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Foreign Language Teaching Journal

رشد

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آغاز بهار
تعلیم و تربیت

در آستانه‌ی ورود به فصل پاییز، شروع سال تحصیلی و آغاز بهار تعلیم و تربیت را به عموم فرهنگیان به ویژه دبیران محترم زبان خارجی تبریک عرض می‌کنیم و آرزومندیم، همکاران گرامی از طریق کار و تلاش مبتنی بر خودباوری و رقابت سازنده، زمینه‌های رشد همه جانبه‌ی علمی و تربیتی نوجوانان را که سرمایه‌های آینده‌ی این مرز و بوم محسوب می‌شوند، بیش از پیش فراهم آورند.
انتشار نگاشت سوم برنامه‌ی درسی ملی که قرار است مسیر آینده‌ی دستگاه تعلیم و تربیت کشور را مشخص کند، فرصت مناسبی است که بخش‌های مرتبط با حوزه‌ی یادگیری زبان در این سند، در مجله مطرح و پی‌گیری شود چرا که لازمه‌ی هر تحولی، به‌ویژه در حوزه‌ی تعلیم و تربیت، آشنایی و مشارکت تمامی دست‌اندرکاران به ویژه دبیران به عنوان مجریان برنامه‌های درسی در کلاس درس در کلیه مراحل تهیه و اجرای برنامه‌ی درسی است. در بخش اهداف تفضیلی برنامه‌ی درسی ملی، آشنایی با یک زبان خارجی به عنوان یکی از اهداف دوره‌ی راهنمایی تحصیلی مطرح شده و در دوره‌ی دبیرستان، همین هدف در قالب آشنایی بیشتر با واژگان و قواعد مهم یک زبان خارجی و کسب مهارت‌های زبانی آن زبان بیان شده است.

در بخش حوزه‌های یادگیری برنامه‌ی درسی ملی، قلمرو حوزه‌ی یادگیری زبان‌های خارجی این گونه مطرح شده است: «امروزه آموزش زبان بر توانایی ارتباطی و حل مسئله تأکید دارد، به گونه‌ای که فرد پس از آموزش قادر به ایجاد
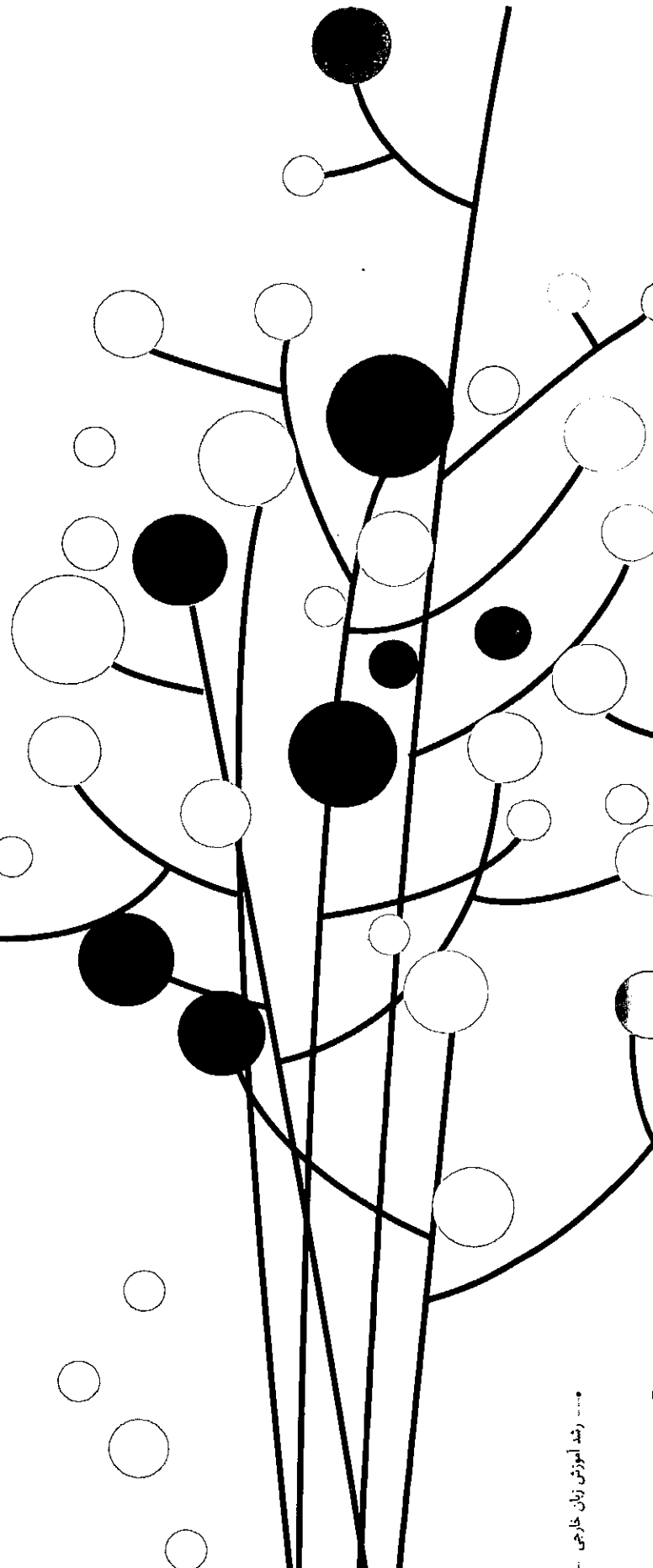
ارتباط با استفاده از تمامی مهارت‌های زبانی (گوش کردن، سخن گفتن، خواندن و نوشتن) برای دریافت و انتقال معنا باشد. آموزش رسمی و عمومی زبان خارجی از ابتدای دوره‌ی راهنمایی آغاز می‌شود و هدف آن، آموزش چهار مهارت زبانی و آشناسازی مربیان با مهارت‌های ارتباطی در چارچوب جهت‌گیری‌های کل دوره خواهد بود.»

در ادامه، در بخش جهت‌گیری‌های کلی در سازمان‌دهی محتوا و آموزش حوزه‌ی زبان خارجی، رویکرد برنامه‌ی درسی «ارتباطی فعال و خودباورانه» معرفی شده است. از این عبارات می‌توان نتیجه گرفت که جهت‌گیری آموزش زبان خارجی در این سند ملی ارتباطی است و قرار است دانش‌آموزان در پایان دوره‌ی متوسطه بتوانند در سطح متوسط از مهارت‌های زبانی استفاده کنند. لازمه‌ی تحقق این جهت‌گیری جدید، تحولی بنیادین در برنامه‌ی درسی زبان خارجی فعلی و بسترهای اجرایی آن است که فراهم کردن مقدمات آن به کار و تلاش مستمر و هدف‌دار گروه برنامه‌ریزی درسی با مشارکت فعال تمامی دست‌اندرکاران آموزش زبان خارجی در کشور بستگی دارد. بحث برنامه‌ی درسی ملی را در شماره‌های آینده پی خواهیم گرفت. انتظار داریم خوانندگان محترم مجله نیز با ارسال نظرات خود، در این بحث شرکت فرمایند.

با سیاست‌گذاری‌های مناسب به عمل آمده در «دفتر انتشارات کمک آموزشی»، برای پشتیبانی و حمایت از ارتقای کیفیت مجلات رشد تخصصی و تلاش هیئت تحریریه‌ی رشد زبان، تغییراتی در این جهت در محتوا و نحوه‌ی ارائه‌ی مطالب در برنامه‌ی سالانه‌ی مجله پیش‌بینی شده است. گر چه بعضی از این تغییرات از شماره‌های گذشته آغاز شده‌اند، ولی به دلیل بازتاب کامل آن‌ها در شماره‌ی حاضر، توضیح مختصر نوع و چگونگی آن‌ها ضروری به نظر می‌رسد.

در مجله‌ی رشد زبان سه بخش مجزا پیش‌بینی شده است که عبارت‌اند از: بخش رشد و معلم، بخش علمی ـ ترویجی و بخش علمی ـ پژوهشی. هدف بخش رشد و معلم ارتباط نزدیک‌تر با دبیران از طریق آشنایی با نیازهای آنی آنان و پاسخ‌گویی به آن‌هاست. این بخش شامل چنین عنوان‌هایی است: گفت‌وگو و گزارش؛ معرفی کتاب؛ اخبار گروه؛ خواندنی‌های مفرح؛ معرفی سایت‌های مرتبط با آموزش زبان؛ معرفی پایان‌نامه‌های مرتبط با برنامه‌ی درسی زبان خارجی؛ معرفی مجلات ویژه‌ی دبیران زبان

خارجی در سطح جهان.

هدف بخش علمی ـ ترویجی، آشنایی دبیران با مفاهیم مرتبط با آموزش زبان و معرفی فنون تدریس است. این بخش دو عنوان را شامل می‌شود که عبارت‌اند از: دانش‌افزایی و فنون کلاس درس. مقالاتی که تحت عنوان اول به چاپ می‌رسند، به معرفی مفاهیم مرتبط با سه مقوله‌ی معلم، فراگیرنده و برنامه‌ی درسی می‌پردازند. زیر عنوان دوم مقالاتی به چاپ می‌رسند که هدفشان معرفی فنون تدریس و ارزش‌یابی مهارت‌ها و مؤلفه‌های زبانی است. و بالاخره مقالات بخش سوم یعنی بخش علمی ـ پژوهشی به ارائه‌ی یافته‌های پژوهشی اختصاص می‌یابند.

در شماره‌ی حاضر مطالب چاپ شده در بخش‌های سه گانه‌ی فوق به ترتیب عبارت‌اند از:

الف) بخش رشد و معلم

مصاحبه با آقای **فرهاد مظلوم**، دبیر زبان انگلیسی شهرستان مراغه

ب) بخش علمی ـ ترویجی

۱. **نگاه نزدیک به آموزش و یادگیری**: با مقاله‌ای در خصوص نحوه‌ی تدریس مهارت نوشتن

۲. **توانش حرفه‌ای معلم زبان**: با دو مقاله که در اولی به نحوه‌ی پرورش توانش حرفه‌ای معلمان زبان پرداخته شده و در دومی سعی شده است، نحوه‌ی پاسخ‌گویی فردی به دانش‌آموزان با تکیه بر دیدگاه‌های راجرز بررسی و تحلیل می‌شود.

۳. **مفاهیم مرتبط با آموزش دستور**: با مقاله‌ای که به تبیین نقش آگاهی یافتن غیر مستقیم به نکات دستوری به‌جای تدریس مستقیم آن‌ها اختصاص دارد.

ج) بخش علمی ـ پژوهشی

با دو مقاله که در اولی نتیجه‌ی پژوهشی در خصوص تأثیر دیکته‌ی شفاهی بر مهارت شنیداری بررسی شده و در دومی نتیجه‌ی پژوهشی با استفاده از پیکره‌ی زبانی برای بررسی میزان هماهنگی واژگان به کار رفته در کتاب‌های زبان انگلیسی دوره‌ی دبیرستان با برونداد طبیعی در سطح هزار و دو هزار واژه‌ی ضروری بررسی شده است.

از خوانندگان محترم مجله تقاضا داریم، با ارائه نظرات سازنده‌ی خود در ارتباط با تغییرات فوق، ما را در بهبود هر چه بیشتر کیفیت مجله‌ی رشد زبان یاری دهند.

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تنها چیزی که معلم نیاز دارد
تغییر نگَرش است!

آقای فرهاد مظلوم زوارق ۳۳ ساله، دبیر زبان انگلیسی شهرستان مراغه، با ۹ سال سابقه‌ی تدریس در سطوح متفاوت از راهنمایی و دبیرستان تا دانشگاه است. وی دوره‌ی کارشناسی زبان انگلیسی خود را در دانشگاه تربیت‌معلم حصارک و کارشناسی‌ارشد را در دانشگاه تربیت‌مدرس گذرانده و اکنون در دانشگاه تربیت‌معلم دانشگاه تهران در دوره‌ی دکترا مشغول تحصیل است.

□ به نظر شما معلم زبان باید از چه صلاحیت‌های حرفه‌ای برخوردار باشد؟

● به‌نظر من باید به مؤلفه‌هایی مثل فن و هنر تدریس، داشتن دانش تخصصی مربوط به رشته‌ی خود، آشنا بودن با مبانی روان‌شناسی و رویکرد روان‌شناختی در تدریس و آموزش، و همچنین، آگاه بودن از تفاوت‌های فردی دانش‌آموزان توجه داشته باشد.

□ ویژگی‌های اخلاقی و شخصیتی وی چگونه باید باشد؟

● همان‌طور که می‌دانید، معلم برای دانش‌آموزان از ابعاد گوناگون رفتاری، اخلاقی، علمی و... الگوست. معلم جدا از ماده‌ی درسی که تدریس می‌کند، با صبور بودن، دلسوز بودن، آزاده بودن و در عین حال محکم بودن، نه‌تنها در دوره‌ای کوتاه، بلکه در طول زندگی می‌تواند روی دانش‌آموز تأثیر بگذارد.

□ به‌نظر شما چه عواملی در رشد مهارت‌های حرفه‌ای شما به‌عنوان یک دبیر زبان بیش‌تر مؤثر بوده است؟

● شما می‌دانید که علم پویایی خودش را دارد. با گذشت زمان، اطلاعات ما کهنه می‌شود. معلمان باید خود را به‌روز نگه‌دارند. بنده خودم از اینترنت بسیار استفاده می‌کنم مطالبی را نیز از سایت‌های مربوط به معلم می‌گیرم و در کلاس

درس، چه در دوره‌ی متوسطه و چه در کلاس‌های دانشگاهی، استفاده می‌کنم. فاصله نگرفتن از مطالعه و خواندن مجلات تخصصی، به مهارت‌های حرفه‌ای بنده کمک کرده است.

□ به‌نظر شما «رشد آموزش زبان» چه اهدافی را باید دنبال کند؟ به‌عبارت دیگر به‌عنوان معلم زبان، مجله‌ای که در آموزش و پرورش چاپ می‌شود، چگونه می‌تواند انتظارات شما را براورده سازد؟

● رشد آموزش زبان می‌تواند رابط بین معلمان سراسر کشور باشد. با وجود این‌که بین معلمان فاصله‌ی مکانی زیادی است و هرکدام در گوشه‌ای از کشور مشغول خدمت هستند، درج تجربیات، الگوهای تدریس و پیشنهادهای کوچک معلمان از سراسر کشور، حلقه‌ی ارتباطی خوبی می‌توانند باشند. خوب است شیوه‌های ارزش‌یابی و روش‌های تدریس موفق درج شوند. با ارائه‌ی چارچوبی منظم و سیستماتیک که توسط متخصصان ارائه می‌شود، می‌توان معلمان را به سوی روش‌های صحیح و جذاب هدایت کرد.

□ چه بخش‌هایی از مجله را مفید ارزیابی می‌کنید و برای معلمان کاربردی‌تر می‌دانید؟

● قسمت‌هایی که عملی‌تر هستند. بنده شخصاً مخالف مقالات نظری و تئوریک هستم. از بخش «English Through Fun» سر کلاس‌ها استفاده می‌کنم. بخش مصاحبه‌ها را نیز فرصتی برای انعکاس نظرات همکاران می‌دانم که بسیار مفید است.

□ به‌نظر شما، رشد آموزش زبان به چه زمینه‌هایی از آموزش زبان بیش‌تر پرداخته است و به چه زمینه‌هایی کمتر؟

● به‌نظر بنده، ترجیح دارد مقالات به زبان فرانسه و

آلمانی، به‌طور جداگانه در مجله‌ی دیگری چاپ شوند. به مقاله‌هایی که انعکاس‌دهنده‌ی واقعیت‌های کلاس زبان هستند، بیش‌تر بپردازید. مثلاً در شماره‌های قبلی، مقاله‌ی «Pre-university Reading Activities Under Close Inspection» کار مشترک خانم‌ها دکتر **آرشیا کیوانفر و رحمانی،** برای دبیران پیش‌دانشگاهی بسیار مفید بود. هم‌چنین، مقاله‌ی «Current Misconceptions in language Teching in Classes in Iran» کاری از آقای **خدامرادی**؛ به جنبه‌های کاربردی خوبی پرداخته بود و اطلاعات بسیار مفیدی در اختیار دبیران قرار می‌داد.

تحلیل محتوای کتاب‌های درسی نیز می‌تواند بسیار ثمربخش باشد. **تام لینسن** [1] فهرست وارسی (چک‌لیست) مناسبی برای تحلیل و ارزش‌یابی کتاب‌های درسی دارد که معرفی آن می‌تواند برای معلمان مفید باشد.

□ **از چه راه یا راه‌هایی می‌توان فرهنگ مطالعه‌ی منابع تخصصی را بین دبیران زبان اشاعه داد؟**

● فرهنگ عموم معلمان در آموزش و پرورش عملاً دچار روزمرگی شده است. روش و شیوه‌ی کار معلم به‌روز نیست. حتی می‌توانم بگویم دید علمی تغییر یافته است. تنها چیزی که معلم نیاز دارد، تغییر نگرش است. تغییر نگرش باعث خواهد شد، معلمان خود به‌دنبال مطالب علمی مورد نیازشان بروند.

□ **به تغییر نگرش اشاره کردید. چگونه می‌توان دید معلم و نگرش وی را تغییر داد؟**

● این مقوله به جنبه‌های روان‌شناسی و فلسفی برمی‌گردد. یعنی معلم به محض انتخاب این شغل، باید بداند کار بسیار سختی پیش‌رو دارد که نیازمند صبر، حوصله و دانش‌افزایی مستمر است. اگر این نگرش در معلم ایجاد شود، کمتر گلایه می‌کند و به جنبه‌های مثبت کار خود نیز توجه خواهد داشت.

□ **جایگاه مجله‌ی رشد آموزش زبان خارجی در ارتقای مهارت‌های حرفه‌ای و شغلی شما چگونه بوده است؟**

● بی‌تردید تأثیرگذار بوده است. شیوه‌های متنوع تدریس و به‌خصوص ارزش‌یابی که در رشد آموزش زبان معرفی می‌شوند، آن را به یک منبع مطالعاتی مفید برای دبیران تبدیل کرده و در کار بنده نیز مؤثر بوده است. مثلاً در یکی از شماره‌ها، روش‌های گوناگون توسعه‌ی دامنه‌ی واژگان معرفی شده بود. متوجه شدم که کاربرد راهکارهای ارائه‌شده در کلاس درس، می‌تواند مفید باشد و خود نیز بهره بردم. بدین‌ترتیب، اگر معلمان بخش‌های گوناگون مجله را، ازجمله فعالیت‌های کلاس درس، معرفی کتاب، کارهایی

که خود معلمان انجام داده‌اند، و حتی «مطالعه‌ی چکیده» را بخوانند، در کارشان بسیار مؤثر خواهد بود.

□ **آیا در زمینه‌های آموزش و یادگیری زبان خارجی تألیفاتی داشته‌اید؟**

● بله مقاله‌ی اولم در مورد یادگیری زبان اول، در دانشگاه آنکارا در ترکیه چاپ شد و مقاله‌ی دوم در مورد نحوه‌ی ارزش‌یابی سؤالات درک مطلب در دوره‌ی متوسطه، در مجله‌ی زبان‌شناسی کاربردی تربیت‌معلم به چاپ رسید. مقاله‌ی سومم نیز تحت عنوان «New Task for Old Texts» در شماره‌ی ۹۱ـ تابستان ۱۳۸۸ـ مجله‌ی رشد آموزش زبان چاپ شد.

□ **چه توصیه‌هایی برای بهبود وضعیت آموزش زبان خارجی در نظام آموزشی کشور دارید؟**

● به‌طور کلی اگر نظام آموزشی بر ملاک‌های کیفی استوار باشد، می‌توان به نظام آموزشی خوش‌بین بود. برای مثال، در ارزیابی معلم ملاک‌های کیفی باید مدنظر باشد، درحالی‌که معیار ارزیابی معلمان به شیوه‌ی فعلی، اشکالات بنیادین دارد. درصد قبولی، بزرگ‌ترین ایراد در نظام ارزیابی کارکرد معلمان است. هم‌چنین، در کتاب‌های درسی کنونی، تأکید بیش‌تر بر بخش محدودی از زبان (خواندن و دستور زبان) در سه سال اول دبیرستان است، و مهارت‌های دیگر هم‌چون صحبت‌کردن و نوشتن، مورد بی‌توجهی قرار گرفته‌اند.

اگر هدف اصلی ما از آموزش زبان «خواندن» باشد، باید از تأثیرات مثبت دیگر مهارت‌های خواندن غافل نباشیم. به نظر بنده کتاب‌های درسی باید مورد بازبینی و تغییر قرار گیرند و از رویکردها و روش‌های جدید آموزش، متناسب با اهداف و نیازهای جامعه برخوردار باشند.

نکته‌ی آخر این که تأثیر منفی «کلاس‌ـ آزمون» (کنکور) بر محتوای آموزشی، باعث عقیم شدن برنامه‌ی درسی می‌شد و معلمان مجبورند در راستای سؤالات کنکور کار کنند تا دانش‌آموزان را به کسب رتبه‌ی بالاتر قادر سازند. این کارکرد تدریس در «راستای آزمون»، کلاس‌های درسی را از اهدافشان و انجام روش‌های صحیح دور می‌سازد. حتی تصمیمات اخیر مسئولان مبنی بر قرار دادن معدل در کنکور در سال‌های آتی، محتوای کیفی کلاس درسی را در نیل به معدل بالا تحت‌تأثیر قرار خواهد داد.

از این‌که در این گفت‌وگو شرکت کردید متشکریم. امیدواریم نظرات و پیشنهادهای شما در کیفیت و بهبود آموزش زبان مؤثر باشد.

پی‌نوشت

1. Tomlinson

specific organization of the text must all be checked. These are points to keep in mind when writing is corrected by the writer, by a peer or by the teacher. However, the list takes into account mistakes that learners can make from very preliminary stages to very advanced stages. The items on the list should be used based upon the level of the learner and what the student writer has been taught in class. For this system to work with ease it is best to use a set of symbols characterizing different types of error (e.g., sp. for spelling error) and to familiarize students with these at the beginning of the course.

In addition students should be asked to set out assignments in such a way as to leave the reader room for commentary. It is essential to encourage students to keep all assignments in the same file. This allows for a check to be made on recurrent errors. A single paper written by a student on a given topic at a particular time cannot, as is well-known, be considered a valid basis for evaluating their achievement (Nunan, 1999).

Conclusion

Therefore, it can be concluded that writing is different for different levels and stages. In the very preliminary stage writing means to be able to write the letters of the alphabet and later to write words and very short phrases and expressions. Writing ability then matures into writing sentences. In the next stage, writing involves the ability to write paragraphs. Paragraphs are guided to begin with and then the writer is gradually able to take over more control. In the fourth stage writing involves writing more than one paragraph with a specific organization and the writer can argue for a specific topic. Therefore, just like any other skill writing at different stages involves different tasks.

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Most literate EFL students do not need instruction in the complete range of the English spelling system. For them, diagnostic testing may be most useful

the teacher corrects the students' work. Most students are more comfortable with teacher correction and feel that this sort of correction is more accurate and reliable. However, studies show that peer correction can be extremely effective (Lundstrom and Baker, 2009) for both the student giving and the student receiving the correction. Therefore, the students will benefit more from peer correction and they should be encouraged to do so inside the class with the guideance of the teacher or outside the class as part of their writing assignment.

In order to carry out correction, the student or teacher needs to know what points to focus on. The first step is to focus on the general neatness of the written material. In very simple words, does the paper look neat? The student writer must have observed margins. There must be a straight or justified margin on the left hand side of the paper and a ragged margin on the right hand side. All paragraphs need to be indened. The next step is the handwriting. Beauty is not of chief importance, what should be observed is legibility. The handwriting of the student must be easy to read for anyone at any level. Teachers can read almost any kind of handwriting; therefore, their ability to read the written text is not a criterion. The next step is punctuation. The beginning of all sentences and all proper nouns should be capitalized and all sentences are supposed to end with a punctuation mark: a full stop or question mark. The sentence or text is made up of a series of words so it is essential that all words are spelled correctly; therefore, the next step is to check the spelling of all words. If the writing has been done on a word processor, the spelling of many words are corrected by the machine, however, it cannot correct all the words. Therefore, a lot of attention should be given to spelling so that any misspelled words overlooked by the machine are corrected. After this step is completed, the reader must check the grammar of the sentences or text. All sentences need to be read carefully and the grammar of all sentences along with the collocations of words must be checked for accuracy. If the writing being checked is a paragraph, the next stage is to check for items that make up a paragraph. The paragraph needs to have a topic sentence, supporting sentences and an concluding sentence. In texts of one paragraph or longer, the unity and coherence of the text have to be checked as well. If the text is more than one paragraph, the elements making up the text, such as the thesis statement, blueprint, central paragraphs, conclusion, and the

can spell accidente and rapido in Spanish only needs to learn not to include the final vowel when spelling accident and rapid in English. However, Oller and Ziahosseiny (1970) found that students whose mother tongue uses the Roman alphabet made significantly more errors than students whose native language does not use the Roman alphabet. Therefore, Iranian students who use the Arabic alphabet have an advantage in this respect. This is because errors due to transfer from the mother tongue may appear less in their spelling. Yet, the problem that Iranian students face is learning the Roman sript which is very different from the Arabic script and may take a while. When the Roman script is learned, however, they will make fewer spelling mistakes than those learners whose language uses the Roman script.

Most literate EFL students do not need instruction in the complete range of the English spelling system. For them, diagnostic testing may be most useful. One approach used effectively with students beyond the early grades is the test-study method (Gates, 1931 cited in Cronell, 1979): a preliminary spelling test is given and those words misspelled are specifically studied. However, rater than simply testing and studying random lists of words, a better approach is testing words that illustrate various spellings. Then students performing poorly on specific spellings could receive instructon and practice on their problems.

All students who have a basic knowledge of English spelling should learn to use a dictionary (a) to find the spellings of words in which there are sounds with two or more possible spellings; and (b) to check words when they are unsure of the spellings. Literate students may be familiar with dictionary use from their native language, but they may need instruction in using an English dictionary to locate spellings of unknown words, Students without experience in dictionary use will need instruction; many dictionaries for elementary school children have extensive sections on how to use a dictionary, which may be helpful for foreign language learners.

Teaching spelling is not the same as teaching composition. When the emphasis is on getting the students to write, too much concern with the spelling of individual words may inhibit their fluency and expression of ideas. Correct spelling in composition should be a concern when editing written work; then students can carefully check their spelling.

Correction

Correction can be done in three different ways, namely; self-correction, peer-correction and teacher-correction. Self-correction is when students correct their own work based on what they have been taught in class or using a check-list. Peer-correction is when peers correct each other's work. This can be done based upon a check-list or the teacher's instructions. Teacher correction is when

Stage 3:

At this stage the writing of more than one sentence is taught. The learner starts to write paragraphs. In the beginning, this is in the form of controlled writing where learners change the pronouns, grammatical features or tenses in a given paragraph. The next stage is directed writing where a paragraph is written about an interview, about a sequence of events, a story told by the teacher, report of lecture notes nor an exercise in which a series of questions are answered. Later on the students move on to guided writing where they may write situational compositions. They are informed about a detailed set of circumstances which requires a written response. For example, thanking someone for their efforts. They may be asked to reply to letters written by other students who are playing the role of different characters.

Stage 4:

At this stage the learner can produce paragraphs with topic sentences and supporting sentences. This is later on expanded into several paragraphs and the learner can write research papers. The sturdent writer can present arguments or points view accurately and effectively. An underlying organization, such as chronological ordering, logical ordering, cause and effect, comparison, and thematic development is learned.

Different students based upon their degrees of proficiency are at different levels of writing. However, no matter where the students are on this continuum, they need to spell words correctly.

Spelling

One of the important components of writing is spelling. Unless the words that make up the actual text are spelled correctly, the text may lose its meaning and communicative ablity, As to all areas of language learning there are no simple solutions to this issue. The approach to teaching spelling depends on the learner's background. For the illiterate learner, instruction might be similar to that used for English-speaking childeren. For children learning English, a regular elementary school spelling series may be appropriate; however, a series should be selected which adequately reflects the nature of English spelling (Cornell, 1971 cited in Cornell, 1979).

For the literate beginning learner, many particular features of English will need to be mastered. However, the teacher may be able to take advantage of the student's native-language knowledge of the nature of spelling, particularly when the student can write a Europen language. For example the German speaker who can spell Hand in German should have little difficulty spelling hand in English; the French speaker who can spell *air* and *nation* in French should be able to spell *air* and *nation* in English. Often the relations between systems of spelling in two languages are less direct, but could be used in spelling instruction. For example, the Spanish speaker who

piece of writing evolves, while dictation is a well known example of integrating listening with writing. The teacher can also use writing to provide a break for himself as it is difficult to maintain an unflagging pace throught lesson after lesson in which both studnts and teacher are constantly active.

The teacher may also use writing as a testing device, not necessarily to grade the students, but rather to provide feedback on what the strudents have learned. A written exercise or a composition will be completed without the potential distraction and hidden prompting which can occur with spoken language practice, while the teacher also has the opportunity of reading and marking the work in relative tranquility. Student writing can provide useful evidence of successes and failures in learning, of confusions, and errors, and the teacher can diagnose individual as well as general problems on the basis of such written work.

Finally, writing requires thought, discipline, and concentration. Writing involves committing something to a relatively permanent form. It is a record by which we are judged by whoever reads what we have written (Raimes, 1983). Quite apart from matters such as handwriting, spelling, and grammar, our reader will judge us by style and the content and logic of what we have written. So writing demands care thought. For this reason alone it merits a place in the syllabus (Kroll, 2001).

Levels of Writing

Rivers (Rivers and Temperley, 1978) and Chastain (1988) have both claimed that there are different stages in writing. In Iran where English is taught as a foreign language it is also possible to pose four stages in teaching writing.

Stage1:

This is the very beginning stage and the learner should learn how to form the letters in the alphabetic system. The next stage is for the learner to learn to copy or teanscribe familiar words or phrases and reproduce some from memory. He should be able to write simple fixed expressions, to wirte names, numbers, dates, mationality, and other simple autobiographical information as well as some short phrases and simple lists. At this stage the learner needs to learn about penmanship.

Stage2:

The second stage starts with the learner being able to meet limited practical writing needs. The material the learner produces consists of learned vocabulary and structures organized in simple sentences. The student can answer reading comprehension questions in short sentnces, the content of which is taken from the text. He can unscramble sentences and combine them to scope of limited language experience. The learner should learn to wirte short messages, postcards, and take down simple notes, such as telephone messages.

The Writing skill

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Teaching and
Learning in
Close-up
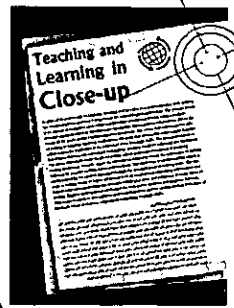
Introduction

As one of the four skills, writing has traditionally occupied a place in most English language syllabuses. Even so, arguments are sometimes put forward for not teaching studetns to write because it is felt htat a command of the spoken language and of reading is more important. For many students, this may be true, but today, given the importance of English as an international language, more people need to learn to wirte in English for occupational or academic purposes. Thus in terms of student needs, writing may be seen to occupy an equal position side along the other language skills (Harmer, 2004).

There are other reashons why writing merits a place in the language syllabus. To begin with, writing remains the commonest way of examining student performance in English. Virtually all public examinations include a composition, while even gap-filling tests require some competence in the written language. Consequently, the ability to wirte remains a key to examination success (Brown, 2001). Furthermore, in the eyes of both parents and students, ability to write may be associated with evidence of having learned the language. Writing is tangible, parents and students can see what has been done and what has been achieved. So it has high "face validity".

In the classroom, writing may be used as one of the techniques to add variety and interest to the lesson. In addition, writing lends itself to integration with other activites in the classroom; thus, a reading activity may lead into discussion from which a

Teaching and Learning in Close-up
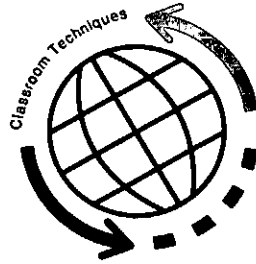
In spite of its crucial role in language learning and its value as a communicative skill, writing has not received the attention it deserves in the school English curriculum. The present article is an attempt to introduce some of the complexities of teaching writing using a product-oriented approach which is deemed more appropriate than a process-oriented one due to the nature of the goals set for English education in schools. The writer first introduces the role of writing in language learning emphasizing the point that writing has some unique features which cannot be duplicated in the context of other language skills. The recommendation is that if these features are capitalized on language learning would be enhanced and facilitated. The writer then shifts to the levels of writing which need to be considered in planning writing instruction. At early stages the students are helped to master the mechanics of writing followed by practice writing at the sentence level. The third stage is guided writing which is characterized by the control exercised through the structure given to writing tasks. The last stage is writing freely on topics of interest with an emphasis on organizing information in a logical order and considering the elements which give unity and coherence to every piece of writing. English spelling poses challenges for both native speakers and language learners. This issues is taken up in a separate section followed by another section dealing with issue of feedback which is of prime importance in teaching language skills.

نگاه نزدیک به آموزش و یادگیری

با وجود نقش کلیدی مهارت «نوشتن» در روند یادگیری زبان خارجی، این مهارت در برنامه‌ی درسی مدارس به اندازه‌ی کافی مورد توجه قرار نگرفته است. مقاله‌ی حاضر تلاشی است در جهت معرفی بعضی از پیچیدگی‌های تدریس این مهارت از منظر رویکرد «محصول محور» که به نظر می‌رسد، در مقایسه با رویکرد «فرایند محور»، با اهداف برنامه‌ی درسی تناسب بیشتری دارد.

نویسنده ابتدا نقش مهارت نوشتن را در یادگیری زبان خارجی مطرح و بر این نکته تأکید می‌کند که مهارت نوشتن از مشخصه‌های ویژه‌ای برخوردار است که اگر به درستی به کار گرفته شوند، یادگیری زبان تقویت و آسان خواهد شد. نویسنده سپس به سطوح متفاوت مهارت نوشتن اشاره می‌کند که توجه به آن‌ها در طراحی تدریس این مهارت ضروری است. در مراحل اولیه‌ی تدریس، یادگیری چگونه نوشتن اهمیت دارد که می‌باید در ادامه با فراهم ساختن فرصت تمرین، چگونه نوشتن در چارچوب جمله تقویت شود. مرحله‌ی سوم به نوشتن هدایت شده اختصاص دارد که با اعمال کنترل از طریق سازمان دادن به فعالیت‌های نوشتاری مشخص می‌شود. مرحله‌ی آخر به نوشتن آزاد اختصاص دارد که در آن، زبان‌آموزان سازمان‌دهی اطلاعات را در قالب نوشته‌ای منسجم تمرین می کنند. در مقاله بخش خاصی به املا اختصاص یافته است تا بر اهمیت این چالش در روند یادگیری تأکید شود. نحوه‌ی دادن بازخورد به زبان‌آموزان، موضوع دیگری است که در بخش نهایی مقاله به آن پرداخته شده است.

materials and experiences that are more relevant to the particular needs of the students of that particular district. The outcomes of classroom research or action research are especially suitable to be published in such journals because they are reflective of the particular needs and problems of the students in that area.

Weblogs can also provide an inexpensive, useful, and easy-to-use opportunity for language teachers to publish their experiences and problems, reflect on them, and interact with other colleagues.

● Peer Coaching

Peer coaching which is based on the three-phase model of planing- observation-feedback "is a systematic process of collaboration in which one teacher observes and gives feedback to another teacher, usually with some form of reciprocity" (Brown, 2001, p. 441). Pairs of teachers, who have been trained to do so, visit each other's calasses and then provide feedback and comment on their peer's teaching. This technique is mostly useful for teachers who need to learn new ways of language teaching or to implement new language learning and teaching practices in their classroom and want another expert in the field to observe their performance.

Conclusion

Professional development has become increasingly important as a way to ensure that teachers have been successful in matching their teaching goals with their students' learning needs. In the case of foreign language teachers, professional development is needed to enable them to help their students develop proficiency in the target language and prepare language learners with the types of skills and competences that are mostly in line with their particular, immediate and long-term needs.

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finally reporting the results. She suggests that teachers should start with small, achievable projects, those that are related to their daily classroom issues; for instance, how to increase student participation in classs, or how to get students motivated. After gaining enough experience and confidence, teachers can move on to larger and more complicated research projects.

Modern approaches to second and foreign language teaching demand every teacher to assess his or her own classroom and to design instrumental techniques that work best under those particular conditions, for those particular learners, and following particular goals (Brown, 2001). In other words, the teacher is the only person who can diagnose his or her classroom's problems. Action research is generally carried out not to fulfill a thesis requirement or to publish a journal article but rather to improve our understanding of the teaching-learning process in the classroom. Nunan (1989) categorizes four areas which can best be studied through classroom research by language teachers: the developmental features of learner language, interaction in the second language, classroom tasks and learning strategies.

In general, it can be concluded that action research is the best way available to teachers for professional development. By doing classroom research or action research, teachers are able to solve problems that are unique to their own classrooms, deepen their understanding of the learning-teaching processes, and

enhance their professional competence.

2. Teachers' Collaboration

Professional development is a process is a process that can hardly be accomplished alone. What can we do in order to help ourselves and our colleagues in our quest for excellence? Teaching a foreign language is such a challenging and rapidly-changing discipline that professional development should necessarily be carried out in collaboration with other peers. Below are three collaborative strategies through which language teachers can help each other and themselves in the way of professional enhancement:

● *Study Groups*

Study groups involve a group of teachers who gather formally or informally to discuss some of their pedagogical issues and problems. Curricular issues, lesson plans, teaching tips, evaluation and assessment, professional development literature and strategies and even students' behavioral problems are among the most common issues that can be examined in study groups. Study groups are suitable for teachers who need a better understanding of knowledge in the field of language and language leaning and teaching and those who want to develop a more reflective approach to their teaching or their students' learning. These meetings also provide opportunities for language teachers to interact in the language they are teaching.

● *Local Journals and Weblogs*

Language teachers in a district can have their local journal and provide teaching

for language teachers to select, plan, carry out and evaluate the professional development activities according to their needs. When teachers have the chance to participate collaboratively in the creation and implementation of professional development activities, they develop ownership over the learning process and their learning is more likely to promote students' success.

Pettis (2002) emphasizes three important areas in professional growth of language teachers: first, to be professional, teachers must constantly update their knowledge about language and language learning. They should also be able to transform their knowledge into practice. Second, teachers' professional needs and interests should change as they progress through their career. Finally, professional development requires personal commitment and choice. Unless the teacher himself or herself is willing to grow professionally and accomplish excellence, even the best in-service courses and workshops are useless.

Richards and Farrell (2003) also propose ten different techniques for the development of professional competence in language teachers. These teachniques include: self-monitoring (reflecting on one's own teaching process), support groups, journal writing, classroom observation (one's own or other peers' classes), teaching portfolios (writing freely about our teaching processes), analysis of critical teaching and learning incidents (individually or collaboratively in study groups), case study, peer coaching (a type of observation which will be explained in detail below), team teaching, and action research.

Many teachers change their professional lives by attending in-service training programs and workshops, by studying for higher teaching qualifications, or by continuing their studies through getting an MA in TEFL or linguistics. Although such formal training offers opportunities for promotion, more tangible, practical techniques are needed to help language teachers' growth and enhancement. Below are some of the most useful and practical strategies that can make development more attainable for language teachers.

1. Action Research

Action research or classroom research involves a teacher or groups of colleagues involved in diagnosing a situation, reflecting on that diagnosis, and planning and carrying out an intervention in order to improve the current situation. Taylor (2002) indentifies classroom research as an important way for teachers to develop their professionalism. Teachers can develop a deeper understanding of what goes on in their classroom and this can in turn become the basis for improving their instructional practice. She identifies the major stages of action research as generating a meaningful research question, finding out what other people have found about the intended problem, collecting, analyzing, and interpreting the data and

are accustomed to a specified syllabus and method and students are also happy with it". Ur (1996, p.317) contrasts teachers "with twenty years' experience and those with one year's experience repeated twenty times".

After so many years of second and foreign language learning and teaching, it is now strongly believed that "the teacher is the ultimate key to educational change and school improvement" (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992, p. ix). In post-method pedagogy, teachers are not regarded as the mere practitioners of others' throries. But rather, they are explorers the same way that their learners are (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Teachers should be able to construct their own theories of practice according to the particular context of their classroom, particular students, particular goals and particular socio-cultural environment (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). In other words, teachers can redefine the curriculum and its content, and interpret and transform the curriculum in a way that makes learning more manageable for the learner. As Richards and Renandya (2002, p. 358) state "it is what teachers think and do at the classroom level that eventually determines what learners learn in the classroom."

Considering this key role of the teacher, it is essential that teachers develop constantly not only their knowledge of the subject matter, but also their knowledge of pedagogy. Hence, the issue of professional growth is highly important and critical especially for language teachers. Development may be regarded as a move from our fixed teaching rules and priniples or as a way of challenging what we have taken for granted. It may involve using new ideas or changing the way we use old ones. It may involve investigating something that confuses us or that we do not know about.

> Professional development should include an ongoing, individualized and/or choral process during which teachers try to adjust their knowledge and skills with students' needs

But in all these approaches, our intention is not only to improve our own performance, but also to learn more about teaching and learning (Harmer, 2001). In general, all teachers should involve themselves in a lifelong developing of their professional competence. As Pettis (2002) proposes it is our professional responsibility to continually undertake a wide range of activities to improve our teaching competence.

Ways to Improve Professional Competence

Participant involvement and personal choice are key characteristics of successful professional development programs and activities. Although traditional professional development strategies like one-shot workshops or in-service courses can be useful for delivering information, they are limited regarding the type of opportunities they provide for teachers for transferring theoretical knowledge to effective classroom practices. Rather, efficient professional development provides opportunities

Introduction

How can language teachers be sure that they are doing the best they can do? It is mostly convincing to be satisfied with an everyday routine in teaching. For many, the term "professional development" is limited to in-service courses and workshops which they usually regard as useless and a waste of time. To others, it is synonymous with continuing their studies (for example getting an MA degree) (Brown, 2001). But in this paper, professional development is defined as "an ongoing learning process in which teachers engage voluntarily to learn how best to adjust their teaching to the learning needs of their students" (Diaz-Maggioli, 2003, p.1). Professional development is not a one-shot, inclusive event, but rather an evolving process of reflection and growth.

Today, foreign language teachers require a combination of competencies and skills which may not be predicted by teacher education programs thoroughly. As well as having to demonstrate different educational competencies, foreign language teachers need to be highly proficient in all modalities of the foreign language (speaking, listening, reading, and writing). They should be able to use the language in real-life contexts, have a great command of formal aspects of the target language like grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and spelling and be familiar with different techniques and the latest innovations in the foreign language teaching and learning field (Met, 1989).

Considering the diversity of the competencies that foreign language teachers should have and also the rapid changes in the field of foreign language teaching, it can be understood why the issue of professional development is of critical importance for language teachers. This article to identify the experiences that language teachers need for developing those competencies and to present the resources that are available to help them in their professional development.

Teacher as Lifelong Learner

Just as every EFL learning realizes the fact that learning English is a possibly lifelong and ongoing process, so are language teachers, both as a teacher and a learner, aware of the fact that professional development is long-term and permanent. At the beginning of each academic year, many language teachers decide to devote more time to their students, modify some of their teaching techniques and abandon some others completely, develop their knowledge about English language, language teaching and learning processes, spend more time with other language teachers and try to make more use of their experiences, knowledge and attitudes.

On the other hand, some other teachers may not bother their minds about these issues. For this group, each academic year is just the repetition of what has gone before in previous years after a lazy summer. This second group stagnates in an unchanging orbit because it is the easiest way possible. Some of their usual comments are: "there is no room for change because students will resist it" or "we

How Can Language Teachers Develop Their Proffessional Competence?

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چکیده: معلمان زبان انگلیسی باید دارای مهارت‌ها و دانش فراوانی در رشته‌ی خود باشند. به نظر می‌رسد روش‌های گذشته و معلمان سنت‌گرا دیگر نمی‌توانند جوابگوی نیازهای به سرعت در حال تغییر دانش‌آموزان باشند. اما معلمان زبان چگونه می‌توانند خود را با نیازهای متغیر فراگیران وفق دهند؟ پاسخ این سؤال ارتقای حرفه‌ای یا ارتقای شغلی است. ارتقای حرفه‌ای تنها با مفاهیمی مانند دوره‌های ضمن خدمت و یا کارگروه‌های آموزشی محدود نمی‌شود؛ بلکه علاوه بر موارد بالا می‌توان آن را فرایندی دائمی، انفرادی یا جمعی به‌شمار آورد که از طریق آن معلمان می‌کوشند تا دانش و مهارت‌های خود را با نیازهای دانش‌آموزان تطبیق دهند. اقدام‌پژوهی، گروه‌های مطالعاتی، و آموزش متقابل همکاران از جمله راهکارهای ارائه شده است که می‌تواند معلمان را در راه کسب مهارت حرفه‌ای یاری بخشد.

کلید واژه‌ها: ارتقای حرفه‌ای، دانش حرفه‌ای، اقدام‌پژوهی، گروه‌های مطالعاتی، آموزش متقابل همکاران، آموزش معلمان زبان انگلیسی، آموزش معلمان

Abstract

Foreign language teaching has become a challenging task in today's world. Language teachers should be equipped with different competencies and skills because their students have access to different and varying sources of development. It seems that students' needs have elevated from what traditional views to language teaching have predicted. How can English language teachers adjust themselves with the changing needs of their students in today's world? The answer is in professional development. Professional development is not limited to getting higher degrees or attending in-service courses and workshops. In addition to including such concepts, professional development should include an ongoing, individualized and/or choral process during which teachers try to adjust their knowledge and skills with students' needs. Some techniques and activities including action research, study groups, and peer coaching are most useful in helping language teachers in their quest for professional competence.

Key Words: professional competence, professional development, action research, study groups, peer coaching, teacher education, foreign language teacher.

to produce the features in a controlled context. For the most part C-R is seen as an innovative approach that is a part of task-based language teaching (Skehan, 1996; Willis J et al, 1996) and challenges the traditional grammar instruction (Ellis, 2004).

We can perhaps draw one cautious conclusion: to the degree that C-R activities de-emphasize forms of productive practice, students may indeed be expected to respond negatively to classrooms where consciousness raising is the sole means of grammar instruction, since they come to class expecting opportunities to use what they have learned and may feel frustrated if these are not provided.

We might consider, for example, a combination of approaches: a teacher introduces a new linguistic form via a C-R approach and reinforces it with productive practice exercises. This, as you might have noted, is thought to be what many teachers already do. An alternative might be to use practice exercises for revision in subsequent lessons.

Perhaps one way to think about consciousness raising, is not as a blueprint for a new paradigm of grammar teaching, but rather as one more very useful tool we can add to our toolboxes.

Notes

1. Richards et. al define the teachability hypothesis as "the idea that the teachability of language is constrained by what the learner is ready to acquire. Instruction can only promote acquisition if the interlanguage is close to the point the structure to be taught is learnable without instruction in natural settings".

2. Source: http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/asia-pacific/4153473.stm BC News

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Aid agencies have called on Jakarta to set up official camps which meet international standards of hygiene, and the government said on Friday that dozens of such camps would be operational within a week. The camps will be a start, but it will take years before things return to normal.

How were by, in, and on used? Write the number next to the difinition.

1. Through the agency or action of: *was killed by a bullet.* ☐
2. With the use or help of; through: *We came by the back road.* ☐
3. Within the limits, bounds, or area of: *was hit in the face; born in the spring; a chair in the garden.* ☐
4. From the outside to a point within; into: *threw the letter in the wastebasket.* ☐
5. Used to indicate location at or along: *the pasture on the south side of the river* ☐
6. Used to indicate occurrence at a given time: *on July third* ☐
7. Part of the idiom: *turn on, stand by, fill in* ☐

This activity is similar to an 'interpretation task' (Ellis, 2004) in that it "obligate(s) learners to process a specific feature in oral or written input." and is typical of C-R in that it does not require that learners produce the target.

Conclusion and Implications

The ultimate goal of teaching grammar is to provide the students with knowledge of the way language is constructed so that when they listen,

> The purpose of C-R activities is to provide learners with activities which encourage them to think about samples of language and draw their own conclusion about how the language works

speak, read and write, they have no trouble applying the language that they are learning. Language teachers are, therefore, challenged to use creative and innovative attempts to teach grammar so that such a goal can successfully be achieved. Using C-R activities to teach grammar, I think, is an example of such innovative attempts which I believe is worth considering.

It implies that learners should be aware of the structure, but not expected to produce accurate sentences using the structure. The long term advantage of C-R is that learners will internalize the knowledge of the structure when they are internally ready.

The use of C-R activities can help students develop an ability to form their own hypotheses about grammar in the process of learning, and can be considered as a good facilitator of language acquisition. According to Dave & Jane Willis (1996) the benefits of C-R activities are that they 'encourage students to observe and analyze language for themselves'. The proponents of the use of C-R activities in teaching grammar argue that students who are aware of a grammatical feature are more likely to notice it when they subsequently encounter it, hence they suggest that teachers should focus more on raising students' consciousness of the grammatical features than their ability

pedagogical device to direct learners' attention to specific L2/FL forms while they are communicating in the L2/FL. Such a linguistic focus can be achieved by designing a task so that the productive or receptive use of certain target structures is *natural, facilitative or necessary* for task completion (Eckerth, 2008).

The purpose of C-R tasks is to help learners gain explicit knowledge about a feature, and it is believed that explicit knowledge aids the acquisition of grammar. Ellis (2004) defines a C-R task as a task that engages learners in thinking and communicating about language, and so C-R tasks make language itself a task. Ellis (2004) believes that the 'taskness' of C-R tasks lies not in the linguistic point that is the focus of the task but rather in the talk learners must engage in order to achieve the outcome of the task. In C-R tasks, althougth there is some linguistic feature that is the focus of the task, learners are not required to use this feature, only to think about it and discuss it (Ellis, 2004), and so C-R tasks provide opportunities for the learners to engage in communication via discussions about the grammatical feature.

A Sample C-R Activity

This activity was a focus on form follow-up to a jigsaw reading task, and took place in two stages. Learners first read an authentic text describing Kofi Annan's visit to Aceh, Indonesia, the area worst affected by the tsunami, and numbered the prepositions '*by*', '*in*', and '*on*' in the text. The next stage involved them comparing the usages in the text with definitions and example sentences of several different usages of '*by*', '*in*', and '*on*' found underneath the taxt. Learners simply needed to place the number of the proposition within the text into a box next to the definitions and example sentences found below the text:

Mr Annan said he was "shocked" by the devastation, having toured the west coast of Aceh by helicopter. "It's a tragic event. We've seen miles and miles of destroyed shoreline", he told reporters in the western town of Meulaboh. He said Meulaboh, which was particularly badly hit by the earthquake and tsunami, was beginning to get back on its feet but that it was still in dire need of support. "There we saw people begin to pick up the pieces and get on with their lives and of course it shows about the resilience of the human spirit. And I believe that in time, given the support and efforts by the government and the international community, the people will be able to pick up and carry on."

For the moment, much of the survivors' rehabilitation is taking place in informal refugee camps as aid workers have only managed to so far bring a limited amount to Meubaloh, and have not yet reached other communities on the west coast. UN emergency relief co-ordinator Jan Egeland said that there may by some 200 improvised camps in Aceh, with hundreds of thousands of people in them.

an intellectual effort to understand the feature

● deliberate attempt to involve the learner in hypothesizing about the target structure

● the clarification in the form of further data and description in case there is misunderstanding or incomplete understanding of the feature

● the possibility that students articulate the rule describing the feature

As is clear, in this framework there is no requirement for the students to produce the targeted feature and the aim is to promote some kind of awareness with the intention of promoting explicit knowledge which will be integrated to the learner's interlanguage when the learners are ready developmentally.

According to Ellis (2002) the acquisition of explicit knowledge involves:

● noticing (the learner becomes conscious of the presence of the linguistic feature in the input)

● comparing (the learner compares the linguistic feature noticed in the input with her mental grammar, registering the gap between the input and her grammar)

● integrating (the learner integrate a representation of the new feature into her mental grammar)

Ellis (2002) believes that C-R activities contribute to the processes of noticing and comparing and results in explicit knowledge (see also Ellis, 2004) and may contribute to the process of integration only when the learner is developmentally ready. That

is to say, if L2/FL learners have explicit knowledge of a certain feature of the L2/FL, they are more likely to notice its occurrence in the communicatively embedded input they receive. Explicit knowledge of this sort may then make it easier for them to carry out "cognitive comparisons" between their internal interlanguage norms and the target norms exemplified by the available input, or indeed via feedback. So it is not so much the explicit knowledge *per se* which contributes to second language acquisition. It rather initiates a process which starts with the detection of L2/FL features (Echerth, 2008) This suggests that formal instruction should be targeted at explicit rather then implicit knowledge because, while formal instruction may affect the acquisition of simple grammatical structure / structures that the student is developmentally ready for, it is difficult to determine when the student is ready to learn that structure. Instruction should also be aimed at making the students aware of the structure so that they are able to monitor it and correct their own errors; they do not necessarily have to be able to use the structure immediately. The most effective approach to grammar teaching is to focus on awareness raising rather than practice (Fotos and Ellis, 1991 cited in Ellis 2004).

Consciousness Raising in Task-based Language Teaching

Within the framework of task-based language learning and teaching (TBLT), form-focused tasks are used as a

about grammar and being able to explain the rules. Because implicit knowledge is acquired much more slowly and is tied to a student's internal syllabus, explicit knowledge is much easier to teach and should be the target (Ellis, 2004).

What is the connection between explicit and implicit knowledge? Are they distinct or does one change into the other? Ellis and Fotos (1991 cited in Ellis 2004) believe in a relationship somewhere between these two perspectives. Their position is based on studies that have investigated the role of formal instruction on the acquisition of grammatical knowledge. There are psycholinguistic constraints that determine whether attempts to teach certain grammar rules result in implicit knowledge. If the students are in the appropriate stage in development where they are ready to process the structure it will be successful. It will not succeed if they are not at the right stage.

Also, practice will not overcome the students' internal syllabus. There is no research that shows having students practice the target structure results in implicit knowledge and, formal instruction aimed at difficult grammatical structures does not change performance in spontaneous language use. However, Ellis and Fotos (1991) do believe formal instruction helps to promote L2/FL acquisition and ultimately promotes higher levels of L2/FL achievement. They have found formal instruction works best in promoting acquisition when accompanied by opportunities to use the language, and

that it is effective in developing explicit knowledge of grammatical structures. Also, it is possible that direct instruction targeted at simple structures will be successful in developing implicit knowledge because simple structures do not require the mastery of complex processing operations. In support of this, Ellis (2002) states that the way formal instruction works, is by developing explicit knowledge of a grammatical structure, which helps the learner acquire implicit knowledge.

Explicit knowledge leads to acquisition in two ways. The first one is that knowing about a structure helps the learner notice the feature during input and therefore to acquire it as implicit knowledge. However, it doesn't become implicit knowledge until the students are ready to integrate it into their interlanguage system, which is determined by their internal syllabus. Secondly, explicit knowledge can be used to construct planned utterances; for example, when a student has time to think about what they are going to say. Formal instruction can increase knowledge while not contributing directly to implicit knowledge of specific structures (see Ellis 2002).

Ellis (2002) characterizes C-R activities as follows:
- an attempt to isolate a specific feature for focused attention
- the provision of data which illustrate the targeted feature and provision of an explicit rule describing the feature
- the requirement that learner undertake

the PPP aproach using practice (e.g drills). Consciousness-raising activities constitute activities which attempt to equip the learners with an understanding of a specific grammatical feature. Dave Willis and Jane Willis (1996) state that the purpose of C-R activities is to provide learners with activities which encourage them to think about samples of language and draw their own conclusion about how the language works. A language learning program, says Ellis (2002), "should seek to draw out learners' conscious attention to problematic grammatical features, not with the expectancy that they would master these features and use them in communication immediately: but, rather, the expectancy would be that they learn what it is that they have ultimately to master".

There are a variety of ways in which C-R might achieve this. Willis and Willis (1996) list seven categories of consciousness-raising activity types:

- identify and consolidate patterns or usages;
- classifying items according to their semantic or structural characteristics;
- hypothesis building, based on some language data, and then perhaps checked against more data;
- cross-language exploration;
- reconstruction and deconstruction;
- recall;
- reference training

Rather than production, teachers should aim only at drawing learners' attention to important features of the form under study

in other words, raising their consciousness. In C-R activities the learners are not expected to produce the target structure, but only to understand it by formulating some kind of cognitive representation of how it works (Ellis 1994). According to Ellis (2004) the desired outcome of a C-R task is awareness of how some linguistic features work.

Willis and Willis (1996) argue that the rationale for the use of C-R activities draws partly on the hypothesized role for explicit knowledge as facilitator for the acquisition of implicit knowledge. Bialystock (1978 cited in Ellis 1994) believes there are two types of knowledge: explicit and implicit. Implicit knowledge is intuitive; it is not consciously available. It is knowledge that we have but are unable to explain. For example native speakers are able to speak using grammatically correct structures but usually have trouble explaining why they use them. Implicit knowledge is knowing the rules that allow you to produce the grammar accurately in a conversational situation, but not necessarily being able to explain them. This knowledge is acquired gradually and is connected to the students' internal syllabus. Instructors should consider learner's developmental readiness when deciding whether a focus-on-form approach is appropriate in a given context.

Explicit knowledge is knowledge that is explainable. If they need to, learners are able to explain what they know. Having explicit knowledge of grammar is knowing

structures taught in such a way that they can be used in everyday communication (Ellis, 2002). In this view, a focused presentation stage is followed by practice activities which are designed in such a way to fulfill this requirement. In the production stage opportunities are provided for the learners to use language freely and flexibly to consolidate what is being taught (Skehan, 1996).

Skehan (1996) rejects such a view in teaching grammar due to the lack of the impressive evidence in support of such an approach as well as poor levels of attainment of the students, since according to Skehan (1996) students leave school with very little in the way of usable language. Dave Willis (1996) describes as a fallacy the idea that controlled practice leads to mastery of grammar.

A further attack on controlled practice has centered on studies which have demonstrated that it is impossible for the practicing of any particular grammatical item to lead to the acquisition of that item (see Ellis 1994). Ellis (2002) claims that research in the field is not encouraging for that supporters of practice. According to Ellis (2002) studies which have investigated whether practicing a specific structure results in its acquisition provide evidence to suggest that practice does not result in the autonomous ability to use the structure. Ellis (2002) cites several studies which suggest that practicing of different features does not result in their acquisition.

There are, in fact, authors who support the use of practice in the grammar teaching

process. DeCarrico and Larsen-Freeman (2002) for example, argue that since language is a skill, overt productive skill is needed. They, however, believe that this practice must be meaningful, in such away that students are required to engage in a communicative task where it is necessary to use certain structures to complete it. Nunan (1999) puts forward the idea that in order to maximize the effects of grammar instruction, learners need opportunities to use the structures they are learning in communication interaction.

The effect of practice activities has been questioned (see for example Ellis 2002 and Ellis (1994). Ellis (2004), however, believes that practice activities may help learners to automatize forms that they have not full control over. Nunan (1999) cites a study by Montgomery and Eisenstein (1985) which supported the idea that opportunities to practice the language in communicative activity was important for language acquisition.

The review of the literature reveals the fact that using practice activities in teaching grammar does not live up to the expectations and a reconsideration of the approaches to grammar teaching is needed.

Teaching Grammar through Consciousness Raising activities

Consciousness raising, like many innovations in ELT, originated from dissatisfaction with ideas that preceded it; Namely dissatisfaction with the outcome of the grammar teaching through

production activities (e.g. repetition drills). Next, the learners are given practice activities which allow them to "gain confidence" with the new language, while still focusing on form instead of meaning. Finally, in the production stage, control is relaxed in "free practice" activities which prompt the learners to engage in meaningful exchanges via tasks which elicit use of the target form (see Ellis, 1994).

Ellis (2002) identified a number of features of language practice as follows:
- there is some attempt to isolate specific grammatical features
- learners are required to produce sentences containing the target structure
- the learners will be provided with opportunities for repetition of the targeted feature
- there is expectancy that the learners will perform the grammatical feature correctly
- the learners will receive feedback on their performance of the grammatical feature (see also Ellis, 2004).

In this PPP approach, it is believed that practice will result in implicit knowledge (see below), and it is generally accepted that practice can facilitate accuracy and fluency. In this regard, accuracy focuses on correct use of language (for example, rules of language). This can be achieved through controlled and semi-controlled activities or practice of grammar, for example. In fluency, after learners have mastered the rules of language, they are required to apply the rules of language in the form of

spoken or written language fluently.

PPP has enjoyed, and still enjoys today, great popularity among teachers and teacher trainers but it has come under heavy criticism recently. The basis of much of this criticism is the notion that an important gap exists between teaching and learning. Students may be able to demonstrate a good grasp of a particular form during classroom activities but later, when once again operating under the pressure of real-time communication, they no longer exhibit the same control. Theories for the origin of this gap center on the idea of the internal syllabus, the natural order of acquisition of linguistic structures which people must go through when learning a language. PPP is seen as an attempt to ignore or contravene this natural order. Furthermore, Ellis (2002) believes teachability[1] hypothesis is one of the strong theoretical explanations for the failure of practice in promoting acquisition (see Ellis, 2002 & DeCarrico, et al, 2002). This hypothesis states that learners cannot be taught structures they are not ready to acquire.

Another major flaw in PPP, some claim, is its excessive emphasis on productive practice. Asking students to use new grammar immediately may not only be unnecessary but "counterproductive, in that it may distract attention away from the brain work involved in understanding and restructuring" of the learner's interlanguage (Thornbury, 1999).

The main purpose for using practice activities is to help learners internalize

Abstract

Grammar teaching has always been one of the most controversial issues in English Language Teaching (ELT), and views of grammar teaching have changed over the years, However, the common consensus is that the so called focus on form activities do play a role in language acquisition. The traditional approach to grammar teaching is PPP: Presentation, Practice, Production, but the research in the field has demonstrated the shortcommings of this approach. The prevailing view today is that students must notice what they are to learn. The 'noticing' is accomplished through the activities known as "Consciousness Raising" or briefly C-R activities. The implication is that learners should be aware of the structure, but not expected to produce accurate sentences using the structure. The long term advantage of C-R is that learners will internalize the knowledge of the structure when they are internally ready. This article tries to present an overview of the rationale behind the use of C-R activities in teaching grammar.

Key Words: consciousness raising, internal syllabus, explicit knowledge, implicit knowledge, noticing.

Introduction

Grammar teaching has always been one of the most controversial issues in English Language Teaching (ELT), and views of grammar teaching have changed over the years. Some authors like Krashen (1982) deny the role of teaching in the acquisition of grammatical features (cited in Ellis, 2002), while others like Ellis (2002) argue that grammar teaching aids L2/FL grammar acquisition. Ellis maintains that the formal grammar teaching has a delayed rather than immediate effect on language acquisition; However, the common consensus is that the so called focus on form activities do play a role in language acquisition (see Ellis 1994).

The traditional approach to grammar teaching is PPP: Presentation, Practice, Production, but the research in the field has demonstrated the shortcomings of this approach.

The prevailing view today is that students must notice what they are to learn.

The 'noticing' is accomplished through "consciousness raising" activities or briefly C-R activities. It implies that learners should be aware of the structure, but not expected to produce accurate sentences using the structure. The long term advantage of C-R is that learners will internalize the knowledge of the structure when they are internally ready. This article tries to present an overview of the rationale behind the use of C-R activities in teaching grammar.

Teaching Grammar through Practice

The traditional approach to grammar teaching is PPP which signifies the "presentation, practice, production" sequence for organizing activities in a lesson. In a PPP lesson, the teacher introduces a new linguistic form to learners via a focused presentation, which often includes contextualization of the new form, a deductive explanation or "elicitation" of how it works, and some tightly controlled

Teaching Grammar
through Consciousness Raising Activities

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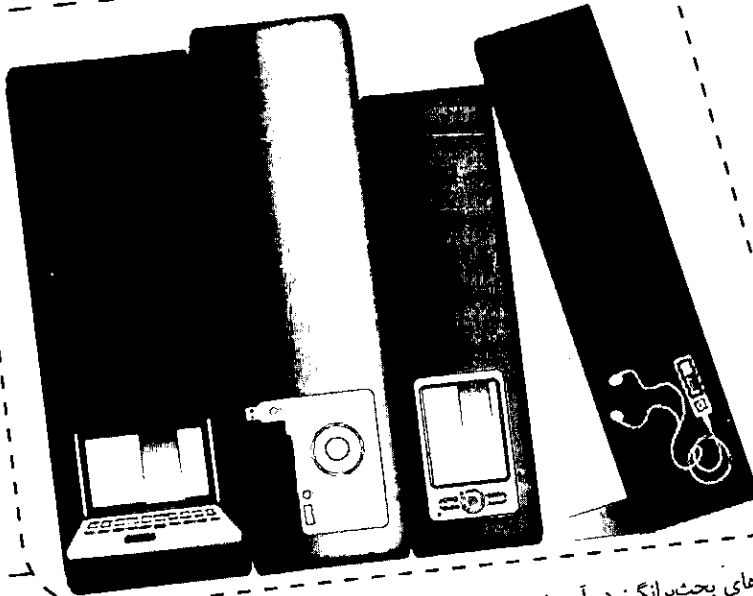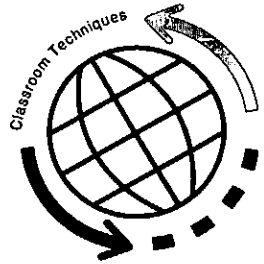
چکیده

تدریس دستور زبان (گرامر) همیشه یکی از مسئله‌های بحث‌برانگیز در آموزش زبان انگلیسی و تدریس گرامر در طول سالیان تغییر کرده است. صاحب نظرانی همچون کراشن (Krashen) نقش آموزش در فراگیری گرامر مؤثر است. با وجود این دیگران مانند الیس (Ellis) معتقدند که آموزش در فراگیری گرامر را رد کرده‌اند. در صورتی که فراگیری گرامر نقش مهمی را بازی می‌کند.

از نظر سنتی، آموزش گرامر مبتنی بر روش PPP (Presentaion, Practice, Production) استوار بوده است. آموزش در PPP معلم ابتدا یک ساختار را برای دانش‌آموزان معرفی می‌کند که معمولاً شامل توضیح استقرایی (deductive) است؛ سپس به دانش‌آموزان فرصتی برای تمرین ساختار موردنظر می‌دهد که این تمرین غالباً در قالب تکرار و Drills می‌باشد. نهایتاً در مرحله‌ی تولید، از دانش‌آموزان انتظار می‌رود بتوانند ساختار موردنظر را در قالب جملاتی استفاده کنند و مخصوصاً انتظار می‌رود دانش‌آموزان ساختار موردنظر را به درستی (accurately) و عاری از خطاهای ساختاری استفاده نمایند. امروزه نقص‌های این روش آشکار شده و مطالعات نشان می‌دهد که تدریس ساختارها با روش PPP منجر به فراگیری ساختار موردنظر نمی‌شود.

فعالیت‌هایی با عنوان بالا بردن آگاهی (Consciousness Raising) ایجاد می‌شود. این توجه با استفاده از امروزه باور عمومی بر این است که به منظور فراگیری نکات گرامری، فراگیران باید به نکات موردنظر توجه کنند. این توجه با استفاده از واکنش نوگرا به نارضایتی از نتیجه‌ی تدریس مبتنی بر روش PPP بوده و شامل فعالیت‌هایی است که از طریق آن‌ها سعی می‌شود سطح آگاهی دانش‌آموزان را از ساختارهای دستوری مختلف زبان هدف (target language) افزایش داده و دانش‌آموزان را به تفکر درباره‌ی نمونه‌های (samples) زبان وادار کنند. در این روش بر آگاهی از چگونگی کارکرد ساختار موردنظر تأکید می‌شود و از دانش‌آموزان توقع نمی‌رود که بلافاصله ساختار موردنظر را به درستی و دقیق تولید کنند. باور بر این است تدریس مبتنی بر C-R منجر به دانش صریح (explicit) می‌شود که می‌تواند به عنوان تسهیل‌کننده‌ی فراگیری دانش تلویحی عمل کند.

در این مقاله سعی بر این بوده است تا بررسی اجمالی درباره‌ی توجیه استفاده از فعالیت‌های Consciousness Raising در تدریس گرامر ارائه شود.

کلید واژه‌ها: بالا بردن سطح آگاهی، دانش صریح، دانش تلویحی، برنامه‌ی آموزشی درونی، متوجه شدن.

audio-lingual based textbook in a setting where he cannot change the textbook due to institutional regulations. Suppose further that this textbook does not meet the learners' needs and interests. It is thus the teacher's role to present the contents of this book in a way that interests the learners or accompany it with optional activities which whould be useful to the learners' real-life events. This is the true meaning of bringing about curricular innovations tailored to the learners' needs and interests.

Summary and Conclusion

This paper was an attempt to explore some of the most important principles of Rogerian humanistic psychology. It was argued that Rogerian psychology is phenomenological, i.e. it emphasizes that people perceive the world differently and that each person possesses a world of private experince. The conclusion drawn from this phenomenological perspective was that all individuals are essentially different from one another and this has a lot of instructional implications for both content teaching in general and language teaching in particular. It was suggested that language teachers who adopt a humanistic approach respect learners' need for silence, take learners' interest into account, and are willing to bring about curricular innovations.

Now how can we inform language teachers about all these issues? In my opinion, the best place to discuss them is

to incorporate them into the curriculum of teacher training programs. The curriculum of the majority of teacher training programs lacks a course in which novice teachers can become familiar with the "psychology" of their practice. It is hoped that by introducing such courses in the body of teacher training programs prospective teachers bring a fresh pair of eyes to their teaching practice.

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aware of the emotional aspects of teaching and learning. Therefore, they would have more respect for the learners' silence and privacy. A practical solution which seems to work for these reserved learners is to encourage them to speak in pairs or small groups with their peers (Harmer, 2007). The teacher could also have some brief counseling meetings with these learners after class to learn more about their problems. This is the true reflection of a Rogerian approach.

2. *Respecting learners' interests*: It is an admitted fact that matching tasks to individual learners' interests is a very difficult challenge for any teacher due to individual differences when it comes to learning (Cook, 2008). However, in adopting a humanistic approach to their teaching practice, teachers should note that learners have various testes and interests. Sometimes, it happens that the teacher's interest is in sharp contrast to that of a learner. As a result, the learner does not pursue the assigned task very seriously, which might be interpreted as carelessness or laziness on the side of the teacher. In many foreign language classes, it is common practice for teachers to give extensive reading tasks to learners. In some cases, it is the teacher who decides which novel should be read and what kind of follow-up activities should be done on it. This kind of decision making is not always met with positive feedback from the learners because many of them might not be interested in the novel selected by

> **All human beings - academically speaking all learners - have a tendency to be better than what they are, so the teacher should be viewed as someone who facilitates this process of self-improvement, i.e. learning**

the teacher. Perhaps some of them would like to be involved in extensive reading but they might be interested in reading popular magazines not classic novels. Teachers who are familiar with basic principles of humanistic psychology surely know that in order to promote learning, they need to be flexible and not impose their interests on their students.

3. *Curriculum innovations*: In addition to being flexible to learners' interests, the teacher with humanistic views should be willing to bring about innovative changes in the school curriculum. Teachers who are used to practicing traditionally always stick to the curriculum they have been assigned to teach without reflecting on what they are doing. What has been assigned and prescribed by the authorities does not necessarily mean that it is the best. In my opinion, in the Rogerian approach to education, all school and university curricula should be open to change and adaptation, and this can be done in the hands of innovative teachers. Suppose, for instance, a language teacher who is required to teach English through an

this respect, has made the following wise, thoughtfull observation:

Humanistic education starts with the idea that students are different, and it strives to help students become more like themselves and less like each other.

● *How Do Learners Differ?*

So far it has been repeatedly emphasized that learners are different from each other and that their individuality should be respected by the teacher. But how do our learners differ from each other? According to Kershmer (2000, p. 237) they differ in:

● Physical characteristics and abilities: e.g., age, health, appearance, etc.

● personal qualities: e.g., adaptability, determination, competitiveness, etc.

● emotions and motivation: e.g., responses to success and failure, self-esteem, anxiety, etc.

● social behavior: e.g., aggression, communication skills, etc.

● learning skills and strategies: e.g., memory, imagination, awareness and control of learning strategies, etc.

● knowledge, attitudes and opinions: e.g. breadth and detail of knowledge in different subject areas, strenght of opinion, interests, etc.

● environment and experiences: e.g., family relations, social calss, hobbies, ets.

How do all these findings relate to language teachers? Does Rogerian thinking have any implications or applications for foreign language classes? This issue will be examined in more depth below.

Responding to Students as Individuals in Language Classes

Respecting learners' individuality seems to be a recurrent theme in Rogerian humanistic approach to education. This view, for sure, has a number of implications for language teachers, which will improve their practice. Some of these implications are as follows.

1. *Respecting learner's need for silence*: Some learners, by nature, are quiet people. They usually do not talk very much. Some other learners prefer not to talk when everyone in the classroom is listening to and gazing at them. One of the most important skills to be developed in foreign language classes is the speaking skill. Obviously, the majority of the learners who attend foreign language classes wish to be able to speak the foreign language they are interested in. Some well-intentioned teachers, in this respect, put the learners under pressure to say something in the foreign language, without being aware that many of them still do not feel confident to speak in public. In this way, many of these teachers, unknowingly, create a stressful atmosphere in their classes. This situation becomes even worse at the time of final evaluation. The teacher fails these poor students simply because they were not active in the class and did not have enough class participation. The teacher who, however, are familiar with basic principles of Rogers's humanistic psychology would never act like this. These teachers are surely

methods of teaching. These methods of teaching, according to Curran (1976), are a threat to the personality of the learners. Blackboard exercises, oral quizzes, teacher-imposed lectures, etc. "move students to learn out of personal anxiety and/ or the fear of a low grade or some similar personal humiliation and embarrassment" (p. 15). Curran argues that in these classes students learn just for the sake of self-protection. He calls this experience of learning as "self-defensive". Thus, the second implication that the Rogerian philosophy has for instructional purposes is that the learning environment should be as relaxing as possible so that learners do not learn just for the sake of protecting their ego. This type of learning is ephemeral and hence not lifelong.

3. Teacher behavior should invite students to see themselves as valuable, responsible, worthwhile, and important people. In other words, teacher behavior should be inviting rather than disinviting (Purkey, 1984). The following samples are instances of disinviting behavior taken from Purkey.

● The teacher said I didn't want to learn, that I just wanted to cause trouble.

● The teaceher said to me in front of the whole class, "I really don't think you're that stupid!"

● I was a newcomer to another school. When I appeared at the teacher's doorway, he said, "Oh, no, not another one!"

● My name is Bill Dill, but the teacher always called me "Dill Pickle" and laughed.

Therefore, as can be seen from the above samples, disinvitation is often communicated to the child through teacher indifference and through failure to respond to students as people.

4. Every learning experince should be

> **Each human being possesses a world of private experience unique to himself or herself. This suggests that Rogerian theory is fundamentally phenomenological**

seen as a golden apportunity to help learners develop a sense of personal identity and relating that to realistic future goals. In other words, learning should be personalized as much as possible (Williams and Burden, 1997). This is a valuable guideline which suggests that teachers should respect the personal needs of each student.

5. The last implication from Rogers's philosophy is that teachers should empathize with their learners by getting to know them as individuals (Williams and Burden, 1997). In other words, teachers should try to understand how learners make sense of the world. This is in harmony with what was mentioned in the previous section of the paper. That is, each person's world is unique to him or her, and each individual's reality is something private. Therefore, it is the teacher's task to protect, respect and appreciate each learner's world and individuality. Hamacheck (1997) cited in Williams and Burden (1997, p. 36), in

our failure to recognize that each person's world is unique to him or her. A person who describes the customs of primitive tribes as "ridiculous" looks at their culture from the perspective of his or her own culture. The best solution to this problem is communication as it reduces defensiveness and encourages openness so that both the counselor and the client can mutually understand each other.

5. An individual's self is developed through two sources of information: direct and indirect experiences. A young student who can solve difficult math problems without anyone's help *directly* experiences that she is an intelligent person. In this way, she forms a certain concept of self. Now if this student receives high grades in math, she *indirectly* experiences that she is a specially gifted student. In this case, the child's direct and indirect experiences were compatible. Unfortunately, this is not true about many people. In these cases an individual's incompatible direct and indirect experiences lead to conflicting notions of the self. Let's consider the same hypothetical child who solves difficult math problems at school. If this child gets poor grades at school she has to resolve this conflict. She might think that these grades are a true manifestation of her ability, so she is not specially gifted. She might equally think that she is a talented student, yet her teachers do not like her. According to Rogers the roots of a person's misbehavior should be found in his or her early failure to resolve such conflicts.

● *Instructional Implications of Rogerain Theory*

This part of the paper attempts to present some of the most importand instructional implications of Rogers's humanistic approach, which, it is hoped, would be value to content teachers in general language teachers in particular.

1. According to Brown (2007), the focus of Regerian views on education is away from "teaching" and toward "learning". The goal of education is the facilitation of learning. Thus, teacehrs have the role of helping learners how to learn rather than teaching them from a superior vantage point of someone who knows what is "best" for the learners. This is in line with the concept of self-actualization discussed in the preceding section. All human beings - academically speaking, all learners - have a tendency to be better than what they are. So the teacher should be viewed as someone who facilitates this process of self-improvement, i.e. learning. Thus, Rogerian theory makes a plea for learner-centered classes, a philosophy of teaching in which students are given a much more important role in curriculum decisions than has traditionally been the case.

2. Rogerian philosophy is against any sort of performance-oriented, test-dominated

is *phenomenology*, which emphasizes that human beings perceive the world differently. Thus, it is often said that Rogerian theory is phenomenological in that it is concerned with the individual's own view of the world. In other words, people see the world as it seems to them rather than as it appears to others. This phenomenological view, as we will see below, is at the heart of Rogerian psychology.

The essence of Rogerian psychology is summarized as follows:

1. Each human being possesses a world of private experience unique to himself or herself. This suggests that Rogerian theory is fundamentally phenomenological. Each person's phenomenological world is private, and cannot be completely known be anyone else. As an example, let's think about the common fear of children from darkness. Almost all children are afraid of walking into dark rooms. However, the fear that Jack, a typical child, experiences, though real, is different from the fear that his peers feel. This indicates that their phenomenological world are different.

2. Reality is something private. This means that what is real for an individual is not necessarily real for another one. This accounts for the conflicts that exist between people in similar circumstances. The reason is quite simple: their concepts of reality are different. A child who likes a certain story, though it might seem boring to others, most probably has a pleasant memory from reading of listening to it. Therefore, it is important for teachers to understand that each student's image of the world in unique to him or her.

3. All human beings strive for self-actualization. According to Maslow (1970), another leading figure in humanistic psychology, self-actualization involves becoming whatever one can become through activities determined by oneself. This suggests that self-actualization is the complicated process of developing one's potentialities. Like Maslow, Rogers similarly believes that human beings have an inner desire to develop themselves so that they become healty, competent, creative people. Therefore, human beings are always seeking a better life. Good teachers should be aware of this fact and realize that all students have a natural tendency and desire to become better than what they are.

4. The best vantage point for understanding behavior is from the internal frame of reference of an individual. This is so because, as mentioned earlier, the individual's reality is private and personal. According to Rogers, our inability to understand other people's behavior results from
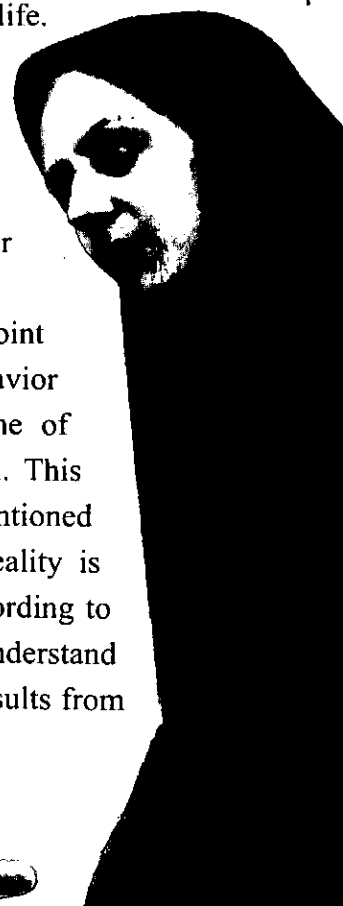
I Introduction

Carl Ransom Rogers was born in Oak Park, Illinois, in 1902. He was the fourth child of six children in his family. He was brought up in a devout Christian family. Being a gifted child, Carl stared school from the second grade because he could read even before he attended kindergarten. When Carl was 12 years old, his family moved to a farm 30 miles west of Chicago. Having strict parents and being involved in hard work, Carl developed an isolated, independent and self-disciplined character.

Carl attended the University of Wisconsin and studied agriculture. Later he got married and went to New York, where he studied religion for some time. While in New York, he was attracted to psychology. He entered the world of psychology at Columbia University, where he received his masters in psychology and his doctorate in psychotherapy in 1931. He started his work at the Rochester Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to children. In 1942, Rogers wrote his first book *Counseling and Psychotherapy* When he accepted the professorship at the University of Chicago, Rogers set up a counseling center where he developed and published his seminal work *Client-Centered Therapy* in 1951.

At the ago of 55, Rogers went to teach at his alma mater, the University of Wisconsin. Seven years later, he accepted a research position at La Jolla, California. He provided therapy, gave speeches, received award, and wrote until his death in 1987.

Carl Rogers, no doubt, is one of the leading figures in humanistic psychology, which will be briefly touched upon in the next section.

H umanistic Psychology

Humanistic psychology emphasizes the importance of the inner world of human beings and regards each person's thoughts, feelings and emotions as the focal point of all his of her development (Williams and Burden, 1997). Thus, this branch of psychology is concerned with the uniqueness, the individuality, and the humanity of each individual (Lefrancois, 1991). Humanistic psychology rightly claims that although human beings resemble each other both physically and physiologically, they are different from one another emotionally and behaviorally. This means that each person is unique because he or she has his or her own *self*. Hence it can be concluded that humanistic psychology has an affective orientation rather than a cognitive one (Brown, 1994). Now that the basic tenets of humanistic psychology have become clear, we can shift our attention to basic principles of Rogers's humanistic views. The following principlens are taken from Kohl (1969), Borton (1970), Simpson and Gary (1976), and Lefrancois (1991).

• Rogers' Humanistic Principles

Before investigating principles of Rogers's psychology, it seems necessary to elaborate on an often-heard term with respect to Rogerian psychology. This term
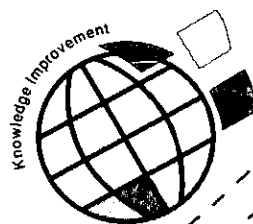
Responding to Students as Individuals:

A Rogerian (Re)view

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چکیده

هدف از نگارش این مقاله، بررسی شالودههای روانشناسی انسان گرایانهی کارل راجرز و پیامدهای آن در زمینهی تدریس بهطور عام و تدریس زبانهای خارجی بهطور خاص بوده است. ابتدا این مسئله که روانشناسی مأخوذ از دیدگاه راجرز پدیدار شناسانه است، مطرح میشود. این یعنی افراد، جهان را به صور مختلف درک میکنند و اینکه واقعیت پدیدهای خاص برای هر شخص محسوب میشود. لذا فردیت هر شخص خاص اوست و این باید توسط معلمان (زبانهای خارجی) مورد پذیرش و احترام باشد. همچنین، این طور استدلال میشود که معلمان زبان خارجهای که به دنبال روی رویکردهای راجرز هستند، باید برای دانشآموزان در این موارد احترام قائل شوند: نیاز به سکوت، در نظر گرفتن علائق آنها و میل برای ایجاد نوآوری در برنامهی آموزشی. سرانجام اینکه بهترین جایگاه برای معرفی چنین مسائلی، دورههای تربیت دبیر است.

کلید واژهها: تئوری کارل راجرز، روانشناسی انسانگرایانه، تفاوتهای فردی فراگیران زبان.

Abstract

This paper aims to explore the basic principles of Rogerian humanistic psychology and their implications for teaching in general and language teaching in particular. At first, it is suggested that Rogerian psychology is phenomenological. That is, it is based on the assumption that people perceive the world differently and that reality is something private for each individual. Thus, each person's individuality is unique to him or her, which should be understood and respected by the teachers. It is argued that (language) teachers who follow Rogerian approach should respect learners' need for silence, take learners' interests into consideration and be willing to bring about curricular innovations. Finally, it is recommended that the best place to introduce these issues to teachers is in teacher training programs.

Key Words: Carl Rogers; humanistic psychology; learner differences.
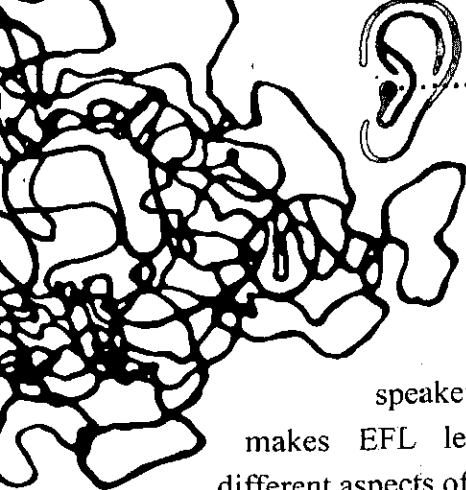
vocabulary students can not understand native English speakers easily. Dictation makes EFL learners aware of different aspects of the pronunciation of English spoken by native speakers. So most possibly it both affects their listening comprehension ability and their pronunciation. Using Dictation to make students aware of different aspects of pronunciation and the sound system of English has been recommended both by Kenworthy (1990) and Celce-Murcia (1996).

Dictation can be easily used in different kinds of EFL Classes: elementary, intermediate, advanced; adolescent or adult; male or famale; homogeneous or heterogeneous; large or small, etc. It is quite practical; all is needed is getting some suitable native recorded tapes (considering the students level, most of the time just the types accompanied by student textbooks are enough) and a cassette player. It does not take much of the class time and it engages all the students in the class with a challenging listening exercise. Just one point that should be mentioned here is that students should not be given long dictation, because as Rost (1991) insists, dictation is a very useful exercise but if students are forced to write too much it becomes tedious.

Dictation can also help EFL students improve their auditory memory, because while they are given dictation they have to keep meaningful chunks of speech in their mind till they write it on paper. Having a stronger auditory memory is very helpful in understanding foreign language speech because students after perceiving the massage should be able to keep it in their auditory memory till it can be processed.

Dictation cannot only be used as a listening exercise but it can also be used as a listening test (see Farhady 1995 and Celce-Murcia 1996). Even it can be used as a general English proficiency test (see Oller 1979). This shows the pedagogic potential of dictation as a teaching and testing device.

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comprehension ability improves.

● Another probable cause can be the effect of dictation on the short term memory of the subjects, because in dictation they had to keep chunks of meaningful speech in their mind in order to be able to then write them on paper. To the researchers' observations, this is very challenging for EFL learners and they think it is a very good exercise to make the students see the relationship between different words or chunk of speech to decode the foreign language and understand the whole meaning of a conversation or passage.

● Another justification is that dictation makes the learners aware of the difficulties of understanding English spoken by native speakers in comparison with the English spoken by Iranian EFL teachers. Native speakers' English is quite different from Iranian EFL teachers' English in terms of some aspects of pronunciation including pronunciation of some sounds, rhythm, sentence stress, weak forms (reduced pronunciations of some words), intonation, and linkage of words together. One of the exercises which is recommended to make EFL learners aware of these aspects of pronunciation is dictation by using native-recorded speech (See Kenworthy 1990). When Iranian elementary learners are given dictation for the first time, most of them may not recognize some words and phrases auch as: *but, some, can, both, not at all;* but after checking their dictation with the tapescript and listening again to the tape they notice the difference between the pronunciation of these words by their teacher and the native speaker on the tape and after that they ask for explanations about these differences. Informal observations show that in classes where students are not given dictation they rarely notice these differences. So most possibly, this awareness of the differences created by dictation, has had a role in helping the subjects in the experimental group to do better on the listening comprehension post-test.

Conclusion and Implications

This study has shown that dictation can have a positive significant effect on listening comprehension ability of elementary EFL learners and so it is suggested that EFL teachers use this technique in their classes.

One point is that in some countries like Iran in which students do not have access to native English speakers, EFL teachers can make use of this technique to make their students quite familiar with the English spoken by native speakers. Because in EFL students are only exposed to English spoken by Iranian EFL teachers or some other listening exercises which do not force them to listen very attentively, later even after learning enough grammar and

dictation would take around 10-15 minutes. While taking dictation, the class was quiet and the quality of the tape and the cassette player was faultless.

At the end of the term, the listening comprehension test which had also been used to pre-test the listening comprehension ability of the two groups (the experimental and the control group) was given to the two groups again to investigate the effect of dictation on the listening comprehension ability of the subjects in the experimental group.

Results

After giving dictation to the subjects in the experimental group in a twenty-session term, both groups (experimental and control) were post-tested by the same listening comprehension test which was also used for the listening comprehension pre-test.

As can be seen in table 1 the calculated mean and standard deviation for the experimental group were 68.58 and 10.39 and for the control group, they were 62.00 and 10.20 respectiviely. The T-observed (2.48) exceeded the t-critical(2.00) and so the null hypothesis was rejceted.

Table 1. T-test result for the post-test scores (the group statistics related to the listening comprehension post-test of the two groups)

Groups	N	$\overline{X}$	SD	T-observed
GE	30	68.582	10.395	2.48
GC	30	62.000	10.201	

$P < 0.05$ df=$[(n_1-1)+(n_2-1)=58$ t-critical= 2.00

Based on this result it can be concluded that the treatment received by the experimental group during the term, was effective, and served the intended purpose. The students who received the dictation as a teaching technique did much better on the post-test compared with the students who were just exposed to the listening exercises in their textbook.

Discussion

As mentioned earlier, the aim of this study was to investigate the effect of dictation on listening comprehension ability of EFL elementary learnes and it was shown that dictation had a significant effect on the listening comprehension ability of the experimental group.

There are some probable reasons for the signficant effect of dictation on the listening comprehension ability of the experimental group.
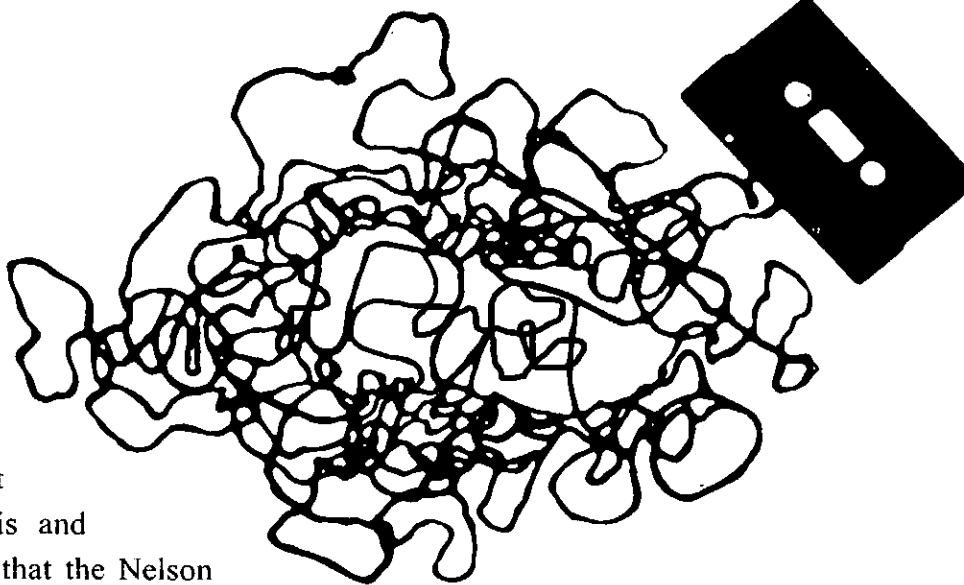
● One of the probable reasons that dictation has had a significant effect on the listening comprehension ability of the experimental group is that the subjects in this group had been forced to listen more attentively to decode the foreign speech. As an EFL teacher, the researchers have used dictation as a listening exercise along with other types of listening exercises in their classes. Their informal observations show that none of other listening exercises can make learners as much attentive as dictation does; and it is obvious that the more attentive the EFL learners listen to the foreign language, the sooner their listening

Two classes (30 subjects) took part in piloting the Nelson test 100A along with an elementary listening test which was used as the pre test and the post _ test. The item analysis and reliability check showed that the Nelson test and the listening comprehension test were satisfactory (KR. 21: 0.74 and 0.78 for the two tests respectively). The remaining four classes (60 subjects) participated in the main study. Two classes were randomly assigned as the experimental group and the two others were randomly assigned as the contorol group. To make sure about the homogeneity of the two groups before the experiment, in term of their general proficiency and listening ability in English, they were given the Nelson test and the listening test. The results revealed that they were homogeneous. The F observd for the two tests were 1.20 and 1.14 respectively Both Fs did not reach the F criterion at 0.05 level of significance.

The experimental group in addition to being exposed to the listening exercises in their textbook, Headway elementary units 6-10, were also given dictation during the term. But the two classes in the control group were exposed only to the listening exercises in their textbook. The listening exercises in the textbook were exactly the same for the two groups.

The material for giving dictation were native-recorded passages and conversations in the subjects' textbook. The procedure followed for the treament was like this: first students were made aware of the topic of the passage or conversation to activate their background knowledge, then they were allowed to listen once to the whole passage or conversations without any pause; then the tape was replayed and stopped after each meaningful chuck and students were asked to write down what they had heard. At the third stage, they were allowed to listen another time to the whole passage or conversations and check what they had written. At the end, they were asked to check their dictation against the tapescript in their textbook. Sometimes after checking their dictation, subjects were asked to listen to the tape again while looking at their dictation and paying special attention to their mistakes.

The subjects in the experimental group were given dictation during the twenty-session term which lasted nearly one month, because students would come to class five days in a week. The passages and conversations used for dictation were short, having around 100 words, and each

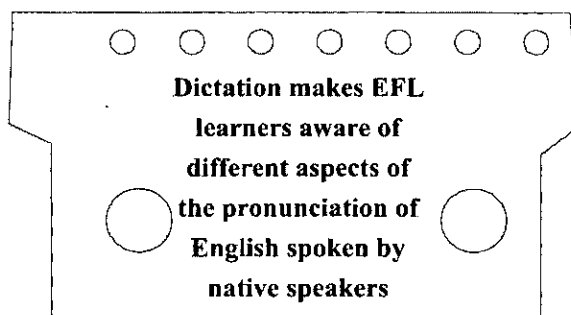students to the real spoken language of native speakers' speed easily.

4. For English it is a technically useful exercise. Decoding the sounds of this particular language and recording them in writing is a major learning task.
5. Dictation fosters unconscious thinking.
6. Dictation leads to oral communicative activities.
7. Dictation will often calm groups.
8. Dictation copes with mixed-ability groups. All the students in the class can benefit from this exercise.
9. Dictation can be used to engage the majority of the learners. By taking somethig around 10-15 minutes of the class time for dictation, the teacher can engage all the students in a challenging listening exercise.
10. Dictation can make students aware of their weak points in understaning the English spoken by native speakers and therefore makes them try more to improve their listening comprehension ability.

How to Use Dictation

Dictation can take two forms, spot dictation and the dictation of a complete passage. In either case the procedures are essentially the same. First the passage is read (either by the teacher or on a tape) at normal speed as the students listen. Then the passage is repeated in "meaningful mouthfuls" with pauses for the students to write. The meaningful mouthfuls are rather short for beginning students and increase in length as the students' auditory memory increases. The length of the pause is geared to the slower students, that everyone would have the time to write. Finally the passage is reread at normal speed so that the students can check and if necessary correct their work.

Spot dictation requires the students only to fill in the blank spaces of the written passage they have before them and therefore need not be as attentive as in writing passage dictation. In a spot dictation, the written passage, may contain structures which the students can recognize, but not necessarily

Dictation makes EFL learners aware of different aspects of the pronunciation of English spoken by native speakers

produce. Paulston continues, "complete dictation should only contain material which the students have previously studied for productive use" (pp. 135-6).In this study only diction of a complete passage has been used.

Methodology
Procedure

At the beginning of one the educational terms in Allameh Tabatabai Language Institute, six classes of elementary EFL learners (90 subjects), who had been learning English in the institute for three terms approximately 100 hours, were chosen.
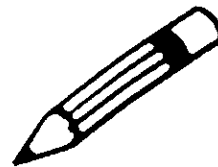
language is universally acknowledged. Much of the energy and imaginativeness of many publishing enterprises is now poured into spoken language materials and it is taken for granted that anyone learning a foreign language needs to be able to use it for talking even though their primary need for it may still be to read or write. This trend might be the reason why understaning the spoken form of the foreign language has received increasing attention both in research and in teaching. We now have a much better understanding of the processes of comprehension and there are now many courses on offer which claim to teach listening comprehension, and there are many published books and conference papers which claim to support teachers improving their students' performance in listening comprehension and a lot of teaching techniques in this regard have been introduced. For example, Ur (1991) has presented more than thirty different types of exercises for teaching listening. Also Rost (1991) has suggested more than thirty activities with many variations.

One of the techniques for improving and testing listening comprehension which has been recommended in many books related to TEFL and especially related to teaching listening comprehension is dictation (see: Ur 1991, Davis 1995, Rost 1991, Gilbert 1981, Celce - Murcia 1996, Paulston 1976, Morley 1977). The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of dictation as a teaching technique on the listening comprehension of elementary

EFL learners.

The study was intended to answer the following research question.

Is there any significant difference between the listening comprehension ability of those elementary EFL learners who are given dictation and those who are not?

The following null hypothesis was set to be tested in the present research.

There is no significant difference between the listening comprehension ability of those elementary EFL learners who are given dictation and those who are not.

Background

Davis (1995) in his book, *Dictation*, mentions ten reasons for using dictation in ELT classes:

1. The students are active during the exercise because they have to listen very attentively to perceive and comprehend an L2/FL passage read by a native speaker.

2. The students are active after the exercise. Because after noticing their mishearings they listen more carefully. After the correction of their dictation, it is recommended that students listen for the seccond time to the dictated passage with special attention to their mistakes. This practice is thought to improve the time perception ability of the learners.

3. Dictation is safe for the non-native teacher. Non-native teachers can easily use the passages recorded by native speakers and in this way expose their

بر تأثیر بر درک شنیداری، می‌تواند روش مفیدی باشد در جهت آشنا کردن زبان‌آموزان با تلفظ صحیح کلمات.

بنابراین در کشوری مانند ایران که دسترسی به معلمان بومی انگلیسی وجود ندارد، دیکته‌ی شفاهی روشی است برای پیشرفت تلفظ صحیح کلمات و درک شنیداری. قابل ذکر است که از دیکته‌ی شفاهی می‌توان در تمام دوره‌های تحصیلی مقدماتی، متوسطه و پیشرفته استفاده کرد. با توجه به این که این روش در زمان (۱۰-۱۵ دقیقه) و هزینه (فقط استفاده از ضبط صوت و نوارکاست) صرفه‌جویی می‌کند و مقرون به صرفه است و در کلاس‌های نظری (تئوری) نیز می‌توان از آن بهره گرفت، پیشنهاد می‌کنیم معلمان گرامی دوره‌های راهنمایی و دبیرستان از این روش استفاده کنند.

کلیدواژه‌ها: دیکته‌ی شفاهی، درک شنیداری، فراگیران زبان.

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of Dication on Listening Comprehension ability of elementary EFL learners. In order to carry out the research, six classes of elementary EFL learners (90 subjects), who had been learning English in Allameh Tabatabai Language Institute in Boroujerd for three terms approximately 100 hours, were chosen. Two classes (30 subjects) took part in the pilot study. Then two classes (30 subjects) were randomly assigned as the experimental group and the two other were randomly assigned as the control group (30 subjects). To make sure about the homogeneity of the two groups, before the treatment, in terms of their general proficiency and listening ability in English, they were given the Nelson test and a listening test. The results revealed that they were homogeneous. Then for one term, consisting of 20 sessions, the students in the control group were just given the listening exercises in their textbook (Headway Elementary) whereas the students in the experimental group were exposed to dictation in addition to the textbook listening exercises. At the end of the term both groups were post-tested by a standard listening test which was also used as the listening pre-test. The results showed that dictation had a significant effect on the listening comprehension ability of the subjects in the experimental group.
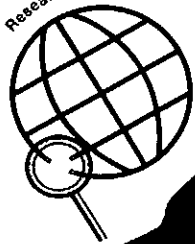
Key Words: oral dictation, listening comprehension, language learners.

Introduction

Comprehending the spoken form of the target language is one of the most difficult tasks for language learners, yet it is probably the most neglected skill in second of foreign language teaching. This neglect stems, or course, from the objectives of much language teaching in situations where the students are not likely to encounter native speakers' but the neglect is probably most of all due to our ignorance of the nature of the process of listening comprehension. The lack of knowledge on a theoretical level influences our decisions on what and how to teach our students to comprehend the spoken language.

Brown (1993) believes that there has been a revolution in the teaching of English in the last twenty years. In the early seventies it was still the case that spoken language was given secondary importance. Today the importance of teaching the spoken

THE EFFECT OF ORAL DICTATION AS A TEACHING TECHNIQUE ON THE LISTENING COMPREHENSTION OF ELEMENTARY EFL LEEARNERS

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چکیده

هدف از این پژوهش بررسی تأثیر دیکته شفاهی به عنوان یک روش تدریس، بر درک شنیداری زبان‌آموزان ایرانی سطح مقدماتی بوده است. ابتدا از بین ۹۰ نفر زبان‌آموز دختر که در «مؤسسه‌ی علامه طباطبایی» بروجرد دوره‌ی مقدماتی را گذرانده بودند. ۶۰ نفر به صورت تصادفی در دو گروه ۳۰ نفری مورد بررسی و مطالعه قرار گرفتند. سپس برای حصول اطمینان از یکسان بودن مهارت زبانی زبان‌آموزان، تست «نلسون 100A» و هم‌چنین برای حصول اطمینان از یکسان‌بودن درک شنیداری زبان‌آموزان، تست شنیداری گرفته شد که از همین تست‌ها به عنوان Pre-test و Post-test استفاده شد.

در ادامه دو گروه شاهد و آزمایش مشخص شدند. گروه شاهد فقط در معرض تمرین‌های کتاب «Headway» بودند، ولی گروه آزمایش در کنار تمرین‌های مذکور، دیکته‌ی شفاهی را به مدت یک ترم به عنوان یک روش تدریس دریافت کردند.

در پایان ترم به منظور بررسی تأثیر دیکته‌ی شفاهی روی گروه آزمایش، به هر دو گروه کنترل و آزمایش دوباره تست درک شنیداری که در Pre-test از آن استفاده شده بود، به عنوان Post-test داده شد. بعد از مقایسه و ارزش‌یابی نتایج و تعیین میانگین نمرات دو گروه کنترل و آزمایش، مشخص شد گروه آزمایش که تحت تأثیر دیکته‌ی شفاهی قرار گرفته بود، پیشرفت چشم‌گیری داشته است. بنابراین، نتیجه گرفته شد که آموزش دیکته‌ی شفاهی در پیشرفت درک شنیداری زبان‌آموزان بسیار مؤثر است. هم‌چنین از این پژوهش می‌توان نتیجه‌گیری کرد که دیکته‌ی شفاهی، علاوه

> A good part of the learners' problems in English reading classes might be attributed to the fact that the learners' problems in English reading classes might be attributed to the fact that the learners' have not been exposed to the first and second 1000 word lists adequately, meaningfully and comprehensively

students to do a similar job, i.e. process the new words in concordancing programs and find the most frequent patterns, and later make sentences according to their findings. Teaching/learning new words through collocations is also strongly supported by those researchers who believe that a good part of language learning is learning different 'chunks' of language (see Schmitt, 2002).

Additionally, teachers might consider as necessary to assign some supplementary reading materials for their students in order to help minimize the gap referred to above. Fortunately, the list of K1 and K2 (and Academic Words) is easily available and free. Teachers can study the lists and think of introducing those highly frequent items that have been totally ignored by textbook developers. Although vocabulary learning/teaching needs to be done through meaning-focused input (listening and reading) and meaning-focused output (speaking and writing), deliberate vocabulary learning is also effective (Nation and Meara, 2002).

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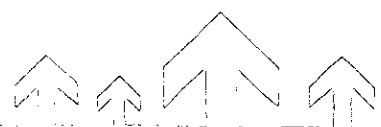
and language function sections of the textbooks. And the 12 most common verbs have appeared only 51 times.

Table 5: The coverage of the 12 most common verbs in conversation sections

Number of verbs	12 key verbs	Percentage
562	51	9.05%

Biber and Conrad's (2001) findings confirm the fact that the 12 key verbs account for more than 45% of all verbs in conversation. That is why these verbs are argued to be of priority and significance in developing beginning level materials. A comparison between 45% and 9.05% demonstrates how big the gap is between the use of these 12 verbs in natural conversations and the developed ones. Among the 12 key verbs, the mostly used verb was 'go' with 16 number of occurrences and the verbs 'say', 'make', and 'mean' have not been used at all! The wide gap affirms again the fact that material development should be based on natural use rather than on intuition per se.
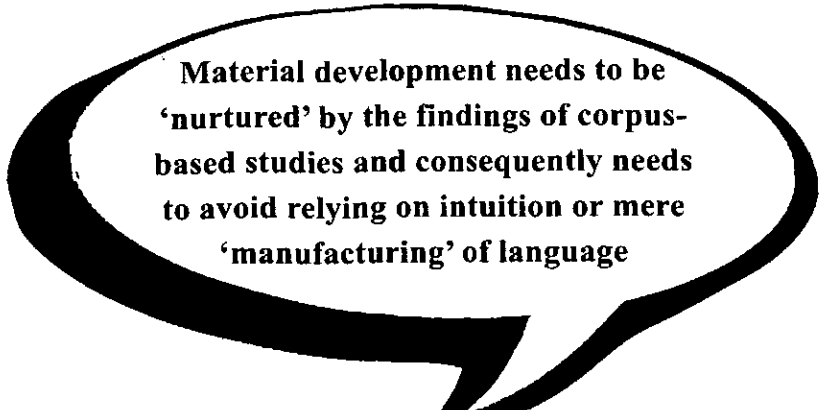
Conclusion and Implications

The findings of this study might be helpful both to material developers and teachers. It was argued that the gap between Iranian EFL learners' knowledge acquired during high school programs and the knowledge required in universities and colleges might be partially attributable to the low coverage given to K1 and K2 in mainstream English textbooks. Also it was maintained that naturally occurring language can be easily retrieved from concordancing programs and taken into consideration when collocating and contextualizing new words. Furthermore, material developers may need to reconsider the conversational English of Iranian textbooks regarding what frequency-based studies suggest. In short, material development needs to be 'nurtured' by the findings of corpus-based studies and consequently needs to avoid relying on intuition or mere 'manufacturing' of language.

English teachers can also benefit from the findings of this study. Firstly, a pedagogically important issue is the practice of introducing a new word's *family* when teaching vocabulary items. As went earlier, this would significantly help with the enrichment of the learners' vocabulary repertoire and the improvement of their reading comprehension. For instance it is a good idea to teach "able, ability, unable" or "usually, usual, unusual" as families. Secondly, teachers can easily benefit from free concordancing programs. Such programs, (retreivable at, www.collinswordbanks.co.uk.and www.edict.com.hk/concordance,) would provide them with useful information particularly of word collocations. The most frequnt patterns, then, can be introduced to the students. Teachers may require their

> **Material development needs to be 'nurtured' by the findings of corpus-based studies and consequently needs to avoid relying on intuition or mere 'manufacturing' of language**
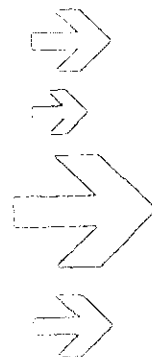
(numbers within parentheses show the number of instances in the corpus). It might be argued, then, that text developers have done a good job on the left side but not on the right side. Of as the right colloocate is more frequent than FROM that happens to be 10.

Example 2 (2nd grade): What do you **require**? He **requires** peace and quiet. I **require** help.

The same node word collocates with WOULD (13 times) and WILL (11 times) MORE (8 times) on the right. These right and left collocations in the corpus tend to suggest the patterns like WOULD **REQUIRE** THE or WILL **REQUIRE** MORE are better candidates when teaching and contextualizing 'require'.

Example 3 (3rd grade): The moon **orbits** round the Earth and the Earth **orbits** round the Sun.

The output for 'orbit' suggests that as a verb, a pattern such as PUT INTO **ORBIT** is more natural and frequent. When it is a noun, it is usually followed by ['s], e.g. Earth's orbit. These corpus – based findings could have been usefully applied in collocating new vocabulary items. For instance, the students could have been exposed to sentences like *The new rocket was put into orbit* or *The Earth's orbit takes 24 hours*.

☐ Dialogues and Conversations in Textbooks and Biber and Conrad's 12 Key Words

After a corpus - based study of English conversations, Biber and Conral (2001) pointed out that 'only 63 verbs occur more than 500 times and only 12 verbs occur more than 1,000 times per million words. These 12 verbs are: *say, get, go, know, think, see, make, come, take, want, give, and mean*. With this finding, they believe that text writers would clearly want to include the 12 most common verbs in beginning level materials. Put it differently, these key verbs account for over 45% of all verbs in conversational English.

Therefore, the third research purpose is restricted in its focus since conversation and dialogues of 6 textbooks are analysed with respect the above 12 *verbs*. Table 5 illustrates how much coverage has been given to these 12 most common verbs in 'dialogue' and 'language function' sections of the 6 text books. Totally, there are about 562 different verbs in dialogue

demonstrates the number of instances of left and right collocates for 'earn' respectively.

Table 3: left and right collocates for 'earn' and the number of instances

Left collocates for 'earn'		Right collocates for 'earn'	
to	7	a	3
may	1	an	2
might	1	exemption	1
must	1	her	1
should	1	in	1
don't	1	or	1
they	1	our	1
countries	1	ten	1
who	1	the	1
would	1	their	1

Table 3 tends to suggest that the most frequent and at the same time naturally - occurring use of 'earn' is 'TO EARN A' in Brown's corpus. This pattern, then, should be prioritized when developing textbooks simply because it is the most frequent pattern in natural language use and is more reliable than intuition (Biber and Conrad, 2001). McKay (2006) believes that concordancing outputs can also help with looking for the common syntactic pattern, such as 'earn' that tends to be used in infinitive form. Of course, it is suggested to check a node word in more than one corpus (McKay, 2006).

All 120 words that appear in New Words sections were processed using the concordancing program. Since there were cases in which the number of instances (given in collocate tables) were the same or close, e.g. a = 3 and an = 2 above, it was decided to set the first two instances as the

norm patterns. The percentages in table 4 show how much the left and right collocates used by text – developers match with the corpus – based concordancing outputs.

Table 4: percentages of compatibility of left and right collocations in New Words with concordancing outputs

TEXTBOOKS	Collocates	
	Left	Right
Grade 1	36.92%	36.92%
Grade 2	58.99%	41.66%
Grade 3	42.10%	52.69%

As an example, about 59% of the left collocates in the second textbook (and in New Words section) go with the first or second pattern outputs while it is about 37% and 42% for textbooks 1 and 3 respectively. When it goes to the right collocates, textbook 3 seems to enjoy a more naturally – collocated language compared with textbooks2andTherearejusttwoabove-fifty percentages. The low percentages might be attributed to the old practice of materials development; intuition.

The following examples and comparisons might prove helpful.

Example 1 (1st grade): The **distance** from our house to my school is one kilometer.

While the node word 'distance' has been collocated by 'the' on the left and 'from' on the right, the concordancing output suggests THE (34) **DISTANCE OF** (22) as the most frequent pattern in natural use

helped them with 15.76%, 16.72% and 18.2% (moving from grade 1 to 3) coverage of tokens in *average texts*. Putting three books together, the reading passages would help them with 27.76% of tokens in average texts. Whether this amount of preparation is adequate and satisfactory cannot be determined accurately. The percentages, however, might shed some light on the gap between the same learners' General English knowledge acquired during high school and the knowledge of General English expected in higher education programs. A good part of the learners' problems in English reading classes might be attributed to the fact that the learners' problems in English reading classes might be attributed to the fact that the learners' have not been exposed to the first and second 1000 word lists adequately, meaningfully and comprehensively. Of course, the same students study one more text book at pre-university level during which they naturally enrich their vocabulary repertoire to some further extent.

❏ Collocations of the New Words and Concordancing Programs

The second purpose of the study was to investigate the way New Words of the lessons have been collocated. In other words, it was intended to see how much the collocations of the words in New Words section go with the concordancing outputs. The New Words section was selected since the text writers have tried to contextualize the new items through using them in one, two or three sentences along with pictures if appropriate. In so doing, they have naturally got involved in combining the new items with some other words; i.e. collocates.

To study the collocations, it is more advisable and meaningful to check both right and left collocates (Waring, personal correspondence). This, in turn, lessened the number of words to be checked out since not all new words had been collocated on both sides. One hundred twenty new words lent themselves for such analysis (grade 1: 65, grade 2: 36, grade 3: 19). The corpus was again Brown's. The concordancing program allows the user to bring toghether all the instances of a particular word along with the words that surround it. Also the program gives a table in which the number of instances tells which surrounding word appears how many times. For instance the concordancing output for 'earn' is given below- a node word with only 16 cases is given as example just to save space. Table 3

used and covered? The following VP output for the following sentence is quite revealing and useful in answering this tricky question.

The sentence: I go to school by bus every day but my friend rides on his bike.

VP Output: *K1: 86.67%   K2: 6.67% AWL: 0.00%   Off-list: 6.67%*

Does the K1 of 86% mean that 86% of the words in this zone (the first 1-1000 most frequent words) have been used or covered? The same questions can be raised for the subsequent zones as well. Clearly this is not the case.

When it is argued that 2000 words (K1+K2) provide 80% coverage, it is 2000 word *families* that does so. For example the list of *understand, understanding, understood, understandable, misunderstand, misunderstanding. misunderstandings, misunderstood* makes up a single unit or a family. Therefore, the first research question cannot be answered on the basis of K1 and K2 percentages given above. The 89% of K1 for textbook one means that 89% of the reading words are from the first 1000 words and 7% of K2 means 7% are from the second 1000 words... The positive point about such high percentages-as went above- is the fact that the output text would be 'easy' or what Cobb calls 'simplified' English. Since these texts aim beginning EFL learners it might be safely argued that text developers have been ligitimately bound to K1 and K2 zones. Coverage in this

sense, i.e. on a token basis, is excellent.

Table 2 demonstrates the number of word families used in each textbook in three zones of K1, K2 and AWL. Off-list word families are not given since they are not available in VP output and have to be pre-calculated. Word families are needed to investigate. what percentage of K1, K2 and AWL lists have been used or covered in each text (Waring, personal correspondence). Cobb notes that coverage is usually calculated in tokens—all the running words. Yet he goes on and indicates that 'families against all tokens' is the best way to decide on coverage. Nation and Laufer (2000) note 2000 families give 80% (token) coverage in average texts. If this is the case, putting K1 and K2 word families together would give the total number of word families fitting in K1+L2 domain. This, in turn, would give an indication of how much these reading texts prepare EFL learners with tackling average English texts.

Table 2. word families used in reading texts of each textbook

	Grade 1			Grade 2			Grade 3			Total		
	K1	K2	AWL	K2	K2	AWL	K1	K2	AWL	K1	K2	AWL
word families	310	66	4	319	71	6	332	61	25	523	171	35

Of course, not too much is expected in this regard since Iranian high school students are beginning students after all. If Nation and Waring's (1997) 80% coverage is set as a criterion. Iranian reading passages have

file and analysed as such. All proper nouns were excluded when processing the files. As for the second question, the words in New Words section of the three textbooks were entered into the concordancing program. According to Waring (personal communication), the most pedagogically-desirable strategy is to seek and take into account both 'left' and 'right' collocations of a given word. As a result, after feeding the new words of the textbooks into the concordancing program, the 'left' and 'right' collocations of the highest frequency in the corpus were sought and compared with the collocations in the textbooks. As far as the third purpose is concerned, the whole analysis procedure was undertaken with 6 textbooks. Since Iranian EFL learners begin practicing/ learning English conversations in junior high schools, their three textbooks at this level were also considered in the study. The 'dialogue' sections of these books and the 'conversation in contexst' and 'language function' sections of the three high school textbooks were studied. Biber and Conrad's (2001) 12 key verbs make up the criterion.

Results and Discussion
☐ K1 and K2 word families

Table 1 shows the VP analyses of the reading passages in Iranian high school English textbooks. Eyeballing the VP outputs for each textbook demonstrates the following points about each frequency zone.

Table 1: VP outputs for the reading passages of high school textbooks

	Textbook1	Textbook2	Textbook3	TPTAL
K1 words	89.86%	89.09%	87.9%	88.98%
K2 words	7.12%	7.34%	6.00%	6.85%
AWL words	0.54%	0.39%	2.52%	1.10%
Off-list words	2.48%	3.19%	3.53%	3.07%

Firstly, the high percentages of K1s usually occur with texts that are either conversational English or simplified English (Cobb, personal communication). So high K1 percentages are reasonably justified since Iranian high school students are exposed to what is called 'simplified' English. Cobb (personal communication) believes that such high K1 percentages are good provided that the learners are beginners.

Secondly, and as far as K2 word-base is concerned, the reading passages go with the typical profile—which is K1=70, K2=10, AWL=10, and Off-list 10. According to Cobb, about 7%-10% is a normal K2 output. Yet since the texts contain simplified English for learning/ teaching purposes, AWL and Off-list words are lower compared with the typical of 10 each. The very low index of AWL output is also expected since the texts have been developed for beginning EFL learners.

Thirdly, and most importantly, is the question of 'coverage' of K1 and K2 word bases in these texts. The answer to this question pertaints to the first research question. What do 89.86%, 89.09%, and 87.94% mean? Does the total of 88.98% mean that 88.98% of the K1 list has been

Two areas of corpus-based research are especially valuable for developing and assessing L2 textbooks. The first is the calculation of *word frequency lists*. A frequency list is simply a list of all the types of words that appear in a corpus, along with the number of occurrences of each word. A second type of analysis that can be done with a corupus is *concordancing*. Concordancing programs allow the user to bring together all the instances of a particular word along with the words that surround it. The selected word is referred to as the node word/phrase. The best way to read concordance lines is to skim them initially from top to bottom, looking for central pattents (McKay, 2006).

☐ Lexical Text Analysis by Computer Programs

Lexical text analysis is currently conducted by the easy-to-use computer programs. One such program is called Vocab Profile (VP). VP takes any text and divides its words into four categories by frequency: (1) the most frequent 1000 words of English-known as K1, (2) the second most frequent 1000 words of English, i.e. 1001 to 2000 – known as K2, (3) the academic words of English Coxhead's (2000) Academic Word List, 550 words that are frequent in academic texts across subjects), and (4) the NIL (Not In the List) or off-list words which are not found on the other lists. They may include proper nouns, unusual words, specialist vocabulary, acronyms, abbreviations, and misspellings. The important point is that if

someone knows K1, he would know 72% of the running words in a text. Knowing about 2000 word families, i.e. K1+K2, gives near to 80% coverage of the written text. Research by Liu Na and Nation (1985) has shown that this is not sufficient to allow reasonably successful guessing of the meaning of the unkown words. At least 95% coverage is needed for that. Research by Laufer (1989) suggests that 95% coverage is sufficient to allow reasonable comprehension of a text. Nation and Waring (1997) believe that the second language learner needs to know the 3000 or so high frequency words of the language.

The Present Study
☐ Purposes

This study is an attempt to investigate reading texts of Iranian high school English books in terms of their use of the first (K1) and the second (K2) most common 1000 words, to compare collocations of the vocabulary items with those of concordancing outputs, and to study conversational English of mainstream textbooks in terms of the coverage they give to Biber and Conrad's 12 most common verbs of English conversations.

☐ Procedures

To find the answer for the first question of the study, all the reading passages in high school English textbooks were fed into the VP program. They were processed first grade by grade and then all passages of the three textbooks were combined as a single

Abstract

This study aimed at investigating reading texts of Iranian high school English books in terms of their use of the first (K1) and the second (K2) most common 1000 words, comparing collocations of the vocabulary items with those of concordancing outputs, and researching conversational English with regard to coverage they give to Biber and Conrad's 12 most common verbs of English conversations. Token-based calculation of VocabProfile outputs of the reading texts suggest that the passages go with the typical profile. Calculation on a word family basis, however, demonstrates that the reading texts cover 15.76%, 16.72% and 18.2% of K1 + K2. Comparing text developers' collocations with those of concordancing outputs revealed a 36.92% to 58.99% compatibility. Lastly, only 9.05% coverage has been given to the 12 most common conversational verbs-verbs that account for more than 45% of conversational English. Corpus-based findings are advocated as a more reliable source of material development than intuition.

Key Words: corpus-based analysis, frequency studies, concordancing programs, reading texts, Iranian textbooks.

Introduction

Certainly one of the most important elements of language classes is textbooks. Few teachers enter class without a textbook- often a required one- that provides content and teaching/learning activities that shape much of what happens in that classroom. 'Researching' textbooks is a multi-dimensional process involving analyzing subject matter ,vocabulary and structure, exercises, illustrations, and even physical make-up (Byrd, 2000).

Traditionally, analysis of vocabulary section consisted of answering some items in a checklist. In one such checklist, Donald and Celce-Murcia (1979) ask the respondents to answer questions like 'Does the vocabulary load (the number of new words introduced in every lesson) *seem* to be reasonable for the students of that level? (emphasis added)' or 'Are the new vocabulary items controlled to ensure systematic gradation from simple to complex items?'. The answers to such questions, e.g. excellent, good, edequate, weak, and totally lacking, were coded numerically and the analysis followed.

With the advent of sophisticated computer programs, invaluably rich databases of naturally-occuring language use and clever concordancers, researchers and practitioners have shifted markedly in approach and practice. The electronically stored collections of written and spoken naturally occurring language, i.e. corpora, have provided researchers, teachers, material developers, and language learners with useful information on word frequency lists and collocations. The analysis of language teaching materials has also been enlightened by such findings. McKay (2006) believes that corpus-based research is one of the best ways to research the language of textbooks. For her, the language of the textbooks means the grammatical structures lexicon and their use in dialogues and reading texts.
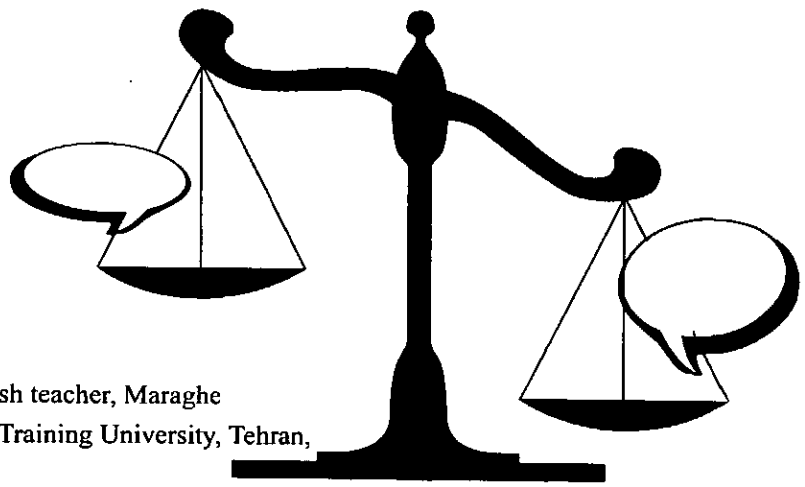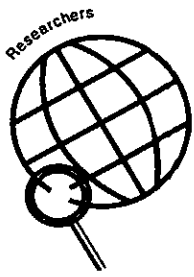
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A Corpus-based Analysis of

Iranian High School

English Textbooks

چکیده

مطالعه‌ی حاضر سه هدف عمده داشته است: الف) بررسی متون خواندن کتاب‌های زبان انگلیسی دوره‌ی دبیرستان برای تعیین میزان استفاده‌ی آن‌ها از اولین(K1) و دومین (K2) ۱۰۰۰ کلمه‌ی رایج در زبان انگلیسی؛ ب) مقایسه همنشینی لغات جدید با نتایج یا بروندادهای برنامه‌های تطبیقی؛ ج) بررسی میزان استفاده‌ی مؤلفین از رایج‌ترین ۱۲ فعل مکالمه‌ای در بخش‌های گفت‌وگو و کاربردهای زبانی (براساس یافته‌های بایبر و کنراد این ۱۲ فعل ۴۵ درصد کل افعال مکالمات را تشکیل می‌دهند).

بررسی کلمه محور بروندادها نشان داد که متون خواندن هماهنگ با درصدهای نمونه و معیار تدوین شده‌اند، ولی بررسی خانواده محور همین متون مشخص کرد که کتب سه سال دوره‌ی دبیرستان به ترتیب ۱۵/۷۶، ۱۶/۷۲ و ۱۸/۲ درصد مجموع K1 و K2 را پوشش داده‌اند. مقایسه‌ی همنشین‌سازی لغات جدید توسط مؤلفین با نتایج یا بروندادهای برنامه‌های تطبیقی مشخص کرد که هماهنگی حداقل ۳۶/۹۲ و حداکثر ۵۸/۹۹ درصد وجود دارد. بالاخره این‌که رایج‌ترین ۱۲ فعل مکالمه‌ای فقط ۹/۰۵ درصد پوشش داده شده‌اند. بر این اساس در مقاله حاضر یافته‌های پیکره محور به عنوان منبعی مطمئن‌تر و موجه‌تر در تهیه و تدوین کتب درسی زبان انگلیسی مورد بحث و بررسی قرار می‌گیرند.

یافته‌های این مطالعه می‌تواند علاوه بر مؤلفین کتب درسی، مورد استفاده‌ی معلمان زبان نیز قرار گیرد. در هنگام تدریس لغات جدید، با معرفی خانواده‌ی کلمات دانش دانش‌آموزان و در نتیجه توانایی خواندن آن‌ها افزایش خواهد یافت. برای مثال، هنگام تدریس «understand»، دبیران می‌توانند با معرفی خانواده‌ی آن یعنی (understanding, understood, understandable, misunderstand, misunderstanding, misunderstandings, misunderstood) به‌طور قابل توجهی به دانش واژگان و توانایی خواندن آن‌ها کمک کنند. دبیران همچنین می‌توانند با مراجعه به نرم‌افزارهای رایگان موجود در اینترنت، لغات و کلمات جدید درس‌ها را پردازش و همنشینی آن‌ها را مطالعه کنند و مثال‌های مناسبی را در کلاس ارائه دهند. مزیت این مثال‌ها آن است که براساس پیکره‌های بسیار بزرگی ارائه می‌شوند و الگوهای واقعی و کاربردی کلمات را معرفی می‌کنند. همچنین، دبیران زبان می‌توانند پس از آشناکردن مختصر دانش‌آموزان با این برنامه‌ها و به عنوان کار در خانه، از آن‌ها بخواهند با استفاده از بروندادهای این برنامه‌ها و با توجه به همنشینی کلمات جمله‌سازی کنند.

کلیدواژه‌ها: مطالعه‌ی پیکره محور، مطالعات فراوانی، برنامه‌های تطبیقی، متون خواندن، کتب درسی ایران.

sont en interaction avec d'autres modes comme images sonores, paroles, etc. dans un logiciel multimédia d'apprentissage de langue, l'apprenant est confronté à des images dans des écrans où sont combinés des modes faisant appel au sens de la vue et de l'ouïe. Les modes iconiques présentes sur les écrans peuvent être des scènes visuelles animées, des scènes visuelles fixes, des graphiques et des dessins. Les modes auditifs peuvent êtres du discours oral, des bruits et éventuellement de la musique.

La conclusion

Pour conclure sur ces pages, nous voudrions faire allusion au fait que les réflexions sur l'image en tant que support pédagogique fournissent pleins d'arguments qui justifient et sous-tendent son exploitation en particulier pour ce qui concerne le domaine de l'apprentissage de la langue française.

Jusqu'à la moitié du XXe siècle, le FLE est placé comme les autres «langues vivantes» sous l'influence de la méthode directe et active où l'image est simplement utilisée pour acquérir la grammaire et le lexique. Ici, il ne s'agit pas d'apprendre une langue étrangère comme moyen de communication. C'est réellement au milieu des années 60 que l'image apparaît dans l'enseignement du FLE, puisqu'elle va être au centre des méthodes «audiovisuelles» qui se caractérisent par l'utilisation conjointe de l'image et du son.

Finalement, à côté de l'évolution thématique des manuels dès le milieu des années 70, c'est surtout la dissociation de l'utilisation de l'image et du son qui marque la génération communicative et ensuite co-communicative à la fin du XXe siècle.

Notes

1. A la différence des signes iconiques, les signes plastiques n'entretiennent aucun rapport de ressemblance, ils n'imitent ou ne représentent rien.

2. Cette fonction confère à l'image son rôle spécifique dans l'apprentissage. Elle établit une sorte de relais entre la langue maternelle et la langue à apprendre en permettant aux apprenants de comprendre et d'assimiler la langue seconde.

3. C'est au milieu des années 1950 que P. Guberina de l'université de Zagreb donne les premières formulations théorique de la méthode SGAV (structuro-globale audio-visuelle). La méthodologie audiovisuelle (MAV) domine en France dans les années 1960-1970. La cohérence de la méthode audiovisuelle était construite autour de l'utilisation conjointe de l'image et du son. Le support sonore était constitué par des enregistrements magnétiques et le support visuel par des images fixes.

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mélangent les genres (*Mosaïque*), d'autres encore préfèrent la photo en noir et blanc (*Archipel*), ou l'image en couleur, papier et vidéo (*Rond Point*).

En effet, la période communicative a permis à l'enseignant d'introduire de nouvelles pratiques orientées vers la communication, en faisant appel à diverses ressources qu'il se charge lui-même d'intégrer dans son enseignement. Son but premier est de favoriser la communication et l'interaction des élèves entre eux et avec le maître. Pour cela, elle se base sur les actes de paroles (se présenter, demander une information, donner un conseil,...). Dans cette perspective, cette approche a eu recours aux matériels issus des technologies (multimédia, film, télévision, BD, document authentique) qui sont de plus en plus associés à l'idée de diversité des modes d'apprentissage. Ils ont pour fonction de stimuler l'activité cognitive de l'apprenant et de le mettre au centre du processus d'apprentissage.

I mage vidéo et multimédia

D'après l'utilisation vaste de l'image multimédia dans les salles de class du 21ᵉ siècle, nous comprenons la nécessité de concevoir l'image animée, dès les années 80, comme une véritable d'interactions entre modes iconique, auditif et linguistique. De nombreuses méthodes et documents vidéo sont proposés sur le marché des langues étrangères. De même que l'on a paré l'audiovisuel (l'image fixe et puis la vidéo) de toutes sortes

de vertus pour l'apprentissage, on fait aujourd'hui du multimédia une panacée pour l'enseignement/apprentissage des langues.

Pour parler de multimédia, il faut réunir quelques critères: le premier est de contenir plusieurs média (textes, son, images fixe, images animées...), le second est que ces médias soient présents sous un format numérique et le dernier est que ces divers médias doivent interagir entre eux. Cela n'étant possible que lorsque ces médias sont présentés sur un même support informatique.

On retrouve généralement le multimédia sous la forme d'un logiciel qui se trouve soit sur l'ordinateur soit sur CD ou DVD. On le retrouve aussi fréquemment on-line, c'est-à-dire sur des sites internet. Afin de réduire le champ de recherche nous nous pencherons plustôt sur les logiciels.

Nous constatons que l'évolution est importante pour la pratique quotidienne, le changement de matériel va réellement permettre la synchronisation du son et de l'image et va apporter une qualité considérée comme élément motivant et facilitateur pour l'apprenant. Toutes les méthodes vidéo ont en commun l'association conjointe du sonore et du visuel.

L'image multimédia renvoie à l'image au sens de «texte visuel», ou mieux au sens de texte multimédia avec du son. Autrement dit l'image est une organisation multimodale où des images visuelles

immédiat de la classe. Pour la réalisation du développement des auxiliaires visuels, il faut avoir recours à la méthodologie audiovisuelle.

Cependant dès le milieu des années 70, de nombreuses critiques sont adressées à la MAV (la méthodologie audiovisuelle)[3]. Les reproches qui lui sont faits peuvent être résumés en quatre points d'après la position de J.Firges cité par V. Viallon: «un manque de variété dans les supports cognitifs; le transfert n'est pas suffisamment assuré à cause de l'accent trop fort mis sur des comportements d'apprentissage de type réception et reproduction; la longueur excessive des leçons ainsi que la progression grammaticale trop rapide freinent la motivation»; Egalement avec «l'absence de textes non dialogiques, les méthodes se limitent à un seul type de langue. Ainsi s'explique la lente désaffection des didacticiens pour les méthodes audiovisuelles qui se tournent davantage vers le communicatif, la participation de l'apprenant et le contact direct avec le matériel» (Virginie Viallon, 2002, P. 32).

Comme nous avons constaté, les critiques émises insistent sur le côté monolithique de la MAV et sa centration sur la méthode, et peu sur l'apprenant. Cependant, malgré une évolution de son rôle, l'image ne fait plus directement référence au lexique du dialogue mais à la situation d'énonciation, elle est encore sous le contrôle du linguistique. D'autre part, l'image audio-visuelle, sous son ancienne forme n'a plus

de raison d'être car l'on est arrivé à cette conclusion que «le code iconique est à la fois moins riche et plus équivoque que le code verbal» (Galisson, 1980, p. 98).

Les années 80 sont en effet marquées par l'affaiblissement de l'intégration didactique autour du support audiovisuel, tel qu'il est apparu avec la MAV. La prise en compte des besoins langagiers des apprenants est une nouveauté et marque un recentrement de la méthodologie constituée sur l'apprenant. A côté de l'évolution thématique des manuels, c'est surtout la dissociation de l'utilisation de l'image et du son qui marque la génération communicative. En effet «le découpage visuel parallèle au découpage sonore (série d'images correspondant à une série de réplique) est abandonné, au profit, dans *Archipel*, de quelques images visualisant globalement le cadre de l'échange et les protagonistes» (Puren, 1988, P.359).

On note que d'une part l'utilisation d'un nouveau type de documents écrits et visuels, d'enregistrements sonores avec une prise en compte de la situation de communication et de l'intention de communication, et de l'autre, le recours à des «documents authentiques», c'est-à-dire non expressément conçus pour être utilisés dans une classe de langue; ce qui nécessite l'évolution du matériel didactique. Bien plus, l'évolution des images correspond à cette évolution des textes: la forme des supports change, comme par exemple les photos qui sont «authentique». Certaines méthodes font le choix du dessin, d'autre

«d'outil vocabulaire» sert à faire illustrer les vocabulaires et les concepts à apprendre à la manière d'un dictionnaire illustré.

Alors, l'enseignement des langues peut sans doute aujourd'hui être l'un des usagers

Vocabulaire

L'heure officielle
a. Observez
Le matin

L'aprés midi

Le soir

b. Quelle heure est-it?

c. Écoutez et notez L'heure.
1. Le train est à .....
2. Le guisher ouvre à ...
3. Le guisher ferme à ...

Ouvert
Le matin de ... à ...
L' aprés madi de ... à ...

privilégiés de cette culture de l'image dans sa nouvelle finalité icono-linguistique. Puis, il est plus habitué à l'utilisation de technologies visuelles variées dans les classes de langue depuis plus de quarante ans. Il suit donc naturellement l'évolution de ces technologies. C'est ainsi que l'enseignement des langues étrangères, de l'image fixe et simplette de *De Vive Voix* à l'utilisation des supports multimédia, s'est toujours appuyé sur l'image en tant que moyens visuels mis par la modernité à la disposition de la classe à un rythme rapide.

Évolution des idées

Comme nous l'avons bien désigné, les points de vue différents des pédagogues et aussi les conditions d'apprentissages propres à chaque période agissent sur le fondement de base des méthodes. A cet égard, l'image se voit évoluée pour mieux s'adapter à la fonction et aux pratiques de nos classes de langue.

D'abord, les critiques formulées autour de la méthode directe consistent à considérer comme une manière totalement artificielle de présenter la langue. Bien plus, sa progression du plus simple au plus compliqué ne tien compte tant de la fréquence d'utilisation. Cette méthode ne donne que des compétences à maîtriser l'écrit littéraire. L'utilisation des supports visuels dans la méthode directe, reste surtout limitée au rôle d'auxiliaire de l'enseignement lexical. Les «tableaux muraux» sont un procédé direct d'enseignement du vocabulaire, où l'image s'inscrit dans l'environnement

les apprenants à l'auto-apprentissage ; on apprend surtout ce que l'on découvre soi-même. Pour assimiler, il faut avoir compris et il n'est de meilleure compréhension que celle dont on fait l'expérience de la découverte.

L' approche co-communicative et perspective actionnelle

Après l'approche communicative des années 80, nous sommes maintenant, depuis le milieu des années 90, dans une nouvelle approche pédagogique appelée «approche actionnelle».

Celle-ci propose de mettre l'accent sur les tâches à réaliser d'un projet global. L'action doit susciter l'interaction qui stimule le développement des compétences réceptives et interactives. Il s'agit là, d'inciter les apprenants à s'engager entièrement, et à être réceptifs aux interactions avec les autres. On voit ici l'importance du rôle joué par les acquis culturels dans la langue maternelle, en particulier les savoir-faire qui pourront servir à faciliter le transfert d'information vers la langue étrangère.

Métro Saint-Michel le manuel le plus récent, représentatif de l'approche co-communicative, permet de travailler de manière exhaustive, les compétences de compréhension et de production orales (dialogues ou exercices) et écrites (questionnaires, articles de presse, extraits de guides touristiques, messages électroniques, annonces, cartons d'invitations, etc.).

En ce qui concerne l'utilisation de l'image dans cette méthode, il n'y a pas de grande différence avec les manuels que nous venons d'étudier. Les photos, les dessins caricatures en couleurs, les documents authentiques... etc. L'originalité principale des images dans *Métro Saint-Michel* consiste d'une part à présenter toutes sortes d'images, et d'autre part, à localiser, à caractériser, à nominer, à raconter et à décrire. Surtout, les dessins-vocabulaires des pages d'outils dans la phase de lexique, nous paraissent très fonctionnels. Ils ont pour rôle de présenter des objets, des choses ou des manières de vivres ayant des fonctions diverses: quand il s'agit de localiser un point ou un objet, nous avons affaire à une série de dessins qui cherchent à préciser. De cette façon, avec ces dessins, nous sommes dans la phase d'application. Un mot s'applique à un dessin, mais il est aussi question de mettre les apprenants dans une activité d'identification, comme la montre bien l'exemple de profession ci-dessous.

Les professions

Répondez à la question : Qu'est-ce qu'il fait? Qu'est-ce qu'elle fait?

Exemple: Il est musicien.

Profession: boucher, acteur, peintre, styliste, photographe, épicier, boulanger, plombier, secrétaire, médecin, écrivain, journaliste, professeur, ingénieur (*Métro Saint-Michel*, 2006: 14).

On peut même aller plus loin et parler d'une activité de reproduction. Par exemple, pour les dessins ci-dessous, il faut que l'apprenant soit capable de présenter l'heure qu'il est, à partir du dessin qu'il voit. Autrement dit, l'image

économique du pays.

Les buts d'une telle méthode sont d'accéder à un niveau minimal de communication, de découvrir les aspects culturels français et d'étudier des documents authentiques. En plus, *Archipel* met au premier plan les «besoins langagiers» des apprenants et les buts diversifiés du public. Dans cette perspective, le message est transporté par le biais des dessins de type situationnel. On n'y voit plus le principe du filme fixe à la manière des méthodes S.G.A.V.. Quelques dessins permettent de visualiser le lieu et les personnages de communication. Un fait nouveau avec *Archipel* est la mise en regard de photos ou d'image et des textes authentiques. De plus, l'image sert à exploiter les fonctions de compréhension, de motivation et notamment de l'expression : la création de dialogues, l'interprétation des images la prise de position personnelle sur la situation et le contenu.

Par la suite, nous nous intéressons à un manuel plus récent, le Mosaïque, autre méthode dite communicative. «Mosaïque est une méthode qui se veut formatrice, l'intention prioritaire des auteurs étant de faciliter le parcours d'apprentissage de l'apprenant, afin d'améliorer ses acquis et sa possibilité d'expression» (Béatriz Job, 1994, P. 4). Dans cette perspective Mosaïque propose une méthodologie basée sur la conceptualisation.

Cette méthode propose les différentes sortes d'image: les bandes dessinées, les photos authentiques et artistique, des extraits du monde du cinéma, les images diagramme ou scientifiques comme les plans et les cartes géographiques et aussi les images tirées de la situation socio-culturelle de français.

Par le biais des photos et des dessins en couleur, l'image devient document qui apporte une information culturelle. Cela est une présentation ou une sensibilisation au dialogue ainsi qu'un point de départ de discussion. Les bandes dessinées jouent également sur l'humour qui est un facteur de motivation et en même temps, un déclencheur d'expression. On introduit également l'idée de narration par l'image. Cependant la méthodologie insiste sur une fonction auxiliaire : favoriser la découverte du lexique, permettre aussi de deviner des séquences du dialogue. Enfin, elle doit faciliter une attitude positive d'écoute du dialogue.

Ensuite, le rôle des photos ne se limite pas à des informations de civilisation. Les photos authentiques, référentielles, situationnelles et socioculturelles de ce manuel, constituent un support pour de nombreuses activités de repérage, de découverte, de mise en corrélation et de comparaison interculturelle. Ici, l'authenticité en tant que caractéristique de l'approche communicative, réhabilite la culture courante et ethnographique de la langue cible. Alors, l'image apporte une information culturelle et chaque illustration est faite à partir de lieux, de personnages ou de décors réels. Finalement, l'ordre des textes accompagnants ces photos ne suit pas l'ordre des image. Cette particularité invite

iconiques de l'image collent à l'énoncé, certains sont repris dans le dialogue ou sont à comprendre plus largement à l'intérieur d'une séquence d'images. On y voit l'influence de la réalité extérieure et non-verbale, de la situation extralinguistique sur la signification des données langagières.

Des dessins en couleurs représentant cette méthode, permettent aux apprenants de comprendre certaines notions socio-culturelles, mais cependant, puisque ces images ne sont pas authentiques, elles n'arrivent guère à s'adapter aux habitudes culturelles de la langue à apprendre.

Nous avons l'impression que malgré leur fonction pédagogique plus ou moins riche, les dessins des méthodes audio-visuelles, surtout dans la 1^c et 2e générations, ont toujours besoin des enseignants à intervenir pour donner l'accès au sens. Ceux-ci ont recours aux gestes, à la paraphrase et à d'autres images pour expliquer les significations des concepts. Les dessins établissent bien une sorte de relaie entre la langue maternelle et la langue cible. Par exemple, si l'on illustre un sac dans une image. L'apprenant ne comprend peut-être pas ce que l'image veut dire; mais grâce à la succession des images et par le biais des signes et symboles présentés, la compréhension sera assurée.

Pour conclure sur la période audiovisuelle, on fait le constat d'une évolution des méthodes S.G.A.V. entre la première et la deuxième génération, par une adaptation au contexte d'enseignement. Nous allons vite vers l'approche communicative où l'image

est devenue situationnelle par opposition aux images illustration/traduction des méthodes précédentes.

L'image dans la méthode communicative

Les méthodes de la troisième génération ou l'approche communicative abandonnent totalement la présence en série d'images schématiques correspondant à une série de répliques. La méthode communicative introduit en effet quelques images qui représentent globalement le cadre de la communication et les personnages.

En fait la nouvelle méthodologie met l'accent sur la dimension fantasmatique de l'image qui a pour but de projeter les apprenants dans l'image. Désormais, cette dérnière a une fonction situationalisante, ethnographique et culturelle. Elle se caractérise comme un déclencheur verbal. Selon Galisson, l'image a une fonction «susceptible de mettre les apprenants dans des conditions de réel simulé où leur savoir-faire simulé est mis à l'épreuve» (Galisson, 1980, p. 99).

La méthode *Archipel* qui illustre bien la première génération communicative, caractérisée par l'image fixe, est la première méthode à intégrer largement des documents dits authentiques. Les différents types d'images y sont utilisés: des photos aux annonces de journaux, des articles de journaux, des publicités, des affiches, des extraits du monde du cinéma, des arts et de la littérature, mais aussi des images tirées de la situation socio-politique ou

cible. Les images abordent les thèmes de chaque leçon, cependant elles ne sont guère culturelle et absolument pas authentique. Nous avons l'impression qu'ici l'image essaie d'évoquer le texte, mais elle n'est pas capable d'établir le relais nécessaire entre la langue maternelle et celle à apprendre. C'est que parfois l'image directe est au service du texte!

Ayant le souci d'intégrer l'utilisation des moyens audiovisuels, ce sont surtout les auxiliaires oraux qui vont davantage se développer dans la méthode directe. Alors, il faudra attendre la méthodologie audiovisuelle pour que se réalise le développement des auxiliaires visuels.

L'image dans les méthodes audio-visuelles

Les images dans les méthodes audio-visuelles «viseront les unes à représenter uniquement la situation de communication du dialogue, les autres à présenter des objets concrets comme les images directes, mais en situation, c'est-à-dire tels que les personnages, au moment où ils parlent, peuvent les voir (ou du moins se les imaginer : ils sont alors représentés dans des bulles)» (Puren, 1988, P. 143).

Nous avons choisi un exemple de la méthode *De Vive Voix* où les images se présentent en séries et servent à explorer la situation, dans le souci d'en renforcer les composantes culturelles françaises et d'en accentuer ce que l'on peut appeler leur logique cinématographique (variations des plans, des angles de prise de vue,

séquences, etc.). Le rôle principal des images iconiques de cette méthode est de «mettre en scène des personnages, lesquels sont en rapport vivant de communication à l'occasion d'un fait ou d'un événement de leur vie quotidienne» (Mauget, 1972, P. 7). Ces images comprennent divers symboles et signes ajoutés comme des flèches, des points d'interrogation, d'exclamation, des croix, des bulles, etc. qui demandent à leur tour à être décodés.

Comme nous pouvons constater l'image sert à faciliter l'explication et l'exploitation du dialogue. Il y a en effet une relation texte-image. C'est-à-dire qu'à chaque image correspond un énoncé. Ce sont les images claires en séries qui font éviter la traduction. Les liens qui unissent l'image et le son sont de nature sémantique. L'illustration est donc la fonction première attribuée à l'image ainsi que le confirme le dictionnaire de didactique de Coste et Galisson: «l'image illustre un référent du signe linguistique et permet la présentation et la compréhension sans autres truchement de termes isolés» (Galisson, D. Coste, P. 59). La présence systématique de l'image ne sert qu'à faciliter l'élucidation des textes des dialogues oraux.

Le type d'image exploité dans cette méthode est le dessin scolaire sous forme d'images successives sans dialogue et parfois sous forme d'images isolées accompagnant un texte. Les dessins successifs expliquent bien le dialogue et servent aussi à illustrer le contexte ou la situation mimo-gestuelle. Les éléments

mots clés: enseignement du français, évolution de l'image, manuels de FLE, compréhension, possibilités techniques

Introduction

La place faite à l'image dans les méthodes didactiques des langues dure les cinquante dernières années où elle a connu une double évolution: d'une part, son évolution conceptuelle en tant qu'outil pédagogique; d'autre part, l'évolution culturelle du public d'apprenant en tant qu'utilisateurs de l'image. Certes, l'enseignement/apprentissage des langues étrangères essaie de transmettre la langue et la culture étrangère au public d'apprenant. Dans cet enseignement, l'image pourra jouer un rôle inévitable en tant qu'un objet riche de signification. En effet, parmi les moyens et les supports pédagogiques utilisés en didactique des langues, l'image occupera une place très importante sous tous ses formes et ses variétés: dessin, peinture, la photographie, l'image publicitaire, l'image vidéo...

Cet article étudiera d'abord l'évolution de l'image dans des manuels de FLE, et ensuite, il précisera l'introduction de la technologie et la manière de l'utilisation des documents vidéo et multimédia dans l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère. Notre tâche consiste à savoir comment l'image évolue-t-elle dans les méthodes de français? Et quel est l'impact de cette évolution sur le parcours de l'enseignement/apprentissage? Ainsi, nous nous efforcerons d'étudier les différents types d'images utilisés dans les méthodes de français.

Le passage vers l'image dans la méthode directe

Depuis la méthode directe, l'image fait partie intégrante des manuels d'enseignement des langues. Dans cette méthode l'utilisation du dessin a pour but d'éviter le recours à la traduction. Cependant elle ne sert pas à mieux expliquer le dialogue, mais elle favorise simplement une meilleure explication des mots isolés et des notions concrètes hors situations.

Par exemple, dans la méthode *Mauger bleu* en tant que représentatif de la méthode directe l'objectif principal est d'accéder aux textes littéraires. Les dessins en noir et blanc sont intégrés au texte et accompagnent sa lecture. Les dessins font partie des textes de base qui sont fabriqués pour la mise en œuvre du vocabulaire. Il y a quelques mots encadrés et plusieurs mots et locutions en gras qui repèrent pour les apprenants les signaux grammaticaux et les nouveaux lexiques. Les éléments iconiques des images collent parfaitement au texte. On ne trouve même pas une trace des signes plastiques[1]. Il y a recours à l'image dans chaque leçon pour illustrer et faire comprendre le sens des mots, sans passer par la traduction. L'image iconique et figée de la méthode directe est parfois très loin de ce qu'on connaît comme la fonction de médiation[2]. L'image d'une famille, par exemple, est montrée mais à elle seule elle n'a pas cette capacité de permettre aux apprenants d'accéder à la compréhension des unités de la langue

Etude de l'évolution de l'image dans les méthodes de français

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Classroom Techniques
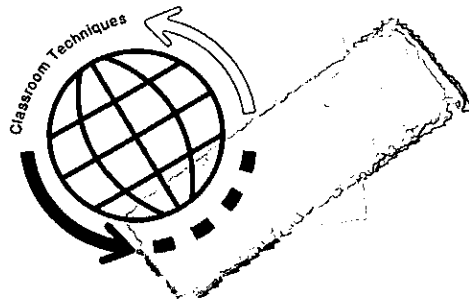
چکیده

به کارگیری تصویر در آموزش زبان‌های خارجی، از اهمیت بالا و غیر قابل انکاری برخوردار است. ویژگی شمایلی تصویر، درک مطلب را آسان‌تر می‌کند و باعث ایجاد اشتیاق، تقویت حافظه و شوق و انگیزه بین زبان‌آموزان می‌شود. درحقیقت، درمیان امکانات و وسایل کمک‌آموزشی قابل استفاده در آموزش زبان، تصویر در هر صورتی که ظاهر شود (نقاشی، عکس، تصویر تبلیغاتی، تصویر ویدیویی و...) از جایگاه ویژه‌ای برخوردار است. به علاوه، استفاده از انواع تصویر در کلاس‌های آموزش زبان‌های خارجی، وابسته به امکانات اقتصادی و پیشرفت‌های فناوری در زمان به‌کارگیری آن است. بنابراین روند به‌کارگیری تصویر همواره در حال دگرگونی است و طی ۵۰ سال اخیر، این روند از دو نظر دچار تغییر شده است؛ از یک‌طرف، دگرگونی مفهومی تصویر به‌عنوان ابزار آموزشی و از سوی دیگر، دگرگونی فرهنگی قشر زبان‌آموز که کاربران اصلی تصاویر به‌شمار می‌آیند. در همین راستا، مقاله‌ی حاضر به تحلیل چگونگی سیر تحول تصویر در روش‌های برجسته‌ی آموزش زبان فرانسه پرداخته و چگونگی ورود فناوری را به دنیای آموزش، تحت عنوان تصاویر ویدیویی و مولتی مدیا، بررسی کرده است.

کلید واژه‌ها : آموزش زبان فرانسه، تحول تصویر، روش‌های آموزش زبان فرانسه، درک‌مطلب، ابزار آموزشی.

Résumé

Quelle est l'importance du rôle de l'image dans l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère? Comment éclairons-nous l'évolution de l'image dans des manuels de FLE en appuyant sur les caractères de chaque méthodologie? Pourquoi l'utilisation de la technologie et des documents vidéo et multimédia, apparaît de plus en plus nécessaire dans une classe de langue? Il est indéniable que l'utilisation de l'image est un moyen important en apprentissage d'une langue étrangère. La nature analogique de l'image, facilite la compréhension en assurant la motivation, la mémorisation et le plaisir chez les apprenants dans un cours de langue. Evidemment L'image a été toujours présente dans la salle de classe en s'adaptant aux possibilités techniques et économiques du moment. Ce travail de recherche mettra à l'évidence d'une part, l'analyse des caractéristiques de l'image et d'autre part, l'évolution de celle-ci dans des méthodes qui se sont développées dans la didactique de la langue française.

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