded theory. Grand theory is the general view theory which is applicable across a wide range of contexts, and can be regarded as the philosophical frame within which a researcher is operating. As an example of such a theory is the nature/nurture debate (whether change is the result of genetically determined blue prints or the result of experience and social interaction). Grounded theory is the local, practical theory which is the outcome of a qualitative study; it is different from theory in its mainstream sense since it makes no claims to generalizability.

Unfortunately, qualitative research has not yet found its proper place in our educational system; our dissertation committees at post graduate levels view qualitative projects with skepticism since from their viewpoint large samples and the use of numbers are the criteria which distinguish "good research" from sloppy data collection and reporting. However, respect for the individuality of learners who serve as the participants of our studies will one day

linked to the concept of critical pedagogy, which is treated in another section of the present article. Briefly, it deals with the socio-political forces which are at work in educational settings which result in social inequalities. It also deals with "the experiences that people bring to the pedagogical setting" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001:543). More information about the political forces at work in language classes is provided in the sections dealing with critical pedagogy and linguistic imperialism in the present paper.

The post method condition is a more democratic approach to language teaching profession since it assigns a voice to practitioners and respects the type of knowledge they possess. In addition, it is a liberatory move which gives teachers more autonomy and confidence in the decisions they make in their classes.

### Qualitative research

Another development, or change in orientation, can be discovered in the way research is promoted and conducted in language teaching. There is no doubt that language teaching professionals have become research-conscious, in such a way that in almost all teacher education programs some courses on research methodology is offered. However, the kind of research which was valued and practiced up to 1980s (and which is still valued and practiced in many parts of the world, including our own country) was of a quantitative nature, which relies on objective observation, recording, and the numerical analysis of data. The main interpretation tool in this research approach is statistics. The shift which is now gradually taking place in

language teaching is moving away from this narrow view of research toward a more subjective, qualitative mode.

It is very difficult to define qualitative research in a relatively simple, non-technical language; however, one can regard qualitative research as a kind of activity in which the researcher is trying to find the "local and immediate" meaning and significance of an action from the "actors point of view" (Davis, 1995:432). In other words, qualitative research tries to look at the world through the eyes of the people who are the focus of the research, and takes into account their history, their culture; their wishes... and many other personal and ethnic qualities which are ignored by quantitative researchers as redundant.

A terminological distinction may clarify the point. In qualitative research, which relies on numbers, statistics and concepts such as reliability, validity and generalizability, people who are the focus of the research are known as "subjects". The term subject will denote a sense of being under control, being of a lower or inferior quality, being the object of manipulation. In qualitative research, on the other hand, the people who take part in research are known as "participants", a more democratic term which assigns an equal value and role to those who are the focus of the research.

Qualitative research values the individual and celebrates the richness of personal lives, while quantitative research simplifies the lives of many through its use of statistical methods and analyses. As a result of these differing orientations, in qualitative research the investigator deals with a very limited number of participants, not more than a handful, while

professional theories are supposed to be more academic and intellectual. Personal theories, or teacher's theories, are those ideas which are based on the practical experiences of the teachers, based on their sense of what works/does not work in the class and what learning/teaching entails. Methods are based on professional theories, issued from centers of power (universities and colleges) since these are only the academics who are regarded as qualified to propose new ones. And personal theories, in spite of their appeal and relevance to what the teacher does in the class, are regarded to be of little or no use. As long as we have the method concept around (which can be viewed as a kind of academic theory itself), we have the unequal distribution of power between academics and practitioners, a situation in which teachers will always have to follow the direction (or may be the commands?) of academics who are the producers of professional theories, and who have little recognition or understanding of what actually takes place in an L2 class.

The post method condition is, in principle, a recognition of this situation, assigning more importance to teacher autonomy (Kumaravadivelu 2001). Teachers are encouraged to develop both "competence and confidence", so that they would be able to improve the efficiency of their practice and solve the practical problems they confront in their professional lives. It also assigns autonomy to the learners by equipping them with proper L2 learning strategies and investing in their learning styles (Kumaravadivelu, 1994).

There are three basic principles involved in the post method concept (Kumaravadivelu, 2001): particularity, practicality and

possibility. The principle, or pedagogy of particularity means that any kind of learning or teaching is context-bound and situation-based, which means that there are no general methods which can be applied in an indiscriminate manner to all the contexts. It also involves the recognition and understanding of the particular life experiences (or lived experiences) of the learners, a recognition and respect for their life histories. This recognition is of particular importance since if an instructional program is designed without any understanding and respect for backgrounds and beliefs of the learners, then the result would be resistance and alienation on the part of the students. In other words, particularity is the guarantee that learners would be provided with relevant instructions.

The principle of practicality assigns language teachers more power and autonomy with regard to what they can do in the class. It rejects the distinction between professional and personal theories in favor of teachers, emphasizing reflective teaching and action research instead. In this view point, any sound teaching situation will promote "theory of practice", which does not aim at the generation of knowledge, but the improvement of practice. The distinction between thought and practice will become fuzzy since "there is action in thought and thought in action" (p.541). This respect for teachers' practical knowledge is what Prabhu (1990) calls *sense of plausibility*, which means that through experience, teachers come to form their own personal theories about learning, teaching, learners, and what will be the best practical approach in a given teaching context.

The pedagogy of possibility is closely

Another distinction between the two (which was briefly mentioned above) is related to the presence/absence of a grammatical syllabus. In the focus on form perspective, it does not make sense to prepare a grammatical syllabus since teachers have to see which grammatical points cause problems for the learners in the class and treat that point there and then. In focus on the forms, however, grammatical points which must be covered are already selected and graded in the syllabus.

The question which arises here is related to which one of these two approaches to teaching grammar will prove more effective. The jury is still out in this regard and not a definite conclusion has been reached. But it seems that focus on the forms, which is in fact the old way grammar has been treated, is more effective in developing the L2 proficiency of the learners (Sheen 2003). In addition, research shows that when it comes to error correction, an overt, metalinguistic approach is more beneficial to the learners compared to less direct methods (Spada 1997).

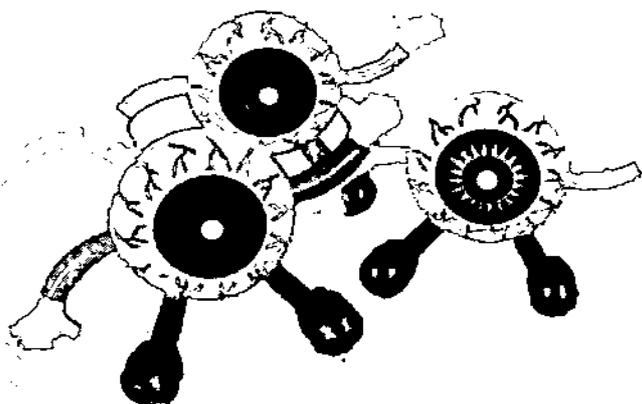
Focus on form seems to be another fashionable trend which has been proposed in the spirit of communicative objectives and comprehensible input mentality. In reality, however, it is very unlikely to survive due to its trivial treatment of one of the most important aspects of language, i.e. grammar. One should bear in mind that grammar is the junction where all the other aspects of language (phonology, morphology, semantics) intersect, and any improper handling of it will have negative consequences for the linguistic development of learners. Moreover, the fact that there is

not a predetermined syllabus in focus on form means that students will be at the mercy of the mistakes of their peers to pick up important grammatical aspects of their L2.

### **The post method period**

Another change which has become a topic of debate in the professional literature in the course of the recent years is the post method controversy. According to the supporters of this view (Pennycook 1989; Prabu 1990; Kumaravadivelu 2001) the concept of method is a rather theoretical invention which is detached from what takes place in the class, and as a result, of little use to the practitioners. One can even go so far as claiming that the concept of method has been a myth which has never existed in reality. In the words of Clarke (1983) "the term method is a label without substance" (p.109), since there is little consensus as to which methods existed when, there is little agreement to the nature and the components of methods, and methods have seldom reflected the reality of what is happening in the classroom.

In addition, method invention and method advocacy have been one of the ways by means of which middle class academics have tried to reinforce their grip on the profession and achieve their political aspirations (Pennycook, 1989). A relevant distinction here is the one made between professional theories and personal theories (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). Professional theories, or theorists' theories, are those which are proposed by academics and are supposed to be general and capable of serving as a basis for what happens in the classroom. Such theories form the foundations for many papers which are published in professional journals since



### Focus on form

Grammar has always been a central aspect of most language teaching methods. In other words, many methods have been defined based on the stance they have adopted with regard to how grammar is viewed and treated in language classes. Terms such as inductive/deductive, accuracy vs. fluency, contextualization, and form have been among the key concepts which have distinguished one method from the others (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

The “focus on form” movement, or perspective, is the revival of this concern with grammar. The term “focus on form” refers to the treatment of grammar in unrehearsed, communicative situations in an unplanned manner (Sheen 2003). In simple words, the followers of focus on form believe that grammar should be addressed in the classroom only in cases when it causes problems of communication, and this treatment is not determined in advanced by the teacher; teachers will decide to focus on a grammatical/formal aspect of the language when it poses a communicative challenge to the learners. If students can communicate effectively in spite of slight grammatical errors, then there will be no grammatical explanation or correction

by the teacher. In other words, there is no a priori syllabus for teaching grammar in the classroom.

A key aspect of focus on form, which was originally proposed by Long (1983) is its unplanned nature. That is, the teacher will not go to the class with the intention of teaching simple present to his students, for example. He will treat simple present in his class only when he realizes that students have serious communicative problems with this tense.

Focus on form is usually contrasted with “focus on forms”, which is attention to the form in a predetermined, planned-ahead fashion. In the focus on forms approach, the teacher knows in advance what grammatical points must be emphasized in the class and these points have already been integrated into his/her lesson plan or the syllabus which is going to be taught.

There are some points of difference between focus on form and focus on forms. The description of the two preferences offered above may convey the false impression that the focus on the *form* vs. *forms* distinction is the same as inductive/deductive teaching. The analogy is false since in the inductive/deductive approach to teaching grammar, the teaching points are all already established and well-rehearsed. That is, the teacher knows what grammatical points he/she must teach, and the difference here will be in the preference of the teacher regarding moving from example to the rule (the inductive approach) or rule to examples (deductive approach). The main distinction between focus on the form/forms movements, however, is related to whether the treatment of grammar is preplanned (focus on the forms) or incidental (focus on the form) (see Nassaji, 1999)

## Introduction

The present article intends to look briefly at some of the developments and changes which have been reported in the professional journals. A quick look at article titles in the professional literature will show that the type of foreign/second language teaching being talked about these days is somehow different from that of the past in terms of topics of interest and the degree of sophistication shown by the writers of these journals. New horizons are now being explored, and language teaching is no longer viewed as just a matter of technique and technology. Foreign language teaching has become a little messy due to the fact that it has distanced itself from a purely technicist approach (Halliday, 1998) in which teaching is viewed to be a matter of techniques and application and has become more ecological in taking into account "the totality of the lives of the various participants involved, [regarding language teaching] not as one subpart of their lives which can be examined in isolation" (Tudor, 2003:4). It seems that on the whole the profession is getting closer and closer to its educational/social roots and moving away from the linguistic debates which have plagued language teaching for more than two centuries (Howatt, 1984). By looking at the journal articles, one will notice that a more humanitarian interpretation of the learner, the teacher, and the whole educational process is being offered.

There are a number of caveats, however, regarding the present article and its title. The first point is related to the term recent. By recent, the author has taken a rather liberal stance and has considered the last twenty years of development as relatively "recent" in the history of language teaching. This open

interpretation of the term will go back to the fact that many of these changes and developments have not been adequately presented in our teacher training programs and many of our practitioners and even sometimes academics are not adequately familiar with some of the new concepts. The second point which must be taken into account while reading this article is that some of the concepts which are labeled as new are in fact just the recreation of the old concepts. In other words, it seems that in language teaching, we professionals do not have a good collective memory and the result is that we rediscover the wheel from time to time. Some of the views are reincarnation of the old debates with which the profession has been struggling. In the words of Kelly (1969) "nobody really knows what is new or old in present-day language teaching procedures. There has been a vague feeling that modern experts have spent their time in rediscovering what other men have forgotten" (p.ix). In other words, the "total corpus of ideas accessible to language teachers has not changed basically in [the last] 2000 years" (Kelly, 1969:363).

The developments which are presented in this article at first may sound random and unconnected, but at the end of the present paper the author tries to show that all of these changes may culminate in what can be called a paradigm shift (Kuhn, 1962) which in a simple language is equal to a total theoretical change in perspective. The article will look at the following issues: Form focused instruction, the post method debate, qualitative research, linguistic imperialism, critical pedagogy, reflective teaching, and the development of a new view of applied linguistics.



# RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING; A BRIEF REVIEW

*Ramin Akbari,  
Assistant Professor of TEFL  
Tarbiat Modares University*

مقاله‌ی حاضر که به بحث تحولات و دیدگاه‌های جدید در آموزش زبان طی ۲۰ سال گذشته پرداخته است، در دو بخش ارائه می‌شود. بخش اول به آموزش صورت محور و تحولانی که در این زمینه مطرح است، می‌پردازد و در ادامه پساروش و تئوری‌های گوناگون درباره‌ی آن مطرح می‌شود و در آخر به تحقیق کیفی می‌پردازد. بخش دوم را در شماره‌ی بعدی مطالعه خواهید کرد.

## چکیده

آموزش زبان انگلیسی در سال‌های اخیر تحولات چشمگیری را شاهد بوده است. با وجود این، بسیاری از این تحولات برای معلمان ایرانی ناشناخته‌اند و هنوز راهی به بحث‌های عملی یا نظری کشور نیافته‌اند. در این مقاله سعی شده است، برخی از این تغییرات مورد بررسی قرار بگیرند. مقولات مطرح شده عبارتند از: آموزش صورت محور، بحث پساروش، امپریالیسم زبانی و آموزش انتقادی، تدریس تفکری، دیدگاه جدید زبان‌شناسی کاربردی و تحقیق کیفی. کلید واژه‌ها: آموزش صورت محور، بحث پساروش، تحقیق کیفی، امپریالیسم زبانی، آموزش انتقادی، تدریس تفکری، زبان‌شناسی کاربردی.

## Abstract

Foreign language teaching has witnessed some positive changes in the course of the last two decades, specially during 1990s. Some of these changes, however, have not been well represented in our country, and many language teachers are not aware of the latest debates and developments in the ELT profession. The present article is a selection of some of these developments, dealing with form focused instruction, the post method debate, qualitative research, linguistic imperialism, critical pedagogy, reflective teaching, and the development of a new view of applied linguistics.

**Key Words:** Iranian EFL situation, focus on form, post method, qualitative research, linguistic imperialism, reflective teaching, applied linguistic, critical pedagogy.

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(principles derived from research), teaching is likely to be “enlightened”. By the same token, the students should be motivated and encouraged to fully understand and internalize connections between their knowledge and practice about relative clauses. If the teachers are to rectify students’ problems in these referential and narrative functions, they should motivate and develop the students’ cognitive abilities by doing more and more narrative tasks and making them conscious of their errors. Practically speaking, the present research leads us to state that Iranian EFL student generally have the following characteristics in this regard:

1. They tend to use communication strategies such as avoidance, which may be partially explained by sentence planning and risk-taking factors.
2. They tend to use some specific functions like “RCs more frequently in their written narratives.

Based on these observations, Iranian EFL students would benefit from the following recommendations:

1. Providing more practice over those RC functions that students have been doing poorly in order to reduce avoidance strategies.
2. Providing more practice in recognizing and producing RCs to familiarize students with the different general discourse and narrative functions.

A consideration of students’ grammatical errors and how these errors interfere with successful communication seems to be a good reason to assess why it is important to deal with relative clauses as syntactic constructions in classrooms. When a student,

for example, says:

*He called the man that I know him.  
This is the book that I read it.*

She must be taught that relative clause formation in English involves a transformational movement. That is, the relative pronoun must be moved from its normal position to clause-initial position without leaving any overt trace. In Persian, however, the process known as *Pronoun Retention* is a major means of forming RCs:

*Man doxtari-I ra [ke Ali be u hedye dad] misenasam.*

*I girl Accusative that Ali to her present gave I-know*

*I know the girl to whom Ali gave the present.*

In this sentence, the omission of “be u” (to her) or “u” (her) on its own is impossible. Consequently, *pronoun retention* can pose problems for Iranian EFL learners and they are often expected to produce and accept ungrammatical sentences like:

*I know the student that Reza gave the book to him.*

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purpose. Native speakers in contrast made greater use of this function in the *frog story*. The divergence may result from differences in narrative style. It is clear that the highly rhetorical nature of a narrative may reflect a more elaborated narrative style. Thus, native speakers appeared to use more elaborated narrative styles in the use of this function due to their individual preferences in the elicitation setting. In general, those speakers who produced more embellished narratives also produced more examples of *setting up expectation* function.

The absence of *summing up* function in subjects' narratives can be partially explained by Labov's *abstract* and *coda*. A narrator may summarize narrative before recounting the details. This is called *abstract*. Consider the following example from the "frog story":

*Animals that they met on the way, obstacles that they had behind him,...*

In this example, the writer initially summarizes the story at the beginning of it in order to both *whet readers' appetite* (Allen, 1996: 31) and activate a frame of mind set to facilitate understanding. This encapsulation can also be realized after following a series of recounted events called *coda*. It seems that native speakers having much more knowledge of their own language in proportion to non-native ones could think of the entire narrative as expressing as *island of memory* (Chafe: 1987: 49). Consequently, they are able enough to utilize RCs functioning as *coda* in their narratives. Another reason for using no RCs for the purpose of "summing" function is that Farsi speakers are less likely to summarize the narrative in their own language. In other words, they merely tend to talk about a sequence of

events and do not need to use *capsule statements* (Prince, cited in Allen, 1996: 7) to encapsulate their narratives.

## Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

Technically *grammar* refers to sentence-level rules and gives us the forms or the structures of language, but those forms are quite meaningless without *discourse* rules that govern the relationship among sentences. These two dimensions are significantly interconnected and no one dimension is sufficient. Brown (2001) holds that no one doubts the prominence of grammar as an organizational framework within which communication operates. Kelly (2000) states that a glance at the contents pages reveals that most course books have a *structurally* arranged syllabus. Therefore, it is quite natural to make grammar the primary reference when planning lessons.

It is claimed that the skillful use of RCs as *structural* constructions within narratives constitutes an important form of language and thought in a unified and comprehensible fashion. Learners, who are engaged in producing referential and narrative functions are often forced to create their own thoughts, negotiate their own meaning, and share their own language experience. While producing these functions, students should be consistently capable of creating an interactive language situation, which is pedagogically essential for communication to take place. This situation cannot be provided unless methodologists and syllabus designers are meticulously thinking of pedagogical tasks of the sort mentioned above.

Brown (2000) noted that by perceiving and internalizing connections between practice (choices you make in the classroom) and theory

readers' basic need to know who or what is being talked about. Accordingly, it is expected that this function like *situating new referents* function is strongly favored in an extended discourse.

As reflected in table 3, presenting main characters through RCs has been used by 53.33% of the subjects, with a mean frequency of 1.26 more than twice that of native speakers, with a mean score of 0.5 in *frog story*. This remarkable divergence might be explained in light of the issue of *subject-hood* and *topicality*. Li & Thompson (1976: 459) proposed that languages could typologically be either *topic-dominant* or *subject-dominant*. English is a subject-dominant language, as the grammatical units of the subject and predicate are basic to the structure of the sentences. Italian, Chinese, Spanish, Hebrew, etc. are, on the other hand, topic-dominant, since the syntactic elements of the topic and comment are basic to the sentence structure in these languages. *Presenting* function is strongly favored in topic-dominant languages since it allows the writers to introduce main characters in non-subject positions. Accordingly, one would expect that Persian which is typologically akin to Italian would make more frequent use of *presentational* RCs. Furthermore, the all-purpose relativizer *ke* (that) in Farsi, like Italian *che*, could make it possible for new referents to be topicalized through an RC. In different words, such all-purpose relativizer could make a main clause argument become the topic of the relative clause.

As shown in Table (1), in our subjects' narratives, *motivating* RCs have the highest frequency of use, with a mean of 2.33 more than that of native speakers' narratives, with a mean frequency of 1.20 in the *frog story*. Recall that one of the uses of this narrative function

is that "the relative clause conveys a transient psychological state or an enduring character trait of the head referent, thereby providing the rationale for a character's actions" (Dasinger & Toupin, 1994: 470), as in the following example from "*dog story*":

*The old man who became angry beat him to death.*

The higher frequency of this function can only be interpreted in light of the nature of the story events and actions leading the subjects to treat the characters more emotionally and to show strong feeling of any kind such as *loneliness, happiness, sadness, ugliness, beingjealous, malicious, furious, parsimonious, exhausted, greedy, frightened, satisfied, kind-hearted*, and so on. Therefore, the ubiquitous use of motivating RCs in the subjects' narratives is apparently driven by a more general taste for expressing psychological states as a favored rhetorical device.

Another plausible reason accounting for such *motivating* clauses apparently comes from cultural attitudes that dominate Iranian society. Since in a normal Iranian community, people are soon affected by emotional and emotive conditions leading them into making decisions on the basis of such states, it is reckoned that Iranian subjects have tried to become emotionally involved in the *dog story*. Consequently this culminated in the production of clauses evincing these feelings providing the rationale for the actions of story characters.

As shown in Table-3, *setting up expectation* function was used by only 10% of EFL learners in their narratives. Closer inspection of this finding reveals that the bulk of this function is accounted for by only a few individuals. Only 3 of the 30 subject produced RCs for this

*Where Are you?* by Mercer Mayer as employed by Berman & Slobin (1987), and Dasinger & (1994).

## Procedure

A proficiency test was administered to 131 English learners to pick out a homogenous group of 30 subject. The subjects were asked to write a story on the basis of a story booklet depicting the adventures of a missing dog in search of food and shelter. In taking such a test, the students were not required to recall the content of the pictures by heart, since they had the book in front of them all the time.

## Results and Discussion

The uses of relative clauses, shown in Tables 1, 2, and 3 are measured (1) by the total number and the percentage of the functions indicated by A-I standing for RCs in order, (2) by the percentage of the narrators who have used an RC at least once for each type of function (%Ss), and (3) by the total mean number of RCs used.

Function	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
Number	3	42	21	30	19	49	15	6	0
Percent	1.62	22.70	11.35	16.21	10.27	26.48	8.10	3.24	0

Table - 1. The total number and the percentage of General Discourse and Narrative Functions of RCs.

On the basis of RC frequency, the following hierarchy of using general discourse and narrative functions can be obtained: F> B> D> C> E> G> H>A>I. As shown in this order, *motivating* function (F) appears at the top of the hierarchy and *summing up* function at the bottom.

A		B		C		D	
%Ss	M	%Ss	M	%Ss	M	%Ss	M
10	1	76.66	2.00	40	1.75	60	1.66

Table - 2. EFL uses of General Discourse Functions.

E		F		G		H		I	
%Ss	M	%Ss	M	%Ss	M	%Ss	M	%Ss	M
53.33	1.26	70	2.33	33.33	1.6	10	2	0	0

Table - 3. EFL uses of Narrative Functions.

As shown in tables 2 and 3, the subjects used some specific functions with a higher rate of frequency. Since the use of *naming referents* results from the fact that the subjects are communicatively forced to express themselves with limited linguistic resources available to them, they simply *paraphrase* or describe the characteristics of an object or action instead of using an appropriate lexical item, as in:

*They have something, which looks like a wooden bowl. I don't know*

*What its name is. Anyway they put some rice into it.*

In addition to paraphrasing, another strategy known as *avoidance* employed by subjects to avoid more complex linguistic forms and not to talk about concepts for which the appropriate structures are not known or readily accessible (Tarone, 1981: 286), as in:

*He put something which in the mortal to grind.*

Drawing on Chafe's (1976: 30) terminology regarding *activation* states of mind, Dasinger and Toupin (1994: 466) clarify that providing old information about an old referent is needed when the narrator feels that an entity has become *inactive* for his/her readers. Therefore, this particular discourse entity may be reactivated via an RC carrying previously given information in order to remind a known referent.

As reflected in Table-2, *reidentifying old referents* function has been used by 60% of the subjects virtually in accordance with 70% of native speakers producing these constructions in the "*frog story*". This fairly relative closeness could be explained by the fact that our subjects like native ones might be well aware of their

## Motivating or enabling narrative actions

Relative clauses can provide information about providing the rationale for *a character's action* through conveying *a transient psychological state or an enduring character trait* of the head referent, as in:

*The old man who was angry beat him to death.*

*The dog which was sad left there.*

## Continuing the narrative

This function has traditionally been called *continuative or narrative advancing*, since the information in the RC moves the action forward. At times, the head referent of a continuative relative clause like "the dog" in the following example has a dual semantic role, i.e., *affected patient* in the main clause and *active agent* in the relative clause:

*The old man started forcing the dog which was going to die.*

*There came out some gold that made them rich.*

## Setting up expectation about narrative entities and events

In order to create *suspenseful effect* in a narrative in Prince's terms (1981:245), RCs may be used to conceal or delay revealing an entity known to the readers as in:

*He dug until he hit something hard, which he thought must be gold.*

*They have something which look like a wooden bowl.*

## Summing up over past or upcoming events

Relative clauses may be used to summarize past or upcoming events in a narrative. In the following example from Dasinger & Toupin's *frog story*, the narrator employs RCs to meet this function:

*Animals that they met on the way, obstacles that he had behind him...*

## Research Questions

The questions to be raised in this research are: 1) What type of RC functions are used by Iranian EFL learners? 2) Is there any significant difference between the subjects and English native speakers in the use of *general discourse* and *narrative* functions of RCs?

## Subjects

131 students participated in this research project. These students were studying either Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) or English Literature, both groups at Islamic Azad University of Masjed Soleiman, Iran. Thirty of these students were finally screened out by a proficiency test for the main test on RCs. Such variables as sex and age were not controlled in the selection of these subjects.

## Instrumentation

To show how Iranian EFL learners express different functions of RCs in written narratives, a picture story book called *The Strange Dog of the Hamlet* by Binayee (1998) was employed. It consists of 15 colored pictures in a middle sized 16-page booklet, with which the subjects were not familiar. A similar test normally used for this purpose has been *Frog*,

brother” between the speaker and the listener. Most recently, the scholars in the field of language methodology, however, have attempted to investigate these constructions in *narratives* the most common means of structuring a series of events in a unified and comprehensible fashion and demonstrating language as a whole (Chafe, 1990; Olson, 1990).

Dasinger & Toupin (1994:461) hold that in order to take part in an intelligible discourse, the listeners/readers need adequate information about the entities referred to – people, objects, concepts, etc. – so that they can identify and track both *new* and *old* referents over time. *Naming referents*, *Situating new referents*, *Situating old referents*, and *Re-identifying old referents* as General discourse and also more specialized narrative functions like *Presenting main characters*, *Motivating or enabling narrative actions*, *Continuing the narrative*, *Setting up expectations* and finally *Summing up over past or upcoming events* functions of RCs could be employed to satisfy such discourse requirement. These functions are briefly explained and exemplified below:

### **Naming referents**

Relative clauses can be used to name an entity, where the narrator does not have the knowledge of the appropriate lexical item, or he is not able to access it when needed. In the following example form *Strange Dog of the Hamlet*, a story used in this study to elicit the required data, the relative clause is served to refer to a particular entity called *rice*:

*He put something white in the mortar to grind.*

*The kind man put some rice in something made of wood.*

### **Situating new referents**

Relative clauses can also be used to provide *new* information about the existence or appearance of a new referent within main clauses in non-subject/non-topic position, as in:

*They helped the people suffering from poverty and illness.*

*They planted a sapling, which was very small.*

### **Situating old referents**

RCs may also be served to provide new information about an *old* referent in the ongoing discourse, as in:

*The man told the story to his wife who was working at home.*

*The dog who was treated kindly decided to stay there and help them.*

### **Re-identifying old referents**

The last general discourse function of RCs is *re-identifying old referents*, i.e. providing old information about an old referent, as in:

*The cruel man who had hit the dog wasn't satisfied.*

*But he received the thing that he had received before.*

### **Presenting main characters**

Lambrecht (1988) refers to the *archetypal fairy-tale starting construction* to introduce a major character like a puppy in the following example from *dog story*:

*Once upon a time, there lived a puppy that led a miserable life.*

*There was a wandering dog which was very hungry.*

The present study is concerned with how Iranian EFL learners produce Dasinger & Toupin's (1994) Taxonomy of *general discourse* and *narrative* functions of Relative Clauses (RCs) in written narratives. The database was a set of stories by a group of EFL subjects working on a picture book-let depicting a missing dog in search of food and shelter. The results reveal that the subjects had no difficulty in using general discourse functions of RCs, i.e., *Naming referent*, *Situating new referent*, *Situating old referents*, and *Re-identifying old referents*. The findings also indicated that there is a big difference between Iranian subjects and English speakers in the use of narrative functions, i.e., *Presenting new characters*, *Motivating narrative actions*, *Continuing narrative*, *Setting up expectations*, and *Summing up past events*. The most striking finding is the absence of *Summing up* function and more frequent use of *motivating* RCs in EFL narratives.

There have been an enormous number of studies concerning RCs within and across languages in Restrictivity/Non-restrictivity (Halliday, 1994), Directionality-maximality (Dougty, 1988, 1991; Eckman, Bell, & Nelson, 1988; Hamilton, 1994), Language Typology (Comrie, 1989; Keenan, 1985), and Branching Direction (Saunders, 1989; Rutherford, 1987). The focus of these studies has been on the production of RCs at the *sentence level*. A relative clause is, typically, considered to be a type of subordinate clause modifying a noun. It starts, though not necessarily, with a relative pronoun such as *who*, *which*, *whom*, *whose*, *that*, *when*, *where*, and *why*. Under certain conditions, the relative pronoun can be left out when it is clause initial, the object of the verb,

or in a stranded position:

*This is the subject I am interested in.*

RCs having *who*, *which*, or *that* as the subject of the clause can often be reduced to phrases modifying a noun without changing the meaning of the sentence as in:

*Dr. Shokouhi is the professor teaching discourse this semester.*

In traditional terms, normally, two types of *restrictive* and *non-restrictive* RCs are identified. A restrictive RC makes use of *old information* to identify the referent of a noun phrase. A non-restrictive one, in contrast, is used to present *new information* about an already identified referent. Take the following examples:

- a. *My brother who lives in Texas is a civil engineer.*
- b. *My brother, who lives in Texas, is a civil engineer.*

Despite their syntactic similarities, these two structures are quite different in semantic and pragmatic functions. It is assumed that the sentence "My brother is a civil engineer" does not provide the listener with sufficient information in sentence "a", so an additional information "who lives in Texas" is needed to indicate specifically which brother is being referred to. In sentence "b", however, the listener can readily identify which brother is being referred to, for the speaker, by implication, has only brother. As a result, the interpretation depends upon the *newness* or *given-ness* of a particular noun phrase like "my

The findings also indicated that there is a big difference between the two groups in the use of *narrative functions* of relative clauses, i.e., *presenting new characters*, *Motivating narrative actions and events*, *Continuing narrative*, *Setting up expectations*, and *Summing over past or upcoming events*. Comparatively, the less frequent use of *setting up expectation* function by the subjects could be explained in light of preferences in narrative style. The most striking finding of the study is the absence of *summing up* function in the subjects' narratives, probably due to an advanced cognitive ability required to encapsulate the events of the story in a given time. Additionally, Farsi speakers of English are less likely to summarize the story in their own native tongue. In other words, they tend to apply a serial procedure to talk about a sequence of events. Besides, comparatively speaking, the *motivating* function more frequently used in subjects' narratives might be closely related to the subjects' attitude, as a cultural factor towards the main characters of the story. Furthermore, the absence of using prepositions in combination with an RC in non-subject positions could be probably connected with the subjects' communication strategies such as *avoidance* and *paraphrasing*.

**Key Words:** Restrictive and Non-restrictive Relative Clauses, General Discourse and Narrative Functions of Relative Clauses, Discourse Analysis.

#### چکیده

اخیراً دانشمندان زیادی از جمله دیزینگر و توپن (۱۹۹۴)، نقش عناصر زبانی را در داستان مورد تجزیه و تحلیل کلامی قرار داده‌اند و در نتیجه به نقش‌های نه‌گانه‌ی زیر دست یافته‌اند:

۱. نامگذاری مرجع (مأخذ)، ۲. معرفی مرجع جدید، ۳. معرفی مرجع قدیمی، ۴. بازیابی و شناسایی مجدد مرجع قدیمی، ۵. معرفی شخصیت‌های اصلی داستان، ۶. بیان احساسات و ایجاد انگیزه درباره‌ی وقایع، ۷. حفظ پیوستگی رویدادها، ۸. ایجاد گره در داستان که گشودن آن نیاز به اندیشه‌ی خواننده دارد، ۹. خلاصه کردن رویدادها در اوایل و اواخر داستان. تحقیق حاضر بر آن است که نشان دهد، تا چه اندازه زبان‌آموزان ایرانی می‌توانند نقش‌های فوق را در نوشتن داستان به کار گیرند. برای این منظور یک گروه ۳۰ نفری از بین ۱۳۱ دانشجوی رشته‌ی زبان انگلیسی در مقطع کارشناسی که بالاترین نمرات را کسب کرده بودند، توسط یک آزمون بستندگی انتخاب شدند. سپس کتابی مصور و بدون نوشته، تحت عنوان «سگ عجیب دهکده» به آن‌ها داده شد تا براساس آن داستانی بنویسند.

اطلاعات گردآوری شده معلوم کرد که این گروه از نظر نحوی هیچ مشکلی در ساختن قضایای موصولی ندارند، ولی از نظر نقش‌های کلامی و داستانی تفاوت‌هایی با افراد آزمونه و دیزینگر و توپن دارند. به عنوان مثال، نقش شماره‌ی ۹ را در نوشته‌هایشان به کار نبرده‌اند. علت عمده‌ی به کار نبردن نقش مذکور این است که کاربرد این نقش مستلزم اشراف همه‌جانبه بر رویدادهای داستان است. چنین اشرافی توانایی ادراکی زیادی می‌طلبد. ضمناً زبان‌آموزان نمی‌توانند مانند خود انگلیسی‌زبانان کل داستان را یکجا در ذهن خود متصور شوند. به علاوه، در داستان‌نویسی فارسی معاصر، چکیده کردن داستان در آغاز و پایان آن مرسوم نیست. نکته‌ی قابل توجه دیگر این است که گروه آزمونه، حتی بیش از خود انگلیسی‌زبانان نقش شماره‌ی ۶ را به کار برده‌اند. توجیه چنین پدیده‌ای این است که افراد مورد آزمون عواطف و احساسات درونی شدیدتری نسبت به شخصیت‌های داستان از خود نشان داده‌اند. ضمناً رویدادهای داستان ماهیتاً به گونه‌ای بوده‌اند که افراد گروه را مجبور به استفاده‌ی بیش‌تر از قضایای موصولی شماره‌ی ۶ برای ابراز چنین احساسات شدیدی کرده‌اند.

کلیدواژه‌ها: جمله‌واره‌های وصفی محدودکننده، جمله‌واره‌های وصفی غیرضروری، نقش‌های گفتاری، نقش روایتی، تجزیه و تکمیل گفتار.



# A Functional Analysis of Relative Clauses in Written Narratives by Iranian EFL University Students

Dr. Hossein Shokouhi

*Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz Faculty of Letters*

&

Azim Sabiza

*Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz Faculty of Letters*

## ABSTRACT

There are a large number of studies concerning how Relative Clauses (RCs) of different types are syntactically and pragmatically realized in SLA oral and written discourse. Most of these studies show the existence of differences between native and non-native speakers of English in the functional use of these syntactic constructions. The aim of this study was to investigate the production of *general discourse* and *narrative* functions of RCs on the basis of Dasinger & Toupin's Taxonomy (1994). To this end, a group of 30 Iranian advanced university students, already screened out from a population of 131, with no regard to their sexes, were given a picture description task. The subjects were required to perform the task showing a sequence of events depicting the adventures of a missing dog in search of food and shelter. The results showed that the subjects had no difficulty in using *general discourse* functions of RCs, i.e., *Naming referents*, *Situating new referents*, *Situating old referents*, and *Reidentifying old referents*. However, a differential rate of frequency existed in the use of these functions between the subjects and a group of native speakers of English in a similar task investigated by Dasinger & Toupin (1994).

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# Internet



C'est lui qui détermine l'activité à accomplir et qui donne la consigne initiale. Pendant la réalisation de l'activité, il aide les apprenants quand ils ont besoin et il aura la possibilité de consacrer plus de temps à ceux qui ont des problèmes. De cette façon, les apprenants «[...] ressentent le professeur comme quelqu'un qui est là pour les aider et non pas pour les sanctionner.» (A. CRIMI, 1998, P. 26). C'est lui qui devra finalement évaluer les productions apprenants / ordinateur, car ni l'un ni l'autre n'ont aucune compétence suffisante en français et non plus en ordinateur.

## Conclusion

Les Technologies de l'Information et de la Communication atteignent la maturité. Elles s'imposent partout comme instruments d'intelligence pour faire voir, représenter et se représenter dans le monde. Espace virtuel, autoroute de l'information, cyberspace, etc., sont des expressions et des mots qu'on invente et qui illustrent que l'Internet constitue aujourd'hui un phénomène bien réel dans la société. Ainsi, le monde éducatif aussi entre enfin dans l'âge de la raison technologique. L'Internet se développe sans réelle concentration, chacun y apporte sa contribution sans forcément se demander si celle-ci va intéresser d'autres personnes. Des projets pédagogiques peuvent naître autour de l'Internet et bénéficier de certaines de ses qualités.

Pour revenir à nos hypothèses de base, on peut affirmer que les apprenants eux-mêmes ont tendance à apprendre par ce moyen

novateur (78% des apprenants). Cette recherche nous a montré qu'il existe des voies sur l'Internet par lesquelles l'enseignant pourra modifier les schémas classiques de la communication en classe de FLE sans que l'importance de l'enseignement soit diminuée. L'avantage apporté par l'Internet est qu'il multiplie d'une part les interactions en jouant un rôle de relais par rapport aux activités à accomplir et qu'il permet d'autre part aux apprenants de tester, de manipuler et de diffuser leurs productions. L'Internet allie donc, d'une certaine manière, les avantages du papier, de l'imprimerie, du magnétophone et de la vidéo. On ne pourra jamais médiatiser une classe sans changer le manuel ou l'activité habituelle; donc l'enseignant sera orienté à changer son rôle d'être la source des savoirs, mais il deviendra l'organisateur de l'enseignement/apprentissage.

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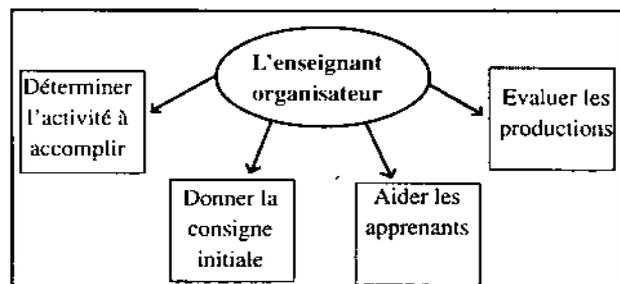
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Aujourd'hui, le multimédia et surtout l'Internet, avec ses techniques audiovisuelles, favorisent des exercices d'apprentissage plus stimulants par rapport à des exercices traditionnels. Internet apporte une source supplémentaire de motivation.» (A. CRIMI, 1998, p.25). Nous avons constaté que 65% des apprenants, recherchent le sens de ce qu'ils lisent ou entendent. Quand ils éprouvent le besoin de s'exprimer dans la classe ou dans une copie, ils ne voient pas toujours l'intérêt d'entrer dans les contraintes d'une langue étrangère. Mais s'ils utilisent l'Internet pour faire comprendre ce qu'ils pensent, l'effort qu'ils font pour s'exprimer dans la langue prend vraiment tout son sens. précisons que «La salle multimédia avec les ordinateurs connectés à Internet est vécue par les élèves comme un espace de liberté.» (A. CRIMI, 1998, P.28). L'apprenant se trouve dans la mesure d'appliquer ce qu'il a appris et de la mettre à l'épreuve en entrant en contact avec des locuteurs natifs. Autrement dit, la langue est apprise pour communiquer. Le besoin de passer le message et d'être compris dans un groupe virtuel est essentiel. Plus l'apprenant est motivé, plus il consacre son temps pour l'apprentissage et par conséquent, il progresse mieux.

## **l'Internet pourrait-il remplacer l'enseignant?**

C'est le moment de poser cette question: "l'enseignant de FLE pourra-t-il rester indifférent à cette technologie?" Signalons qu'Internet multimédia n'est pas le premier objet technique à intervenir dans la classe de langue, mais par rapport à ses prédécesseurs, il présente certaines caractéristiques capables de remettre en cause

les rôles des divers acteurs, à commencer par celui de l'enseignant. L'on pourrait imaginer que "les machines remplaceront-elles les enseignants?" Faisons allusion à notre modèle didactique dans lequel l'enseignant animateur joue un rôle fondamental. C'est-à-dire c'est lui qui donne des consignes et fixe des échéances précises, puis il rassemble des productions faites par des apprenants et les met en cohérence pour qu'elles soient valorisées. «Le rôle de l'enseignement s'en trouve changé. Le professeur n'est pas là pour contrôler et diriger les apprenants, mais pour les guider, les aider dans leurs exploitations, les écouter, regarder ce qu'ils voudront lui montrer.» (P. FUBERSTENG, 1997, P. 73). Son rôle consistera alors en classe, à les amener à confronter leurs observations, leurs remarques, leurs conclusion avec celles des autres, s'assurer qu'elles relèvent d'une certaine logique et cohérence et les encourager à aller vérifier certaines de leurs hypothèses en les envoyant à nouveau chercher des éléments dans le programme ou dans d'autres outils complémentaires en ligne. Effectivement, le rôle de l'enseignant dans tout cela n'est plus celui de grand chef qui était dans les classes traditionnelles. L'enseignant est amené à changer de rôle: il n'est plus le diffuseur de tous les savoirs, mais il devient "un conseiller" et "un organisateur" des apprentissages.





## Comment animer la classe par le moyen d'Internet?

un magazine pour pratiquer le français et dialoguer sur Internet

[Forum](#) [moteur de recherche](#) [jeu-concours](#) [comité de rédaction](#) [liste de diffusion](#)

## POUR ALLER PLUS LOIN

COURS DE LANGUE & DE CIVILISATION FRANÇAISE

FORMATIIONS POUR PROFESSEURS

Séjours linguistiques pour adolescents

Test de connaissance

Bonjour de France est un site créé par Azurlingu, école spécialisée dans l'enseignement du F.L.E.

- Comprehension
- Grammaire
- Vocabulaire
- Pédagogie
- Expressions idiomatiques
- Francias des affaires
- Mises en situation
- Nouvelles du monde
- Decouverté
- Jeu

En choisissant la rubrique Compréhension, on a accès à des textes d'apprentissage de différents niveaux comportant des éléments hypertextes qui renvoient à des explications lexicales et grammaticales. Ils sont accompagnés d'un enregistrement audio et d'un questionnaire à choix multiple à fin de tester la compréhension de l'apprenant. Il suffit de cliquer la consigne pour lire le texte ou l'écouter. En précisant qu' «*Internet peut donner l'impression qu'il laisse davantage de liberté*» (O.CHALLE, 1985, p.62), l'enseignant pourra faire travailler les apprenants sur l'ordinateur par petits groupes en rendant le maximum d'entre eux actifs et cela dépend naturellement du vouloir, c'est-à-dire la motivation des apprenants du groupe. Cependant l. chaque groupe, il est naturel que les apprenants communiquent dans leur langue maternelle. En conséquence, la nécessité d'un modèle d'enseignement par Internet se fera sentir. Le modèle que nous allons présenter peut être appliqué à tout

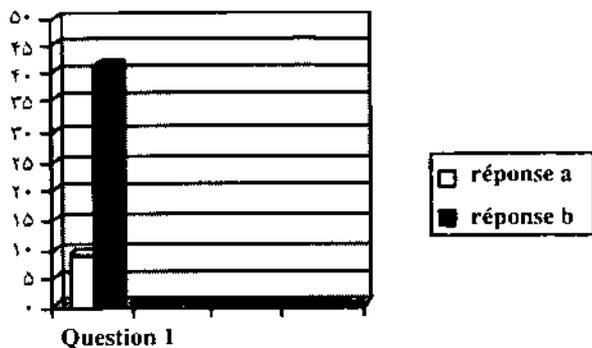
moment, dans une classe de FLE disposant des moyens techniques.

Recherche documentaire	Mode social de travail	Aspect linguistique	Ressources d'Internet
-Trouver le site selon le niveau langagier -Comprendre le contenu de la page d'accueil -Recueillir des liens -Relever les informations pertinentes -prendre des notes à partir de l'écran	-Travailler en équipes afin de répartir le travail, s'entraider et prendre correctement les notes -préparation des apprenants à la prise de responsabilité -Enseigner à profiter des NTIC	- Retenir à chaque séance des termes de vocabulaire spécifique que les apprenants ont appris -préparer un exposé -Réviser les connaissances en français pour progresser à travers des activités	-découvrir d'autres emplois possibles de l'Internet afin d'effectuer des révisions grammaticales et lire des textes didactisés

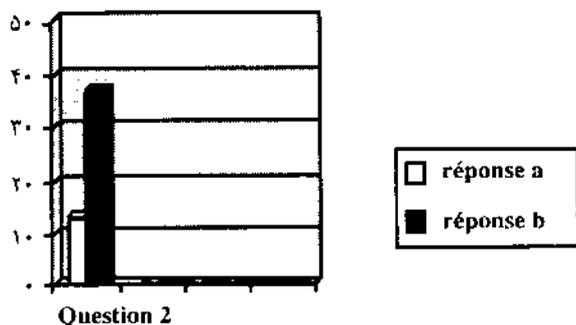
## Comment peut-on rendre les apprenants plus motivés par Internet?

Les innovations pédagogiques comme le recours au document vidéo, au multimédia et à Internet, outre qu'elles permettent de faire acquérir une certaine maîtrise des nouveaux outils de communication, rendent plus vivant la présence des apprenants pour l'apprentissage des langues. «*Les professeurs de français ont toujours ressenti la nécessité de rendre leur enseignement vivant pour motiver les élèves et les faire participer activement aux cours.*

Les réponses sont présentées dans les figures suivantes.



Comme la figure 1 montre parmi les 50 apprenants testés, 41 ont choisi la réponse b et 9 d'entre eux ont choisi la réponse a.



On constate dans la figure 2 que parmi les 50 apprenants testés, 37 ont choisi la réponse b et 17 d'entre eux, la réponse a. Le résultat de notre enquête montre que par le biais d'Internet, le temps d'attention soutenue ou de concentration que 74% des apprenants sont prêts à consacrer à des activités d'apprentissage est plus élevé que lorsqu'ils utilisent une technologie nouvelle avec les moyens traditionnels. Ce résultat est possible car 82% des apprenants affirment qu'ils aiment travailler avec un ordinateur. Ils pourront progresser à leur propre rythme et ils recevront une rétroaction immédiate sur ce qu'ils font. L'utilisation de l'Internet favorise la collaboration entre les apprenants d'une même classe et même entre les apprenants des groupes

différents. D'après Fürstenberg «par le travail à Internet, les apprenants sont naturellement amenés à associer des éléments, créer des liens, établir des associations. Il leur incombera ainsi la tâche de suivre des fils à travers différents types de liens et d'associations, d'organiser l'information, de construire un sens ou des sens, de lui donner une cohérence, de reconstruire sa globalité. Les apprenants seront enfin naturellement amenés à collaborer entre eux, car à partir de leurs fragments individuels, et par l'échange avec les autres, ils pourront recréer et reconstruire.» (G.FÜRSTENBERG, 1997, P.64). Grâce à sa collaboration et ses échanges avec les autres utilisateurs, l'apprenant est sans cesse amené à bien observer, approfondir et développer petit à petit ses connaissances et sa compréhension du sujet, découvrir et créer de nouveaux liens. Cette intégration pourra favoriser ainsi, un engagement social.

## Modèle didactique pour une classe de FLE

En considérant les intérêts présentés et suite à notre expérience, nous présentons un exemple représentatif d'un cours de FLE sur l'Internet qui vise l'acquisition des savoirs linguistique et culturel afin de présenter un modèle de la didactique de FLE par l'Internet. [www.Bonjourdefrance.com](http://www.Bonjourdefrance.com) organise un scénario pédagogique présentant les unités didactiques structurées en quatre niveaux de langue. Tous les documents et les exercices proposés sont originaux et très utiles et ils constituent un bon exemple des possibilités pédagogiques d'Internet qui peut intégrer et dépasser les méthodes traditionnelles d'enseignement.

pédagogiques qui invitent les apprenants à participer à la création et à l'élaboration des documents dans le cadre d'un thème précis. On y propose aux apprenants d'imaginer des êtres fantastiques et d'essayer de les décrire en écrivant et en précisant des détails sur leur apparence, leur passe-temps, leur milieu, etc. Les descriptions écrites seront envoyées par courrier électronique à l'évaluateur et ensuite elles seront publiées sur l'Internet.

### **Intérêt pour les enseignants**

L'un des objectifs principaux de chaque enseignant de langue est d'apprendre à ses apprenants à communiquer en langue étrangère. L'Internet peut répondre à cet objectif et permet à l'enseignant de présenter la langue comme un outil au service des apprenants. Cette intégration met les apprenants en contact avec une audience réelle. «Le métier d'enseignant de langues vivantes est l'un des plus difficiles qui soit; les raisons de cette difficulté sont nombreuses [...]» (J. JANITZA, 2002, P. 64) et ne seront pas analysées ici, cependant Internet pourrait faciliter le travail. Par l'intermédiaire de l'Internet, l'enseignant obtient rapidement des renseignements sur les disponibilités et l'intérêt d'une grande diversité des ressources didactiques et en outre, bénéficie souvent d'un soutien pour leur utilisation. «Internet facilite la collaboration de l'enseignant avec des collègues, [...]» (A. MARTEL, 1998, P. 125) ainsi qu'avec d'autres personnes, à l'intérieure ou à l'extérieur du système d'enseignement, pour la planification ou l'élaboration des activités pédagogiques destinées aux apprenants. Nous signalons que dans un passé récent, l'emploi de la vidéo avait

suscité de nouvelles procédures d'enseignement. Ce support n'étant pas carrément linguistique, il a fallu expliciter les démarches innovantes dans les livrets pédagogiques vidéo.

### **Intérêt pour les apprenants**

Tout d'abord, l'apprentissage des apprenants dépend de leur connaissance de l'Internet. La nature et le développement de ces apprentissages dépendent notamment de l'acquis préalable des apprenants et des activités qu'ils accomplissent avec ces Nouvelles Technologies et surtout l'Internet. Selon le résultat de notre enquête réalisée auprès des apprenants iraniens à l'Institut Kish Air, 82% des apprenants manifestent un intérêt spontané plus grand pour une activité d'apprentissage qui fait appel à une technologie nouvelle qu'aux approches traditionnelles en classe. Pour donner plus de précisions, nous présentons les questions posées aux apprenants.

**1. Quelle animation de classe vous convient pour améliorer votre français?**

- a. Animation de class de manière traditionnelle (livre et enseignant)
- b. Animation de classe par interaction (enseignant, ordinateur et Internet)

**2. Vous préférez disposer de quels moyens?**

- a. Livre, cahier d'exercices et des papiers d'exercices/supplémentaires
- b. Exercices sur l'ordinateur et Internet

## Introduction

«Il y a longtemps que l'homme rêve des machines qui parlent et qui comprennent son langage.» (P. OUDART, 1997, P. 29). L'expression NTIC "Nouvelles Technologies de l'Information et de la Communication" renvoie à un ensemble de technologies parmi lesquelles figurent habituellement l'ordinateur et cette dernière décennie l'Internet. Ce média de communication polymorphe et délocalisé est capable de transmettre une quantité quasi illimitée et très diversifiée de données. Comme toutes les autres technologies, l'Internet est devenu une partie inévitable de notre vie quotidienne, y compris dans l'enseignement/apprentissage des langues étrangères. Grâce à ses ressources riches et variées, son caractère transculturel et sa facilité d'usage, il a suscité beaucoup d'innovations dans le domaine de la didactique de FLE. Considérant qu'il existe des matériaux créés à l'usage pédagogique, nous chercherons à déterminer les intérêts dont dispose l'enseignant ou l'apprenant pour développer ses activités pédagogiques utilisant l'Internet.

1. L'Internet, pourrait-il devenir un support pédagogique dans le domaine de la didactique de FLE?

2. L'Internet pourrait-il remplacer l'enseignant?

Pour les questions mentionnées, nous pourrions formuler les hypothèses suivantes:

1. Etant donné les caractères interactifs et les possibilités virtuelles et créatrices des activités et ceci avec des fiches pédagogiques, l'Internet pourrait faire partie des manuels de FLE.

2. Sachant que les traits sociaux, l'affectivité et le comportement de l'enseignant jouent un

rôle direct sur la motivation de l'apprenant, la machine ne pourrait pas répondre tout seul à ces besoins.

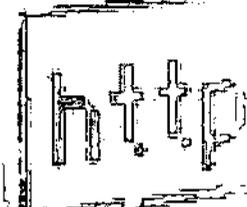
## Ou'attend-t-on de l'Internet?

Par une recherche sous la rubrique FLE, l'on obtiendra de multiples références et des ressources pédagogiques ayant comme objectif de promouvoir l'enseignement de FLE, mises en ligne à la disposition des deux groupes d'utilisateurs; l'enseignant et l'apprenant.

Recherche de l'information	Documents théoriques	Manuels de FLE	Exercices et activités
1. moteurs de recherche	1. grammaire	1. leçons	1. question/ réponse
2. annuaires	2. lexique	2. exercices	2. compréhension
3. listes de ressources	3. phonétique	2.1. prononciation	3. transformation
	4. linguistique	2.2. grammaire	4. substitution
		2.3. lexique	5. textes à trou
		2.4. culture	6. jeux de mots
		2.5. civilisation	7. utilisation d'une forme verbale

## Les manuels de FLE sur l'Internet

On trouve sur l'Internet des différents documents d'apprentissage du français langue étrangère qui pourraient correspondre à la notion connue de "manuel" ou "méthode" de FLE. Autrement dit, un ensemble de leçons ou unités développent des stratégies didactiques et des activités ou des exercices divers en relation avec les domaines classiques visant l'acquisition des savoirs à la fois linguistiques et culturels. Nous pourrions classer les cours de FLE sur l'Internet selon deux grandes catégories: La présence de la langue orale, accompagnant les documents écrits et l'absence de celle-là accompagnant les documents écrits on les documents télé ou vidéo qu'il faut consulter séparément. N'oublions pas les projets



# Comment intégrer Internet dans l'enseignement de FLE

Dr. Rouhollah RAHMATIAN

r\_rahmatian@yahoo.com

Université Tarbiat Modarres

et

Mandana HADI

Mandana.hadi@voila.fr

چکیده

این مقاله سعی می‌نماید تا به نقش مثبت اینترنت به عنوان یک پدیده تکنیکی- رسانه‌ای و اجتماعی- فرهنگی در فرآیند آموزش / یادگیری زبان فرانسه بپردازد و نشان دهد چگونه استفاده از اینترنت در امر آموزش زبان می‌تواند به راحتی برای کلاس زبان فرانسه میسر باشد و به دنبال پاسخ به این سؤال است که آیا اینترنت می‌تواند به عنوان یک ابزار کمک آموزشی مفید و مؤثر در کلاس زبان فرانسه مورد استفاده قرار گیرد و در روند این استفاده جایگزین مدرس زبان شود؟ همچنین این تحقیق درصدد است با معرفی مزایای اینترنت به مدرسان و زبان آموزان نقش مؤثر آن را در ایجاد انگیزه برای یک اقدام نوآورانه در استفاده از اینترنت در فعالیت‌های آموزشی در زمینه زبان فرانسه نشان دهد.

کلید واژه‌ها: اینترنت، آموزش زبان، زبان آموز، مدرس زبان

## Résumé

Cet article cherche à démontrer l'efficacité de l'Internet dans le processus de l'enseignement/ apprentissage de FLE en tant que phénomène technologique, médiatique et socioculturel afin de favoriser son développement et son intégration dans la classe de langue. Nous tenterons aussi d'initier les enseignants ainsi que les apprenants dans une démarche innovante telle que l'utilisation et l'intégration de l'Internet dans les activités pédagogiques dans le domaine de FLE en leur présentant les avantages de cette intégration. Nous verrons enfin si l'Internet peut remplacer l'enseignant.

**Mots clés:** Internet, enseignement, apprenant, enseignant

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