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Journal of Research in Curriculum, Instruction and Educational Technology (JRCIET)

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The *Journal of Research in Curriculum, Instruction and Educational Technology (JRCIET)* is a regional quarterly refereed educational journal. It is one of the publications of the Association of Arab Educators (AAE), Egypt. JRCIET is published in English, French and German in January, April, July and October. It is issued both electronically and in paper forms. It accepts the publication of original high quality papers on both theoretical and empirical research in different areas of educational research related to curriculum, instruction and educational technology. In order for serving as a vehicle of expression for colleagues and/or for meeting university academic standards, or for promotion purpose, JRCIET publishes dissertation abstracts (M.A & PhD) in addition to reports on symposiums, conferences and meetings held on topics related to its main concerns previously referred to.

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should not exceed 25 pages following JRCIET's formatting system (see section on formatting the manuscript). Submitted manuscripts should be written according to the APA style (for a brief manual of the APA style, consult the *Association of Arab Educators'* website on <http://www.aeducators.org/>)

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Three copies of the research/article should be submitted. The manuscript should be typed, double-spaced on a A4 paper, on one side of the paper only. A cover page should contain only the research title, name(s) of author(s) and institutional affiliations on a separate page in order to preserve author anonymity on submission of the research/article to referees. An abstract not exceeding 200 words should be included on a separate sheet of paper. The main components of the research/article are Introduction, Method, Results, Discussion, Conclusion(s), Acknowledge- ments (if any), and References. Diagrams and Figures if they are considered essential, should be clearly related to the section of the text to which they refer. The original diagrams and figures should be submitted with the manuscript.

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The title should accurately reflect the focus and content of the research. The title should be brief and grammatically correct.

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Examining the influence of online reflection mode (Individual vs. Collaborative) on deep learning of pre-service female teachers about Technological and Pedagogical Knowledge

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Abstract

Examining the influence of individual and collaborative online reflection on female pre-service teachers' knowledge about pedagogical and technological knowledge is promising. Deciding which mode of reflection is significant can lead to design effective online activities for female pre-service teachers. This research examined the influence of individual and collaborative online reflection on pre-service teachers' knowledge about pedagogical and technological knowledge. The experiment included two groups with pre-post test to decide the effect of online reflection mode on deep learning about pedagogical and technological knowledge of pre-service teacher. Data were analyzed by using t-test since numbers of groups are two and number of variables is one. T-test can be used to complete the comparison process. Finally, results were reported and discussed in the light of the context of the research and the previous literature about online reflection.

Keywords: Pre-service teacher, Teacher education, TPACK development, Online reflection, Individual work, Group Work

1.Introduction

Preparing pre-service teacher to use instructional technology is vital for the effective integration in the learning process. Preparation may include the development of pre-service knowledge about technology, pedagogy or content. In the general program of pre-service teachers' preparation, it is required to focus on the pedagogy and technology knowledge since the backgrounds of the learners are different (science, art...etc). Technology and Pedagogy knowledge (TPK) model can be used in these general programs of pre-service teachers' preparation.

TPK is a sub domain of Technological, Pedagogical and Content Knowledge TPACK model (Mishra & Koehler, 2006). The main elements of this model are technological knowledge TK that can be defined as “the knowledge about standard technologies, such as books, chalk and blackboard, and more advanced technologies, such as the Internet and digital video” (Mishra & Koehler, 2006, p. 1027), pedagogical knowledge PK that can be defined as “the deep knowledge about the processes and practices or methods of teaching and learning and how it encompasses, among other things, overall educational purposes, values, and aims” (Mishra & Koehler, 2006, p. 1026), and content knowledge CK that can be defined as “ the knowledge about the actual subject matter that is to be learned or taught”. In this research, technological and pedagogical knowledge is including “the existence, components, and capabilities of various technologies as they are used in teaching and learning settings, and conversely, knowing how teaching might change as the result of using particular technologies” (Mishra & Koehler, 2006, p. 1028). Using such model is effective in general preparation programs for teachers.

Learning activities are the real transformer of knowledge to pre-service teacher. Types of learning activities may include reflection about the content being taught, practice of teaching and the daily experiences in schools (Shulman, 1987) .The efficacy of reflective practice in helping prepare highly qualified teacher candidates has long been recognized (Bullough Jr, 1989; Ertmer, 2003; Gore, 1991; Shulman, 1987; Yost, Sentner, & Forlenza-Bailey, 2000; Zeichner & Liston, 1987). Dewey (1993) defined reflection as an “active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends” (p. 118). In pre-service teacher preparation, reflection is a critical part (Tochon, 1999).

Improving reflective writing of pre-service teachers is vital for deep learning. According to (Posner, 2005) Surface knowledge can mainly be achieved if experience has no reflection; Thus, it is

the experience combined with reflection, which leads to deep learning. Also, collaboration between learners has the potential to improve reflective writing (Dewey, 1993; Ramsden, 1992).

Transfer the activity of the reflection to be online can yield various benefit such as flexibility and shareability of reflection among pre-service teacher. When using such techniques, Students may ask to have the choice to decide either to work individually or in groups for online reflection activities (Personal experience). So far, a little is known about the influence of individual and collaborative online reflection on pre-service teachers' knowledge about instructional technology. Thus, deciding which mode of online reflection activities is more effective can increase the quality of instructional technology preparation programs.

Purpose and Research Objectives

The purpose of this research is to examine the influence of online reflection mode (individual vs. collaborative) on learners' deep learning about TPK. Thus, in the current research, two objectives are defined:

1. Designing a standardized test that measures deep learning of the instructional content.
2. Examining the influence of online reflection mode (individual or collaborative) on female pre-service teachers' deep learning about TPK.

2. Research hypothesis and Variables

The independent variables are online reflection and task type (Individual, collaborative) while the dependent variables are learners' technological and pedagogical deep learning. The hypothesis of this research is none directional as follows:

1. **Null hypothesis:** no significance difference between group 1 (G1) that used individual reflection and group 2 (G2) that used collaborative reflection at 0.5 level
2. **Alternative hypothesis:** there is a significance difference between G1 that used individual reflection and (G2) that used collaborative reflection at 0.5 level

3.Literature Review

Reflection is the process by which learners can examine their thought in the light of the given information in order to get better understanding for the information being taught. Boud, Keogh, & Walker (1985) defines reflection as 'those intellectual and affective activities in which individuals engage to explore their experiences in order to lead to new understandings and appreciations.'(p. 19). Shulman's Model of Pedagogical Reasoning and Action (1987) considered reflection as a critical aspects in his model. Reviewing, reconstructing, re-enacting and critically analyzing one's own and the class's performance, and grounding explanations in evidence are a reflection process that should happen by teachers.

Learners reflections can be categorized into nine different types in relation to the activity, time and style of writing as summarized in table 1.

Table 1: Types of Reflection

(Schön, 1983)	Reflection on action
	Reflection in action
	Reflection for action
(Von Wright, 1992)	Retrospective Reflection
	Contemporaneous Reflection
	Anticipatory Reflection
(Hatton & Smith, 1995)	Descriptive Reflection
	Dialogic Reflection
	Critical Reflection

During the preparation for pre-service teachers to integrate technology effectively, critical reflection is required to deepen learners' knowledge about learning (Moon, 2004). In deep learning, the process of reflection can take place collaboratively or individually. For collaborative reflection, a group of students exchange and interact with each other to achieve better understanding by working together (Kemmis, 1985; Knights, 1985; Von Wright, 1992). On another hand, individual reflection is a self-reflection process with the given content to get better interaction during the learning process (Black, Sileo, & Prater, 2000; Costa & Kallick, 2000). Limited researches have studied which mode (collaborative or individual) is more effective. Thus,

in this research we are trying examine the influence of reflection's mode on pre-service teachers' TPK deep learning.

4. Research Procedure

This research was conducted at Taif University in Saudi Arabia. In order for the graduates to be assigned as teachers, they are required to complete a high diploma in education. This diploma lasts for two semesters including both theoretical learning and practical training for the students. Two courses are offered related to the use of computer in education: Educational Technology course and Educational Application of Computer course. The name of the course at which this research was conducted is Educational Technology. At the beginning of the semester, the researcher provides students with a syllabus describing objectives of the course, content, tasks required, deadlines and the course references.

This course is one of many other courses that are required to be completed by Pre-service teacher during their preparation program. The main objective of this course is the exposure of the students to the process by which technology can be integrated effectively into the learning process. The content of the course consists of one main textbook and other references for further reading. The main textbook is named Educational Technology authored by Mandor Abd Alsalam and consists of six chapters. These chapters covers the following topics: The educational communication process, Concept of instructional technology, The process of selecting appropriate instructional technology, The concept of educational technology, Recent development in educational technology tools and Applications of Educational technology in the teaching process. These topics should be covered during 12 weeks and the pedagogy used during the course teaching is lecturing using PowerPoint slides and discussion.

Students were required to write three online reflection papers about the books chapters. After studying two chapters, they were required to submit a reflection paper in Learning

Management System LMS BlackBoard (BB). After the deadline, they were required to post their papers to the forum in BB.

Since students are not familiar to this type of papers, the researcher provides scaffolding support to achieve better reflective writing (Lai & Calandra, 2007). Types of scaffolding may include soft scaffolding or hard scaffolding (Saye & Brush, 2002). These soft and hard scaffolding can be in a form of conceptual, metacognitive, procedural or strategic scaffold (Hannifin, Land, & Oliver, 1999). In this research hard and conceptual scaffolding were used to support learners' reflection process.

During the scaffolding process, learners were instructed to write reflective paper about each chapter of the textbook. The main steps of writing reflection were explained to them that include description, interpretation and outcome (Cleland & Ross, 2012). In order to increase learners understanding about reflective writing, a sample of reflection writing was provided by the lecturer as a model work.

5.Participants

The sample of this research is female pre-service teachers in two sections of high diploma in Education. They were auto randomly assigned by the university system into the sections. For the selection process, it was convenient sampling since the researcher teaches both sections. One of the sections was selected randomly to complete the task of online reflection individually while the other section would complete the online reflection collaboratively (G1 n=48, G2 n=48).

6.Data collection and Analysis

An instrument consists of 36 objective questions was designed to assess learners deep knowledge about TPK. The six chapters of the textbook were analyzed to identify the instructional objectives of each course. After that, six objective questions were designed related to deep learning in Bloom's taxonomy. Evaluation and knowledge level were not included in the elements designed since knowledge level is mostly related to

lower learning and evaluation elements was challenging since most of the textbook chapters were theoretical rather than practical.

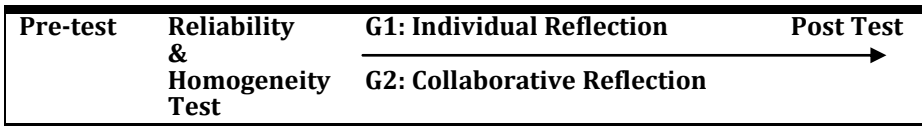
Table 2: elements of the instrument

	No of questions	Evaluation	Deeper learning
	6	Synthesis	↑
	6	Analysis	
	12	Application	
	12	Understanding	
	0	Knowledge	Lower Learning
Total	36		

Validity test_for the instrument was conducted with two experts. Minor comments were given and considered during the final version of the instrument. The alpha Cronbach reliability test of pre-test is 0.76. According to George &Mallery (2001), when the results of reliability test range from .75 to .92, it is considered satisfactory to outstanding.

The data of the research was analyzed by using inferential statistics (T-test). Pre-test and post-test were used to examine the influence of online reflection mode on Pre-service teachers' knowledge of technology and pedagogy as shown in figure 1.

Figure(1) Research Design



Results were analyzed by using Excel software to examine the influence of modes of reflection on participants' deep knowledge about TPK.

6.Findings and Discussions

6.1 Within Groups' Comparison

The results within groups who performed the task of refection individually and collaboratively show a potential impact of such activities on learners' deep learning. Table(3) shows in details a significance difference within G1 on learners' deep knowledge about TPK. Also, results of pre-post test for G2

show a potential significance difference in learners' deep learning about TPK as shows in table 3.

Table 3: G1 and G2 Pre-Post Test

Pre-post test within same group: Section (G1)			Pre-post test within same group: Section (G2)		
Sample Range (1 to 48):	Pre G1	Post G1	Sample Range (1 to 48):	Pre G2	Post G2
Sample Mean:	16.7	21.5	Sample Mean:	16.0	18.7
Sample Std Dev:	3.0	7.1	Sample Std Dev:	2.7	7.7
Mean of Differences:	-4.7		Mean of Differences:	-2.6	
Std Dev of Differences:	7.0		Std Dev of Differences:	8.5	
t-Statistic (d.f. = 38):	-4.1		t-Statistic (d.f. = 47):	-2.1	
Critical Value(s):	± 2.0		Critical Value(s):	± 2.0	
Alpha:	0.05		Alpha:	0.05	
p-Value:	0.0002		P-Value:	0.0335	
Decision Rule: Reject the Null Hypothesis if t-Statistic > 2.0244 or p-Value < 0.05			Decision Rule: Reject the Null Hypothesis if t-Statistic > 2.0117 or p-Value < 0.05		
Conclusion: Reject the Null Hypothesis			Conclusion: Reject the Null Hypothesis		
95% CI for the Mean of differences: 4.72- ± 2.28 [7.00- to 2.43-]			95% CI for the Mean of Differences: 2.69- ± 2.47 [5.16- to 0.22-]		

6.2 Between Groups Comparison

The homogeneity between groups was verified as shown in Table 4. This result between G1 and G2 of pre-test are reasonable since both groups are fresh graduate and mainly have not studied courses related to instructional technology. Similar homogeneity between the two groups is critical to make an accurate comparison when examining the effect of reflection mode on learners' knowledge. Also, Result of Pre-test between G1 and G2 shows no difference as shown in table 4.

Table 4: G1 and G2 Homogeneity and Pre-Test comparison

Homogeneity Test		Pre test between groups: Section (G1,G2)		
Null Hypothesis:	Var(Pre G1) = Var(Pre G2)	-	Pre G1	Pre G2
Alternative Hypothesis:	Var(Pre G1) ≠ Var(Pre G2)	Sample Mean:	16.7	16.0
Sample Variance (Pre 48):	9.01	Sample Std Dev:	3.0	2.7
Sample Variance (Pre 51):	7.55	Difference in Sample Means:	0.7	
F(38,47) Statistic:	1.19	t-Statistic (d.f. = 78):	1.1	
Lower Critical Value:	0.53	Critical Value(s):	± 1.9	
Upper Critical Value:	1.82	Alpha:	0.05	
Alpha:	0.05	p-Value:	0.2434	
Decision Rule: Reject the Null Hypothesis if F-Statistic < 0.5363 or F-Statistic > 1.8276		Decision Rule: Reject the Null Hypothesis if t-Statistic > 1.9908 or p-Value < 0.05		
Conclusion: Do Not Reject the Null Hypothesis		Conclusion: Do Not Reject the Null Hypothesis		
		95% CI for the Difference in Means: 0.73 ± 1.24 [0.51- to 1.97]		

Although G1 - individual online reflection- and G2 - collaborative online reflection- used different mode of reflections, results of Post-test between G1 and G2 show no difference as shown in table 5. Both modes of reflection

(individual and collaborative) are effective for TPK development as shown in table 5. It seems inner reflection (individual) and outer reflection (collaborative) can yield similar knowledge about TPK. This result can be related to the nature of the adult learners who prefer to be independent and supported by others too (Knowles, 1973; Merriam, Caffarella, Wlodkowski, & Cranton, 2001). Thus, using a blend of both techniques for every instructional activity related to TPK development is advisable to fulfill the preference of every student in the classroom.

Table 5: G1 and G2 Post- Test comparison

Post test between groups: Section (G1, G2)		
Hypothesis Test :	Difference in Population Means	
-	post G1	post G2
Sample Mean:	21.5	18.7
Sample Std Dev:	7.1	7.7
Difference in Sample Means:	2.7	
t-Statistic (d.f. = 83):	1.7	
Critical Value(s):	± 1.9	
Alpha:	0.05	
p-Value:	0.0877	
Decision Rule: Reject the Null Hypothesis if t-Statistic > 1.9890 or p-Value < 0.05		
Conclusion: Do Not Reject the Null Hypothesis		
95% CI for the Difference in Means: 2.76 ± 3.18 [0.42- to 5.94]		

7.Limitation and Conclusion

Since the context of this research is limited and one sub-model of TPACK is studied, there are some limitations should be considered about this research:

1. Participants in this research are female pre-service teachers. Results cannot be generalized to the population of all pre-service males and female teachers.
2. Both in-service male and females teachers are not related to the population of this research because the sample in this research is pre-service female teachers.

3. Knowledge that examined is technological and pedagogical knowledge, other sub models of TPACK models are required to be studied before generalizing the results of this research to other models of TPACK.

Teachers' preparation programs can provide more freedom to learners to decide which type of reflection they practice during the preparation of technology integration program. This type of freedom may increase learners' satisfaction about the course since individuals can decide according to their interest which type of reflection is more suitable for them.

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Designing and Validating an English Speaking General Proficiency E-Test

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Abstract

English Speaking General proficiency Test is an e-test that was designed and applied to a wide range of EFL speakers: three hundred and thirty participants.

The test was meant to be a valid and reliable tool that could be used as a trustful basis for estimating speaking proficiency. Seven speaking sub-skills were assessed for each testee: pronunciation, intonation and stress, vocabulary, grammar, cohesion, content and fluency. There were a number of alternatives for test delivery and administration: at language labs, on personal cell phones or on Google Drive or YouTube. Assessment rubrics were also designed by the researcher so as to score the measured speaking sub-skills. Test reliability was established by calculating Alpha Coefficient. Besides, criterion-referenced validity was statistically calculated by comparing the participants' scores on the current test with their scores on an ILETS speaking test sample. Both reliability and validity were calculated by using the SPSS 11.0 program. Results showed that the current form of the test was reliable and valid for testing English speaking general proficiency.

Key Words: *Language Testing, Computerized Tests, Speaking Assessment, Proficiency Tests, Evaluation.*

Introduction

Speaking is a basic language skill. It is a productive oral-mode skill in the sense that the linguistic material is produced orally by the speaker himself. However, this skill is usually neglected in most EFL and ESP courses as well as classes. Most formal exams in different levels and grades concentrate on testing reading and writing rather than listening and speaking.

The theory and practice of testing second or foreign language speaking general proficiency is considered to be the youngest sub-field of language testing. It was the Second World War that constituted a turning point in the interest in and focus on testing speaking. The reason behind that was the need for

revolutionizing teaching and testing speaking so as to serve political and military goals. As for testing speaking in educational contexts, the earliest testing system was adopted by many universities and schools so as to certify the proficiency of bilingual teachers and academics in the 1970s.

Questioning the value of the TOEFL iBT speaking section as an indicator of university students' academic oral ability, Ockey et al. (2015) made a study on 222 English university majors. They compared TOEFL iBT speaking scores to performances on a group oral discussion, picture and graph description, prepared oral presentation tasks. Pronunciation, fluency, grammar, vocabulary, interactional competence, descriptive skill, delivery skill, and question answering were the speaking sub-skills concerned in the comparison. Statistically, they used Pearson product-moment correlation between scores on the speaking section of TOEFL iBT and some university speaking tasks. TOEFL iBT speaking scores were found good overall indicators of academic oral ability. Although they were better measures of pronunciation, fluency, vocabulary and grammar, they were not that efficient in measuring interactional competence, descriptive skill and presentation delivery skill.

Mianto (2014) discussed the difficulties in testing speaking performance. She also elaborated rubrics as a tool to grade speaking tests. Three types of speaking tests: monologue, dialogue and multilogue were compared in terms of their different characteristics and purposes. Furthermore, Mianto depicted two main difficulties in testing speaking. She illustrated that speaking involved a combination of skills that might have no correlation with each other, and which did not lend themselves well to objective testing. Besides, there were many language features in speaking skill that became influence factors of scoring. In conclusion, she recommended using rubrics for testing speaking mentioning their merits.

On the same track, Hughes (2013) discussed the difficulties in the way of teaching and testing speaking. She asserted the overlapping nature of speaking with a considerable number of

other areas and disciplines as a central difficulty of developing this skill.

There was a reassertion of the importance of speaking ability after the expansion in the constructs underlying second / foreign exams. It was argued that it could be taken for granted that the ability to express oneself in writing was correlated with a similar ability to speak the language fluently. This increased the interest in teaching and testing speaking (Weir et al., 2013).

As for the development of testing speaking skills, Weir et al. (2013) added that testing speaking broadened from the relatively narrow conceptualization of speaking as pronunciation accuracy, at the beginning of the 20th century, to a communicative and later an interactional definition of the construct. Speaking could be measured by oral tests that included a range of tasks allowing the display of communicative language ability in a variety of contexts. They noted that the widespread use of computer-delivered and computer-scored oral tests had succeeded in measuring the core features of speech. These core features were generated in monologic tasks and features of language.

Examining six best known English proficiency tests; namely: Cambridge ESOL Exams, TOEFL, ILETS, Trinity College London Exams, Pearson Tests of English and the International Test of English Proficiency; Varela and Palacios (2013) focused on the different tasks and assessment criteria for oral production skills. They argued that spoken skills constituted an important part of general English examinations. Oral skills were assessed through a variety of tasks that included personal interviews, photo descriptions, topic discussions and role play. It was also noted that there was a preference of computer-based speaking examinations over face-to-face examinations in short question-answer tasks, whereas face-to-face examinations were more effective in combining such tasks as personal interviews and topic discussions. Besides, speaking was often assessed on the basis of four trait range: accuracy, fluency, interaction and coherence. However, Varela and Palacios (2013) concluded that

there were points of weakness in the investigated English speaking tests. The first defect they found was the ambiguity of the grammatical features under consideration. In addition to this, there was a lack of updating or adapting mechanisms in the guides of these tests so as to keep up with new developments in English language teaching methodologies. A third defect was represented in the lack of focus on the “human” element – those who took the test and those who scored it – during test design.

Paker and Höl (2012) explored the attitudes and perceptions of the students and instructors towards the speaking test at a School of Foreign Languages. Their sample included 210 students and 32 instructors. Final results indicated that most of the students had no experience of any speaking test before, and therefore, they had higher anxiety during the test. Among students, the speaking test was regarded as the most difficult test when compared to the testing of other language skills. Moreover, students pointed out that they could not express themselves adequately during the test, and claimed that they needed to have more oral practice in the classroom. As for instructors, it was emphasized that the speaking test was the most difficult one to apply and assess; however, the scale and rubrics were adequate enough to assess the students’ oral performance.

Overviewing the academic literature on face-to-face and computer-based assessment of speaking and exploring the test features of these two different test modes, Galaczi (2010) concluded that the main advantage of computer-delivered and computer-scored speaking tests was their convenience and standardization of delivery, which enhanced their reliability and practicality. However, face-to-face speaking tests and the involvement of human interviewers and raters introduced a broader test construct, since interaction became an integral part of the test, and so learners’ interactional competence could be tapped into. She argued that there was not just one way of testing speaking, or one ‘best’ way to do it. Thus, language testers should choose from a range of useful formats which aid in eliciting and assessing speaking skills, from fully automated speaking tests to

ones involving human interviewers and raters. This recommendation inspired the integrative design of the current test.

In the same vein, Qian (2009) was preoccupied with the debates over the appropriateness of two different testing modes, namely, (a) face-to-face, or direct, testing, and (b) person-to-machine, or semi-direct, testing. He found the results of the previous research conducted in this area mixed and confusing. His investigation was carried out in the context of a university setting in Hong Kong and compared the popularity of both testing modes by analyzing reactions and perceptions of a group of test takers who had sat for both test modes.

The results indicated that although a large proportion of the participants had no particular preference in terms of the testing mode, the number of participants who strongly favored direct testing far exceeded the number strongly favoring semi-direct testing. The participants' main reason cited for disliking semi-direct testing was its inability for the examiner and examinee to interact during the test, which appeared to have created a psychological barrier for the test taker.

Opposing the common belief that tests of spoken language ability are the most difficult, O'Sullivan (2008) highlighted the recent improvements in designing and evaluating speaking tests. He depicted the different characteristics of the speaking context, the speaking test taker and the speaking tester. Afterwards, he thoroughly discussed and compared between the holistic rating and the analytical rating scales of speaking skills. His paper concluded that there was a very high correlation between a test taker's holistic score and the total analytic score. This reflected the findings of a number of studies in which both analytic and holistic scores were given, and certainly suggested that both scales offered very similar outcomes.

Reviewing recent trends in the conceptualizations and formats of English proficiency tests, Cumming (2007) focused on construct validation, consistency and innovations in the media of

test administration including various forms of computer and other technological adaptations of a number of common tests such as TOEFL. Cumming's analysis and criticism were enlightening in guiding the current test design.

According to Loma (2004), speaking assessment was a cycle process that involved four stages. The first stage was to recognize a need for speaking assessment. The second stage was planning and developing the assessment tasks and criteria. Two interactive stages followed to complete the cycle: test administration and test rating or evaluation. This cycle was followed by the researcher in designing and implementing the test in hand.

Handling speaking sub-skills and assessment, Florez (1999) pointed out that speaking sub-skills included language functions (the patterns that tend to occur in certain discourse situations); linguistic competence (producing specific points of language such as grammar, pronunciation or vocabulary) and sociolinguistic competence (understanding when, why and in what way to produce language). She also argued that speaking assessments could take many forms, from oral sections of standardized tests to authentic assessments. An assertion was on the criteria that should be clearly defined and understandable to both the testers and testees.

Describing how speaking tests were conducted and evaluated, Adams (1979) pointed out that a speaking test began with simple social formulae such as introductions, comments on the weather or other ice-breaking questions. The testee's response to these questions identified the preliminary ceiling of the course of the rest of the test. A testee was commonly asked to talk about himself, his family and his work. He might be asked to play a role or give street directions. A testee's adequate coping to preliminaries led the tester to move to natural conversations on autobiographical and professional topics. In respect of evaluating speaking tests, Adams (1979) provided a checklist that consisted of five sub-skills; namely: accent, grammar, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension. She explained that accent was divided into

pronunciation and intonation; and grammar included morphology and syntax. The gradual difficulty arrangement of test questions that was followed by Adams (1979) as well as the checklist technique in evaluation was of great help for designing and scoring the current test.

Defining the Construct of Speaking

Testing speaking required defining the construct through answering such questions as: what is speaking? And, what constitutes speaking abilities? A construct could not be observed directly. However, it could be defined in terms of the observable behaviours of interest in a particular learning context. Speaking as a construct had to be associated with acts that could be observed and, later, could be scored. In a nutshell, all the sub-skills involved in the process of testing speaking had to be defined operationally. It was argued that to test speaking, a tester should 'pick and mix' so as to define the construct. A rationale and an empirical evidence should be provided to support the mix in the light of the test purposes (Fulcher, 2014).

On the track, Long and Doughty (2011) argued that there were two necessary parameters to define the construct of speaking: the repertoire and the explanatory conditions. The repertoire referred to the range of features and combination of features which speaking included. The explanatory conditions included the range of basic and socio-psychological conditions that explain the occurrence of the speaking features.

Reviewing related literature and previous speaking tests, it was found that the basic speaking sub-skills that could be operationally measured were:

1.Pronunciation

Pronunciation refers to the production of sounds to make meaning. It includes attention to the particular sounds of a language (language segments). Regarding pronunciation to be a set of habits to produce sounds, it was thought that learning to pronounce a second language meant building up new

pronunciation habits and overcoming the bias of the first language (Gilakjani, 2012).

2.Intonation and Stress

Intonation is defined as the melody of speech. On testing intonation, a tester observes how the pitch of voice rises and falls and how the testee uses pitch variations to convey meaning. If there was no intonation, speech would be monotonous. Intonation has four functions: (a) the attitudinal function, which expresses the speaker's attitudes and emotions; (b) the grammatical function, which identifies speech structure; (c) the informational function, which distinguishes new pieces of information in an utterance and (d) the cohesive function, which signals the contrast or the coherence of clause sequences (Wells, 2006).

Concerning stress, it is the combination of loudness, pitch and duration. English is a stress language: stress is an important component of each word. Stress can distinguish word meaning (*'billow* and *be'low*) or identify its part of speech (*'import* "noun" and *im'port* "verb") Wells (2006).

3.Vocabulary

Vocabulary has to do with the knowledge of words. Milton (2009) illustrated that there was no clear-cut definition of a "word". In tests that measured vocabulary knowledge, testers defined the term 'vocabulary' according to the circumstances and learners' characteristics. Thus, the current author in this e-test defined vocabulary as the count of the word repertoire that a testee used to answer each question.

4.Grammar

In general, grammar involves two branches: morphology and syntax. Morphology is the structure of words. Syntax is the structure of sentences. Testing grammar has a number of levels. In an advanced level, grammar is tested to check whether its rules generate the expressions a speaker wants to say and do not generate the ones he does not want (Larson, 2010). In this test,

the speaker's ability to use correct word and sentence structures identifies his / her level at the grammatical skill.

5.Cohesion

The function of cohesion is to make a spoken passage of any length form a unified whole. This means that a cohesive spoken utterance is not just a collection of separate, unrelated sentences. More specifically, cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the spoken utterance is dependent on that of another. This creates an integrated spoken utterance (Halliday & Hasan, 2014). Cohesion is achieved through the choice of conjunctions and connectors. It includes the physical 'internal ties' of discourse (Renkema, 2009).

6.Content

The sub-skill of content refers to the speaker's ability to state related, enriched or expanded information about each stimulus. On the excellent level of content, a speaker is capable of giving a creative response to the stimulus.

7.Fluency

Fluency can be defined as rapid, smooth, accurate, lucid, and efficient translation of thought into the target language. In a simple simile, fluency is seen as the fluidity and automaticity of speech. The aspects of fluency include smoothness, confidence and accurate expression and rate (Sidimanjana et al., 2014).

Purpose of the Test

This test was designed to be a valid and reliable tool to avoid the shortcomings of the well-known speaking tests and to measure English speaking general proficiency. It was not limited to a certain content. Through tasks and elicitation techniques, the speaking test in hand collected evidence in a systematic way to support an inference about the speaking construct and its defining sub-skills.

Need for the Test

Measuring English speaking general proficiency may be a target for:

Academic EFL Departments

Some specialized academic departments in universities think of a criterion upon which candidates are accepted or rejected. The current test can be used as a selection test to decide on the acceptance or rejection of students into a particular program.

Public and Private Institutions

Airports, tourism companies, banks, diplomatic institutions, language centres and the like may include posts that entail an adequate level of oral-mode skills. Thus, the current speaking test may serve to judge such job applicants' communicative skills.

EFL Researchers

Researchers who are preoccupied with speaking skills may employ the current test as a tool in their studies. Using reliable and valid tests saves time and effort for researchers and logically renders trusted results.

EFL Teachers

Teachers are always preoccupied with evaluation. Evaluating students' skills is an essential task in teaching profession. Thus, the current test may be beneficial for EFL teachers in such contexts when measuring speaking general proficiency is required.

Individuals

Whoever studies English as a Foreign Language may need to test his speaking general proficiency. This test – along with its scoring rubrics – can aid learners to self-assess their speaking skills.

Participants

The current test was taken by 330 participants. Ten graduates represented the first category of test takers. Their ages ranged from 24 to 25 years old. The second category of test participants was 170 General Secondary Certificate students. They are about 16 years old. The third category consisted of 150 participants of university undergraduates. They were 19 to 20 years old. The heterogeneity of the sample was intentional so

that the test validity and reliability could be trustfully calculated. Student participants were told that the aim of the test had nothing to do with their formal school or faculty evaluation. The test aim was pointed out to participants who took part in the test voluntarily.

Test Blueprint

The *English Speaking General proficiency Test* is a computerized evaluation tool designed by the researcher so as to measure speaking proficiency on seven speaking sub-skills; namely: pronunciation, intonation and stress, vocabulary, grammar, cohesion, content and fluency. Microsoft PowerPoint 2010 is used to design the test screens. The test includes twenty eight screens starting and ending with covers. The general instructions of the test are displayed on the screens (2) through (5). They point out the aim of the test and its allotted time. Moreover, these general instructions give the gist of the test structure and when and how to answer its questions. On Screen (6), the testee is instructed to press the “Start Button” to begin doing the test. Screen (7) displays the instructions of Part I. Part I questions are displayed on six screens. This part contains two direct questions and takes five minutes. Afterwards, Screen (14) appears automatically to give the testee instructions on Part II. In this part, the testee is required to answer three questions. A testee looks at some pictures on the screen and tries to describe or comment on them. The time allotted to this part is six minutes. The instructions of Part III appear on Screen (24). This part consists of only one question. It requires a testee to give a short talk on a certain topic. The allowed time for this part is four minutes. The last screen displays the end cover of the test.

Test Administration

On delivering the test, two formats were available to participants: a video format and a PowerPoint show file format. Another choice was given to participants. They could do the test at school or faculty labs, do it on their personal cell phones or do it on the Internet at home as the test was uploaded at Google

Drive and Youtube. The availability of such alternatives made students feel at ease and encouraged to take the test.

A number of preservice teachers – who had field training at secondary schools – were instructed on how to administer the test. They took the role of testers and applied the test to secondary school students, whereas the researcher tested college graduates and undergraduates. In this test, a tester was just a guide or counselor who instructed students on how to do the test and the different alternatives to record and deliver the answer.

Scoring Rubrics

A scoring sheet was designed by the researcher to calculate the score for each testee. An analytic scoring rubric – designed by the researcher – was used to assess the target speaking sub-skills. These sub-skills were pronunciation, intonation and stress, vocabulary, grammar, cohesion, content and fluency. Each sub-skill was given a score on a scale ranged from 1 to 4. There was a detailed specification of the criteria which were required to give a certain score. Getting 1 on pronunciation – for instance – meant that the testee had a poor ability in pronouncing sounds and words. A score of 2 was interpreted as “Fair”. Getting 3 meant that the testee had a good deal of the sub-skill. Finally, a score of 4 indicated the excellent mastery of the sub-skill. The sum total of the entire test was 168 scores.

Test Worthiness

According to Neukrug & Fawcett (2014), test worthiness referred to how good a test was. It encompassed an involved and objective analysis of four critical features: reliability, validity, cross-cultural fairness and practicality.

The test was tried out so as to calculate test reliability and validity. Three hundred and thirty participants took the test and the data collected were analyzed statistically using the SPSS 11.0 program.

Reliability

The first administration of the test was in September 2014. Three months later, participants were retested. Participants' responses were scored by two professional raters other than the researcher. Then, inter-rater average scores were calculated. Afterwards, reliability was calculated by finding Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient. Test-retest data were statistically processed by SPSS 11.0. It was found that Alpha Coefficient equaled .9. According to Gliem & Gliem (2003), an Alpha Coefficient that is $> .9$ indicates an excellent consistency. Consequently, it was concluded that the test was reliable.

Validity

Establishing test validity on a statistical basis, the participants took a model of ILETS speaking test. They were assessed according to ILETS Assessment Criteria. Criterion-referenced validity was figured by finding Pearson's Correlation Coefficient between the participants' total scores on the current test and their total scores on the ILETS speaking test.

Before finding the correlation coefficient, a necessary step was taken to test the normality of data as a prerequisite for calculating the correlation. In this concern, Shapiro-Wilk Test of normality was carried out by the SPSS 11.0 program. The following table shows the normality test results:

Table 1: Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality

	Statistics	df	Significance
Current Speaking Test	.968	330	.425
ILETS	.946	330	.100

The significance of data of the current speaking test was .425, whereas; the significance of data of the ILETS Test was .100. Since the significance of data was greater than .05, data were normal and valid for calculating the correlation coefficient (Rovai et al., 2013).

Using the SPSS 11.0 program, correlation between participants' scores on the current speaking e-test and their scores on ILETS was estimated using Pearson correlation coefficient. Results indicated that the correlation coefficient was

.858. Consequently, it could be deduced that the scores on both tests were strongly correlated. Accordingly, the current *English Speaking General proficiency Test* was statistically valid.

Cross-cultural Fairness

The items of this test were free of cultural bias. Whether the testee was an Egyptian or an American, nothing would affect the way he understood or answered the questions. A panel of jurors in the area of ELT was consulted to guarantee that each item of the test was scrutinized for readability before administration. Questions about personal details, hobbies and suffered problems were all so common for both native and non-native English speakers alike. The three provided photos in Part II were also free from cultural connotations.

Practicality

Test practicality involved a number of factors. The ease of understanding and administering the test was one of the indicators of its practicality. The testers had a variety of techniques to administer the test: he could administer it at school, or send it to the students' e-mails, Facebook accounts ... etc. A testee had also a number of alternatives: he could take the test at school or at home. The voice file that contained the answer could be recorded on a computer set or simply on a mobile phone. It could be delivered in an e-mail, on a flash memory, or simply, via a Bluetooth connection on mobiles.

The number of test takers did not affect the ease of its administration. On the contrary, the different available alternatives through which the test could be delivered allowed the testers to evaluate a relatively large sample: 330 testees.

Another point that suggested the practicality of the current test was the obvious printed design of its scoring rubrics. The set criteria for scoring each speaking sub-skill on each item saved time and effort during the evaluation and result interpretation phases.

Cost was a crucial factor of the test practicality. The design of the test screens required no complicated or professional programs. Similarly, all methods of test delivery were done for no cost at all. Free Internet and cell phone utilities were best used in this concern.

Conclusion

Designing an English Speaking General Proficiency Test is an attempt to offer a simple, reliable, valid and easy to handle tool to evaluate one of the main language skills. It endeavours to overcome the unwelcome features of the well-known speaking tests. Such features, as summed up by Abedi (2010), included not being sensitive enough to the needs of some subgroups of testees and having some unrelated variables to the focal measurement construct (e.g., unnecessary linguistic complexity and cultural biases in construction of items). Consequently, these features could affect the quality of high-stakes assessments for non-native English speakers. Modern technology is employed in the design and the delivery of the test so as to serve the purposes of being up-to-date, of being familiar to participants and of being easy to use. The researcher is looking forward to developing the current form of the newborn test and its scoring rubrics. Further research is invited to evaluate and improve the test. Other techniques for testing speaking and other speaking sub-skills to be tested may be also investigated.

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The Effect of Self-Regulatory Strategies in Enhancing Listening Skills and Self-Efficacy of EFL Learners

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Abstract

This study was conducted to explore *The Effect of Self-Regulatory Strategies in Enhancing Listening Skills and Self-Efficacy of EFL Learners*. Participants of the current study were 80 female 3rd level female students divided into two groups (experimental and control group) with 40 each. The experimental group students trained in self-regulation strategies in learning listening skills while the control group used the traditional way in their learning. The findings indicated that students in the experimental group surpassed the control group in terms of listening performance using self-regulation strategies. Furthermore, results revealed that self-regulation strategies training helped students improve their self-efficacy. The study suggested that due to the significant role of self-regulatory strategies, it is seems relevant to do a comprehensive review on the role of self-regulation in learning a foreign language to gain a deeper understanding of the development of self-regulation in learning a foreign, how language teachers can help the learners to use self-regulatory strategies in a proper way to create positive beliefs about their abilities to learn a foreign language.

Keywords: *Self-Regulatory Strategies, Listening Skills, Self-Efficacy.*

Introduction and Background:

Foreign language research over the past three decades has indicated that listening plays a key role in language learning (Dunkel, 1991; Faerch& Kasper, 1986; Medelsohn, 1993; O'Malley&Chamot, 1990; Rubin, 1994; Tsui&Fullilove, 1998, Carter &Nunan, 2001). In many language curricula, listening is still frequently viewed as a complex skill, for which the best approach appears to be simply more practice. Listening skill instruction as well as strategy development still need greater attention in order to demystify its process (Rost, 2001).

In a number of language learning contexts, learners may have encountered difficulties at listening texts, these are attended to in terms of the language and meaning of the text, but no attention is paid to what is wrong in the process of listening. Hence, confronted again with a comparable text, learners will use the same, unsuccessful methods. Success in listening comprehension is measured by correct responses to questions or tasks. Teachers concentrate on the outcomes of listening, rather than upon learning itself, upon product rather than process (Field, 1998&Goh, 2000).

Many language learners attribute their difficulties in listening to their low ability, or the high difficulty of the listening texts, with little awareness or understanding of the role played by their ineffective techniques or strategy use. Such attributions demonstrate a sense of passivity and helplessness in language learners which may result in their becoming demotivated, and being less effective listeners (Graham, 2006; Morley, 2001 & Rost, 2001).

Research results in L2 listener's comprehension problems have revealed that advanced interrelationships exist between listeners' listening skills, and their self-regulation. These interrelationships have a significant influence on l2 listeners' strategic approach and achievement incomprehension (Field, 1998; Goh, 200^Ya, b; Vandergrift, 2002, 2003b; Victori & Lockhart, 1995; Wilson, 2003; Wu, 1998).

The importance of self-regulation during learning is monitoring one's progress while performing a task and finding new strategies when the previous one did not lead to successful task completion. Research also showss that students who lack skills in self-regulation tend not only to achieve poor academic results, but also to have difficulties in their social relations, both in expressing their thoughts, and feelings and in trying to understand others (Schunk& Zimmerman, 1994b; Largere, 2001&Zumbrum et. al., 2011).

Furthermore, self-regulatory learning strategies are a good match for promoting self-efficacy in the classroom. Delcourt and Kinizie (1993) noted that “perceived self-efficacy reflects an individual’s confidence in his or her ability to perform the behavior required to produce specific outcomes” (p.36). Self-efficacy, therefore, refers to the judgments of the skills one has rather the judgments of the skills themselves (Bandura, 1997). Consider students possess similar levels of English listening comprehension skills; depending on how they judge their abilities to perform the task. Even though they have similar perceptions of efficacy, it does not mean they are equally competent in their English listening skills.

Review of Related Literature:

As shown in the introduction and background of this study, self-regulatory strategy is a good match for promoting students’ language learning achievement and their self-efficacy. In the following pages an intensive review of literature on self-regulatory strategy application, its relationship to EFL listening achievement, and students’ self-efficacy were been demonstrated.

Self-regulatory Strategy and Learning Achievement:

Research on academic self-regulation has established that students’ self-regulatory beliefs and processes are not only measurable, but highly correlated with academic achievement, whether these two factors are measured using grade point average, achievement track in school, standardized tests, or task-specific measures. An abundance of studies, in numerous fields of research, have also demonstrated that it is possible to teach self-regulated learning processes, and that these processes can significantly enhance students’ achievement (Boekaerts, 1999; Boekaerts, Pintrich&Zeidner, 2000; Bolitho, et al., 2003; Ehrman, 2000; Purpura, 1997, 1998; Winne, 1995, 2001; Zimmerman&Risemberg, 1997).

A qualitative study by Ching (2002) was carried out to find out if self-regulation instruction would help students to plan and

revise their essays and if students had the competence and ability to regulate their writing, would it improve their attribution, self-efficacy and self-determination. Findings suggest that strategy and self-regulation instruction had equipped students with the knowledge on how to plan and revise their essays. Furthermore, strategy and self-regulation has improved students' self-efficacy.

Mirhassani and Others (2002) study was an attempt to investigate the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' goal-oriented and self-regulated learning and their language proficiency. In this study, the goal orientation scale and self-regulation trait questionnaire were piloted on 199 and 189 participants. The result of data analysis showed that there was a significant relationship between task goal orientation and language proficiency. In addition, there was a significant relationship between self-regulated learning and language proficiency. Also, all the four subscales of self-regulated learning (planning, self-checking, effort, and self-efficacy) were positively related to language proficiency. Also, multiple regressions showed that self-regulated learning was a good predictor of language proficiency.

Lizarraga and Others (2003) examined the effects of teaching self-regulation strategies to 40 middle school students in a compulsory secondary education setting, who presented difficulties in self-reflection, self-inquiry, assertiveness, and empathy. A quasi-experimental design with pre- and post-test measurements was employed. Results are discussed in terms of the implications was employed. Results are discussed in terms of the implications concerning how teachers can implement self-regulatory activities in their daily classroom practice to meet the educational needs of students with social problems. Nevertheless, the students of compulsory secondary education who participated in the study improved in the self-regulation of their behavior and showed higher levels of social skills and academic performance compared with their peers in the control group.

Hammann (2005) investigated self-regulatory behaviors and epistemology beliefs of pre-service teachers in academic writing tasks. Students completed self-report measures of self-regulation, epistemology, and beliefs about writing. Both knowledge and regulation of cognition were positively related to writing enjoyment, and knowledge of cognition was negatively related to beliefs of ability as a fixed entity. Students who are more self-regulated during writing also believe they can learn to improve their writing skills. Students' beliefs and feelings about learning and writing play an important and complex role in their self-regulation behaviors.

In Graham and others (2005) study, the effectiveness of an instruction model, self-regulated strategy development (SRSD), designed to foster development in each of these areas, was examined. Received SRSD instruction focused primarily low-income families, received SRSD instruction focused primarily on learning writing strategies and knowledge for planning and composing stories and persuasive essays, students wrote longer, more complete, and qualitatively better papers for both of these genres than peers in the comparison condition. These effects were maintained over time for story writing and generalized to a third to a third uninstructed genre, informative writing. SRSD instruction boosted student' knowledge about writing as well.

A mixed methods study of Bryant (2006) investigated the role of self-regulation in entrepreneurial decision- making, including the significance of learning in relation to these processes. Findings from survey data measuring three existing self-regulatory constructs-regulatory pride, entrepreneurial self-efficacy, and metacognitive awareness-suggest that entrepreneurs are distinguished from other managers by a distinctive pattern of self-regulation. When analyzed in combination with interview data, the results suggest a strong relationship between self-regulation and prior learning experiences in decision-making. At the same time, educational research has shown that self-regulatory skills are critical for

achieving learning outcomes and that those skills can be enhanced by appropriate interventions.

Souvignier and Mokhlesgerami (2006) suggested that self-regulated learning might be a powerful framework to optimize effects on reading comprehension. With a pre-, post-, and retention- test design with 20 classes, comprising of 593 fifth-graders (11 years), development of strategy knowledge, reading comprehension, school-related self-efficacy, and motivational orientation towards learning goals were assessed. While all strategy-oriented programs proved to enhance reading competence, understanding of reading strategies and competence, for application of reading strategies, gains in self-efficacy did not differ from the control condition. As regards the relation test, the program that covered all aspect of strategy instruction showed strongest effects as predicated by self-regulate on theory.

Nuckles and Other (2008) in an experimental study, supported a protocol writing with prompts to elicit important strategies as postulated by a cyclical model of self-regulated learning. Students (N=103) received either (a) no prompts, (b)cognitive prompts, (c) metacognitive prompts, (d) mixed prompts without, or (e) including prompts for planning of remedial strategies. Prompting all essential sub-processes of self-regulated learning fostered students' comprehension best.

Studies above concluded that students' self-regulatory beliefs and processes are highly correlated with academic achievement. They demonstrated that it is possible to teach self-regulated learning processes and that these processes can significantly enhance students' achievement. Self-regulated learning was a good predictor of language proficiency and academic performance. Research at the same time has shown that self-regulatory skills are critical for achieving learning outcomes.

Self-regulatory Strategy and Self-efficacy:

Self-regulatory learning strategy is a good match for promoting self-efficacy in the classroom. A qualitative study by Ching (2002) was one of the few found that discusses how self-efficacy might be improved in ESL students' writing. The study takes a closer look at strategy and self-regulation instruction and how it might assist students in essays writing over a 15-week instructional period. Results found that after the strategy and self-regulation instruction, 22 out of 29 students would persist even in their writing even when faced with difficulties. Overall, the self-regulatory strategy practice in this study helped to improve students' self-efficacy.

Pajares and Valiante (2002) purpose of study was to provide a developmental perspective on students' self-efficacy in their self-regulatory learning strategies using data obtained from Cohort groups of students ranging from age 9 to 17 (N= 1257), to determine whether this confidence differs as a function of gender, and to discover whether these differences are a function of gender orientation beliefs rather than gender. Confidence in self-regulation decreased as students progressed from elementary school to high school, and the decrease was steeper than a similar decrease in self-perceptions of academic competence.

Usher&Pajares(2008)examined the influence of Bandura's hypothesized sources of self-efficacy on the academic and self-regulatory beliefs of entering middle school students (N= 263) and to explore whether these sources differ as a function of gender and reading ability. For the full sample, mastery experience, social persuasions and physiological state independently predicated academic and self-regulatory, self-efficacy, with mastery experience proving the strongest predictor. Mastery experience did not predict the self-efficacy beliefs of low-achieving students.

Zimmerman, Bonner& Kovach (2006) claim the cycle of self-regulatory learning enhances both students' learning and their perception of self-efficacy. Self-regulatory models of

instruction focus on students' use of specific processes to motivate and guide their learning. In order to be a self-regulatory learner, the processes of self-judgment, self-observation, and self-reaction need to be used. By using self-regulatory practice habitually, students become more aware of their academic progress and experience a high sense of self-efficacy.

Orhan (2007) examined the effect of the blended learning environment on learners' self-efficacy for learning and performance and self-regulated learning strategies. In this study, during the semester students used different self-regulated strategies such as self-evaluating, appreciating their classmates' critics on their work; monitoring their work by comparing it with that of other students in the class and monitoring their study exams through follow up quizzes; monitoring their study times, keeping journals in a blended learning environment to help themselves to improve their use of self-regulated strategies. Research result revealed that students' self-efficacy and self-regulated strategies perception benefited from the blended learning environment with self-regulated learning strategies. Students learning within a blended learning environment with self-regulatory learning strategies improved their perception of self- efficacy for learning and performance.

However, it is noticed from the above studies that self-regulatory strategy practice help to improve students' self-efficacy. Also, by using self-regulatory practice habitually, students become more aware of their academic progress and experience a high sense of self-efficacy.

Self-Efficacy and Language Learning:

For foreign language learners' self-efficacy and learning strategies used, research has indicated that learners' self-efficacy correlates with the language strategies they used. Learners with high levels of self-efficacy reported using more types of learning strategies. That is, students with strong self-efficacy beliefs would actively increase their exposure to English outside the classroom (Shmais, 2003& Yang, 1999).

Hsieh (2004) examined the general question of the relationship between foreign language learners' attribution, self-efficacy beliefs, general language learning beliefs, and their achievement in foreign language classes. Participants were 500 undergraduates who were asked to fill out self-report questionnaires about their language learning beliefs, attitudes and motivation towards foreign language learning and to provide attribution and self-efficacy ratings upon receiving two mind-semester exam grades. Results indicated that self-efficacy correlated positively with internal personal and stable attribution. Results also indicated that students who made internal or stable attributions for success had higher self-efficacy beliefs than students who made external or unstable attributions.

Observing the low English achievements of Iranian senior high school students, Rahemi (2005) investigated the humanities students' English self-efficacy beliefs, and examined the contributions they make to their EFL achievements. A total of 80 senior high school students and 20 high school English teachers participated in the study. The methodology underlying the study was both qualitative (teacher interview, classroom observations, and student dairies) and quantitative (through the implementation of a structured questionnaire and a measure of EFL achievement). The results revealed that the students majority in humanities had a very weak English self-efficacy and held negative beliefs about their academic ability as a foreign language learners. A strong positive correlation was found between their EFL achievements and self-efficacy.

Vang and Motanez (2005) examined the relationship between self-efficacy and the performance of English language learners in reading. Pre- and post-exams were taken by students in reading to determine the level and to measure their progress throughout a program during the summer course. Results showed that completion of the program increased participants' perceived self-efficacy in reading. In addition, self-efficacy in reading and learning vocabulary was found to be a significant predictor of growth in reading and vocabulary.

Wong (2005) explored graduate pre-service teachers' language learning strategies and language self-efficacy and the relationship between these two constructs. Seventy-four graduate English as a second language (ESL) pre-service teachers (13 males, 61 females) from a teachers' college in Kuching, Malaysia, participated in this study. Pearson Correlation Coefficients shows that there was a significant positive relationship between language learning strategies and language self-efficacy. High self-efficacy pre-service teachers reported more frequent use of more number of language learning strategies than did low self-efficacy pre-service teachers.

Mahyuddin and Others (2006) pertinent to find out whether performance in English language is largely determined by their perceived English language efficacy. A descriptive-correlational study was conducted on 1,146 students from eight secondary schools. The findings showed that 51 percent of students had high self-efficacy while 48 percent showed low self-efficacy. Correlational analysis showed positive correlation between several dimensions of self-efficacy that is, academic achievement efficacy.

Gahungu (2007) investigated the interrelationships among language learning strategy use, self-efficacy, and language ability. The study participants were thirty-seven college students studying at a Midwestern , medium-size, university. The students' use of language learning strategies was a measured through a forty-item questionnaire in which they expressed their levels of certainty that they could perform learning tasks at desired level of proficiency. The results of the study revealed the existence of positive and significant relationships among the language learning strategy use, self-efficacy, and language ability.

Graham (2007) investigated the impact of strategy training in listening on learners of French, aged 16 to 17. One aim of the project was to investigate whether such training might have a positive effect on the self-efficacy of learners, by helping them see the relationship between the strategies they employed and

what they achieved. As a result of the training, there was some evidence that students who had received feedback had made the biggest gains in certain aspects of self-efficacy for listening.

Wang and Pape (2007) investigated three Chinese boys' self-efficacy beliefs learning English as a second language across English language tasks. Participants reported higher self-efficacy to complete listening and speaking activities than during reading and writing activities. All participants claimed limited vocabulary and reported low self-efficacy for reading tasks that demanded advanced vocabulary. The analysis provided descriptive evidence for associations between the participants' self-efficacy beliefs and various factors, such as content area expertise, English proficiency self-perceptions, task difficulty level, interest, attitude toward the English language.

Shang (2008) investigated Taiwanese EFL learners' three reading strategy uses (cognitive, metacognitive, compensation strategies), their perceived self-efficacy, and the relationships between these two constructs on their reading comprehension. Fifty-three English major freshmen were participated in this study. Results showed that there was a significant positive relationship between the use of reading strategies and perceptions of self-efficacy.

Studies above concluded that students with strong self-efficacy beliefs would increase their language learning. A strong positive correlation was found between students' EFL achievements and their self-efficacy. Thus, high self-efficacy students reported more frequent use of more number of language learning strategies than did low self-efficacy students. Results of the studies indicated that achievement in English language learning will improve when students have high self-efficacy. They also revealed the existence of positive and significant relationships among language learning strategy use, self-efficacy and language ability.

Enhancing students' self-efficacy and self-regulating learning strategies may be crucial to their language learning

process as a whole and some EFL learning skills specifically and should be included in classroom approaches. This study therefore was designed to provide a description of the current level of a sample of college EFL learners' self-efficacy beliefs and self-regulation strategies and to examine how these constructed are related to students' achievement in EFL listening skills.

Statement of the Problem:

Based on review of literature and the results of the pilot study, the problem of the study can be stated as follows:

Third level EFL learners in the Faculty of Arts, department of English seems to face difficulty in learning listening skills. The difficulty might be a result of ineffective listening teaching strategies which led to their low level in Listening.

Research Questions:

In light of the importance of listening skills in language acquisition, the many difficulties facing listening in the early stages of EFL learning, and the promising new evidence from the few studies which have recently investigated the effects of self-regulatory strategy to enhancing listening and self-efficacy, led the researcher to investigate the following questions:

1. What are the self-regulation strategies used by the third level EFL learners while learning listening?
2. How far will training in self-regulation strategies enhance students' listening comprehension skills?
3. Will training in self-regulation strategies increase students' self-efficacy?
4. Will raising students' self-efficacy enhance students' listening skills?

Purpose of the Study:

Listening instruction often does not take account students' personal and strategy variables. Most recently, research in

educational and cognitive psychology has revealed that intricate interrelationships exist between EFL listening, self-regulation and self-efficacy which likely exert a fundamental influence on students' achievement (Butler&Winne, 1995; Fernandez-Dudue, Baird& Posner, 2000a,b; Rivers, 2001; Shimamura, 2000; Veenman&Spaan, 2005). The precise nature of these interrelationships between language learners' self-regulation, their self-efficacy and overall success in EFL listening comprehension are the focus of this research.

Hypotheses of the Study:

1. There is a significant difference at the 0.05 level between the mean score of the experimental group students trained in self-regulation strategies and the control group in post listening comprehension test scores in favor of the experimental group.
2. There is a significant difference at the 0.05 level between the mean score of the experimental group students trained in self-regulation strategies and the control group on the self-efficacy questionnaire in favor of the experimental group students.
3. There is a significant difference at the 0.05 level between the mean score of the students of high self-efficacy level and of low self-efficacy on the post listening comprehension test in favor of the students of high self-efficacy level.

Methodology:

Sample:

Forty^{3rd} level female students drawn from the English department at the Faculty of Arts in Al-Baha University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, constituted the sample of the study. Age ranged from 18 to 20 years. The English listening was held once a week for one hour in a multi-media equipped language laboratory. The students enrolled in the listening class are considered intermediate to advanced language major learners. However,

depending on students' grades on the English listening pre-achievement test, the students' listening levels ranged from poor to intermediate (Poor =52%, Intermediate=48%).

Instruments:

For the purpose of this study four instruments were used; a pre listening achievement test, a post listening achievement test, a self-efficacy questionnaire, and a self-regulation listening strategies questionnaire.

- Pre and Post Listening Achievement Test (Appendix: A)

The pre-achievement test was used to measure the students' listening level before the experiment. The post-achievement test was used to measure the students' listening level after the experiment.

Content Validity and Reliability:

Considering reliability as one of the most important characteristics of the test, the listening test was selected from the teacher's manual of the course book that has been used. The test comprised seven questions, six completion questions and one multiple choices questions. The achievement test was pilot tested on a representative sample of 40 EFL learners who were not involved in the actual study. The Cronbach alpha of this test was 0.81 indicating satisfactory reliability.

Table (1): Pre-Post listening achievement test content Reliability

Categories	Cronbach alpha
Multiple Choices	0.86
Completion	0.74
Total	0.81

**Table (2): Pre-Post listening achievement test content validity
(Internal Consistency: Coefficient correlation between each items of
the test and the total mark**

Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total Mark
1		0.85**	0.45**	0.48**	0.72**	0.48**	0.46**	0.57**
2			0.67**	0.63**	0.85**	0.76**	0.75**	0.65**
3				0.76**	0.56**	0.92**	0.94**	0.89**
4					0.54**	0.83**	0.82**	0.59**
5						0.65**	0.64**	0.41**
6							0.98**	0.83**
7								0.84**

The internal consistency of the Pre-Post listening achievement test was also quite high.

- A Self-Efficacy Questionnaire (Appendix: B)

Fifteen self-efficacy items was adapted from different resources (Gahungu, 2007, Ghanizadeh, 2012, Magno, 2009, Mills, et al., 2007, Sardareh et al., 2012, Vang& Montanez, 2005,Wang, et al., 2012) and was developed by the researcher. The items measured students' efficacy for learning listening and English as a whole.

The researcher read each statement aloud and the students were asked to indicate agreement on a five Likert-type scale. Points on the scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Practice using the scale was provided by having students judge their ability to jump progressively longer distances. Participants were asked to be honest and marked privately the appropriate number on the scale.

Content Validity and Reliability:

Reliability:

The self-efficacy questionnaire was pilot tested on a representative sample of 40 students who were not involved in the actual study. The Cronbach alpha of this test was 0.79 indicating satisfactory reliability.

Table (3): Pre-Post listening achievement test content Reliability

No. of Items	Cronbach alpha
15	0.79

Validity of Jurors:

After preparing the initial form of *A Self-Efficacy Questionnaire*, it has been presented to a group of arbitrators specialized in the field of teaching EFL and curriculum and teaching methods. The arbitrators are asked to give their viewpoints and comments on the following:

1. The appropriateness of the skills for the students' level.
2. The extent of affiliation of the skill for the domain that is fall under it.
3. The clarity of the skill and validity of its linguistic formulation.
4. Provides their feedback or modifications that are required and delete the unnecessary skills according to their opinions.

After presenting *A Self-Efficacy Questionnaire* on the number of jurors and in terms of their opinions and notes, the researcher conducted some modifications on the questionnaire and reached to the appropriate and its final form (*see appendix: B*).

- A Self-Regulation Listening Strategies Questionnaire(Appendix: C)

The questionnaire of Self-Regulation Listening Strategies includes 40 items (appendix: C) was adapted from different resources (Bonyadi et al., 2012, Nosratinia, et al., 2014, Pintrich& De Groot, 1990; Vandergrift, et al., 2006& Wang, et al. 2012) and was developed by the researcher.Each items describes a self-regulation learning strategy commonly used in studying English. Seven categories of self-regulation listening strategies were used in this study: (1) Memory Strategy (items 1-6), Goal Strategies (7-9), Organizing Strategy (items 10-15), Self-evaluating Strategy (items 16-27), Responsibility Strategy (items 28-31), Seeking assistance Strategy (items 32-36) and Environmental strategy (items 37-40).

Content Validity and Reliability:

Reliability:

Reliability of *A Self-Regulation Listening Strategies Questionnaire* appeared to be excellent. In a sample of 40 students with varying levels (good- mediate- poor), the *Self-Regulation Listening Strategies Questionnaire* was administered twice, separated by 72 hours, to test stability of scores it provided. Test- retest reliability of the *Self-Regulation Listening Strategies Questionnaire* score was high ($r = .93, p < .001$).

Validity:

After preparing and formulating the items of the *Self-Regulation Listening Strategies Questionnaire* in its initial form, it was presented to a number of jurors who are specialized in the field of curriculum and teaching methods of English language to have their opinion around the strategies according to the following items:

1. The validity and clarity in the formulation of items.
2. The appropriateness of the strategies to student's level.
3. Deleting, adding, and modifying the items of the strategies according to the jurors' opinions.

The jurors have shown some suggestions that were taken by the researcher for the compatibility with the objectives of the research.

Data Analysis:

In analyzing the data, some statistical procedures were carried out in this study: descriptive statistics including Cronbach alpha, mean and standard deviations computed to summarize the students' responses to the self-efficacy questionnaire and listening comprehension test, paired sample T-test were done to explore the effects of high and low self-efficacy on listening proficiency.

Results and Discussion:

Results in table (4) indicated the difference between the mean score of the experimental group students trained in self-regulation strategies and the control group in the post listening

comprehension test score in favor of the experimental group at 0.01 level.

Table (4): Mean, Standard deviation (SD), and t-test of the listening comprehension achievement test:

Group	No.	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	T	(sig.) p. value
Exp.	40	32.62	2.61	78	44.72	0.01
Con.	40	8.22	2.26			

As shown in table (4) above, finding of data analysis of the independent sample T-test in this study revealed that the mean scores of the experimental group (M= 32.62) were significantly different (T= 44.72); $P < 0.01$) from the control group (M= 8.22). In other words, the experimental group surpassed the control group in terms of listening performance using self-regulation strategies. This finding seems to corroborate with the reviewed studies revealing that self-regulation strategies facilitated and enhanced students' listening skills and had positive impact on the listening performance of EFL students.

Table (5) illustrates that there are significant differences at the 0.01 level between the mean scores of the experimental group students trained in self-regulation strategies and the control group on the self-efficacy questionnaire in favor of the experimental group students.

Table (5): Mean, Standard deviation (SD), and t-test of self-efficacy questionnaire:

Group	No.	Mean	Std. Deviation	df	T	(sig.) p. value
Exp.	40	64.72		78	51.54	0.01
Con.	40	31.82				

Independent sample T-test was used in order to determine whether using self-regulatory strategies while listening has any effect on students' self-efficacy. Considering the data and the results illustrated in table (5), a significantly positive effect was found between the use of self-regulation strategies and the experimental group students' self-efficacy (Mean= 64.72). When

comparing the gain mean scores between the control group (M= 31.82) and the experimental group (Mean= 64.72), a very significant difference between the experimental and control groups' self-efficacy in favor of the experimental group students was found. This shows that self-regulation strategies training helps students improve their self-efficacy.

Table (6) showed the results of carrying out pair sample tests to determine if the degree of self-efficacy has any effect on listening test achievement. The students were divided into two groups: one group with high self-efficacy and the other group with low self- efficacy.

Table (6): Paired samples T-tests for the pair 11 (high self-efficacy-listening test scores) and Pair 2 (low self-efficacy-listening test scores)

Paired Samples	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1 (high self-efficacy-listening test scores)	32.080	3.040	52.76	24	0.01
Pair 2 (low self-efficacy-listening test scores)	21.400	4.154	19.951	14	0.01

As reported in table (6) above, findings of data analysis in terms of T-test in this study revealed that high self-efficacy affected listening achievement of the students significantly and positively (Mean= 32.080; T=52.758), but low self-efficacy affected listening achievement of students insignificantly and negatively (Mean= 21.400; T=19.951). Finding supported that the literature confirmed the importance of EFL learners' self-efficacy about listening achievement. Also, along with self-efficacy, self-regulation helped to promote listening achievement.

Recommendations:

The results of the current study indicated the necessity for language teachers and specialists to pay more attention to self-regulatory strategies and its effective role in enhancing EFL listening skills in classrooms and improving students' self-efficacy. Due to some limitations in this research including single gender (female), and relatively small sample size, it was

recommended to replicate this study on larger sample of both genders. Given a significant role of self-regulatory strategies, it seems relevant to do a comprehensive review on the role of self-regulation in learning a foreign language to gain a deeper understanding of the development of self-regulation in learning a foreign language, and how language teachers can help the learners to use self-regulatory strategies in a proper way to create positive beliefs about their abilities to learn a foreign language.

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The Employment of Quest Strategy Over The Web In The Development of The Awareness of Political Values For Students of Social Sciences At The Secondary Stage

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Abstract

The current research aims to find out the effectiveness of the employment Web Quest on the development of Cognitive achievement and the Awareness of political values for high school students. The research sample is (391) students from public high school. Both the analytical descriptive and the semi-experimental designs are used. Different tools were used as follows: A List of political values, a card of content analysis (content), A cognitive achievement test, And scale to measure the awareness of political values. The results demonstrated that there is a difference with statistical significance between the average scores of the experimental group, "the research group" in the pre and post applications of cognitive achievement test, , And the measurement of awareness in favor of the post application. The results show also the size of the significant impact of the political values unit on the Cognitive achievement and in raising the awareness of political values.

Keywords :(*Quest strategy over the Web, awareness, political values , social sciences*).

Introduction:

The importance of the development of political values lies in that they are directly related to the educational objectives it seeks to achieve for the learner. The curriculum, which is not interested in the political side, is no longer an effective approach, And that it should be enacted the students' major political values , such as democracy, freedom, equality , responsibility and the

public interest in the various curriculum. And in particular the various branches of social sciences, which are largely dependent on thinking, investigation and linking problems with reality.

There are a great number of studies, including the (Hamid Shaaban , and Nadia Hassan 2001) who confirmed in their studies that the high school curriculum includes only a few topics that help to develop the political awareness and citizenship among the students. They neither allow them to know the democracy and citizenship responsibilities nor develop their awareness of their communities and their world; they are almost devoid of activities, civics and history because they are linked directly to the path of political values. Moreover, for the importance of stage in which these values can be supported through teaching the political history.

So many studies confirmed on the importance of instilling political values in the hearts of students through the curriculum because of the political vacuum among young people , and the weakness in the sense of belonging and a sense of responsibility.

Some of these studies as: the study of each of : (Elham Abdul Hamid , 2008) , and (Sami Fathi Abdul Ghani Emmara 0.2010) , and (Jehan Kamal 0.2011) , (Sami Nassar , 2011) , the situations through which the students exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship. Secondary education also suffers from weaknesses and deficiencies in that it does not encourage political participation. It also hinders the freedom of opinion and the opposition, and instead supports the submission and obedience and compliance values.

They also emphasized the failure in achieving of political education in the educational institution where the curriculum of the social sciences do not included concepts , attitudes and values towards the development of a culture of citizenship , civic education and its issues. They also do not include topics that develop citizenship among students, as they do not know their responsibilities and their rights. They do not develop their awareness of their community and their world; those curricula

do not have activities and attitudes that develop the political responsibilities of the students.

He also stressed (Sami Nassar , 2011) in his study that the youth revolution imposed on those in charge of the education system to review the philosophy and objectives to cope with the issues of identity existing and unity based on diversity, acceptance of others , and the culture of citizenship and what it includes of the values associated with life in any community , this includes domains such as : the domain of political rights; that leads to raising the young people 's awareness of democracy and political crises in the community , as well as entrenching education to the principles of the right to have a different opinion , respect the opinion of the others, admit the existence of third parties and reject the culture of consensus and intolerance.

The (Web Quest Strategy) reflects the idea of the modern teaching based on the integration of technology in education and education in order to achieve connectivity and functionality between them by raising the learner's interest using interesting and attractive manner, and satisfy his needs, activate his motifs and his desire to seeking more knowledge. An investigator of the philosophy of the Quest strategy over the Web finds that, it is based on the assumptions of both Piaget and Constructivism theories through the principle of constructivism of knowledge; that the individual is the one who builds his knowledge of himself , (Widad Abdul Sami , Yasser Bayoumi , 2008). And thus constitutes a new way far from the traditional use of the Internet, which does not exceed reading and access to information, as it is not possible for students with "Quest over the Web" to follow the familiar path to copy parts of the text in order to answer the questions, but they should apply the critical thinking on different pieces of information.

And develop a product that represents a summary of the work of a group of students. Students also learn during the " Quest over the Web" through solving problems by taking advantage of the network, The Quest strategy over the Web is based on providing specific educational tasks to help the learner

to make himself different tasks such as ; research , exploration of information over the Web, and the use and recruitment of this information and not just getting it (Nabil Azmi 0.2014, 391-392).

Background of the problem:

The Egyptian revolution faces particular challenges represented in the lack of political awareness, ambiguity of the concepts and practices of democracy and weakness of political experience; therefore there was a need to consolidate and develop the political values in the different educational curricula for their importance in the recent period after the revolutions of January 25, 2011 and June 30, 2013 , and the consequent of the political, economic and social variables , which necessitated the work to help the children of the Egyptian nation gain the appropriate political concepts and values in the light of new variables, This is through the employment of modern strategies, including the Web-Quest strategy via the web which is interested in the development of the upper cognitive abilities of the learners such as analysis, synthesis and evaluation, the Web-Quest strategy via the web allows the use of thinking skills and problem-solving for the learner, it aims at the search for solutions to the questions or real problems not artificial ones (Abdel Aziz his request.

The Study Problem:

It is illustrated by a lot of studies and previous literature that most of the social sciences curricula at secondary schools neglect the development of political socialization; they do not allow them to know their responsibilities and their rights. They do not develop their awareness of their community and its problems, which hinders preparing the students for a democratic society, they also hinder the freedom of opinion and the opposition, they do not encourage the students for the political participation which in turn required the importance of employment of the modern strategies for the political socialization and the development of political values using the Web- Quest strategy where many studies confirmed that the Quest strategy via the web helps with the development of the

educational achievement, the critical thinking, the research skills and the quest. Among these studies:

Studies of (t (Wui & Saat 2008), and Mohammed El Heelaand Mohammed Nofal, 2008), and (Manal Mobarz and Hanan Rabee, 2009) and (Mitchell Mitchell, 2003), and (Halat, 2008). And (Ikpeze & Boyd 2007) and (Li, H., Yang, Y, 2007) and (Arshad Eessa.2013), and (Abdulaziz Tolbaa.2009), and (Wajdi Shukri, 2009).

The Study Problem is represented in:

The weakness of the development of awareness of the political values, in the education curricula, especially the secondary stage, which confirms the need for its development through modern strategies recruitment, which is determined in the current study in the Quest strategy via the Web.

Hence, we can address the problem of current research on the following questions:

1. What are the main political values that must be developed for the secondary school students
2. What is available of the previous political values in the curricula of the social sciences at the secondary stage?
3. What is the educational design of a unit based on a Quest-Web strategy for the development of the political values awareness for the students of social sciences at the secondary stage?
4. What is the effectiveness of recruitment the strategy of the Web Quest for the development of the Cognitive achievement for the secondary school students?
5. What is the effectiveness of recruitment the strategy of Web- Quest on the development of the awareness of the political values for the secondary school students?

Aims of the study:

The current study aims to:

1. Know the most important political values that must be developed for the secondary school students.

2. Prepare an educational design for a unit based on the Web- Quest strategy for the development of awareness and the political values for the students of social sciences at the secondary stage; and know their impact on the cognitive achievement.
3. Know the effects of the Web-Quest strategy on the growth of the awareness of the political values for the secondary stage students.

The study hypotheses:

The hypotheses in the current study are determined in the following:

1. There is a statistically significant difference between the average scores of the experimental group "study group" in the pre and post application of the cognitive achievement test for the unit of the political values that based on the recruitment of Web-Quest strategy via the Web for the secondary school students in favor of the post application.
2. There is a statistically significant difference between the average scores of the experimental group "study group" in the pre and post application of the gauge of the awareness of the political values for the unity of political values based on employment Web-Quest strategy via the Web for the secondary school students in favor of the post application.

The study sample and its Delimitations:

The sample of the current study is represented in:

Human Delimitations:

a sample of students in a public secondary school of about (391).

Spatial Delimitations:

the study tools, and educational materials were applied in three educational directorates at the secondary stage in some governorates such as: Snurs educational directorate, Fayoum Governorate), and (Lower Egypt represented in Beni Obeid

educational directorate, in Dakahlia Governorate), and (Central Cairo represented in Heliopolis educational directorate, Cairo Governorate).

Objectivity Delimitations:

Analysis of content (8) curricula (history, sociology, and national education) for the secondary stage.

Research Design:

The study approach in the current study is determined in the following two forms:

1. The descriptive analytical design to determine the theoretical framework.
2. The semi-experimental design to test the proposed unit for the development of awareness and political values based on the use of the Web-Quest strategy via the Web for students of social sciences at the secondary stage, and measure its impact.

Tools and educational materials:

The current study is based on the use of the following educational tools and materials:

1. A List of the necessary political values for the development of awareness of the political values for the Secondary School Students.
2. A content analysis card (content) for the Social Sciences books at the secondary stage.
3. A cognitive achievement test to know the extent of understanding the secondary school students of the nature of the political practices in the Egyptian society, and their need for the political values.
4. A standard to measure the awareness of the political values for the secondary school students.
5. A Preparation for site for the Web-Quest strategy via the Web for a unit of six-political values.

The Study Terms:

The present study adopts the following key terms:

1. **The Web-Quest Strategy** which is based on the integration of Web technology in the educational process, through Quest-based activity in which the students participate in an attractive task using a pre-defined resources which are available on the internet, where the network provides infinite amount of information so that the learners interact with each other and with the pre-defined resources of learning via the internet for the development of political socialization and the awareness of the political values for the secondary school students.
2. **The political awareness** :which means the individual's ability to understand the situations, the political issues and the problems in the local, regional and international community, so that he may have the ability to analyze, link the events, and identify the conclusions that will help to change and develop the existing situation.

Theoretical framework: includes:

1. **The first axis- The Web-Quest strategy via the Web** (the concept, the development and Origin, the benefits, and the factors of success).
2. **The second axis- The political values** (its concept, its importance, its characteristics, and the school as an institution for the development of the political values, the educational requirements for the secondary stage of the political values).

The first axis- The Web-Quest strategy:

The concept, The development and the origin:

The Quest-Web strategy is considered as one of the most important projects and educational strategies that are very meaningful and directed. It is based on the use and recruitment of the web to take advantage of the existing information on the Web as this strategy depends on the provision of specific educational tasks that help the learner to carry out different operations himself starting from research, exploration of information via the Web, and the use and recruitment of this

information and not just acquiring it (Nabil Azmi 0.2014, 391-392).

The idea of the Web Quest Strategy started at the University of San Diego, California, USA, in 1995, by a group of researchers in the Department of Educational Technology, led by Dodge Bernie, B. and Marsh Tom., it began to spread in many educational institutions in Europe and the United States of America as a modern way of education through research via the Web. The Quest-Web strategy depends on education which is centered around the student because it consists of tasks and various activities to help and make it easier for the student to explore and infer the required information, and to facilitate the use of higher cognitive skills that he obtains. The nature of this strategy allows students to use the thinking skills and problem-solving, it is also concerned with the development of the upper cognitive abilities of the learners such as analysis, synthesis and evaluation, it relies on the electronic resources that exist on the web and selected in advance, which can be grafted with other resources such as books, magazines and CDs (Abdulaziz Tolba, 2010.78).

2- The Web Quest benefits are represented in:

1. It gives students an opportunity to discover the information by themselves and not just providing it for them, that makes them educated researchers.
2. It encourages teamwork, and the exchange of views and ideas among the students, that does not prevent the individual work, of course.
3. it Leads to helping the students to acquire the research skills such as information collecting, interpretation, analysis, presentation and evaluation.
4. It grants the students the ability to research deeply and thoughtfully for specific points, but through the selected limits by the teacher, which helps non-dispersion of the students and intensify their efforts in the direction of the desired activity they are carrying out. This makes the

Quest via the Web (Web- Quest) an effective and an ideal way for the stages that contain sharp contrast levels in the students' thinking level

5. It provides a safe path for the use of the online education, through guiding the students to the reliable objectives that are relevant to the research subject.

3- The success factors for the (Web-quest):

1. The success of the strategy depends on: (Wgdi Shokry Gawdat, 2009.101), and (Shahat Etman, 2009.25), and (Hanan Mohammed El-Shaer, 2006.56)
2. Suitable educational materials for the age and the abilities of the pupils for whom this activity is directed.
3. The availability of the participatory teamwork flexibly and according to the current circumstances.
4. Adding reliable resources to enrich the lesson in a positive way.
5. Enabling the student to work independently where the role of the teacher turned to be a carrier for knowledge and a facilitator of learning and education.

4- The Web Quest stages: The Web Quest (cognitive trips) has six main stages, namely:

First: The Introduction:

The introduction around the lesson and preamble (warming-up) to raise students' motivation, which is to clarify the idea of the lesson, elements and focus on its goals for preparing the student status for a prior evolution concerning what he will learn. The teacher can set a series of questions about the main ideas of the lesson, he can also be guided by the analysis chart of the lesson or the lesson planning to help him provide an image of what will follow later.

How the teacher can provide the desired knowledge or information to the student?

Are there non-traditional methods as presentation, explanation and discussion?

Is it possible to confine knowledge in one resource or two resources?

What are the roles of the teacher and the possible roles of the student during the explanation or the discussion of a topic?

Second, The task:

It is the main and the most important part of the Web Quest that includes the basic ,the sub, organized and well-prepared tasks, and these tasks must be interesting and relevant to the real life situations, it is where the learner reveals the selected topic and his role in the activity, and it includes activities with open ends and the emphasis on the higher- thinking skills, and the description of this task should be short and concise and the prior knowledge is necessary to complete the scientific task . It takes into account the guidance questions that the students need to have in front of their eyes in order to achieve the mission:

1. What is the task that the students are implemented to do?
What is the importance of this task?
2. What are the surrounding circumstances of the task?
What is the questions which might be considered problematic?
3. What led to the existence of these circumstances?
4. Is there more than one way of looking at things?

Among the most prominent tasks, that helps the student to understand the scientific subject:

1. the task of formulating the subject using the student's language.
2. The collecting task
3. The task of verification and traceability
4. The task of the dialogue and negotiations
5. The task of the journalist
6. The task of analysis

Third, the process and procedures:

The administrative procedures: where the students are divided into groups, and the tasks are distributed among themselves, the required time to accomplish the task is determined. Distributing the task into specific and clear steps should be taken into consideration, so it is possible to provide links and relations within the Web Quest.

Moreover, the teacher must provide different ways to present their results, such as the process scheme - Multimedia - Presentations - Research Tools -A Web page - Summary tables - Concepts Maps. All this in order to make the students rely on their thinking and recruit their creativity.

Fourth: The Resources:

Determine the list of available resources that can benefit the student to complete the tasks through: Websites -Scientific encyclopedias - periodicals and magazines - articles and researches - a presentation program.

Fifth: Assessment:

This phase is considered an important component of the Web Quest and the basic rule here is that the students are able to assess themselves and compare what they have learned and accomplished or that the teacher evaluates the work of his students in the previous stages. Most of the Web Quest uses the user monitoring and the scoring guide in assessing the performance and the results of the students in the form of marks, where it can develop a set of standards that help in assessing the students. The teacher has to explain apparently to his students the criteria used in the assessment.

Sixth: The Conclusion:

At this stage a set of recommendations on the Web Quest and the work of students and the achieved results have to be determined, Also the students should be reminded of what they did and what they have learned, and they should be encouraged through a presentation prepared by the task group. In addition, they should apply the experience they have learned in different

situations. The teacher can ask his students additional questions to encourage them to continue the discovery of ideas and new knowledge that arouses the interest of the discovered content. (Shadia Abdul Halim, Salah Fouad 2015.152).

The second axis-The political values: in terms of: (its concept, importance, characteristics, and the school as an institution that develops the political values, the political values requirements).

First-The concept of the political values: They are the values that reflect a sense of national identity and national belonging, and contribute to the preparation of the individual towards the political participation within the community, such as democracy, the Shura, Obedience, Justice, Islamic Jihad, and sacrifice (Ahmed Hussein Abd Elghany Al Gamal, 0.226).

Moreover "Maen Khalil Elomar, (2004.217). sees that they are ethical standards that reflect ideal model of ideas and perception of the characteristics of civilization for what is acceptable and what is unacceptable within the social environment in which we live reflecting the entire society in general and not the privacy of a certain segment group

Based on the above, we can say that the political values determine the relationship of the individual with the political authority; it is a behavior that the political system seeks to instilled in the hearts of young people, and contribute to the preparation of the individual to participate in political life.

Second-The importance of political values: the values has a great importance to the individual and public levels (Diaa El-Dien Zaher, 1984, 8-9); As for the individual level: we find that the student is in dire need in dealing with people, situations and objects to a format or a system of standards and values, this system is as aguide for his behavior, energies and motives of his activity, and it is a self-evident that if the values are absent or conflicting, man feels a stranger, off himself and his community, and even loses the motivation to work and gives less production and feels disturbed.

The Political values affect the teenager's response through the political upbringing process; they are encouraged to pay attention to the issues of the community and practice the political activity, as they turn the political behavior to be an extension of the social behavior hence, the political values are to be broadcasted in the spirits as a driving force towards the political participation.

The Political values have a significant role in the political upbringing process, as it works to: formulate the national character of the people and raise them socially, encourage them to pay attention to the issues of the society and the practice of the political action, they also instill in the spirits momentum towards work and the political participation, they give the opportunity for the individuals to express their opinion, they help to understand the surrounding world and expand its reference framework in the understanding of their life and what is going on in the community. The political values are considered an essential part of prevailing culture in the community.

Third-The characteristics of political values-The political values are characterized by a number of characteristics, including: (Zainab Ali Mohamed, 2005), and (Sami Nassar & Fahd and Ruwaished 0.2005), (important Faraj,

1. **The values are a human, historical, social phenomenon:** because they are relevant to the social reality in which the individual lives, it is also the product of human interaction with the social environment in which he lives, the real meanings and significance of the values appear only within the social existence of the individual.
2. **The values are philosophical knowledge:** where it controls the philosophical project and the philosophical knowledge, but the collapse of the political values results in the collapse of the philosophical framework of the society.

3. **The values are moral knowledge:** because the political culture set targets with a perfect character for these values.
4. **The values reflect the cultural characteristics:** they stem from the civilization in which we live through the entire system of values-what is acceptable or unacceptable.
5. **The values are characterized by generalization:** they include many categories of society and prevail among them, the update processes of the values are conducted through the full perspective of the political values in the society.

Fourth-school as an institution of political values give the institutions:

1. The importance of the role that the school can play to instill the political values (Hanan Mustafa, 1992, 107-108)
2. The length of the period spent by the student in Education, which extends from the beginning of kindergarten to the university stage.
3. The gradualism of the political awareness of the learner with the gradual learning stages; where there is a direct proportion between levels of education and provides a high degree of awareness among students.
4. Students are trained to practice freedom through the elections that occur within the class elections or students' unions elections .The students interact politically during these elections.
5. The school creates a political awareness for the students at a high level.
6. Students are trained to carry out some educational activities in the school, which emphasizes certain political values; they also gain political behavior during carrying out these activities.
7. The school must do its role for providing the students with political values in line with the strategy of the

educational system in Egypt concerning the interaction of all its members. (Inas Abu Yousef, 2001.23).

Fifth- The school curriculum and the development of political values:

The school is the official institution that prepares young people for life, the transmission of heritage and cultural from a generation to another, and the acquisition of patterns of behavior, teaching how to think, the formation of habits, social attitudes, values and the desired ideals (Elham Abdul Hamid, 1996.68), Also it instills the prevailing political values in the society and through the educational curricula. It is a must to strengthen the various textbooks such as history, geography, national civics and philosophy with a group of values, knowledge, ideas and skills that help to instill the political values for the adolescents; this is because the textbooks are considered an essential resource of providing the student with trends and political views as well as the perceptions of his country and the other countries.

Sixth-The secondary stage educational requirements of the political values:

The high school is considered a distinctive stage of the learners' growth, as it has the basic and vital consequences to fulfill their needs, desires and aspirations and at the same time prepares them to meet the needs of society and its requirements. the researchers gave this stage a great deal of attention for more than one reason, on the one hand, most of the individuals begin to assume some of the citizenship duties, such as participating in the vote for the elections, on the other hand, the individuals learn new political values and ideas that may be contrary to the family values, so he may rebel against them . (Hassan Abdul-Malik, 1991.199),

Taking this into consideration; We can say that teaching social sciences at the secondary stage is designed to assist the student in the adolescence stage to use the objective scientific way in thinking, work, life, the problems of everyday life and the

search for their right solutions, to get used to the intellectual tolerance, to create a sense of loyalty for the Arab and Islam nation, and to highlight the value of thinking to be able to achieve peace and the peaceful coexistence among peoples.

The study measures:

For Verification of the hypothesis of the study and the answer of its questions, the study used the following:

First-to know the most important political values that must be developed for the high school students:

a list of the political values that must be developed for the high school students has been prepared using the advantage of:

The Previous researches, the relevant studies, and the theoretical framework. It was tuned (1) the list has become in its final form, which contains 22 political values (2).

Second- to know the degree of availability of the list for the former political values, a content analysis card has been prepared and tuned (3).(8) curricula of the social sciences at the secondary stage were analyzed, for the academic year 2013/2014 as follows: (Rushdie To'eima 0.2004.)

1. Analysis of the curricula of the National Education subject for grades (first, second and the third).
2. Analysis of the curricula of Sociology subject for the two grades (the second and the third).
3. Analysis of the curricula of history for grades (first, second and third).

The results showed that there is a weakness of availability of the political values for the high school students in their

¹Extension (8) The Arbitrators Gentlemen names on the educational tools and materials for the study.

² extension (1) a list of political values in its final form.

³ Extension (2) A content analysis card in its final form, and its detailed results.

courses or curricula, which confirms the need for the development of political values that are included in the list.

Third-To identify the Educational design for a unit based on the Web- Quest strategy for the development of awareness and the political values for the students of social sciences at the secondary stage:

There are a lot of educational designs, including the model of, Haensch 1993, Abdul Latif El-Gazae, (1995) model, Ali Abdel Moneim (1999) model and Mohamed Atiya Khamis (2003) model. Through the review of these models, it is proved that they are consistent in the basic stages of the educational design, which is the stage of analysis, designing, development, production, use and assessment. However, these models differ in the sub-measures and steps for each stage and that depends on the different viewpoint of the form designer, the nature of the program, the learning objectives, the available facilities and the method of implementation of the program. So the two researchers will adhere to these basic stages of the strategy design, taking into account the different measures and sub-steps for each stage in accordance with the nature of the current research.

The first stage: The study and analysis of the need to use the Web-Quest strategy:

This phase begins when there is a certain educational problem for the learners who need solutions or a decision-making to confront this problem. The problem in the current research is the weakness of the political awareness among the high school students and tending to gain

these values via the web and the research methods that they have are characterized by personal diligence and random search on the web and in the light of the problem identification procedures and steps of the analysis phase is to begin which is represented in:

1- Identify the characteristics of the learners:

The learners who will study the topics using Quest-Web strategy are determined to have the following characteristics as in the following points:

1. The study sample of high school students for the academic year 2014-2015 are 400 students.
2. The students who need to acquire the research and Quest skills via the web and to be trained to use specific and clear strategy for the research procedures and get an access to information using the Web.
3. The students who have not been exposed to the study of any curriculum via the web.

2-Identification of the educational needs of the students:

The students search much across social networking sites for certain values related to the study but in a random and unordered manner which wastes a lot of time and effort, it often helps them to gain improper values and here is the educational needs for those students which lie in their need to be trained to use a clear, specific strategy steps and procedures for the research via the web to enable them to develop their values properly.

3- Determination of the required resources for the use of the strategy:

Due to the Quest-Web strategy dependence in the search for information via different sites and pages on the web, it was necessary to design and publish a site on the network that includes the presentation of specific topics using Quest-Web strategy. This site has been published on the web entitled "<https://ahmedfakhry.gnomio.com> " and it has been taken into account in the design of this site the following:

1. the links and elements of the strategy that the student use as a guidance (the introduction, tasks, procedures, learning resources, and assessment) are effective and work well.

2. the proposed learning resources should be clear, specific, rich in terms of information and relevant to the subject of the research problem.
3. the existence of data and personal information about the researchers (name-email)
4. The clarity of the methods and standards of assessment that are to be followed after the completion of the topics of the strategy.

The Second Stage : designing the Web strategy topics:

At this stage, the researchers determine the overall objective for the use of the Quest-Web strategy and to identify the topics that are to be studied using this strategy, as well as the design of procedural objectives for each topic and to identify expertise and learning resources that are necessary for each topic.

The third stage: the strategy steps:

The two researchers followed Abdul Aziz Tolba's model, which consists of the following stages and steps:

1. The presentation of the strategy (introduction): the two researchers made the students aware of the concept, the purpose and the significance of the Web Quest and the nature of the topics that they are going to study using this strategy.
2. the distribution of the tasks that are included in the strategy, the distribution of tasks and assignments, which will be conducted by students in light of the nature of each of these values that will be studied.
3. The identification of the resources which are used in the strategy, the electronic (websites and pages) were determined in the light of the elements and functions of the values that will be rendered using the Web Queststrategy. To choose these resources it was taken into account the following:

1. The suitability to the nature of the suggested tasks and the availability of scientific rigor, modernity and the inclusiveness of the information it contains.
2. Checking these resources before presenting them to the students and making sure that they will develop their values properly, widens their horizons and develop their ideas.

D) Implementation of the strategy:

The implementation of the strategy steps and identification of the tasks required on the student's guide page that included a major topic for the subject of the research have been described and an organized classification for the six values contained in the Strategy was set. Once the student clicks any of these six values a screen with the subject of the value title opens, welcoming the student, procedural goals of the subject of value, the elements and components of the lesson as well as the instructions that must be adhered to both the student and the entire group during the implementation of the strategy and after finishing it.

E) Evaluation of the strategy:

Due to the dependence of the Web Quest strategy on the student's activity to surf a lot of electronic websites and pages, which may differ in content from each other, so the two researchers prepared a card to assess the performance of the students during the implementation of the research tasks using Web Quest strategy which is a gradual measurement with a clear distributed grades .A measurement card was attached within a page of student's guide to use it in their implementation of the topics of the strategy.

(H) The conclusion of the strategy:

Every student at this stage presents a report to provide a summary of his results.

The Fourth stage: the stage of formative assessment for the Web Quest strategy:

The Assessment of this stage was carried out on two levels:

The First level: the two researchers introduced the stages and the steps of the Quest-Web strategy to a group of specialists to make sure of:

1. the validity and comprehensiveness of the strategy to the objective, which it was designed for, that is the development of some of the values for the secondary school students.
2. The appropriateness of the values that have been identified for studying using the Web Quest strategy.
3. The suitability of the specified electronic research resources (pages and sites) for each the values.

The two researchers have conducted the proposed amendments according to the views and observations of the jury.

The second Level: The two researchers applied the strategy on a number of 20 students of the high school students (not part of the research group) in order to ensure the clarity and ease of the implementation of the strategy actions and the ease to deal with the electronic resources of the research (Web sites and educational pages) for each of the values and the appropriateness of the selected time for the study of each value using the Web Quest strategy, so this strategy has become valid and ready to be applied to the core sample of the research.

The unit was designed and adjusted (4) through the following: The previous studies and researches, through the results of the content analysis of social science books, card, the theoretical framework, and a list of the political values. The components of existing unit that is based on the Web Quest strategy were determined for the development of awareness and political values for the students social sciences at the secondary level based on self-Learning through the preparation of the Quest site on the web, (5).

⁴ Extension (3) Unit-based political values on the employment of the Quest-Web strategy via the web.

⁵ Extension (4) the Quest- Web site for the political values unit.

The proposed unit included six political values including tolerance, acceptance of others, national spirit, freedom and responsibility, justice, equality, and democracy-as a principle and behavior - and the elections as a practice.

The content of each of the six values includes the following:

1. Behavioral procedural objectives of the study of the value.
2. The Scientific material of the value subsidized with activities and a formative assessment.
3. Define a set of strategies that are based on self-learning.
4. The identification of resources of teaching and learning, which can be referred to when considering the unit to choose a group of related websites and articles and videos which the students can refer to while studying each of the six values through the Quest site via the Web.
5. The final and the formative assessment tools, to evaluate the proposed unit, were prepared as a series of questions were set during and at the end of each value to measure the degree of achieving the unit's objectives, and describe the degree of the students' familiarity with the content of the unit.

Fourth-To know the effectiveness of the unit of the political values on the cognitive achievement of the high school students. An achievement cognitive test was design and adjusted (*⁶) it consists of (40) Question divided into two parts:

Part I: (25) right or wrong question with correcting the error with a total of (25 degrees)⁷.

⁶ (*) Extension (5)the cognitive achievement test.

⁷ Extension (6) A model answer to the cognitive achievement test.

Part II: (15) Completing question of (25) points, each with a total of one degree (25 degrees) to become a total score of the test (50 degrees)⁸.

A model answer for the achievement cognitive test has been set.

Fifth-To know the effectiveness of the unit of the political values on the political awareness of the high school students.

A measurement of the political awareness was designed and adjusted

1. **The formulation of the test vocabulary:** The measurement includes several polled questions for the students in some situations associated with the political values (50 Questions with a total score of 50 degrees). Divided to two parts:

1. **Part I:** (35 Questions with a degree for each question), the choice of two answers includes (agree, or do not agree)
2. **Part II:** (15 Questions with a degree for each question), that includes the choice of one of the situations .

-A pilot study for the tools of study (for the measurement of the political awareness and achievement test):

- A pilot experiment for the achievement test, and the measurement of the political values awareness was carried out through applying them on a sample to ensure the clarity of the meanings and test instructions.

-Determining the achievement test time, and the measurement of the political awareness:

-The time required for the application of the achievement test and the measure of awareness and political values was estimated, through the average time, it was taken for the pilot

⁸ Extension (7) A measurement of the political awareness to measure the awareness of secondary school students of the six political terms.

sample members to answer the test, the average time was (35 minutes) for the achievement test, and (25 minutes) for the measure of the political awareness.

The Experimental design and implementation of the experiment

First-the pre-application for the study tools:

The cognitive achievement test and the awareness measure of the political values, were applied "pre-application on the study group on Monday, 03/11/2014.

Second-The post- application of the two study tools:

the cognitive achievement test, and the measure of awareness and political values were applied, "post-application on the study group on Sunday, 12/14/2014.

Third-the statistical processing-the statistical methods were used as follow:

1. Determining the average standard deviation of the scores.
2. Using test (T) to calculate the difference between the average degrees of the applications of the pre and post cognitive achievement test and the political awareness measure ,and detecting the statistical significance of these differences in the statistical tables.
3. Calculating the amount of the effect of the dependent variable of the six values of the unit of the political values on the independent variable (the academic achievement and the development of political awareness) for the high school students.
4. The use of the developed statistical design (SPSS) to process the data statistically, to ensure the validity of processing the data statistically using the statistical laws.

Fourth-The results of the study and its interpretation:

In the light of the statistical processing, the two study hypothesis have been validated

(Table 1)Result of the Pre and post application of the cognitive achievement test for each governorate of the three governorates

	Application	Number	SMA	standard deviation	The correlation coefficient	Degrees of freedom	Value .of T	Significance
Cairo Governorate	pre	123	12.1870	3.62448	0.550	122	64.730	0.001
	post	123	34.7886	4.41171				
Dakahlia governorate	Pre	135	11.263	4.208	0.502	134	70.998	0.001
	Post	135	36.348	4.008				
Fayoum Governorate	Pre	142	18.4930	7.64064	0.599	141	27.293	0.001
	Post	142	38.6620	3.60435				
The overall results	Pre	400	14.1138	6.42756	0.325	399	69.804	0.001
	Post	400	36.6900	4.29827				

Through reviewing Table (1), concerning the total results of the students in the three governorates (Cairo-Fayoum-Dakahlia) for the cognitive achievement test in both the pre and post application, it has become clear that:

Higher average grades of the arithmetic average "SMA" that reached (36.6900) in favor of the post application, while in the pre- application, it was (14.1138) only.

In addition, the value of (T) (69.809), and the significance level of it was (0.001), a high significant proportion that confirms the impact of the unit in favor of the post- application.

Thus, the validation of the first hypothesis has proven right which states: There is a statistically significant difference between the average scores of the experimental group "study group" in the pre and the post application of cognitive achievement test of the unit of the political values in favor of the post application.

2-The Pre and post application of the measure of political awareness for each governorate of the three governorates and the overall results of the three governorate, is illustrated in Table (2)

Table (2) The results of the Pre and post application of the measure of the political awareness for each of the three governorates

Through the review of table (2), concerning the results of the total three governorates students (Cairo-Dakahlia- Fayoum)

	Application	Number	SMA	standard deviation	The correlation coefficient	Degrees of freedom	Value of T.	Significance
Cairo Governorate	Pre	123	26.6	6	0.46	122	32.3	0.001
	Post	123	45	2.9				
Dakahlia governorate	Pre	135	21.7	8	0.63	134	41.7	001.0
	Post	135	44.5	4.6				
Fayoum Governorate	Pre	142	23.5	5	0.52	134	53.3	0.001
	Post	142	46.3	3.1				
The overall results	Pre	400	23.9	6.8	0.43	399	68.9	0.001
	Post	400	45.2	3.7				

of the political awareness measure in the pre and post application the following has become apparent: the average grades of the SMA(arithmetic average) has risen to reach (45.2275) in favor of the post application while it was in the pre application (23.9025) only.

In addition, the value of (T) is (68.984) and its significance level was (0.001), it is the proportion of high significance, and confirms that the impact of the unit in favor of the post application.

From this, the validation of the second hypothesis has been proven right which states: There is a statistically significant difference between the average scores of the experimental group

"study group" in the pre and post application of the gauge awareness of the political values for the unit of political values measure in favor of the post application

Discussion and interpretation of the results of the application of tools:

The results concerning the application of cognitive achievement test, and the measure of the awareness of the political values on the experimental group "study group" has proven that:

1. There is a statistically significant difference between the average scores of the experimental group "study group" in the two applications pre and post of the cognitive achievement test and the measure of awareness in favor of the post application.
2. The amount of the impact of the political values unit in the knowledge achievement, and raising the awareness of the political values, is significant.
3. The Unit based on the Quest-Web strategy via the Web is effective in increasing the knowledge achievement, and in raising the awareness of the political values of the experimental group "study group" and the previous results can be traced to:
4. The foundations that have been taken into account during the design of the that based on the Web Quest strategy via the web starting from the foundations, through the objectives , the content, the activities and methods of assessment through which it was taken into account overcoming the defects aspects represented in the current programs for the development of students' abilities and relating the cultural materials such as the social studies with the practical and specialized materials.
5. The internal motivation for the study of unit and the use of motivation by linking the of the unit with the community needs, tendencies and the needs of the students, in addition to the use of different activities and the illustration methods, and the resources of teaching

and learning, which match the characteristics and interests of the learners.

6. What characterized the content of the unit such as, the concepts ,the main knowledge, skills, and the emotional aspects.

Study Recommendations

The present study recommends the following:

1. Working on the revision of the textbooks and educational curricula and developing them to consolidate the meanings and the pillars of the democratic system based on providing sound political education for the students through the activities and attitudes that develop the responsibilities of citizenship for the students.
2. The school carries out its role which is to enable the students to gain the political values in line with the educational system strategy in Egypt that requires the interaction of all its members.
3. Students are trained on the practice of freedom through the elections that occur within the class or the students' unions elections during which the students interacts politically.
4. Enriching the syllabuses or the curricula of the National Education , history and sociology with concepts, attitudes and values towards the development of the culture of citizenship, civic education and issues, to let them know their responsibilities and their rights and develop their awareness of their community and their world.
5. The pursuit to open areas for students to discuss local political, regional, and international issues through channels inside the schools, and the university.
6. The media, school and family have roles in the political socialization and the formation of the political awareness for young people and to work in a dynamic complementary way.

7. Reconsideration the objectives and the philosophy of education, and drafting the curricula and teaching methods to keep up with the global development.
8. Working to turning the educational policy to be the policy of a State, a ministry or a strategy and not to be the policy of the Minister that is to change with his departure.
9. Achieving a quantum leap in education: from teaching to learning and focusing on helping the students to gain experience and skills, especially the self-learning skills.
10. Activation of the main political values for the students, such as democracy, freedom, equality, responsibility and the public interest to enhance loyalty feelings to the homeland, strengthening the national identity, the consolidation of the moderation belief, moderation without extremism or intolerance, including developing the serious and positive engagement in forming the political decision-making process.

-The Study proposals:

In light of the results and the recommendations of the present study, there is an apparent need for the following research:

1. A comparative study of the awareness of the university students with the community issues locally and globally.
2. A comparative study of the political awareness of the university students and the pre-university education.
3. Curriculum development in light of the requirements of the January 25 revolution in Egypt.
4. The role of the media and the family for the development of the social values among young people.

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Factors Impact University Faculty's Attitudes Toward The Gifted

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Introduction

Gifted students are a diverse and frequently overlooked group of students. The needs of these students have been neglected in most Saudi schools, despite the adoption of an official giftedness educational policy (Al Qarni, 2010). Research suggests that this may be rather related to limited gifted education training at the preservice level. In fact, despite the support of Saudi government for gifted education, the availability of preservice training in gifted education continues to be limited at most Saudi universities. Previous research showed a lack of courses related to gifted education not only in Saudi Arabia but worldwide gifted (Hudson, Hudson, Lewis, & Watters, 2010; Clinkenbeard, & Kolloff, 2001). In addition, successful implementation of a training course about giftedness is depends on the attitudes of university faculty, those who are responsible for proposing and providing the course. As a result, this research sought to investigate whether or not a relationship exists between the lack of courses related to giftedness and the attitudes toward gifted education held by university faculty, who is responsible to equip teachers with knowledge and skills to work with gifted students. This study also examines factors that may impact their attitudes toward gifted education.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main purpose of this research is to investigate the attitudes toward gifted education held by university faculty and factors that may impact their attitudes in a university educational school in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

The research question is:

What is the relationship between the attitudes of university faculty and their individual characteristics (i.e., gender, age, specialty, number of years as a school teacher, number of years as a university lecturer, academic positions, training in gifted education, and administration roles).

Literature review

Even though preservice teachers seem to have a crucial impact on recognising gifted students, and meeting their future educational needs, little has been done to equip them with adequate knowledge and skills to work with gifted students (e.g., Abunayyan, 1994; Al-Hemaisan, 1985; Catron & Wingenbach, 1986; Hyatt, 2000; Knight, 2004). In school mainstream classrooms, the increasing diversity in students' abilities requires classroom teachers to meet the needs of all students, including gifted learners. However, if teachers have not been provided with adequate training about gifted education in their university level, they may not be able to meet the needs of gifted students in their future classroom (Bangel, Enersen, Capobianco, & Moon, 2006).

While most preservice teachers, in most countries, have to take one course in Special Education, not all colleges require their preservice teachers to study any course about gifted education (Fraser-Seeto, 2013; Taylor & Milton, 2006; Winebrenner, 2000). Consequently, most preservice teachers are not able to study the needs of these students, and may not be able to provide gifted students with differentiated curricula (Winebrenner, 2000). In Saudi Arabian universities, the only gifted education programs being undertaken are for students specialising in special education. Broadly, as noted by Winebrenner (2000), preservice teachers, specifically those in the US, undertaking Special Education programs are not required to take more than one course in gifted education. As a result, they may lack the knowledge and skills to teach those gifted students.

In Australia, Taylor and Milton (2006) examined teacher educational course provision in the field of gifted education across all universities. They found that Australian universities did not provide adequate training courses about giftedness,

which could have resulted in enhanced future teacher information and experiences about gifted students. Further, they identified that most gifted students were being taught in mainstream classrooms. They emphasised the importance of preservice teachers' skills in providing an appropriate environment for future gifted students. Additionally, Collins(2001), who had conducted an inquiry into gifted education in Australia, emphasised that courses on gifted education would significantly help to dismiss many of the common myths about giftedness and improve the participants knowledge and attitudes towards gifted education.

As shown above, despite the significance of increasing the knowledge of preservice teachers in order to improve their knowledge and attitudes, universities continue to provide few or no courses about giftedness. In addition, despite the support of Saudi government for gifted education, the availability of preservice training in gifted education continues to be limited at most Saudi universities. Successful implementation of a training course about giftedness may depend on the attitudes of those who are responsible for proposing and providing the course.

Only few studies examined the attitudes of university faculty toward the gifted (Chamberlin & Moore, 2006; Doda-Bataragoa, 1989). For example, Chamberlin and Moore (2006) investigated the level of knowledge colleges' professors have about gifted education. The participants were 62 professors at 4-year educational colleges who are teaching primary education methods classes. Through a 21-item online survey, the participants were asked to indicate the amount of hours devoted to the topic of gifted education. The result found that 69% indicated 1-2 hours per semester while another 19% reported 3-4 hours. However, only 11% reported 5 or more hours devoted to gifted topics per semester. The majority of the participants at 61% indicated that there was no required course about gifted education in the colleges where they had graduated. The other participants at 24% had only one course that partially included

gifted education. In addition, the results show a significance correlation between the level of self-reported knowledge of gifted education and the number of hours the professors devoted to gifted education in their methods course. There was also a statistically significant correlation between the colleges' requirement of courses in gifted education and the amount of instructional time spent by professors. For example, the more courses the colleges offer the more time the professors devoted to gifted education in their methods course. There was a correlation between the degrees of exposure to gifted education during professors' undergraduate programs and their current colleges' requirement in gifted education. Finally there was a statistically significant correlation between professors' having a course about the gifted during their undergraduate programs and the amount of instructional time dedicated to gifted education in the courses they teach. The results suggest that the more preparation professors have in giftedness, the higher their knowledge of gifted education. The results also show that the more knowledge the professors have, the more time they dedicated to gifted education (Chamberlin & Moore, 2006). This may explain why most of teacher preparation faculties do not provide their pre-service teachers with courses about gifted education.

Other characteristics, such as age, gender, specialty, number of years as a school teacher, number of years as a university lecturer, academic positions, training in gifted education, and administration roles, may also be used as predictors for attitudes. Begin and Gagné(1994), for example, analysed 35 studies into predictors of attitudes toward gifted education. They found "age" of the participants was an essential predictor of such attitudes. Schey's (as cited in Begin and Gagné, 1994) study found that younger educators were significantly more supportive toward the gifted than older educators. Similarly, the study by (Alfahaid, 2002) of 409 Saudi teachers found that younger teachers were more favourably disposed

toward gifted students than were older teachers. Thus, it appears that as the age of educators increases, they are more likely to resist change. Indeed, Moon, Callahan, and Tomlinson (1999) notes that beliefs about teaching remained stable over time.

In contrast, another body of research has shown that older educators hold more positive attitudes toward the gifted than younger educators (Cramond & Martin, 1987; Curtis, 2005; Wiener & O'Shea, 1963). For example, Curtis (2005) examined the attitudes of preservice teachers toward gifted students and their education. He found that female participants who were over 25 years held more positive attitudes toward the general needs of the gifted than younger participants. These studies do not explain clearly, the nature of the relationship. Curtis' (2005) results may be skewed because of a gender bias, with female teachers being more nurturing than male teachers (United Nations Development Program, 2003). Nevertheless, generally, age was found to be a predictor of attitudes toward the gifted.

Prior research on the effects of training in giftedness has been mixed. For example, Bégin and Gagné's (Bégin & Gagné, 1994) review of the research identified eight studies that examined the relationship between training in giftedness and attitudes toward the gifted. Five of the eight studies found a statistically significant relationship; three of the eight did not.

Findings from recent studies also suggest that training in gifted education may assist in improving attitudes towards gifted children and their education. For example, the attitudes of Australian primary school teachers (N = 126) towards intellectually gifted children and their education at eight schools were examined (Lassig, 2009). These schools were categorised into four different classifications in regards to their involvement in gifted education. Key findings include significant associations between teachers' attitudes and their school classifications ($p < .001$), and their participation in gifted and talented education training ($p < .001$). Findings from this study also suggest that teacher training and school-wide involvement in gifted education

may assist in improving attitudes towards the gifted and their education.

Another study by Chamberlin and Moore (2006) investigated the level of knowledge colleges' professors have about gifted education. The participants were 62 professors at 4-year educational colleges who are teaching primary education methods classes. The results show a significance correlation between the level of self-reported knowledge of gifted education and the number of hours the professors devoted to gifted education in their methods course.

Methodology

In order to obtain comprehensive data, this study includes an attitudinal questionnaire. The next section describes the context and the method.

Context

The study was conducted in the School of Education, at a University in Saudi Arabia. The participants in this study were the School of Education facultymembers. In addition, this University is accredited by the Saudi Arabian Ministry of Higher Education, and is funded by the government of Saudi Arabia.

Method

This section describes the participants, instruments, data collection and data analysis.

Participants

The participants included all School of Education facultymembers (N= Approx. 50) at a Saudi University. The participants' ages range from 26-70 years and are male and female. All the faculty members are employed by the Ministry of Higher Education. Demographic information about the research participants is presented in Table 1.

Instruments

The survey that is used to establish the attitudes of the School of Education facultymembers is divided into two sections.

They are the demographic factors and a section about the attitudes of School of Education facultymembers.

Table (1)

	Frequency	Percentage %
Gender		
Male	31	63.3
Female	18	36.7
Age		
40 Years and under	17	43.6
41 Years and older	23	56.4
Specialty		
Special Ed	8	19.5
Other Ed fields	33	80.5
Experience as Teacher		
10 Years and less	15	48.4
More than 10 years	16	51.6
Experience as Academics		
10 Years and less	25	52.1
More than 10 years	23	47.9
Academic Position		
Junior lecturer	18	39.1
Senior lecturer and Profs	28	60.9
Training in Gifted Ed		
Never	21	47.7
1 Workshop or more	23	52.3
Faculty Position		
Administrators	5	11.1
NIL	40	88.9

Section 1 contains the demographic data which seek information about the School of Education facultymembers' individual characteristics (i.e., gender, age, specialty, number of years as a university lecturer, number of years as a school teacher, academic positions, training in gifted education, and administration roles).

Section 2 contains the questions about the attitudes of School of Education facultymembers toward gifted students and their education in Saudi Arabia. The resultant survey is adapted from McCoach and Siegle's (2007) attitudinal scale which is based on Likert's Summative Rating Scale. Likert's Summative Rating Scale is the most widely used rating scale in most attitudinal studies (Malhotra, 2006; Stern & Keislar, 1975). This scale has a

set of favorable and unfavorable attitudes statements. It can indicate respondents' positive or negative attitudes toward an object on a 5-point scale. It ranges from (1 = *Very Rarely*, 2= *Rarely*, 3= *Occasionally*, 4= *Frequently*, 5= *Very Frequently*). McCoach and Siegle (2007) designed a psychometric instrument to capture educators' perceptions of gifted education. There were three hypothesized factors for the instrument (Societal Value, Need for Resources, and Comparisons of Funding/Resources). The exploratory factor analysis (EFA) showed that those three factors exist. The total variance explained is 53.95%. The reliability for the Societal Value scale is .91; the Need for Resources scale is .89; the Comparisons of Funding/Resources scale is .70.

The first factor *Societal Value* included the following 9 items: 1, 5, 6, 8, 10, 13, 16, 21, and 22. The second factor *Need for Resources* included the following 7 items: 4, 7, 9, 17, 18, 20, and 27. Finally, the factor *Comparisons of Funding/Resources* included 13 items: 2, 3, 11, 12, 14, 15, 19, 23, 24, 25, 26, 28, and 29.

Reliability of the Instrument

Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of reliability were calculated for the questionnaire in order to examine the internal consistency of items. McCoach and Siegle's (2007) attitudinal scale was divided into three sub-scales: (Societal Value, Need for Resources, and Comparisons of Funding/Resources).

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS v.19) was used to determine the reliability of the questionnaire data. The Cronbach alpha was utilized to measure the reliability of each sub-scale and overall reliability. The results were as follows:

Table 2 Reliability Analysis Using Cronbach's Alpha Sub-scales

	Alpha
Societal Value	0.71
Need for Resources	0.68
Comparisons of Funding/Resources	0.79
Total scale reliability	0.90

According to George and Mallery (2009), Cronbach's Alpha coefficients from .60 to .79 represent moderate reliability and

from .80 to .89 good reliability. As indicated in Table 2 above, alpha ranged from 0.68 to 0.90, which indicates moderate to good reliability of the scale.

Data Collection

The questionnaire was conducted at the Faculty of Education within the selected University in Saudi Arabia. A permission letter requesting distribution of the questionnaires to participants was obtained from the chairperson of the University. Prior to the research implementation, the participants were informed about the study by the researcher and via an information sheet attached to the survey on the exact purpose, methods, process, risks and benefits involved. The participants were invited to complete an attitudinal questionnaire, then fold it over, and place it in a box located at the main entrance to the Faculty of Education Building. The return of the completed questionnaire was accepted as an indication of participants' consent to participate in this project.

Findings

To address the research question, Spearman Correlation Coefficient was used to examine the relationships between the two levels of demographic variables and participants' attitudes with regard to each of the three sub-scales; (a) Societal Value (b) Need for Resources, and (c) Comparisons of Funding/Resources. The independent demographic variables were gender, age, specialty, number of years as a university lecturer, number of years as a school teacher, academic positions, training in gifted education, and administration roles. These variables were dummy coded (George & Mallery, 2009) as nominal data with two levels (0 and 1).

Spearman Correlation Coefficient was conducted to examine the relationships between the study variables. Spearman's correlation is used to assess the linear relationship between two variables. Moreover, Spearman's correlation is basically a special case of the Pearson product-moment coefficient, in which the data are converted to ranks before

calculating the coefficient (Mertler&Vannatta, 2005). It is different from Pearson's correlation only in that the calculations are made after the numbers are converted to ranks (Howell, 2004). The smallest value on X becomes a rank of 1 when converting to ranks. The difference between the Pearson correlation and the Spearman correlation is that the Pearson is most appropriate for measurements taken from an interval scale, while the Spearman is more appropriate for measurements taken from ordinal scales (George &Mallery, 2009). So, while the Likert Scale used in this study is ordinal, Spearman Correlation Coefficient was used to examine the relationships between the study variables.

The variables were the three sub-scales (Need for Resources, Societal Value, and Comparisons of Funding/Resources) and the demographic variables. The results described in Table 5, revealed that the "Need for Resources" sub-scale was significantly correlated with the other two sub-scales "Societal Value" sub-scale ($\rho = 743, p = .000$), and "Comparisons of Funding/Resources" sub-scale ($\rho = 838, p = .000$). The "Need for Resources" sub-scale was also correlated significantly with other two demographic variables "Age" ($\rho = 376, p = .018$), and "Experience as Academic" ($\rho = 449, p = .001$).

The sub-scale "Societal Value" was significantly correlated with the other two sub-scales; "Need for Resources" sub-scale ($\rho = 743, p = .000$), and "Comparisons of Funding/Resources" sub-scale" ($\rho = 757, p = .000$). The sub-scale "Societal Value" was also significantly correlated with "Experiences as Academic" variable ($\rho = 398, p = .005$).

The "Comparisons of Funding/Resources" sub-scale was significantly correlated with three variables; "Experiences as academic" variable ($\rho = 357, p = .013$), and the other two sub-scales "Societal Value" ($\rho = 757, p = .000$), and the sub-scale "Need for Resources" ($\rho = .838, p = .000$).

The variable "Experience as an Academic" was correlated with all three subscales and other four variables. It was

significantly correlated with the sub-scale “Need for Resources” ($\rho = 449, p = .001$), the sub-scale “Societal Value” ($\rho = 398, p = .005$), and with the sub-scale “Comparisons of Funding/Resources” ($\rho = 357, p = .013$). It was also correlated with the following variables; “Age” ($\rho = 385, p = .016$), “Specialty” ($\rho = 357, p = .022$), “Academic Position” ($\rho = 377, p = .010$), and with “Training” variable ($\rho = 324, p = .032$).

The variable “Academic Position” was significantly correlated with the variable “Age” ($\rho = 344, p = .037$). The following Table 5 shows the correlation matrix of variables.

Table 3 Correlation Matrix of Demographic Questions and the Three Sub-scales

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12								
1 Gender																			
2 Age	-.253																		
3 Specialties.				-.203				-.043											
4 Experience as Teacher.	.044				.294				.308										
5 Experience as Academic	.205		.385*			-.357*		.044											
6 Academic Position	.095		.344*		-.017		.087		.377**										
7 Training	.015		.021		-.167		-.105		.324*		.066								
8 Administrati on role	.130		.036		.177		.111		-.236		.069	-.056							
9 Need	-.030		.376*		-.204		-.254		.449*		.027	.115	-.287						
10 Societal	-.044		.281		.295		-.225		.398*		.212		.131	-.109	.743*				
11 Compar ison	-.056		.274		-.232		-.307		.357*		.126		.023		-.131	.838**	.757**		
12 Total	-.056		.303		.247		.285		.420**		.121		.084		.172		.919**	.888**	.942**

Discussion

Attitudinal researchers investigated predictor variables that would indicate positive attitudes toward the gifted (Begin

&Gagné, 1994a; Chipego, 2004; Curtis, 2005; McCoach&Siegle, 2007). The current research also investigated predictor variables that were cited in the literature to determine reasons behind difference between participants with regard to gifted education.

The findings of the current study identified that the demographic variable “Experience As Academic”, contributed significantly to the prediction of the following three sub-scales; “Societal Value”, Comparisons of Funding/Resources”, and “Need for Resources”. It was also correlated with the following variables; “Age”, “Academic Position”, and with “Training”.

The results have shown that the more experienced the faculty the more training they have about gifted education. So, it may be that faculty who have more experience tend to have more training in gifted education which may explain the significant correlation between experience and positive attitudes toward the gifted. Previous research showed experience as a predictor of positive attitudes toward the gifted. For example, Rubenzer and Twaite (1979), in a study of the attitudes of 1,200 educators toward the education of the gifted, found that differences in attitudes were related to the amount of teaching experience. Carman (2011) also examined the levels of stereotypic views about gifted individuals held by 119 experienced and future educators. The study found a significant correlation between educators’ years of experience and the number of stereotypical beliefs about gifted students and their education. Less experienced educators were found to have more misconceptions about gifted students and their education.

The results of the current study are also consistent with the finding of the Cramond and Martin (1987) study. These researchers examined the attitudes of 83 experienced teachers and 100 juniors and seniors enrolled in a teacher education program toward the academically gifted. The results found teaching experience as an indicator of positive attitudes toward academically gifted students.

The “Need for Resources” sub-scale was also correlated significantly with other two demographic variables “Age” and “Experience as Academic”. It was found that older faculty members tend to have more positive attitudes toward the needs of the gifted than younger faculty. This result is consistent with Begin and Gagné’s (1994a) analytical study who analysed 35 studies concerning predictors of attitudes toward gifted education and found “age” as an essential predictor of attitudes toward the gifted. It also supports previous studies that older educators have shown to have more positive attitudes toward the gifted than younger educators (Cramond & Martin, 1987; Curtis, 2005; Wiener & O’Shea, 1963). For example, Curtis examined the attitudes of pre-service teachers toward gifted students and their education. He found that older pre-service teachers held more positive attitudes toward general needs of the gifted than younger pre-service teachers. However, the result of the current study contradicts other studies where younger educators were more positive toward the gifted than older educators (Alfahaid, 2002; Aljabber, 2004). For example, Alfahaid (2002) examined the attitudes of 409 Saudi teachers toward the gifted. He found that younger teachers were more favorably disposed toward gifted students than were older educators. Schey (as cited in Begin and Gagné, 1994) also investigated the attitudes of teachers toward the gifted by using age as a predictor variable. The results found that younger teachers were significantly more supportive toward the gifted than older teachers. It may be that, older participants in the current study were found to have more teaching experience and training about giftedness. It may also be a result of a smaller study sample. As a result, the older faculty tend to have more training about gifted education which may explain their positive attitudes toward the gifted.

Training in gifted education was shown to influence educators’ attitudes toward the gifted. For example, in very early research in the area of giftedness, Wiener and O’Shea (1963) examined attitudes of teachers, university members, supervisors, and university students toward gifted students. The study also

aimed to explore relationships between certain selected variables and attitudes toward gifted students. The Wiener and O'Shea was conducted in six different states in the U.S. Similar to the current study, this study found that training in gifted education as a significant variable positively relating to overall attitudes toward gifted students. By reviewing the literature, Begin and Gagné, (1994b) have also found that participation in gifted program was associated with more knowledge and positive attitudes toward the gifted.

Limitations

The present study suffers from several limitations, which may affect the generalisability of these results. First, because it is a convenience sample, there is a need for future study to include larger population to support the generalisation of the findings beyond the convenience sample of the faculty at one university. The faculty who responded to the survey may differ systematically from non-participant faculty at the other universities, limiting the generalisability of the findings. In addition, the training in gifted education variable was broadly defined, and the quality of gifted education training is impossible to assess. Therefore, it could be that different types of training activities have varying effects on faculty's attitudes toward the gifted. Finally, the instrumentation used in this study captured only a limited number of factors related to attitudes toward the gifted. Therefore, the measurement of attitudes toward the gifted encompassed a distinct subsample of attitudinal factors. It is possible that using different attitudinal measures could produce different results.

Implications

There are two important implications from this study. Having gifted requirements during undergraduate-teacher preparation courses may encourage those who later become faculty member to support the value of gifted education at their institution. When faculty are hired by an institution that does not address gifted issues, the faculty with training in gifted education may work to raise awareness of gifted topics at the institution.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the undeniable role that preservice teachers play in gifted education in Saudi Arabia has generated the need to examine the factors that might influence their success or failure as gifted teachers. This study has identified the attitudes of faculty members in Saudi Arabia. The findings reveal that faculty with more experience and training have more positive attitudes toward gifted education than those who do not. The outcomes of the study support the generalizability of the theory of reasoned action and the theory of knowledge in predicting the relationships between experience and attitudes. The study examined the impact of experience on attitudes based on these theories. The hypotheses, as suggested by both theories, were well supported.

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L'effet de la stratégie des groupes de révision rédactionnelle (GRÉRE) sur la correction des erreurs de la traduction d'arabe vers le français auprès des futurs-enseignants du FLE, Faculté de pédagogie, Université de Hélouân.

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Résumé

A partir des pratiques enseignantes observées et des programmes appliqués à la faculté de pédagogie de Hélouân, une constatation peut être faite: la traduction se trouve au centre de l'enseignement du FLE par le biais du thème et de la version. Cette recherche a double but de déterminer les erreurs de traduction d'arabe vers le français à la lueur de la grille de Falbo et de les corriger par une unité proposée en traduction basée sur la stratégie (GRÉRE). Les résultats de l'expérimentation ont affirmé que les futures-enseignants de la faculté de pédagogie de Hélouân commettent beaucoup d'erreurs en traduction et que la fréquence d'erreurs de forme est plus grand que celle de contenu, ce qui montre l'influence de la langue maternelle à faciliter la compréhension du TD et l'insuffisance des connaissances linguistiques chez les étudiants en reformulant le TA. Selon la stratégie proposée, on a pu réduire le nombre de ces erreurs et améliorer la performance traduisante chez les membres de l'échantillon.

Mots clefs: Stratégie de (GRERE), erreur et traduction(thème).

Introduction

Les besoins de communication entre les peuples et entre les individus sont plus en plus importants et nécessaires dans la vie contemporaine. L'ouverture sur le monde ne peut se faire sans la connaissance et la maîtrise de plusieurs langues. L'Égypte

s'efforce de s'investir de manière significative dans la formation de futurs citoyens possédant l'outil indispensable à toute ouverture vers l'autre, soit des peuples, soit des individus, par l'enseignement / apprentissage des langues étrangères surtout dans les facultés des lettres et de pédagogie .

Parmi les matières de formation enseignées dans ces facultés, la traduction où l'étudiant trouve l'occasion de mettre en œuvre les notions linguistiques et extra linguistiques déjà acquises à travers les autres matières. De plus la traduction est un moyen d'accès à la culture étrangère et au progrès international. Le cours de traduction arabo-français s'insère dans deux types de traditions didactiques parallèles mais distinctes : la didactique de l'apprentissage des langues secondes et la didactique de la traduction. En effet, la traduction pédagogique exige d'une part des connaissances et habilités suffisantes sur les deux langues, de l'autre; une capacité d'analyse. Et pour réaliser l'acte traduisant, l'apprenant doit mobiliser ses compétences de compréhension et d'expression écrites, ce qui servira à développer ses capacités à comprendre, saisir, analyser et traduire adéquatement.

A ce propos, Abdel Razik, Azza (2000) constate que, pour traduire un texte écrit dans une langue étrangère, ce sont deux conditions, non pas une, qu'il faut remplir : Connaître la langue , et connaître la civilisation dont parle cette langue. C'est pourquoi traduire n'est pas traduire un "énoncé", mais chercher dans une langue seconde un énoncé muni du même sens. Le bon traducteur possède plus que la compétence linguistique : il doit être capable d'analyser le texte, et posséder des qualités d'écriture.

Dans le même sens, Robinson, (1997:192) considère la traduction comme activité linguistique réalisée sur des textes, et les principaux facteurs déterminant la traduction sont des structures d'équivalence abstraites, définies syntaxiquement et sémantiquement. Jakobson (2000 :114) étudie la traduction sous les trois titres dont la plus connue est la seconde, la traduction interlinguale. La traduction intra-linguale : c'est de transmettre

un message oral en même langue en oral de façon différente. La traduction interlinguale : c'est d'exprimer de nouveau un message oral en langue différente en oral. La traduction entre des signes : c'est de définir encore une fois un message oral par l'intermédiaire d'un différent système de signes.

Ainsi que Humboldt (2000 : 24), constate que la traduction est un travail, non une œuvre. Le travail de traduction engage la langue, la culture et la nation. Mais chez Tatilon (1986 : 7), traduire, c'est « reformuler un texte dans une autre langue, en prenant soin de conserver son contenu », Tandis que Ladmiral, J-R. (2004 :12) définit la traduction à travers sa fonction en montrant que la traduction sert à entrer dans un autre univers linguistique voire culturel. Pour Chaix, P. 1991 (cité dans d' Abdel Razik, Azza); traduire c'est "La mise en œuvre d'opérations cognitives et psycholinguistiques profondes". Donc, on peut conclure que la traduction est liée aux comportements de compréhension et d'expression et on la comprend comme un exercice de recherche de correspondances entre deux langues. Deux problèmes méthodologiques se posent lors de l'activité traduisante pour l'étudiant de la langue étrangère qui considère la traduction comme moyen facilitant le processus de l'enseignement et même dans la formation du traducteur spécialisé : Le problème de la compréhension dans la langue de départ et un problème d'expression dans la langue d'arrivée

Position du problème :

Quand l'approche communicative a accordé une grande valeur à la communication pour remplacer la traduction dans l'enseignement / apprentissage des langues étrangères, les vieilles habitudes de la tradition "grammaire - traduction" restent dominantes. D'autre part, la traduction est devenue une réalité intégrante dans l'enseignement / apprentissage du FLE soit pour faciliter la compréhension et l'accès à la culture du FLE, soit comme matière didactique. C'est pour cela, on voit apparaître certaines recherches et des études concernant la traduction et les erreurs des étudiants lors du processus de traduction comme

l'étude d' Abdel Razik, Azza (2000),l'étude de El Chahat, Gamal (2009) et l'étude d'AL-Attrache, Rim (2003).

La situation actuelle de l'enseignement de la traduction comme matière académique au département du français dans les facultés de pédagogie en Egypte et le fait qu'il existe très peu de recherches dans ce domaine, nous amènent à chercher des stratégies et des programmes pour améliorer le niveau de cette matière et développer la performance traduisante chez les étudiants. Etant donné que l'état actuel de nos étudiants dans la matière de traduction est médiocre, les résultats des examens finaux de traduction à la faculté de pédagogie, université de Hélouân montrent le niveau bas des étudiants à traduire surtout d'arabe vers le français où ils trouvent des difficultés lors de la traduction; ils ne peuvent pas parvenir à traduire un texte fidèlement par rapport au texte de départ, ce qui produit d'erreurs de faux-sens, contre-sens et non-sens. Ainsi, ils commettent beaucoup d'erreurs en grammaire de la langue, en choix de lexique et d'expression. Les chercheurs ont entamé une étude exploratoire contenant deux parties :

1. L'analyse des 10 corpus des réponses en traduction des étudiants de 2eme année, section de français, faculté de pédagogie de Hélouân (l'examen final de l'année 2013/2014).
2. Un questionnaire semi-ouvert adressé aux étudiants de la 2eme et 3eme années (110 étudiants et étudiantes), section de français, faculté de pédagogie, Hélouân de types : Trouvez- vous des problèmes lors de traduction de l'arabe vers le français ? lesquels ? Sont-elles au niveau du lexique, de la grammaire, de tournures ou au niveau des aspects culturels ?

L'analyse des corpus de traduction et les réponses des étudiants au questionnaire nous amènent à identifier certaines difficultés telles que : --

1. Former des phrases correctes.
2. Employer des connecteurs convenables.
3. Choisir de bons lexiques et des expression adéquates.

4. Incapacité à comprendre certains mots.
5. Le texte de départ n'est pas clair.
6. Incapacité à distinguer les sens différents d'un mot.
7. Les temps des verbes et la concordance des temps.

Ainsi, cette recherche se propose de répondre à la question principale suivante : " Comment corriger les erreurs des étudiants en traduction par la stratégie des groupes de révision rédactionnelle?". Pour répondre à cette question principale, nous avons traité les questionnements suivants :

1. Quelles sont les erreurs en traduction de l'arabe vers le français (thème) commises par les futurs enseignants du F.L.E ?
2. Comment peut-on mettre en œuvre la stratégie de (GRÉRÉ) pour corriger les erreurs en traduction (thème) chez les futurs enseignants?
3. Quel est l'effet de la stratégie de (GRÉRÉ) sur la correction des erreurs commises en traduction chez les futurs enseignants ?

Les hypothèses de la recherche :

1. Il y a une différence statistiquement significative entre la moyenne des notes des membres de l'échantillon de l'étude aux pré et post tests de traduction (thème) en faveur du post test
2. Il y a une différence statistiquement significative entre la fréquence d'erreurs (selon la grille d'analyse adoptée) en traduction des membres de l'échantillon de l'étude aux pré et post tests en faveur du post test.
3. La stratégie adoptée dans cette recherche (le GRÉRÉ) a un effet assez grand sur la correction des erreurs commises en traduction (thème) chez les futurs enseignants.

Les objectifs de la recherche :

1. Présenter une grille d'analyse des erreurs en traduction auprès des futurs enseignants du F.L.E (échantillon de la recherche)

2. Déterminer les erreurs les plus récurrentes en traduction de l'arabe vers le français chez les futurs enseignants du F.L.E.
3. Vérifier l'effet de la stratégie des groupes de révision rédactionnelle sur la correction des erreurs en traduction.

L'importance de la recherche :

Cette recherche pourra

1. Nous montrer l'apport important de l'analyse d'erreurs surtout en traduction d'arabe vers le français en vue de comprendre les causes et déterminer le traitement adéquat à chaque type d'erreurs. Fournir aux futurs enseignants du F.L.E une grille d'analyse et d'évaluation des erreurs de traduction.
2. Développer la performance en ce qui concerne la traduction de l'arabe vers le français chez les futurs enseignants du F.L.E.

Délimitation de la recherche :

Notre recherche a pour limites les points suivants :

1. Un groupe de 30 étudiants et étudiantes de 2^{eme} année, section du français, faculté de pédagogie, Hélouân.
2. La traduction pédagogique (à des fins éducatifs de l'enseignement / apprentissage de F.L.E) de l'arabe vers le français (thème).
3. Le 2^{eme} trimestre de l'année universitaire (2014-2015).

Terminologie de la recherche:

1- La stratégie des groupes de révision rédactionnelle

D'abord, la stratégie, selon le dictionnaire le petit ROBERT (1986:1867), est «ensemble d'actions coordonnées, de manœuvres en vue d'une victoire. Stratégie électorale, parlementaire». Presque le même sens chez Cartier Sylvie (2000), c'est un ensemble d'actions ou de moyen observables et non observables employés par l'individu avec une intention particulière et ajuste en fonction des variables d'une situation.

Mais, la stratégie des groupes de révision rédactionnelle (GRÉRÉ) comme la définissent Lafontaine, L. et autres (2011), c'est une rencontre de deux temps entre un scripteur et ses paires : la première séance, le scripteur lit à haute voix son texte et reçoit des commentaires de ses pairs. Ensuite, le scripteur retourne travailler son texte individuellement et choisit d'intégrer ou non les suggestions reçues. La deuxième séance, lire le texte par les paires pour y corriger les erreurs de forme, le scripteur prend des notes et décide d'intégrer ou non les suggestions des paires.

Les deux chercheurs définissent cette stratégie comme travail individuel et collectif comprenant ensemble d'activités réalisées en étapes entre les membres des groupes d'une classe de langue en vue de traduire un texte d'arabe vers le français en respectant les notions linguistiques et extralinguistiques.

2- Les erreurs de la traduction

Il existe plusieurs définitions pour l'erreur comme:

1. Xu(2008) qui considère l' erreur comme le phénomène linguistique déviant des règles présidant la langue et son usage standard qui reflète le manque de compétence chez l'apprenant. Mais Falbo, C.(1998) a adopté
2. une définition plus large du terme erreur; pour elle : «c'est tout ce qui
3. constitue une violation de la cohésion et de la cohérence de Texte de départ
4. en Texte d'Arrivée, et l'équivalence au niveau du contenu et de la forme
5. entre (TD) et (TA)».Les deux chercheurs adoptent la dernière définition car elle met en considération, lors de l'activité traduisante, le texte de départ et le texte d'arrivée d'une part et la cohésion et la cohérence des textes de l'autre part.

3- La traduction d'arabe vers le français

La définition de la traduction représente un problème polémique par exemple selon Tatillon (1986 : 7), traduire, c'est

« reformuler un texte dans une autre langue, en prenant soin de conserver son contenu ». Tandis que Ladmiral, Jean-René (2004 : 12) définit la traduction à travers de sa fonction en montrant qu'elle sert à entrer dans un autre univers linguistique voire culturel, Pour cet auteur, la traduction sert à avoir « une vision constructiviste de l'Universel », Quant au thème, Pour Cuq, Gruca, (2011 : 400), c'est un exercice d'expression écrite qui consiste à traduire un extrait de texte en langue maternelle en un extrait de texte en langue étrangère. Son objectif est de mettre en pratique les connaissances grammaticales de l'apprenant. On peut définir la traduction d'arabe vers le français (le thème) comme exercice de reformulation d'un texte en arabe dans un autre texte en français en respectant le sens du texte de départ, et les notions linguistiques du texte d'arrivée.

Philosophie de la recherche

Nous essayerons, dans cette partie de recherche, de mettre l'accent sur trois éléments qui sont, à notre sens, très importants pour mener à bien notre réflexion de recherche.

La traduction sa définition, ses types et son mécanisme.

En effet, les dictionnaires offrent plusieurs synonymes du verbe «traduire» comme « changer, convertir, exprimer, interpréter, reformuler, transférer » mais ces mots ne présentent pas comme l'avait trouvé Ünsal, G (2013 :88) tous les caractéristiques de l'activité traduisante. Nous avons trouvé plusieurs définitions adoptées par les chercheurs, bien qu'elles soient différentes en ce qui concerne les composantes d'une traduction, elles sont unanimement d'accord à propos de sa fonction.

Il faudrait ajouter que selon la définition adoptée, on pourrait par la suite déterminer ce qui est une erreur en traduction et ce qui n'est pas.

Selon Ladmiral, J-R (2004 :12), traduire consiste à énoncer dans une langue ce qui était énoncé dans une autre. Ainsi, la traduction sert à entrer dans un autre univers linguistique voire

culturel, Pour cet auteur, la traduction sert à avoir « une vision constructiviste de l'Universel ». Mais, on remarque que cette définition se concentre sur la lagune orale. Tadis que, chez Tatilon, C. (1986 : 7), traduire, c'est « reformuler un texte dans une autre langue, en prenant soin de conserver son contenu », ou encore « traduire est une opération qui a pour but de fabriquer, sur le modèle d'un texte de départ, un texte d'arrivée dont l'information soit - dans chacun de ses aspects : référentiel, pragmatique, dialectal, stylistique aussi proche que possible de celle contenue dans le texte de départ ».

Al-Attrache, Rim (2003 :10) a mis le point sur une caractéristique primordiale étant une condition pour l'activité traduisante, qui est la fidélité au sens. Pour elle, il existe trois principes de fidélité qui sont nécessaires et indissociables si l'on veut être fidèle au sens (le vouloir dire de l'auteur, les moyens propres de la langue d'arrivée et le destinataire de la traduction). En plus; elle a déterminé deux composantes pour la traduction réussite : La première est proprement linguistique, la seconde est contextuelle (qui consiste à mettre en relation la maîtrise de la linguistique et la situation de la parole). Elle conseille de bien choisir le lexique convenable dans la langue cible, car la recherche de l'équivalence doit prendre en considération le sens de chaque unité structurale.

Abdel Razik, Azza (2000 : 1) va dans le même sens pour dire : «Traduire, c'est chercher dans une langue seconde un énoncé muni du même sens. D'ailleurs trouver cet énoncé suppose que l'on ait compris ce que l'auteur a " voulu dire " ». La traduction pour elle, n'est pas seulement une recherche simple dans un dictionnaire bilingue, de termes d'un message déterminé. Il serait bien grave donc que l'étudiant prend l'habitude de s'attacher aux signifiés des mots et non pas au sens qu'ils confèrent à l'énoncé . D'autre part, Abdel Razik, Azza (2000 : 8) constate que le traducteur doit savoir que le mot désigne un sens différent selon le contexte dans le quel il vient s'interroger et il faut tenir compte de son affectivité et de son effet sur le lecteur de la langue cible.

Donc, Abdel Razik, Azza et Al-Attrache, Rim se mettent d'accord en refusant la traduction littérale ou le mot à mot car elle nuise la fidélité au sens du message original.. Thierry, G et Delphine, L (2011 : 7) vont dans le même sens pour dire : Traduire un texte constitue un exercice spécifique qui met en jeu non seulement les compétences du traducteur sur la grammaire, la syntaxe et le lexique des différents segments successifs de ce texte (groupes de mots, phrases ou groupes de phrases), mais aussi la prise en compte de la dimension contextuelle de ces segments et de son impact sur la traduction. En d'autres termes, il s'agit non seulement de maîtriser les techniques de la traduction de manière ponctuelle, au sein des segments, mais aussi d'avoir du texte une vision globale, au niveau de sa structure, de son statut énonciatif et de sa portée sur le lecteur.

D'après Capelle (1987 : 128-135) qui voit que la traduction «inter sémantique» fait partie de notre compétence communicative. On peut considérer que la traduction est une activité étroitement liée aux comportements sémiotiques.

En bref, la fonction de la traduction est donc de faire comprendre au récepteur le message émis par le destinataire. Un traducteur, doit alors être soumis à une pratique ou à un exercice qui le rend capable de comprendre et d'assimiler le texte à traduire, afin de le reconstituer et de l'interpréter dans la langue d'arrivée. (Al-Attrache, Rim. 2003). Donc, pour être un bon traducteur il faut acquérir un savoir-faire : une compétence pour comprendre ce que veut dire le texte original, et une autre pour ré exprimer le même texte dans une autre langue. Pour Lavaut 1987 (cité dans Abdel Razik, Azza. 2000 : 2). « La pédagogie de la traduction a pour objectif de développer une double compétence : une compétence de compréhension et une compétence de réexpression ».

Types de traduction

La méthodologie classique affirme que les techniques classiques de traduction pédagogique sont la version et le thème qui sont très efficaces et fonctionnelles dans le processus d'enseignement / apprentissage des langues étrangères. Selon,

(Cuq, Gruca, 2011 : 400) La version est un exercice de compréhension et d'expression écrites qui consiste à commuter un extrait de texte en langue étrangère en un extrait de texte en langue maternelle. Quant au thème, c'est un exercice d'expression écrite qui consiste à traduire un extrait de texte en langue maternelle en un extrait de texte en langue étrangère. Son objectif est de mettre en pratique les connaissances grammaticales de l'apprenant.

Le but de nombreuses méthodologies dans l'enseignement de la traduction va donc consister à s'émanciper le plus possible du linguistique tout en empruntant à cette science de nombreux concepts. Ainsi, les chercheurs en didactique de la traduction ressentent-ils le besoin de faire une distinction nette entre traduction didactique et la traduction professionnelle : Delisle (1980) distingue la traduction professionnelle de la traduction pédagogique : la *traduction proprement dite* vise à la production d'une performance pour elle-même (performance cible) : **la traduction pédagogique** est seulement un test de compétence (compétence cible et compétence source) et s'intègre à un ensemble pédagogique plus vaste. Ce type de traduction a un objectif métalinguistique, parce qu'elle est un support à la réflexion sur la L2; **Traduction didactique** : « exercice de transfert inter linguistique pratiqué en didactique des langues et dont la finalité est l'acquisition d'une langue » (DELISLE 2005 :

Traduction professionnelle : « exercice pratiqué dans les écoles, instituts ou programmes de formation de traducteurs et conçu comme un acte de communication inter linguistique fondé sur l'interprétation du sens de discours réels. » (DELISLE 2005 :

On peut faire une comparaison entre les deux types dans le tableau suivant :

statut	Traduction didactique	Traduction professionnelle
1-Les lieux où ces activités sont exercées :	Classe de langue	Cursus de traduction
2-Les compétences qu'elles permettent d'acquérir	Linguistiques et civilisationnelles	méthodologiques et techniques
3-Les textes sur lesquels on travaille	Essentiellement la littérature et la presse	tous types de textes et modes d'emploi inclus.
4- Le public visé :	Le professeur	Lecteurs inconnus

Cette bipartition nette vise à s'émaniciper de la tradition en didactique des langues et permet d'insister sur la spécificité de l'apprentissage du traducteur. Ces dernières années ont donc vu paraître de nouvelles études portant sur la didactique de la traduction qui puisent abondamment notions et concepts dans la didactique générale, comme l'étude de Jean DELISLE (1981) qui met en place un curriculum d'apprentissage de la traduction par objectif comme on le fait pour d'autres sujets. Sur le marché du travail, on distingue deux types de traduction : la traduction de textes techniques concernant les documents tels que les manuels, les feuilles d'instructions, notes internes, procès-verbaux, rapports financiers, et autres documents destinés à un public limité; et la traduction littéraire qui concerne les romans, poèmes et autres genres du domaines littéraire.

Processus de la traduction

Cary, E. (1994 : 11) affirme que la traduction est une opération qui cherche à établir une équivalence entre deux textes exprimés en deux langues différentes. On est alors devant deux textes, l'un soit un texte de départ, l'autre soit un texte d'arrivée. En plus, le processus de traduction passe par deux étapes, la première est la compréhension d'un texte de départ soit en langue maternelle; en cas de la traduction du thème soit en langue étrangère; en cas de traduction de la version, la seconde est la phase de restitution, reformulation ou réécriture du texte d'arrivée.

Gile, D (1992) présente dans son article un modèle opérationnel de la traduction, qu'il utilise dans son enseignement de la traduction scientifique et technique. Ce modèle de processus explique les deux phases précédentes de compréhension et de reformulation. Pour lui; « Dans la pédagogie de traduction, nous cherchons à proposer aux étudiants non pas une description complète des processus, mais des modèles méthodologiques susceptible de les orienter vers des applications pratiques » (1992 : 252).

1-Phase de compréhension :

La compréhension d'une unité de traduction (phrase, proposition ou groupe de mots) dit-il, se compose de sa réception sensorielle (auditive ou visuelle), de son analyse, dans laquelle interviennent les connaissances linguistiques et extra-linguistiques du récepteur, et d'une prise de décision sur son *sens* sur la base de cette analyse.

2-Phase de reformulation :

Dans cette phase, de reformulation du message en langue d'arrivée, deux cas se présentent; soit l'analyse et les tests lors de la phase de compréhension ont aboutit à une bonne compréhension; soit des problèmes de compréhension persistent. Dans le deuxième cas, où la phase de compréhension n'a pas abouti, différentes tactiques de transcodage, de maintien de l'ambiguïté et de contournements des problèmes sont employées. Gile, D (1992) pense que ces tactiques défensives doivent être enseignées, puisqu'elles font partie de la pratique du traducteur.

Le modèle de Gile, figuré sur la figure (3) résulte essentiellement de la juxtaposition des deux phases de traduction; compréhension et reformulation.

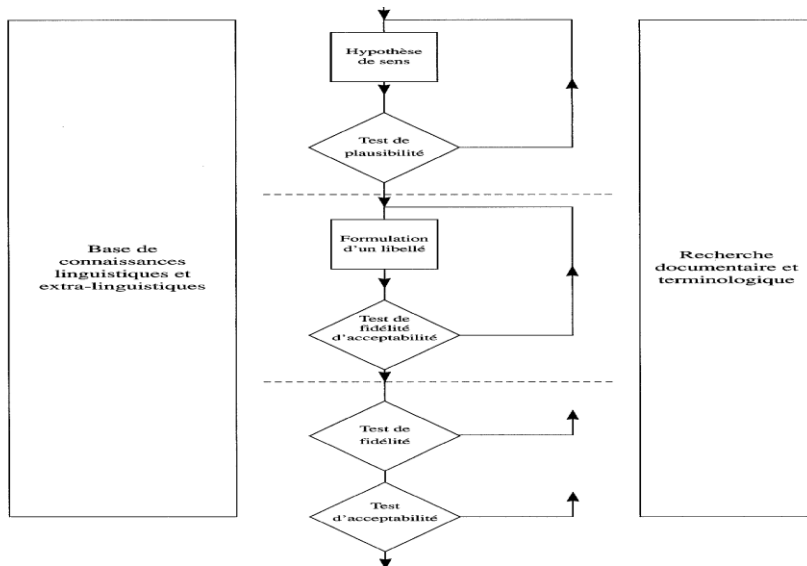


Figure 3 Modèle de la traduction

Ce modèle ne tente de représenter le véritable déroulement chronologique du processus de traduction. Il montre néanmoins des tests de fidélité et d'acceptabilité linguistique sur un groupe d'unités de traduction reformulées en langue d'arrivée au niveau de la phrase, du paragraphe, de la page du texte entier (les deux tests dans la partie la plus basse du modèle : en cas de résultat négatif à l'un des tests, un nouveau libellé doit être formulé).

Grâce à ce modèle; nous supposons que l'activité traduisante étant faite en groupe, pousse les apprenants à discuter soit dans la phase de compréhension du texte de départ à propos de leurs hypothèses formulées du sens d'où le test de plausibilité entre les membre du groupe, soit dans la phase de reformulation de libellées du texte d'arrivée d'où le test de fidélité.

D'après le dictionnaire Larousse (1978) "plausible"; celui qui peut être approuvé ou admis. D'ailleurs, puisque Gile, D (1992) n'a pas précisé ce qui est un test de plausibilité dans la compréhension et ses éléments, nous voyons que la détermination de ce qui est "plausible" serait un processus discrétionnaire et arbitraire basé sur l'expérience personnelle dans des situations habituelles et les connaissances antérieures. De même que dans la phase de restitution, Gile, D (1992) n'a pas non plus déterminé ce qui est une libellée fidèle et acceptable. Cela ne va pas dire qu'il n'y ait pas des paramètres et que chacun écrive à son gré.

C'est pourquoi, un travail collectif dans cette phase pourrait améliorer la prestation de ces apprenants en ce qui concerne la traduction. Pourtant, Gile, D. (1992) n'a pas négligé de nous expliquer les fautes et les maladresses commises par l'apprenant dans la traduction en se basant sur son modèle et les classe d'après l'emplacement dans le processus en deux grandes catégories; fautes de compréhension et fautes de restitution dont on va parler dans la partie suivante concernant les fautes et les erreurs en traduction.

Fautes et erreurs en traduction, leur typologie, leurs sources.

Parfois, la tâche du traducteur est plus difficile quand il s'agit de deux langues, source et cible, appartenant à deux familles différentes, comme le français et l'arabe; affirme Al-Attrache, Rim (2003 :10). Le français est une langue de la famille indoeuropéenne, l'arabe appartient à la famille sémitique. Nous pouvons considérer que la traduction de l'arabe vers le français et vice versa, est un problème qui est beaucoup plus délicat que la traduction d'un texte du français à l'espagnol et vice versa, car les différences sont multiples entre l'arabe et le français. « Comme les langues sont différentes les unes des autres, non seulement au niveau des systèmes en tant que tels, mais aussi au niveau de leur utilisation à des fins de communication, les traits sémantiques pertinents retenus par chacune d'elles pour exprimer des faits ou des concepts, par exemple, ne sont pas identiques [...].Il doit recréer les effets stylistiques dans la langue d'arrivée en se plaçant dans la même perspective que l'auteur et en s'imprégnant de ses intentions. ».

La réflexion sur la notion d'erreur en traduction provient essentiellement des recherches en didactique. Bien qu'il n'existe pas de nombreuses publications sur l'analyse de l'erreur en langues vivantes, tel n'est pas le cas en didactique de la traduction (El Chahat, Gamal. 2009 : 57). On a trouvé plusieurs articles, recherches et études antérieures basés sur l'erreur en traduction dont la plupart suffisait à décrire ces erreurs et en reconnaître la source, mais peu sont ceux qui présentent la solution Pour Gile, D. (1992 : 251), si les fautes de traduction sont des symptômes de faiblesse ou d'insuffisance, ils sont aussi un précieux outil pédagogique dans la formation du traducteur. C'est en les éliminant que l'on améliore la prestation de l'apprenti traducteur, que ce soit par accumulation de connaissances ou par déclenchement d'un processus d'inférence qui permet à l'étudiant de généraliser et d'éviter les fautes similaires dans la suite de sa formation. Mais avant tout, il importe bien distinguer la faute de l'erreur car on a trouvé une

attitude d'ambiguïté à propos de deux termes. Il existe une différence fondamentale entre la faute et l'erreur. Astolfi 1997 et Spilka 1984 (cités dans Collombat, I. 2009 : 45).

La faute, peut être due à un élément contingent (négligence passagère, distraction, fatigue, etc.), est considérée comme relevant de la responsabilité de l'apprenant, qui aurait dû l'éviter. L'enseignant l'évalue à posteriori pour la sanctionner. D'autre part, en didactique des langues étrangère Marquillo Larruy, 2003:120) constate que les fautes correspondent à " des erreurs de type (lapsus) inattention/fatigue que l'apprenant peut corriger (oubli des marques de pluriel, alors que le mécanisme est maîtrisé.

L'erreur, quant à elle, revêt un caractère systématique et récurrent : elle est un 'symptôme' de la manière dont l'apprenant affronte un type d'obstacle donné. L'enseignant lui applique un traitement a priori pour la prévenir, traitement basé sur le relevé et l'explication des erreurs antérieures de même nature. En didactique des langues étrangères, les erreurs relèvent d'une méconnaissance de la règle de fonctionnement (par exemple ,accorder le pluriel de "cheval" en chevaux lorsqu'on ignore qu'il s'agit d'un pluriel irrégulier) (Marquillo Larruy, 2003:120).

En effet, on notera que la plupart de recherches et d'études antérieures n'ont pas respecté cette distinction entre faute et erreur, On notera encore qu'elles n'ont pas adopté une typologie unanime de ces erreurs cela peut être due à la différence des fondements théoriques adoptées pour cette classification. Certains d'entre elles ont préféré les symptômes ou la nature de l'erreur commise (elle est comment ?) d'autres ont préféré sa source (le pourquoi ?) comme une base pour regrouper les erreurs. C'est vrai que cette précision quant au type d'erreur susceptible d'être commise nous paraît essentielle comme a confirmé Collombat, I. (2009); car elle permet d'affiner la méthodologie en appliquant une stratégie de résolution adaptée à un type particulier de problème clairement identifié. Mais, il serait plus important pour nous d'adopter une base théorique pour cette classification.

Gile, D (1992 : 261) nous parle de source d'erreur et pas la nature de celle-ci; « nous procédons de manière analytique et systématique en classant les fautes par catégories selon leur origine organique et fonctionnelle, en essayant d'agir sur la racine du mal plutôt que sur les symptômes. » . Il a avancé deux typologies différentes d'erreurs publiées dans deux articles différents l'un était publié en 1992 dont on a parlé plus haut, l'autre est publié en 2004; mais dans tous les deux typologies les erreurs sont regroupées selon le même principe qui est la source ou l'origine d'erreur. Selon lui; « pour lutter contre ces fautes et maladroites, il est utile de pouvoir en identifier la source afin de prendre des mesures de correction appropriées ». Il a mis dans son article les principes théoriques et les traits d'une stratégie appropriée pour identifier les sources des "fautes" de traduction; Deux stratégies ont été adoptées pour déterminer l'origine d'une erreur en traduction chez Gile, D ; la stratégie d'isolation et la stratégie d'explication :

La stratégie d'isolation peut être mise en œuvre de deux manières :

La première consiste à choisir où à écrire un texte qui est très simple et claire mais qui présente des termes techniques demandant une recherche documentaire, ou au contraire un texte ne présentant aucune difficulté technique mais comportant une ambiguïté que seule l'analyse de plausibilité peut lever. La seconde consiste à donner aux étudiants les solutions ou une grande partie des solutions à tous les problèmes sauf ceux sur lesquels on souhaite vérifier leur compréhension.

La stratégie d'explication :

Expliquer l'origine de l'erreur par les étudiants eux-mêmes. On leur demande de préciser par écrit, en annexe à chaque exercice de traduction, les problèmes auxquels ils se sont heurtés, en distinguant les problèmes de compréhension et les problèmes de restitution. Selon Gile, D (1992 : 260) «ces deux

stratégies, complétées par des discussions en classe, permettent en général de faire des diagnostics assez précis sur les origines de la plupart des erreurs et maladresses. ». Dans son livre publié en 2004, Gile, D. présente une autre typologie que plusieurs écrits ont abordé sa classification d'erreurs comme par exemple Collombat, I (2009), Ünsal, G (2013). Ces erreurs sont encore classées d'après leur source et cause, il les divise sous trois grandes catégories :

1-Erreurs de sens :

Les fautes de cette catégorie peuvent avoir huit origines possibles.

1. Une connaissance insuffisante de la langue de départ ;
2. Une lecture insuffisamment attentive de la langue de départ ;
3. Une mauvaise qualité du texte de départ ;
4. Une reformulation insuffisamment attentive du texte de départ ;
5. Une erreur 'mécanique' au moment de l'écriture ;
6. Une erreur d'appréciation par rapport à la norme de fidélité applicable ;
7. Une connaissance insuffisante de la langue d'arrivée (étrangère) ;
8. Un problème d'acquisition d'informations ad hoc.

2-Erreurs et maladresses de langue :

1. une maîtrise insuffisante de la langue d'arrivée ;
2. une contamination momentanée de la langue d'arrivée par la langue de départ ;
3. une incapacité plus fondamentale du traducteur de se distancier des structures linguistiques du texte de départ lors de la reformulation en langue d'arrivée ;
4. une reformulation insuffisamment attentive, et l'absence de vérification de l'acceptabilité de l'énoncé produit en langue d'arrivée.

3-Faiblesses dans la terminologie et phraséologie spécialisées

Ces faiblesses sont dues à l'absence d'une recherche appropriée, à un mauvais choix des sources ou à une mauvaise utilisation de ces sources; De l'autre côté plusieurs autres typologies des erreurs en traduction ont une base linguistique en considérant à tort, la faute de langue et la faute en traduction soient les mêmes. D'ailleurs selon Kupsch- Loserett 1985 (cité dans Martinez Melis, N. 2001 : 61) «les critères d'évaluation pour une traduction ne doivent pas prendre en compte les écarts par rapport aux normes lexicales et syntaxiques comme erreur de traduction, puisque la connaissance de langue est une des conditions requises pour la traduction».

Delisle, J. 1993 (cité dans Idem) a fait la différence entre la faute de langue « une erreur due à une connaissance de la langue d'arrivée, une maîtrise insuffisante de la langue et des techniques de rédaction comme par exemples les fautes d'orthographe, de grammaire et la mauvaise emploi des prépositions, etc. » à l'opposé de la faute de traduction « qui est une erreur due à une interprétation erronée ». Pour Larose 1989 (cité dans Idem) les connaissances linguistiques sont des conditions préalables à la traduction. A ce propos, El Chahat, Gamal (2009 : 61) dit: « il y a erreur de langue lorsque la norme de la langue (lexique, ponctuation, syntaxe et style) n'est pas respectée. Il y a erreur de traduction lorsque le sens d'un mot ou d'un groupe de mots n'est pas transféré ». Les fonctionnalistes ont adopté une position plus nuancée comme Nord 1996 (cité dans Martinez Melis, N. 2001 : 62) qui considère que l'erreur en traduction n'existe qu'en situation donnée car une structure est correcte si elle est fonctionnelle. Si la situation change, la même structure, n'étant pas fonctionnelle, sera incorrecte.

Du point de vue fonctionnelle la faute de langue n'a aucun impact sur la qualité de traduction sans qu'il déforme le message transmis entre un auteur principal et un destinataire soit dans la phase de compréhension du texte de départ soit dans la phase de restitution du texte d'arrivée. L'important est donc que le

message soit passé. C'est pourquoi plusieurs typologies d'erreurs en traduction ont adopté des catégories qui contiennent des fautes linguistiques provoquant un (contresens- faux sens ou non sens) comme erreur de traduction.

Ainsi Al-Attrach, Rim. (2003) dans son étude, a divisé les erreurs de traduction en plusieurs parties : le contresens, le faux-sens, le non-sens, la traduction littérale, la traduction faible et la traduction tronquée.

D'abord le contresens est une interprétation contraire à la signification véritable; c'est un sens contraire au bon sens. Le faux-sens est un sens qui n'est pas vrai ou qui est contraire à la vérité ou au sens voulu à l'origine.

Le non-sens représente ce qui est dépourvu de sens (phrase ou proposition) ; c'est un manque de signification. La traduction littérale est une traduction qui suit un texte lettre à lettre, ou qui se fait mot à mot, sans tenir compte du contexte. La traduction faible, c'est une traduction qui manque de vigueur et dont le style est faible : elle contient des erreurs de langue, des erreurs de niveau de langue et une traduction incompréhensible à cause de la faiblesse de l'expression. La traduction tronquée est une traduction portant sur une partie du texte : c'est-à-dire l'apprenant a retranché une partie du texte original sans la traduire.

D'autre part Gouadec 1981 (cité dans Martinez Melis, N. 2001 : 59) met en garde l'évaluateur qui emploie les catégories traditionnelles d'erreurs, c'est-à-dire *contresens, non-sens, faux-sens* qui correspondent au système de notation de la version et du thème classiques utilisé par des linguistes français du XVII^e et XVIII^e siècles. Selon Martinez (Idem) « Les catégories traditionnelles ne peuvent pas servir d'une façon satisfaisante à l'évaluation, car elles n'expliquent pas le mécanisme qui est à l'origine de la faute. La seule chose possible est d'ajouter un qualificatif à chaque catégorie, soit *grave, mineur, etc.*, ce qui dépend en fait de l'appréciation de l'évaluateur. Ces catégories ne sont donc pas assez précises, pas assez objectives, elles réduisent

la traduction à la seule dimension linguistique, elles ne tiennent pas compte du processus de communication, ni des facteurs pragmatiques et ne permettent pas de mesurer. Or, évaluer, dans ce domaine c'est mesurer ».

J. Shön 2008 (cité dans Karaaçaç, N. 2012 : 178) pense que « Parmi les utilisations linguistiques fautives, [...], selon les fautes graves étant celles qui entravent ou déforment la communication ». En partant de cette formulation Karaaçaç, N. (2012) a distingué les erreurs relevées dans les copies des étudiants turcs au département de langue et littérature françaises à l'Université d'Istanbul en deux grandes catégories essentielles, à savoir les erreurs de forme et les erreurs de choix. Il pose une distinction entre « les erreurs de forme, pour lesquelles seul le signifiant est altéré, le signifié n'étant pas touché, et les erreurs de choix qui affectent le signifié. » .

Falbo, C (1998) a adopté une définition plus large du terme erreur; pour elle : «c'est tout ce qui constitue une violation de la cohésion et de la cohérence de Texte de Départ en Texte d'Arrivée, et l'équivalence au niveau du contenu et de la forme entre TD et TA». Elle a élaboré une grille d'analyse d'erreurs pour évaluer la performance des apprenants lors d'une interprétation simultanée du française vers l'italien, pour cela elle a référé aux 21 copies enregistrées d'épreuves en situation réelle d'interprétariat. Elle a dû les transcrire pour faire l'analyse selon la grille proposée. Dans cette grille Falbo, C. a regroupé les erreurs en deux grandes catégories soient la forme et le contenu. Il a donc cohabité les deux typologies précédentes de Karaaçaç,N. et de Al-Attrach, Rim. C'est ainsi la grille contient les erreurs suivantes :

Erreurs de CONTENU :

MCr (manque de cohérence)¹: absence ou présence de pronoms, de mots-charnière, de syntagmes impropres, donnant lieu à des non-sens, des faux sens ou à des contre- sens.

¹ La cohérence concerne les concepts, les idées exprimées et les relations logiques entre elles.

P (perte d'informations) : une information ou une partie d'information ne figure pas en TA à cause de différents procédés, illustrés ci-dessous.

Pa (perte par absence): une partie de TD ne figure pas du tout en TA.

Pat (perte par atténuation) : une partie de TD est présentée en TA atténuée.

Pg (perte par généralisation) : une partie de TD figure en TA avec moins de détails par rapport à l'original.

Pi (perte d'intensité) : élimination de l'intensité affective, de l'effet rhétorique.

Pr (perte de relation textuelle) : une partie bien insérée dans son contexte en TD apparaît déplacée en TA, créant une différente relation textuelle avec les segments précédents et suivants.

Ps(perte par substitution): une partie de TD est remplacée en TA par une idée qui ne figure pas en TD;l'étudiant dit quelque chose de différent,parfois exactement le contraire de ce qui est affirmé en TD.

A (ajout) : une information qui ne figure pas en TD est gratuitement introduite en TA.

Erreurs de FORME :

MCs (manque de cohésion ²): pronoms erronés à l'intérieur d'anaphores et de cataphores, non correspondance en nombre et genre entre verbe et sujet (etc...), mots-charnière mal choisis, mais grâce au contexte possibilité de comprendre le vouloir dire de l'orateur.

ML (maladresses lexicales) : mots impropres au contexte ou inexistants, mais grâce au contexte possibilité de comprendre le vouloir dire de l'orateur (erreurs de registre et de collocation).

²La cohésion concerne le texte de surface, c'est-à-dire les mots qu'on voit ou qu'on entend et qui sont liés entre eux par des dépendances grammaticales.

ME (maladresses d'expression) : expressions impropres ou inexistantes, mais grâce au contexte possibilité de comprendre le vouloir dire de l'orateur (ordre des mots, structure de la phrase).

Les fondements théoriques sur lesquels reposent cette grille :

1. Le texte –l'objet de l'interprétation- a une macrostructure qui présente l'intention de l'auteur. Ce texte résulte de l'enchaînement de plusieurs phrases, mots liés les uns aux autres au niveau syntaxique et sur le plan conceptuel. En d'autres termes, il ne faut pas oublier que le sens d'un texte est compris et retransmis à travers et grâce aux mots organisés dans une structure donnée.
2. Il faut tenir compte de la valeur pragmatique du discours, des connaissances partagées entre l'auteur et son public dont l'interprète se sert pour faciliter sa tâche.

Pourquoi cette typologie et cette grille ?

1. C'est la typologie la plus complète qui fait la comparaison entre les deux textes de départ et d'arrivée par rapport au contenu et à la forme; dans d'autre terme la cohérence des idées et la cohésion morphosyntaxique.
2. C'est la seule typologie qu'on a trouvée accompagnée d'une grille d'analyse facile à traiter et à remanier. Grâce à cette grille chaque candidat aurait un dossier de plusieurs pages et chaque page a été divisée en quatre colonnes. Dans la première colonne figure TD, dans la deuxième TA; dans la troisième ont été transcrits les passages de TA qui présentent des erreurs de contenu, et, enfin, dans la quatrième colonne les passages de TA où il y a des erreurs de forme. A côté de chaque erreur de contenu ou de forme figure, entre parenthèses, le sigle de la catégorie à laquelle appartient l'erreur en question. C'est pourquoi on a adopté dans notre recherche les items de cette grille d'analyse afin d'évaluer la performance de nos futurs enseignants en situation de traduction écrite. On va

discuter dans le cadre expérimental comment vérifier la validité et fiabilité de cet outil.

Intervention pédagogique ; (GRÉRÉ)

Bien que l'analyse des erreurs constitue un courant de recherche en didactique de traduction que plusieurs recherches ont adopté comme point de départ pour résoudre les problèmes auxquels se sont heurtés les apprenants; il laisse la porte ouverte devant les chercheurs pour trouver le chemin le plus adapté à leurs apprenants loin de la routine d'une correction de type réponse/correction. Parmi ces méthodes de travail novatrices, réside celle de (groupes de révision rédactionnelle) laissons maintenant parler un peu sur sa définition, ses fondements théoriques, sa valeur éducative et sa démarche puisque on cherche à répondre dans cette partie à la deuxième question de notre recherche; (comment peut-on mettre en œuvre la stratégie de groupe de révision rédactionnelle pour corriger les erreurs en traduction chez les futurs-enseignants du F.L.E ?).

Les groupes de révision rédactionnelle (GRÉRÉ), connu sous le vocable de " peer response groups" dans les écrits américains et anglais, se définit Selon Blain, S (2008 : 77) comme étant « une rencontre entre un scripteur et ses pairs au cours de laquelle le scripteur lit à haute voix son texte et reçoit des commentaires des membres du groupe sur le fond ou encore une rencontre où les pairs lisent silencieusement le texte du scripteur pour y corriger les erreurs de forme. Ces commentaires peuvent prendre la forme de remarques positives, de questions et de suggestions. Les remarques négatives ne sont généralement pas permises ». Dans d'autres mots selon Lafontaine, L; Blain, S; Giguère, I. (2011) Les (GRÉRÉ) se définissent comme étant « une rencontre en deux temps entre un scripteur et ses pairs.

Lors de la première séance, le scripteur lit à haute voix son texte rédigé de façon individuelle et il reçoit des commentaires des membres du groupe sur la cohérence des idées, commentaires qu'il note. Ensuite, le scripteur retourne travailler son texte individuellement et choisit d'intégrer ou non les

suggestions reçues. Lors de la seconde séance, les pairs lisent silencieusement le texte du scripteur pour y corriger les erreurs de forme. Encore là, le scripteur prend des notes et décide d'intégrer ou non les propositions de ses pairs, et ce, individuellement ».

Plusieurs recherches ont étudié les effets de la rétroaction verbale des pairs en langue première et seconde dans les groupes de révision rédactionnelle (GRÉRE), tant chez les enfants que chez les adultes. C'est ainsi Blain, S (2008 : 77) voit que, les jeunes enfants dans un cours de rédaction écrite exigent un soutien personnalisé que l'enseignant, à lui seul, ne peut arriver à prodiguer à toute une classe entière d'apprenants. C'est dans ce contexte que le groupe de révision rédactionnelle peut jouer un rôle de substitut à l'attention individualisée de l'enseignant. Certains enfants ayant peu confiance en leurs habiletés en écriture pourraient se sentir mal à l'aise de participer à cette activité de peur qu'ils pourraient être critiqués.

Par conséquent Blain, S. dans son article (2008 : 77) propose les démarches suivantes pour l'activité en deux rencontres de l'équipe dont la première porte sur l'ensemble du texte et se déroule comme suit :

1. Un scripteur lit son premier brouillon à haute voix.
2. Les membres de l'équipe font d'abord des commentaires positifs.
3. Ils posent ensuite des questions et ils peuvent aussi demander à l'auteur de relire un passage du texte.
4. Finalement, ils font des suggestions précises dans le but d'améliorer le texte.
5. Le scripteur est toujours libre d'accepter ou de refuser les suggestions de ses pairs.

Peu de temps peut être laissé aux élèves pour modifier leur première version en tenant compte des suggestions de leurs pairs. L'équipe se regroupe une deuxième rencontre autour du scripteur et chacun lit silencieusement le texte en signalant les erreurs au scripteur. Ils doivent justifier les corrections au

scripteur et, en cas de désaccords, ils ont la possibilité de consulter leurs outils de correction et l'enseignant.

Blain, S (2008 : 77) donne l'exemple suivant pour argumenter la valeur de (GRÉRÉ) : « il arrive parfois qu'un élève dise à son pair scripteur d'ajouter un (s) à (aime) dans l'énoncé (tu les aime) en justifiant que c'est parce qu'il y a (les) devant. L'enseignant qui entend cet échange peut ainsi constater l'émergence des représentations initiales de cet élève. Cela peut donner lieu à un étayage, à la fois de l'enseignant et des pairs, pour favoriser la construction et la structuration de la connaissance de l'accord des verbes et du rôle parfois distrayant des (écrans) ».

Une recherche-action menée par BLAIN, S et Painchaud, G. en (1997) vise à trouver une solution didactique au problème des lacunes à l'écrit en L2 chez les élèves d'immersion française. L'outil élaboré pour cette recherche consiste en une série de rencontres entre élèves de 5^e année en immersion française afin de réviser leurs compositions individuelles. Il s'agit de voir si les révisions reflètent la rétroaction verbale des pairs, si la qualité de l'écriture se trouve améliorée en fonction des compétences en écriture des élèves observés. La classification de deux groupes de 4 élèves (2 scripteurs forts et 2 moins habiles dans chaque groupe qui se sont rencontrés deux fois chacun) a permis de constater que 55 % des suggestions ont amené des changements dans les nouvelles versions et 28 % des commentaires sont ignorés des scripteurs. Les diverses mesures de qualité de l'écriture permettent de souligner une amélioration entre la première et la dernière version de 3 compositions écrites par 35 sujets (parmi lesquels se retrouvaient les 8 scripteurs forts et faibles).

Comme pour plusieurs chercheurs, la révision est le processus capital dans l'activité rédactionnelle – Hirsch 1977 (cité dans Bisailon, J. 1991 :

disait même qu'enseigner à écrire, c'était enseigner à réviser -, il faut que l'enseignement de l'écrit en langue seconde soit axé sur la révision.

C'est aussi ce que croit Tiedt1989 (cité dans Bisailon, J 1991 : 62) lorsqu'elle écrit que l'enseignant doit parler de l'activité d'écriture avec les étudiants en ces termes-ci : « Réviser, c'est plus que corriger les erreurs orthographiques et de ponctuation. Cela signifie relire lignes et pages. Cela signifie changer des syntagmes et des phrases ou même éliminer une page entière qui ne va pas avec le reste du texte. ». L'enseignant doit donc expliquer ce qu'implique l'activité rédactionnelle et instruire les scripteurs sur les composantes du processus - planification, mise en texte et révision - en mettant l'accent sur le sous-processus de révision puisqu'il est apparu que les bons scripteurs sont ceux qui savent réviser. Il en est de même en langue seconde, croyons-nous.

Les raisons pour lesquelles Bisailon, J (1991) considère que la révision munie par la rétroaction verbale des paires soit efficace pour toutes les activités rédactionnelles -entre autres la traduction- les suivantes :

1- «Le scripteur en langue seconde est dans une situation plus difficile que celui en langue maternelle» (Idem : 63). 2- «il est souvent plus facile de voir les faiblesses que contient un texte écrit par un autre que ses propres faiblesses. Pour cette raison, la pratique de la révision sur les textes des autres peut être une stratégie efficace. Elle apprend à l'étudiant comment relire et améliorer un texte et cet apprentissage est transférable à la révision effectuée sur son propre texte» (Idem : 66).

L'enseignant est conseillé de consacrer une période spéciale pour la révision du premier brouillon, une fois qu'il est écrit en entier.

Pour faciliter la distanciation du scripteur par rapport à son texte, Rilliard et Sandon 1989, (cités dans Bisailon, J. 1991 : 63) suggèrent que la révision ne se fasse pas immédiatement après la mise en texte. La mise à distance par le temps permet au lecteur-scripteur de laisser reposer son texte et de le lire avec un œil différent par la suite. D'ailleurs, l'enseignant ne doit pas dire aux étudiants : «Révisez votre texte». C'est presque comme ne rien

dire, car les étudiants ne savent pas comment réviser. Il doit plutôt sélectionner un certain nombre de questions qu'il veut que l'étudiant se pose. Il les écrit sur une grille que l'étudiant peut utiliser à tout moment de la rédaction, s'il le désire, mais dont il devra obligatoirement se servir, lors de la révision complète du premier brouillon. Cette grille doit amener le scripteur à s'autoquestionner lorsqu'il écrit ou révise son texte.

Al-Attrache, Rim. (2003 : 245) de sa part a mis le point sur l'effet de la révision des paires lors de la traduction. « Le travail en groupe peut être plus complet que le travail individuel, car il favorise la participation active dans le groupe et essaie de réduire les erreurs, en trouvant les bonnes solutions des problèmes affrontés par les apprenants ». Le rôle de l'enseignant dans le cours de traduction serait un coordinateur, un animateur, un guide et un "contrôleur" qui pourrait aider les apprenants à trouver la bonne voie. La chercheuse met en garde contre une analyse des erreurs en termes négatifs, mais elles deviennent le levier nécessaire de la progression. Ainsi, le travail en groupe de deux par exemple peut aider les apprenants à préciser leurs difficultés et à les comprendre ; le professeur peut leur demander d'énumérer les problèmes affrontés par eux dans l'exercice de traduction ; il est à conseiller d'effectuer les activités suivantes en prenant le texte à traduire :

1. exercices de lecture de texte de départ ;
2. repérage des passages qui posent des problèmes de compréhension, suivi d'une discussion;
3. repérage des passages qui obligent à une reformulation profonde en langue d'arrivée;
4. repérage des passages qui permettent plusieurs choix de reformulation en langue d'arrivée.Lederer, M. 1991 (cité dans Al-Attrache, Rim. 2003 : 245).

Pour vérifier la compréhension du texte de départ, l'enseignant pourrait poser des questions variées à ses apprenants de type (QCM); ou comme « Qui écrit ? Pour qui ? Pour quelle(s) raisons et dans quel(s) but(s) ? Que dit-il et comment ? ». En plus, les encourager à effectuer une lecture

analytique du texte à traduire, en dégager les idées-clés, essayant de rechercher systématiquement la structure et l'organisation du texte, les références culturelles, les conditions des actualités...etc. Al-Attrache, Rim. (2003 : 247) De cette façon là, il enseigne aux apprenants comment recréer un texte dans une langue cible, en évitant le calque et en libérant Les expressions du fait de coller au texte original; on évite ainsi la traduction littérale, les faux-sens et les non-sens qui découlent de l'incompréhension du texte original.

L'Expérimentation :

Etant donnée que notre objectif soit double; déterminer les erreurs commises par les futurs- enseignants lors de la traduction d'arabe vers le français et corriger ces erreurs, nous allons aborder dans cette partie l'élaboration et l'application des outils de la recherche qui sont les suivants :

1. une grille d'analyse des erreurs en traduction.
2. le corpus des textes à traduire.
3. un pré et un post tests de traduction.

Le choix de l'échantillon :

L'échantillon de notre recherche est composé de 30 étudiants (18 jeunes filles + 12 jeunes hommes) de 2^{ème} année, de section du français, faculté de pédagogie, université de Hélouân qui ont étudié la traduction comme matière pendant deux ans et on a choisi d'appliquer cette expérience dans les cours de micro-enseignement lors de 2^{ème} trimestre de l'année universitaire 2014/2015 au cours de même année. Ils sont tous des candidats de même niveau linguistique, avaient leur BAC des écoles gouvernementales et n'étaient pas soumis aux cours de français du CFCC.

La 1^{ère} phase (l'élaboration des outils)

A- La grille d'analyse des erreurs en traduction. (Annexe 1)

Le but de cette grille est de déterminer les erreurs commises par les apprenants- traducteurs lors de la situation

traduisante de l'arabe (L.M) vers le français (L.E). Après avoir passé en revue les différentes typologies sur les erreurs en traduction et pour des raisons déjà citées au cadre théorique de recherche, nous avons adopté cette grille élaborée par Falbo, C. (1998).

1- Description de cette grille :

Les erreurs de traduction sont organisées dans la grille sous deux grandes catégories; *contenu* et *forme* comme indiqué dans le cadre théorique. Il faut noter que, un texte peut être cohérent même s'il manque de cohésion et vice versa, ou bien il peut n'être ni cohérent ni cohésif. Dans ce cas le même segment textuel serait inscrit aussi bien dans la colonne "CONTENU", MCr, que dans la colonne "FORME", MCs.

La catégorie P regroupe différentes (sous-) catégories. Selon Falbo, C (1998 :115), le texte soit considéré comme un tout communicant une certaine quantité d'informations. C'est la présence ou l'absence des informations de TD en TA - et la façon dont elles sont reformulées (forme) - qui nous intéresse au lieu de juger la gravité des erreurs, car c'est à partir de là que l'on peut comparer l'équivalence entre TD et TA.

2- L'analyse des erreurs

Pour faire l'analyse des erreurs, on fait la comparaison au niveau du contenu et la forme entre TD et TA et pour faciliter cette activité on a constitué un dossier de plusieurs pages au produit de chacun des apprenants. Chaque page a été divisée en quatre colonnes. Dans la première colonne figure TD, dans la deuxième TA; dans la troisième ont été transcrits les phrases de TA qui présentent des erreurs de contenu, et, enfin, dans la quatrième colonne les phrases de TA où il y a des erreurs de forme. A côté de chaque erreur de contenu ou de forme figure, entre parenthèses, le sigle de la catégorie à laquelle appartient l'erreur en question.

3- L'unité d'analyse :

Nous avons adopté la phrase comme unité d'analyse dans cette recherche, par rapport au paragraphe chez Falbo, C. (1998)

La raison est qu'on a traité ici un texte écrit par rapport à la grille sous sa forme initiale censée pour relever les erreurs dans une situation d'interprétation simultanée d'un discours oral, transcrit en langue écrite.(tandis que chez Falbo ,c'était un discours oral, transcrit en langue écrite).

4- La validité et la fiabilité :

Afin de vérifier la validité de cette grille nous avons fait une passation de cette grille à un jury des experts – composé de cinq membres- qui sont unanimement d'accord à propos de la typologie d'erreurs avancée sauf :

1. La formulation concernant le 1er type de catégorie (FORME); les mots «anaphore et cataphore» ne sont pas usuels et plus adaptés à la langue orale qu'à la langue écrite. Donc la reformulation serait «pronoms erronés à l'intérieur de la phrase».
2. Le mot «orateur», remplacé par le mot «auteur». C'est ainsi, les membres du jury ont affirmé que la grille est convenable à analyser les erreurs de traduction dans un texte écrit.
3. En ce qui concerne la fiabilité; chacun de deux chercheurs - à part- a fait l'analyse des erreurs à l'aide de la grille, par rapport au produit de mêmes apprenants et on a fait l'analogie entre les résultats d'analyse. Les deux chercheurs sont presque d'accord à propos de classification des erreurs relevées par l'analyse.

B- Les pré et post tests de traduction : (Annexe II A+B)

Les pré et post -tests visent deux fonctions;(quantitative / qualitative): le test a pour but de donner une note quantitative à la performance traduisante de chaque étudiant. D'autre part, il a d'autre fonction d'explicitier les types d'erreurs les plus fréquents d'après la grille de Falbo, C. (1998) adoptée d'où l'analyse quantitative des résultats.

Ce sont deux tests de type incitatif, deux textes arabes à traduire équivalents en ce qui concerne le niveau de langue, la

longueur, le thème abordé et la source, en deux application avant et après le traitement proposée par la stratégie adoptée.

C- Le corpus des textes présentés :

C'est un recueil des textes de presse publiés en arabes dans les journaux et les revues de différents domaines (faits divers- vie sociale- éducation- culture...etc.) et de différents types (narratif- argumentatif- explicatif...etc.) . Ce corpus des textes à traduire muni des activités de rattrapage soient intégrés dans des leçons ayant pour thème principal le type d'erreur le plus récurrent chez les candidats à chaque fois qu'ils traduisent l'un de ces textes dans le corpus présenté. Il s'agit alors de 5 leçons en plus d'une leçon zéro en vue d'expliquer le protocole de travail. Ces leçons sont groupées dans une unité proposée (Annexe V). Chaque leçon suit trois phases déterminées selon la démarche de la stratégie adoptée dans notre recherche celle des (groupes de révision rédactionnelle).

La 2^{ème} phase (l'application des outils)

On procède ici à décrire les démarches d'application selon le calendrier déterminé de l'expérience à partir de mois février jusqu'à 15 avril (le temps de 2^{ème} trimestre) de l'année 2015.

1-L'application du pré test de traduction :

Il faut ajouter que le temps fixe du test est une heure; les apprenants éprouvent une difficulté à respecter le temps déterminé. D'autres difficultés techniques de demander l'aide à identifier les mots et les expressions inconnues, ainsi tous les candidats unanimement demandent la consultation de dictionnaire électronique, (il s'agit d'un logiciel sur leurs cellulaires) et ainsi on leur permet de l'utiliser. Cette 1^{ère} application est suivie d'une annotation (une note quantitative, Annexe III) et la détermination des erreurs (selon la grille comme une évaluation qualitative, Annexe IV) chez chaque candidat.

2-Démarche pédagogique de traitement :

Les étudiants de l'échantillon sont groupés en groupes de quatre personnes, ayant tous le même texte à traduire. Les deux

chercheurs ont exécuté l'enseignement explicite des leçons selon la démarche ci présentée :

A- La première est consacrée à comprendre le texte de départ (en arabe) par des activités de compréhension sur ce texte et on procède ainsi:

1. Lire le texte en arabe et répondre aux questions individuellement;
2. Discuter les réponses données entre les membres du groupe et présenter les réponses finales.
3. Résumer les répliques données par les paires du groupe au moment de la compréhension du TD.

B- La deuxième séance est destinée à la préparation pour la reformulation, et la restitution du texte en langue d'arrivée. On procède ainsi :

1. On demande à chaque membre du groupe de présenter sa traduction du TD sous la forme d'un brouillon individuel devant ses paires;
2. Puis, on demande aux membres du groupe de donner leurs commentaires à propos du texte composé ;
3. Enfin, on donne le temps au scripteur d'accepter ou de refuser les suggestions de ses paires pour écrire sa version finale du TA.

C- La troisième séance est consacrée à un enseignement explicite des notions représentant les erreurs communes recueillies par la grille d'analyse; selon deux étapes :

1. Présenter les notions linguistiques de base facilitant la reformulation du texte d'arrivée
2. Pratiquer des activités de rattrapage.

3-L'application du post- test de traduction :

Après avoir appliqué le post-test de traduction et la grille d'analyse d'erreurs sur les traductions des candidats ,on a enregistré leurs notes sur un tableau comme évaluation quantitative(voir annexe III) ainsi que les fréquences des

catégories de leurs erreurs dans un autre tableau comme évaluation qualitative (voir annexe IV).

Interprétation des résultats et la conclusion

Pour vérifier les hypothèses de la recherche, on a suivi deux traitements statistiques quantitativement en utilisant les notes brutes et qualitativement d'après les fréquences des catégories d'erreurs des étudiants. Ces opérations statistiques sont faites par le programme de SPSS de l'ordinateur et d'autres références en statistique. Les résultats de l'étude expérimentale et leur analyse sont indiqués dans les tableaux et les figures suivants :

1- **La première hypothèse :** *Il y a une différence statistiquement significative entre la moyenne des notes des membres de l'échantillon de l'étude aux pré et post tests de traduction (à thème) en faveur du post test.*

Tableau I: Comparaison entre les moyennes des notes des étudiants aux pré et post-tests en traduction.

	nombre d'étudiants	moyenne	Ecart-type	Valeur t		Signif Non signif.	Taille d'effet	
				Calculée	Tableau		η^2	d
Pré-test	30	45.63	9.838	10.341	2.46	Signif.	0.79	3.88
Post-test	30	66.30	13.684					

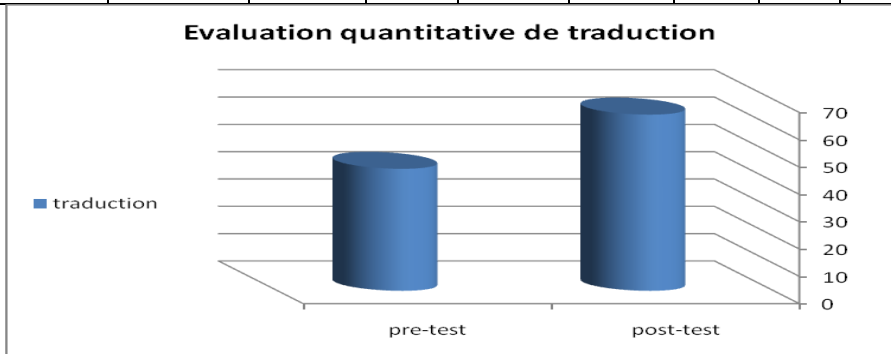


Figure 1

Selon tableau(1) et figure (1) , on remarque que la moyenne arithmétique du post-test (66.30) est plus élevée que celle du pré-test (45.63).

De plus, la valeur de (t) calculé (10.34) est significative au seuil de 0.01 en faveur de notre échantillon après l'expérience. On peut déclarer qu'il existe une différence statistiquement significative au niveau de (0.01) entre la moyenne des notes des étudiants de l'échantillon au pré-test et celle au post-test en traduction en faveur du post-test. Cela affirme la 1 ère hypothèse et montre le succès de l'unité proposée d'activités linguistique et traduisante à élever le niveau de la performance traduisante chez les membres de l'échantillon(les futurs-enseignants du FLE) où ils ont pu comprendre le texte de départ et reformuler le texte d'arrivée fidele sémantiquement et correcte linguistiquement.

2-La deuxième hypothèse: *Il y a une différence statistiquement significative entre la fréquence d'erreurs (selon la grille d'analyse adoptée) en traduction des membres de l'échantillon de l'étude aux pré et post tests en faveur du post test.*

D'après la figure (2),ci dessous, on remarque qu'il existe des différences entre les fréquences d'erreurs sur tous les plans:

1. En général: Fréquence totale d'erreurs au pré-test est (1059) Vs au post-test est(614); 2- Fréquence d'erreurs de contenu au pré-test est(254) Vs au post-test (122) et Fréquence d'erreurs de forme au pré-test est (805)

Vs au post-test est(492) et 3- Fréquence de chaque catégories subdivisées à part (indiquée sur Annexe IV).

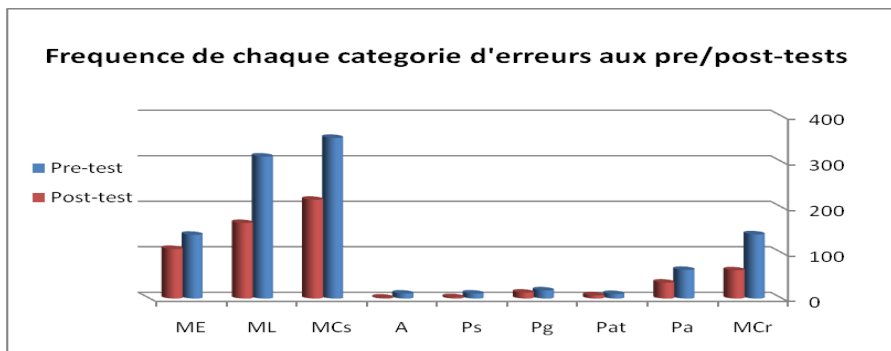


Figure (2) : Comparaison entre les fréquences d'erreurs des étudiants aux pré et post -tests en traduction.

La réduction des fréquences d'erreurs au post-test est due à l'entraînement aux activités de l'unité proposée basée sur la stratégie des groupes de révision rédactionnelle. Le fait qui développe les compétences de compréhension du texte de départ et de reformulation en langue cible , ce qui motive les futurs-enseignants à bien traduire et à bien participer aux cours de traduction.

3-La troisième hypothèse : *La stratégie adoptée dans cette recherche (le GRÉRÉ) a un effet assez grand sur la correction des erreurs commises en traduction (à thème) chez les futurs enseignants.*

Pour vérifier la taille d'effet de l'unité, Les deux chercheurs ont utilisé deux formules, la 1^{ère} concerne η^2 selon les notes brutes relevées du tableau "1" d'après l'équation d'Ahmed Mourad, S. (2011,272-273):

$$\eta^2 = \frac{t^2}{t^2 + df}$$

η^2 = Carre d'Eta

t = La valeur de t

df = Le degré de liberté

Cela indique que 0.79 % de la différenciation du développement réalisé

dans la performance traduisante des étudiants de l'échantillon est dû à l'effet de l'unité. Mais pour calculer la taille d'effet des différences de la fréquence d'erreurs pour chaque type, on a utilisé une deuxième formule de Wilcoxon(Pallant, J. (2011).

$R = z / \text{square root of } N$ where $N = \text{total number of students} \times 2$.

using Cohen (1988) criteria for R:

0.1=small effect,

0.3=medium effect,

0.5=large effect (Pallant, 2011: 230).

Tableau 2

Variable		Ranks	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	Effect Size R	Explained Variance (due to program) R ²	
Contenu	Mcr	Positive (post<pre)	23	12.00	276.00	4.244**	0.55	30%	
		Negative	0	.00	.00		Grand effet		
	Pa	Positive (post<pre)	21	11.62	244.00	4.039**	0.52	27%	
		Negative	1	9.00	9.00		Grand effet		
	Pat	Positive (post<pre)	2	3.00	6.00	1.406	-----	-----	
		Negative	5	4.40	22.00				
	Pg	Positive (post<pre)	9	8.83	79.50	0.147	-----	-----	
		Negative	8	9.19	73.50				
	Ps	Positive (post<pre)	6	3.50	21.00	2.251*	0.29	8%	
		Negative	0	.00	.00		Peu effet		
	A	Positive (post<pre)	10	5.50	55.00	3.162**	0.41	17%	
		Negative	0	.00	.00		Effet moyen		
	Total Perte	Positive (post<pre)	22	11.93	262.50	3.837**	0.50	25%	
		Negative	1	13.50	13.50		Grand effet		
	Total contenu	Positive (post<pre)	28	15.30	428.50	4.578**	0.59	35%	
		Negative	1	6.50	6.50		Grand effet		
	Forme	MCs	Positive (post<pre)	28	16.36	458.00	4.650**	0.60	36%
			Negative	2	3.50	7.00		Grand effet	
ML		Positive (post<pre)	30	15.50	465.00	4.805**	0.62	39%	
		Negative	0	.00	.00		Grand effet		
ME		Positive (post<pre)	25	14.32	358.00	4.252**	0.55	30%	
		Negative	2	10.00	20.00		Grand effet		
Total Forme		Positive (post<pre)	30	15.50	465.00	4.794**	0.62	38%	
		Negative	0	.00	.00		Grand effet		
Total d'erreurs	Positive (post<pre)	30	15.50	465.00	4.790**	0.62	Grand effet	38%	
	Negative	0	.00	.00					

Le tableau ci-dessus, montre la taille d'effet pour chaque catégorie d'erreurs selon sa fréquence c'est-à-dire le

développement survenu sur la fréquence de chaque catégorie d'erreurs grâce au traitement . On remarque que 9 catégories d'erreurs a un grand effet , une catégorie a un effet faible et deux catégories n'ont pas d'effet. Donc ,on peut dire que la plupart de catégories d'erreurs ont un grand effet positif où la fréquence de chaque catégorie d'erreurs a réduit et cela affirme l'efficacité de l'unité proposée et la stratégie suivie.

Pour l'analyse des erreurs, on peut dégager les points suivants:

1. Le nombre total d'erreurs au pré/test est (1059) dont (805) appartiennent à la catégorie "forme" d'un pourcentage (76.02 %) par rapport au total des erreurs et (254) d'erreurs qui appartiennent à la catégorie "contenu" d'un pourcentage (23.98 %) par rapport au total des erreurs. On peut voir le taux sur les figures 2 et 3.
2. Le nombre total d'erreurs au post/test est (614) dont (492) appartiennent à la catégorie "forme" d'un pourcentage (80.13 %) par rapport au total des erreurs et (122) d'erreurs qui appartiennent à la catégorie "contenu" d'un pourcentage 19.87 %) par rapport au total des erreurs. On peut voir le taux sur les figures(2).
3. Le nombre des erreurs commises dans le 1^{er} type de catégorie concernant "le Manque de Cohésion" est (353) au pré/test d'un pourcentage (43.85%) par rapport à (217) erreurs commises de même type au post/test d'un pourcentage (44.11%). La différence entre la fréquence des erreurs aux pré et post tests (136) soit assez grande et statistiquement significative selon la formule Wilcoxon χ^2 ...en faveur de post/test . Etant donnée ce type d'erreurs appartient à la connaissance grammaticale de la langue d'arrivée qui est la langue étrangère. À propos de ces erreurs, nous avons eu la conviction que les apprenants faisaient de telles erreurs par souci d'être fidèles aux règles syntaxiques et aux structures de la phrase.

4. On remarque que le nombre d'erreurs commises dans la forme est plus grand que celui dans le contenu pour les raisons suivantes :
 1. Le type de traduction (thème) s'appuie sur le texte d'arabe comme point de départ et c'est facile à comprendre étant en langue maternelle.
 2. Il est à noter que la consultation d'un dictionnaire logiciel (sur leur cellulaire) diminue le nombre des erreurs de maladresse lexicale et parfois d'expression mais qui fait apparaître certaines erreurs de manque de cohérence .

CONCLUSION

D'après le cadre théorique de cette recherche, on a vu que la traduction est très présente dans l'enseignement supérieur des langues et qu'elle constitue un moyen utile pour enseigner une LE. L'application de la stratégie(GRÉRÉ) ,à travers d'une unité proposée, a amélioré la production traduisante d'arabe vers le français quantitativement(par l'obtention de bonnes notes dans la traduction du post-test par rapport au pré-test) et qualitativement (par la réduction de fréquence des catégories d'erreurs en corpus de traduction du post-test) et cela affirme l'efficacité et la grande influence de la stratégie proposée sur la correction des erreurs et l'amélioration de l'activité traduisante.

Recommandations

1. Le thème et la version peuvent contribuer à l'apprentissage de la langue étrangère, voire la didactique de la traduction devrait constituer un pas supplémentaire, en partant d'une langue déjà acquise ou d'un niveau élevé d'acquisition de cette dernière en suivant la stratégie de l'enseignement /apprentissage pas à pas : Il ne faut pas commencer l'enseignement par la traduction de ce qu'on apprend mais par apprendre à traduire.
2. La traduction pédagogique, pratiquée comme un moyen d'apprentissage de la langue étrangère, peut être productive à condition qu'elle soit renforcée par d'autres

activités préalables, comme l'exposition à la LE (orale et écrite) et la rédaction.

3. Il est conseillé de lire le texte intégral avant d'aborder le processus de la traduction pour pouvoir connaître le contexte .
4. L'apprenti traducteur doit avoir ,dès son admission au cours de traduction ,une bonne compréhension de sa langue maternelle ou bien langue de départ et une solide culture générale et cela se fait par des stages d'acquisitions des connaissances manquantes.
5. On peut donner des notes distinctes à la qualité linguistique du texte, à sa clarté et à sa fidélité en fixant des coefficients élevés pour les deux premières notes pour faire comprendre aux étudiants l'importance de ces éléments qu'ils considèrent comme négligeables.

Suggestions

1. D'après cette recherche, nous avons relevé le défi de changer les programmes afin d'améliorer les compétences des étudiants en ce qui concerne la didactique de la traduction par des programmes proposés.
2. Préparer des recherches sur comment traduire correctement des expressions qu'on n'a jamais apprises.
3. Préparer des recherches sur comment familiariser les étudiants avec les différents domaines de traduction, notamment sur le plan terminologique en proposant des programmes de traduction convenable à chaque domaine.

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Développement Des Performances De La Communication Orale En Classe Chez Les Étudiants Stagiaires De La Section De Français Faculté De Pédagogie À Travers L'enseignement Réflexif

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Résumé

*L*e problème de cette recherche s'incarne dans l'espace entre les connaissances et les pratiques dans les performances de la communication orale en classe chez les étudiants stagiaires de de la section de français Faculté de pédagogie ce qui diminue leur qualification d'enseignement en classe.

Pour résoudre ce problème, on a utilisé l'enseignement réflexif pour développer six performances de la communication orale en classe chez 15 étudiantes stagiaires en 3^{ème} année section de français faculté de pédagogie.

Cette recherche dépend de deux outils ; un questionnaire pour préciser les performances de la communication orale en classe et trois grilles d'observation pour mesurer les mêmes performances.

Les résultats soulignent l'efficacité de l'enseignement réflexif a développé les performances de la communication orale en classe chez les étudiantes stagiaires.

Introduction

La communication effective entre l'enseignant et l'apprenant en classe est essentielle pour la réussite du processus (enseignement-apprentissage).

En effet, la langue orale constitue le mode de communication qui en classe prédomine sur tous les autres, et elle est fréquente et banale pour tous les enseignants.

Echanger adéquatement avec les autres implique des connaissances, des habilités et des attitudes qui se situent pour les plus connues d'entre elles, dans différentes dimensions

linguistiques et pragmatiques. Sur le plan des dimensions linguistiques, on retrouve, entre autres, l'accent, l'articulation, le choix des mots et la structure des énoncés. Sur le plan des dimensions pragmatiques, trois axes principaux sont retenus : la personne à qui l'on s'adresse, le sujet dont il est question et le contexte de l'échange. (Plessis-Belair, Ginette, 2004,26 ,p.57)

Wagner souligne de nombreux facteurs qui peuvent entraver la communication orale entre l'enseignant et les apprenants en classe. Citons, entre autres:

1. Les problèmes de diction, de débit.
2. Le vocabulaire inadapté (inconnu ou vague).
3. Le manque d'enchaînement, de liaisons entre les points mentionnés.
4. Le caractère trop abstrait ou trop général de la communication.
5. L'inattention des auditeurs (ennui, fatigue).
6. Le rythme trop rapide.
7. L'expression hachée, peu fluide.
8. L'imprécision du vocabulaire.
9. La voix trop faible.
10. Les phrases incorrectes, incomplètes.
11. Les gestes perturbants.
12. Les regards en l'air ou sur le support écrit.

(Wagner, Marie-Cécile,1994, 33,Pp115, 118)

Comme étant au même temps but et moyen, l'enseignement réflexif peut être la résolution de beaucoup de problèmes de l'enseignant.

La réflexion sur la pratique est essentielle pour bâtir, maintenir et développer les capacités de l'enseignant à penser et agir professionnellement tout au long de sa carrière. (F.Day, Christopher, 2001, 11)

La réflexion invite l'enseignant à faire partie du problème, à assumer des responsabilités, à concevoir des stratégies

alternatives, à s'engager dans des changements.(Perrenoud, 2005, 23)

D'après Lihong ; l'enseignement réflexif comporte en lui double mouvement : une réflexion préalable sur l'enseignement et un retour réflexif sur l'enseignement donné .La réflexion et l'enseignement se complètent et se stimulent l'une l'autre dans un mouvement sans fin. (Lihong, Ma, 19)

L'activité réflexive portant sur la pratique est à la fois une des compétences de l'enseignant professionnel et en formation (continue ou initiale) c'est un outil de construction de l'identité professionnelle (le Lardic, Monique, 2011,17)

Donc, on propose d'employer l'enseignement réflexif pour développer les performances de la communication orale comme des performances professionnelles essentielles pour l'enseignant en classe et non pas comme des performances linguistiques.

La problématique de la recherche

La chercheuse a constaté le problème par :

L'étude exploratoire :

La chercheuse a élaboré un questionnaire, composé de six questions ouvertes, visé aux étudiants stagiaires de la 4^{ème} année Faculté de pédagogie Université de Hélouân à l'année universitaire 2012/2013.Ce questionnaire est appliqué à 25 étudiants (voir annexe 4). Il a compris les questions suivantes :

1. Comment expliquez-vous un nouveau mot en classe ?
Citez au moins deux techniques.
2. Comment vérifiez- vous que vos élèves /étudiants ont compris la leçon expliquée ?
3. Quand utilisez-vous la langue arabe ou la langue anglaise en expliquant une leçon ?
4. Quels moyens d'illustration utilisez-vous en classe ?
5. En posant une question à vos élèves /étudiants, comment choisissez -vous l'élève/l'étudiant qui va répondre à la question posée ?

6. De votre avis, comment l'enseignant utilise sa voix et ses mains en classe ?

Pour la première question les réponses des étudiants ont concentré sur dix techniques avec des répétitions différentes : l'exemple, le sens en anglais, la traduction en arabe, le moyen d'illustration, le synonyme en français, l'explication par un autre mot proche, un objet réel, l'explication en français, le dessin au tableau et les gestes.

Pour la deuxième question les étudiants ont donné huit réponses avec des répétitions différentes : Poser une question, faire un exercice, poser la question (Est-ce que vous avez compris ?), donner un devoir à la maison ,observer les élèves ,demander aux apprenants de faire un résumé de la leçon, faire une révision sur les points principaux de la leçon.

Pour la troisième question les étudiants ont donné 6 réponses avec des répétitions différentes comme suit : en expliquant quelques choses difficiles à comprendre, au début de l'apprentissage de la langue, en expliquant une nouvelle leçon, en expliquant la grammaire, en expliquant un mot français qui ressemble à un autre anglais connu par les apprenants.

Pour la quatrième question les étudiants ont donné dix-sept réponses avec des répétitions différentes : le tableau blanc ,des tableaux muraux , le manuel de l'élève, l'ordinateur, des images, des transparents, des enregistrements sonores, des maquettes , des films documentaires, le tableau de feutres, les livres parallèles, des livrets d'exercices, le vidéo, des résumés faits par l'enseignant , des documents, des cartes géographiques et le projecteur.

Pour la cinquième question les étudiants ont donné onze réponses avec des répétitions différentes : l'élève inattentive, l'élève qui lève la main, l'élève qui ne comprend pas, l'élève actif, poser la question difficile à un élève excellent, l'élève moyen, l'élève très timide ou renfermé, Poser la question facile à un élève faible, l'élève qui répond rarement aux questions, l'élève faible et à tour de rôle.

Pour la sixième question les étudiants ont donné quatorze réponses réparties en deux axes Les mains et la voix avec des répétitions différentes :

1. Les mains: expliquer des mots, attirer l'attention, désigner des objets, s'exprimer (hochement de la tête...), faciliter la compréhension, dramatiser, désigner les points importants au tableau et écrire au tableau.
2. La voix : lever la voix pour que toute la classe écoute bien, attirer l'attention, varier la hauteur de la voix en expliquant, lever la voix pour insister sur une information, baisser la voix pour calmer la classe et garder la discipline.

En général, on peut souligner que les étudiants stagiaires possèdent un adéquat arrière-plan cognitif.

La performance des étudiants stagiaires au stage pratique

En supervisant les étudiants stagiaires de la 4^{ème} année au stage pratique, la chercheuse a observé que :

1. L'explication en classe est presque en arabe ; on traduit toute la leçon en arabe même les règles de grammaire s'expliquent en arabe. Les étudiants stagiaires ont une croyance que les apprenants ont du mal à comprendre une leçon expliquée en français.
2. On n'utilise presque jamais l'anglais en expliquant en classe.
3. La plupart des étudiants stagiaires oublie ou ne s'intéresse pas à vérifier la compréhension des apprenants après chaque partie de la leçon. Quelques-uns vérifient la compréhension à la fin du cours par un exercice du manuel de l'apprenant qui ne couvre pas souvent tous les objectifs de la leçon.
4. L'emploi des moyens d'illustration en classe est rare. Les étudiants stagiaires dépendent sur le manuel de l'apprenant.

5. Les étudiants stagiaires ne s'intéressent plus à la communication non verbale .Ils ne savent pas même comment les investissent en classe.
6. En posant une question, on s'adresse à deux types seulement des apprenants l'apprenant qui lève la main et l'apprenant inattentif.
7. Enfin , Il est à noter qu'il y a des contradictions entre l'étude exploratoire et l'observation des actions des étudiants stagiaires au stage pratique, c'est la contradiction entre la connaissance et la pratique, c'est-à-dire il y a des connaissances mais elles ne s'appliquent pas en classe .

Donc, on peut déterminer le problème de la recherche dans le fossé entre les connaissances et les pratiques dans les performances de la communication orale en classe chez les étudiants stagiaires de de la section de français Faculté de pédagogie ce qui diminue leur qualification d'enseignement en classe .

Questions de la recherche

Pour surmonter le problème de la recherche, on devrait répondre aux questions suivantes:

1. Quelles sont les performances de la communication orale nécessaires à l'enseignant du FLE en classe ?
2. Quel est le modèle d'enseignement réflexif proposé pour développer les performances de la communication orale chez les étudiants stagiaires de la section de français au stage pratique?
3. Quelle est l'efficacité du modèle d'enseignement réflexif proposé sur le développement des performances de la communication orale en classe chez les étudiants stagiaires de la section de français au stage pratique?

Les hypothèses de la recherche

Les hypothèses de cette recherche visent à prouver:

1. Qu'il existe une différence significative entre la moyenne des notes des étudiants stagiaires du groupe expérimental dans la pré application des grilles d'observation des

performances de la communication orale en classe et leur moyenne des notes dans la post application des grilles d'observation en faveur de post application.

2. Qu'il existe une différence significative entre la moyenne des notes des étudiants stagiaires du groupe expérimental dans la pré application de la grille d'observation de CHAQUE performance de la communication orale en classe et leur moyenne des notes dans la post application de la même grille d'observation en faveur de post application.

Les limites de la recherche

La recherche se limite:

1. Aux étudiants stagiaires de la 3ème année section de français à la faculté de pédagogie de Hérouville qui ont étudié le cursus des compétences d'enseignement donc ils ont un arrière-plan cognitif et pratique du processus d'enseignement.
2. Aux performances de communication orales suivantes : présenter les informations de façon pédagogique, établir un contexte de communication propice, s'assurer de la compréhension des explications, s'exprimer de façon vivante, utiliser efficacement le langage non verbal et manifester sa disponibilité aux élèves.

Les objectifs de la recherche

Cette recherche vise à :

1. Elaborer une liste des performances de la communication orale nécessaires à l'enseignant du FLE en classe.
2. Développer les performances de la communication orale en classe chez les étudiants stagiaires de la section de français.
3. Elaborer un modèle d'enseignement réflexif convenable à développer les performances de la communication orale en classe chez les étudiants stagiaires de la section de français au stage pratique.
4. Tester l'efficacité de l'enseignement réflexif sur le développement des performances de la communication

orale en classe chez les étudiants stagiaires de la section de français au stage pratique.

L'importance de la recherche

Cette recherche peut participer à :

1. Améliorer les performances de la communication orale en classe chez les étudiants stagiaires de la section de français.
2. Proposer un modèle de l'enseignement réflexif convenable à développer les performances de la communication orale en classe chez les étudiants stagiaires de la section de français au stage pratique.
3. Attirer l'attention des spécialistes à l'importance de l'enseignement réflexif comme modèle qui allie la connaissance et la pratique.

Les procédures de la recherche

Premièrement le cadre théorique :

1. La chercheuse a consulté des ouvrages et des études antérieures qui portent sur les axes suivants :
 1. La communication orale en classe.
 2. L'enseignement réflexif.

Deuxièmement le cadre expérimental:

2. Elaborer un modèle proposé d'enseignement réflexif.
3. Elaborer un questionnaire portant sur les performances de la communication orale nécessaires à l'enseignant du FLE en classe.
4. Présenter le questionnaire au jury et préciser les performances de la communication orale en classe à développer.
5. Elaborer trois grilles d'observation à la lueur des résultats du questionnaire pour évaluer les performances de la communication orale en classe.
6. Expliquer les étapes du modèle proposé d'enseignement réflexif aux étudiants stagiaires de la 3^{ème} année pour les appliquer au stage pratique.

7. Appliquer les grilles d'observation des performances de la communication orale en classe comme pré application par l'entraîneur.
8. Appliquer le modèle proposé d'enseignement réflexif ; les étudiants stagiaires suivent les étapes du modèle proposé au stage pratique.
9. Appliquer une deuxième fois les grilles d'observation des performances de la communication orale en classe comme post application par l'entraîneur.
10. Analyser et discuter les résultats.
11. Faire les recommandations.

Les terminologies de la recherche

Enseignement réflexif

Acte réflexif: un dialogue intérieur que l'enseignant chercheur établit entre son action quotidienne et la compréhension de son action. (Boutin, 4)

La pratique réflexive: une démarche de pratique réflexive suppose porter un regard critique sur son propre fonctionnement mais aussi d'effectuer une analyse à la fois autant individuelle et collective de ses actions pédagogiques autant à priori, en cours d'action, qu'à posteriori. Ce regard critique suppose des prises de conscience de ses cohérences et incohérences, de ses pensées et actions, de ses croyances et pratiques. (La fortune, Louise, 2007, 16)

La réflexion: une (ré) interprétation des expériences pour atteindre un niveau plus élevé de professionnalisme. (Sonneveld, Ard, 2008, 30)

La réflexivité critique: est une posture qui vise une transformation, qui se travaille collectivement et avec méthodes, qui mobilise et permet de s'approprier des savoirs théoriques et pratiques. (Voz, Grégory & Cornet, Jacques, 2010, 32, P45)

Définition opérationnelle :

L'enseignement réflexif : c'est un travail d'équipe où l'étudiant stagiaire porte un regard critique sur ses pratiques en

classe et à l'aide de ses collègues, effectue une analyse pour améliorer ses actions.

Performances de la communication orale en classe

La performance : Les pratiques qui reflètent la capacité des étudiants stagiaires à fonctionner les connaissances et les compétences d'une manière intégrative pour accomplir une tâche. (Hamed, Rania, 2008,14, p.17)

La communication orale : Bien communiquer à l'oral, c'est faire passer des messages à l'aide d'un langage choisi, en utilisant une voix bien placée, en jouant de ses émotions, en utilisant intelligemment son corps pour que son public, respecté et pris en compte, accepte le message émis et y adhère. (D'orfueil, Luc , 8)

La communication orale : La capacité à utiliser la parole pour exprimer ou échanger des idées et des informations en milieu de travail ou dans la vie de tous les jours.(CDEACF, 6)

Les compétences de la communication orale : Ce sont les performances où l'étudiant stagiaire utilise le langage verbal et le langage non verbal signes verbaux prononcés et les signes non verbaux pour échanger les idées et les émotions avec les élèves, ayant pour but de pousser le processus d'apprentissage. (Rached , Hazem, 2007, 34 ,P .164)

Définition opérationnelle :

Les performances de la communication orale en classe :Ce sont les pratiques des étudiants stagiaires en classe , en utilisant le langage verbal et le langage non verbal d'une manière respective pour exprimer ou échanger les idées , les informations et les émotions avec leurs élèves .

Premièrement : L'étude théorique

1.L'enseignement réflexif

1-1 Pourquoi l'enseignement réflexif ?

Dans un contexte de développement en formation et en recyclage de l'enseignant, l'engagement dans l'enseignement réflexif apparait essentiel pour les raisons suivantes :

1. Il est le lieu et le moment où l'on peut intégrer harmonieusement les notions théoriques à l'agir professionnel, en les confrontant l'un l'autre. (Desjardins ,9)
2. Il aide à prendre des décisions plus éclairées et suscite chez l'enseignant, le souci de s'interroger sur son rôle dans la classe. (Boutin, 4)
3. Il aide à se donner un projet personnel de développement professionnel. (Desjardins, 9)
4. Il permet de porter un regard critique tout au long de sa pratique professionnelle, facilité d'adaptation à différents contextes et l'introduction de changements de pratique en vue d'accroître la motivation des élèves et de favoriser leur apprentissage. (Rousseau, 2006 , 29 , p 27)
5. Il aide à accepter le regard des autres sur ses gestes et décisions pédagogiques, ce qui favorise le développement du jugement professionnel, l'engagement dans une équipe- cycle et un agir éthique. (Rousseau, 2006,29 , p 27)

L'enseignement réflexif est mis en œuvre dans des études antérieures pour deux buts :

1. ***Décrire certaines performances*** : comme L'étude de Catherine Michalopoulou (2008) qui vise à décrire certains aspects de l'enseignement (l'organisation des activités ,les modalités de groupement des enfants, la mobilité des enfants en classe et les interactions verbales)des étudiants du département d'enseignement préscolaire de l'Université de Thessalie(Grèce) pendant le stage pratique tel qu'il est réalisé en classe à travers l'enseignement réflexif. (Michalopoulou, Catherine, 2008, 21)
2. ***Développer certaines performances*** : comme L'étude de Hazem Rached (2003) qui vise à développer les performances de la planification de la leçon chez les enseignants de la langue arabe aux élèves bilingues(Rached,Hazem, 35 , 2003) et celle de Manal Abdel Aziz(2008) qui a pour but de développer les performances d'enseignement suivantes (la planification

de la leçon, l'explication, la personnalité de l'enseignant, le ménagement de la classe, la performance linguistique, l'évaluation) chez les étudiantes de 2^{ème} année de la section d'anglais faculté de jeunes filles Université de Ain Chams pendant les cours du micro-enseignement. (Abdel Aziz, Manal, 2008, 1)

D'après ces études antérieures, on peut mettre en relief l'importance de l'enseignement réflexif comme un outil de construction de l'identité professionnelle en formation continue ou initiale.

1-2 Les niveaux de réflexion

D'après Schön 1983, il existe deux niveaux de réflexion:(Boutin, 4)

1. L'analyse réflexive en cours d'action qui consiste à penser dans l'action. L'enseignant professionnel sait modifier son action au moment même où il agit selon la situation réelle, il fait alors preuve de créativité.

D'après Maurice, les capacités limitées de la mémoire de travail contribuent à expliquer les limites de notre réflexivité en action. Donc, ce niveau de réflexion reste souvent difficile à décrire, aussi bien par l'acteur que par l'observateur. (Maurice, J.J., 2006, 20)

2. L'analyse réflexive sur l'action qui conduit l'enseignant à prendre une distance vis-à-vis sa pratique quotidienne et à s'interroger sur le contenu et les raisons de son enseignement. Cette réflexion, exercée entre collègues, peut devenir très enrichissante.

A ces deux niveaux F. Day ajoute deux autres:

3. La réflexion à propos de l'action se produit quand on prend en compte les contextes élargis, sociaux, économiques et politiques dans lesquels l'action a lieu et elle s'accompagne souvent d'un désir de réaliser une justice sociale, une émancipation ou une amélioration.
4. La réflexion pour l'action implique un projet d'avenir. (F.Day, Christopher , 2001, 11 , p.11)

1-3 Les exigences de l'enseignement réflexif :

L'enseignement réflexif vise à réduire l'écart entre la théorie et l'expérience, l'activité mentale et l'engagement pratique.

En commençant par l'expérience et non par la théorie, en faisant des retours sur expériences , l'enseignant crée ou construit une représentation de son propre modèle de pratique par la restructuration de son expérience et la théorie.(**Sonneveld, Ard , 2008,30**)

Donc un enseignant réflexif adosse sa réflexion à :

1. Des savoirs qui s'appuient sur une culture de base en didactique et en sciences sociales et qui doivent être enseignés en formation initiale. (**Perrenoud, 2005, 23**)
 1. Ces savoirs de base (connaissances, habilités, expériences emmagasinées) sont nécessaires mais l'enseignant doit les enrichir et les modifier à travers ses futures expériences.
 2. L'idée de savoirs" nouveaux" appelle toutefois deux nuances:
 3. Certains savoirs ne sont nouveaux que pour celui qui les construit, la réflexion aide plutôt un praticien particulier à redécouvrir par lui-même des fragments de théorie dont d'autres disposent déjà, chercheurs ou autres praticiens réflexifs plus avancés
 4. Un savoir nouveau peut être, simplement, un savoir enrichi, nuancé, problématisé, différencié, généralisé, dialectisé. (**Perrenoud, Philippe, 2004, 24**)
2. Une activité mentale :
 1. Un savoir -analyser qui permet à l'enseignant dans les flux des événements 1-d'isoler des données significatives et de les interroger,(**Perrenoud ,2005, 23**) 2- de se poser des questions à propos des différentes composantes de sa pratique, c'est-à-dire les actions posées(approches, stratégies.....) , les compétences et habilités développées, les connaissances construites et les attitudes adoptées.3-

De faire des liens entre ces composantes .par exemple, des liens peuvent être faits mais aussi discutés entre différentes approches pédagogiques adoptées telles que l'apprentissage coopératif, la pédagogie de projets , l'enseignement stratégique) **(La fortune, 2007, 16)**

2. Un savoir-décrire : Pour analyser sa pratique, il faut d'abord pouvoir la décrire. Décrire sa pratique n'est pas aussi simple qu'on pourrait le penser .Décrire une expérience de pratique devrait permettre aux personnes qui écoutent cette description de reconnaître ce qui c'est effectivement passé dans la réalité, pouvant même reproduire cette expérience dans leurs actions pédagogiques ou professionnelles. **(La fortune, 2007, 16)**
3. Un savoir-crée : qui permet à l'enseignant d'élaborer une représentation de son propre modèle de pratique en s'inspirant de modèles existants et les adapter pour les présenter en un tout cohérent ; ce qui est l'aboutissement d'une démarche de pratique réflexive. **(La fortune, 2007, 16)**
3. L'acquisition d'une posture réflexive, d'une attitude ouverte, d'une éthique de la réflexion. **(Perrenoud, Philippe, 2004, 24)**
4. Le travail d'équipe: Le travail d'équipe d'enseignants est rarement considérée comme une chose positive .L'excellence enseignante est souvent perçue comme une volonté et des efforts individuelles. **(Brookfield, 2008, 5)**
C'est la culture de l'individualisme.

D'après Perrenoud , un praticien réflexif a besoin d'autres d'abord pour confronter son analyse à la leur , ensuite pour s'assurer de leur coopération voire déclencher une action collective lorsque l'analyse montre que c'est unique façon de s'attaquer aux vrais problèmes. **(Perrenoud, 2005, 23)**

En accumulant ses convénients, Rousseau souligne l'excellence du travail d'équipe comme un moyen de développement professionnel puisqu'il permet à l'enseignant

d'adapter son action et d'enrichir ainsi son apport auprès des élèves .Il engage l'équipe dans une pratique réflexive collective où chacun met ses compétences en commun. Collectivement, les membres de l'équipe s'observent, analysent leurs pratiques et acceptent que leurs collègues portent eux aussi un regard critique sur leurs pratiques. (Rousseau, 2006, 29, p 19)

1-4 Les modèles de l'enseignement réflexif

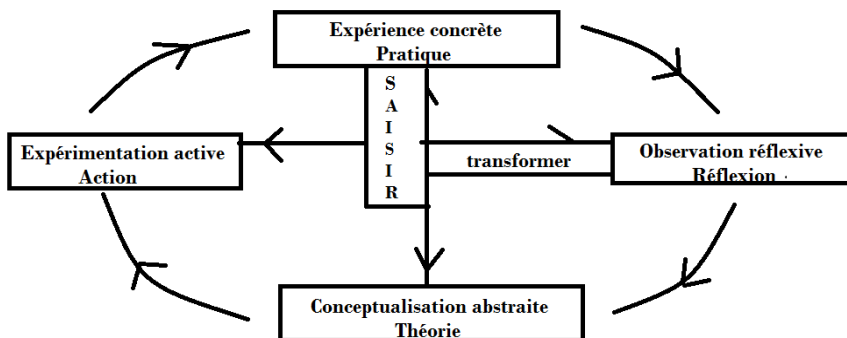
1-4-1 Le modèle de Kolb (1984)

Le cycle d'apprentissage expérientiel.

Ce cycle permet de rendre compte de la démarche d'apprentissage de l'enseignement à partir de l'expérience directe de l'action enseignante et de situer le rôle de réflexion dans cette démarche. Donc, il permet de relier action et réflexion ainsi que pratique et théorie.

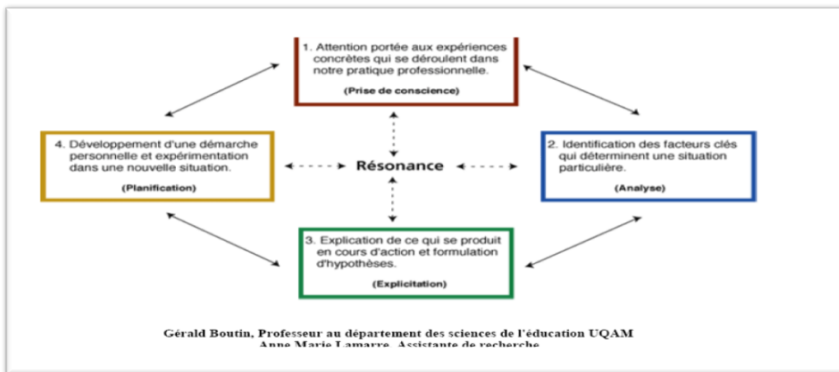
Remarquons d'abord qu'elle pose deux modes de saisie de la réalité (axe de saisir) ; par expérience concrète (pratique) et par conceptualisation abstraite (théorie).

La transformation de l'expérience saisie s'effectue à la fois par l'action et par la réflexion (axe de transformer).En somme, l'action sur le réel alimente la réflexion et la réflexion influence l'action, le tout dans un cycle incessant, d'autant plus source d'apprentissage qu'il s'enrichit à la fois de la pratique et de la théorie. (Boutet, 2004, 3)



1-4-2 Le modèle de Patricia Holborn(1992)

Le processus de l'analyse réflexive comprend essentiellement 4 étapes qui progressent dans un mouvement cyclique. Il s'agit de décrire et d'analyser les expériences antérieures pour ensuite, les transformer en théorie en vue de guider les interventions ultérieures. A leur tour, ces dernières sont appliquées dans de nouvelles situations puis analysées, et ainsi un autre cycle s'enclenche aussitôt. (Boutin, 4)



1-4-3 Le modèle ALACT de Korthagen (2001)

ALACT (acronyme qui représente les premières lettres de chaque phase)

Korthagen distingue 5 étapes dans ce processus :

1. L'action.
2. La recherche de retour sur expérience.
3. La prise de conscience d'aspects essentiels.
4. L'élaboration d'une nouvelle méthode d'action.
5. Le processus à mettre en œuvre, ce qui donne lieu à de nouvelles actions et par conséquent, le point de départ d'un nouveau cycle.

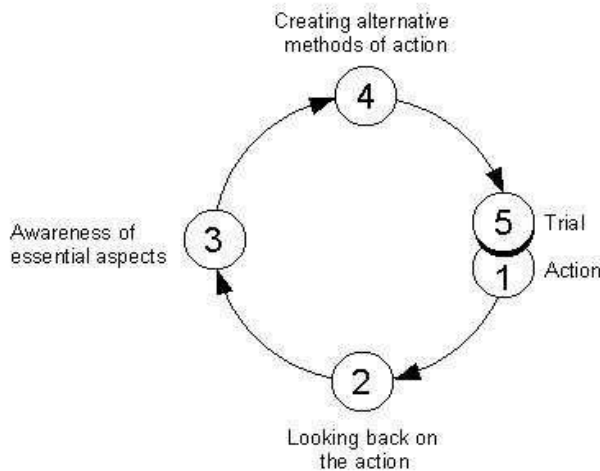
Les étapes 2,3et 4 décrivent le processus de réflexion en posant trois questions :

Dans l'étape 2 : Que s'est –il passé ?

Dans l'étape 3 : Qu'est ce qui est important là, pour moi ?

Dans l'étape 4 : Que vais-je faire la prochaine fois ?

(Sonneveld, Ard, 2008, 30)



1-4-4 Le modèle de Taha (2003)

Ce modèle d'enseignement réflexif a été élaboré, au premier lieu, pour développer la performance des étudiants stagiaires au stage pratique.

Taha distingue 7 étapes, dans ce modèle, qui progressent d'un mouvement cyclique. Les étapes sont :

1. Faire attention (s'intéresser) à un problème.
2. Décrire le problème dans (le portfolio, le journal de bord.....).
3. Analyser le problème d'une manière individuelle ou collective. Dans cette étape se fait un lien entre la pratique et la théorie.
4. Planifier de nouvelles expériences.
5. Modeler l'enseignement devant les collègues.
6. Evaluation des pairs. L'intégration entre l'évaluation des pairs et l'autoévaluation aident à réaliser une réflexion critique qui aide à son tour au développement professionnel.
7. Répétition du cycle d'enseignement réflexif.(Taha , Hala, 2003, 36, Pp286-290)

Commentaire générale sur les modèles :

De ces modèles , on peut conclure que :

1. Les étapes essentielles de l'enseignement réflexif peuvent être :
 1. L'attention (La prise de conscience).
 2. L'analyse de l'action.
 3. La planification d'une nouvelle expérience.
 4. Le mouvement cyclique de l'enseignement réflexif.
2. La relation étroite entre pratique et théorie dans l'enseignement réflexif.
3. Le modèle de Taha, est le seul qui souligne le rôle de collègues dans l'enseignement réflexif. De même, il traite l'enseignement réflexif comme résolution d'un problème que l'étudiant stagiaire fait face en classe pendant le stage pratique.
4. Tous les modèles, sauf celui de Taha, soulignent le rôle individuel de l'enseignant dans l'enseignement réflexif en négligeant le travail d'équipe qui est considéré comme une des exigences de l'enseignement réflexif.

La communication orale en classe

Communiquer implique deux catégories de compétences: les compétences de compréhension et les compétences d'expression. En classe de langue vivante, la langue elle-même sert la communication et les échanges en classe .Elle est à la fois outil de communication et objet d'apprentissage. **(Grosjean, 13)**

Alors que la conversation est fondamentale dans la vie humaine , en classe elle devient du bavardage dès lors qu'elle échappe au contrôle de l'enseignant .Il se sent le chef d'orchestre , l'initiateur , le garant des échanges de leur contenu , de leur niveau , de leur correction , de leur durée , de leur progression vers un but .**(Perrenoud, Philippe ,1994,25)**

Bonne communication: centrée sur un thème, ordonnée, faisant avancer un débat ou une leçon, donc fonctionnelle, rigoureuse et bien structurée.

2-1 Les traits structuraux communs aux interactions orales:

Dans les échanges en face à face, outre la matière phonique, on dispose aussi d'informations dites statiques (parce qu'elles demeurent inchangées durant l'interaction) qui sont:

1. Le contexte matériel de la situation de communication qui est partagé (lieux publics, privés, caractéristiques de ces lieux, dispositions des places assises, bruits,.....)
2. Les actions effectuées durant l'interaction (se lever, prendre un objet.....)
3. Les gestes dits extra-communicatifs comme les postures du corps ou les mouvements des mains qui accompagnent le discours ou directement les gestes communicatifs qui, eux, sont codés et peuvent paraphraser le canal verbal (par exemple signifier non en tournant la tête en français)

D'autres éléments caractérisent surtout les échanges face à face:

4. Les finalités de l'échange qui peuvent être, par exemple, pour échanger des impressions ou des informations, partager des expériences
5. Les participants. Outre leur nombre, les relations entre les participants, en particulier leur statut hiérarchique, leurs fonctions ou statut social. (Beacco, Jean-Claude, 2007,2, p 125-126)

2-2 Les performances de la communication orale en classe :

Les compétences en langue orale attendues des enseignants sont nombreuses: être capables d'organiser de façon cohérente les contenus d'enseignement ; mettre en évidence les idées importantes; utiliser des stratégies verbales pour maintenir la curiosité et l'intérêt; préciser et enrichir la langue orale de leurs élèves; et bien sûr, s'exprimer convenablement. (Lebrun, Monique, 2008, 18)

Quand un jeune professeur se retrouve devant un classe pour la première fois, il n'est pas rare que des problèmes de

communication surviennent .Ils peuvent être passagers ou durer plus longtemps. Faes a précisé neuf axes de la communication avec la classe :

1. Le corps (la communication non verbale).
2. L'occupation de l'espace (par le regard et le déplacement en classe).
3. L'exercice de l'autorité (respecter les règles de la classe).
4. Gérer les communications individuelles et collectives.
5. Gérer la prise de parole (prendre la parole c'est prendre le pouvoir).
6. Le bruit en classe (obtenir le calme améliore les conditions d'attention et d'apprentissage).
7. Gérer le temps (veille au rythme de l'apprentissage, ne pas perdre le temps).
8. La gestion de l'écrit (donner des consignes précises, écrire au tableau de manière claire et rigoureuse).
9. Respecter nos élèves. (Faes, Olivier, 12)

D'après La commission scolaire de la Rivière-du-Nord au Québec, les performances de la communication orale sont :

Dimension 1: Qualité du traitement de l'information

1. Définir les termes et les concepts.
2. Présenter les informations de façon pédagogique.
3. Distinguer l'essentiel de l'accessoire.

Dimension 2: Efficacité de la communication

1. Établir un contexte de communication propice.
2. Assurer la cohérence et la continuité de la communication.
3. S'exprimer dans une langue correcte et adaptée aux élèves.
4. S'assurer de la compréhension des explications.

Dimension 3: Dynamisme

1. S'exprimer de façon vivante.
2. Varier ses moyens de communication et les types d'interaction.
3. Utiliser efficacement le langage non verbal.

Dimension 4: Sens du dialogue

1. Manifester sa disponibilité aux élèves.
2. Accueillir les questions avec bienveillance.
3. Susciter la participation de chacun. (La commission scolaire de la Rivière-du-Nord, 2006, 15)

Il est à noter que malgré la diversification dans les titres des performances de la communication orale en classe, elles semblent les mêmes sauf quelques nuances.

La chercheuse a choisi la liste de La commission scolaire de la Rivière-du-Nord au Québec pour l'adopter dans cette recherche car, elle est la plus organisée, bien structurée en dimensions, sous chaque dimensions des performances et sous chaque performance ses indicateurs.

Avant de terminer l'étude théorique, la chercheuse va souligner une partie, vraiment importante et parfois négligée, de la communication orale en classe c'est la communication non verbale.

2-3 La communication non verbale :

La communication non verbale regroupe toutes les techniques destinées à communiquer avec autrui sans utiliser la parole, notamment les mouvements du corps ou les manifestations physiologiques, comme la transpiration. (Dictionnaire français Linternaute, 10)

On distingue deux types de travail sur la communication non-verbale: le comportement non-verbal vu comme langage en soi ou sous son aspect métalangage. (Wagner, Marie-Cécile, 1994,33, p99) Donc, il est impossible de ne pas avoir de communication non verbale.

L'importance de la communication non verbale :

1. C'est notre premier mode de communication des sentiments et des émotions.
 1. Les mots transportent des sens, des signifiants.
 2. Le non verbal véhicule du signifié.
2. L'information non verbale complète, accentue, facilite ou précise le message verbal, elle aide à comprendre ce qui est dit.
3. Ces messages sont souvent plus fiables que les messages verbaux. Pour ces raisons, il est capital de savoir les lire et les interpréter.
4. Pour que la communication soit réussie, il faut qu'il y ait concordance entre le message verbal et le non-verbal (Terrier, 2013, 31)
5. Il est aussi des moments où un enseignant peut utiliser les gestes seuls, ou en tant qu'éléments de renforcement social (sourires, déplacements vers l'élève, gestes des bras pour désigner.....) (Wagner, Marie-Cécile, 1994,33, p99)

Deuxièmement : Les outils de la recherche

Le questionnaire

Le but:

Ce questionnaire a pour but d'avoir une liste des performances de la communication orale nécessaires aux enseignants du FLE en classe.

Les sources:

La chercheuse a adopté " *la liste des performances de la communication orale en classe*" de la commission scolaire de la Rivière-du-Nord au Québec (La commission scolaire de la Rivière-du-Nord , 2006, 15) et l'a adaptée en consultant l'étude théorique plus l'article et les études suivantes: (Ressources humaines et développement des compétences, 28)(Ragueh ,Mohamed, 2000, 27, pp155-156)(Rached ,Hazem , 2007, 34 , pp ١٧٠-١٦٩)

La description:

Sous sa forme initiale (voir annexe1), le questionnaire comprend 13 performances regroupées en 4 dimensions .Pour

chacun de ces performances, on a énuméré des indicateurs qui manifestent, chez l'enseignant, la maîtrise de la performance en question. Il y a 60 indicateurs en total.

L'application:

Pour vérifier la validité du questionnaire, la chercheuse l'a soumis à un jury de spécialistes qui comprend 5 membres: un professeur- adjoint et quatre maîtres de conférences afin de juger *tous deux (performances et indicateurs)* en donnant leurs opinions en ce qui concerne les points suivants :

1. Le degré d'importance des performances et des indicateurs de la communication orale en classe.
2. La suppression des items non nécessaires.
3. L'addition des items non inclus.
4. La modification des items en cas de nécessité.

Le calcul des pourcentages des performances et des indicateurs

Les performances et les indicateurs les plus importants à développer chez les étudiants stagiaires d'après le jury sont 6 performances et 16 indicateurs. Ce sont les performances et les indicateurs qui sont égaux ou plus de(\geq) 80%. (Voir annexe 1)

Les grilles d'observation

La chercheuse a élaboré 3 grilles d'observation qui couvrent les six performances de la communication orale en classe. (Voir annexe 2)

Le but des grilles d'observation

Les grilles d'observation ont pour but d'évaluer les performances de la communication orale en classe chez les étudiants stagiaires de la section de français, faculté de pédagogie aux niveaux prospective, formatif et sommatif.

Source des grilles d'observation :

Le questionnaire des performances de la communication orale en classe est la seule source des grilles d'observation.

Description des grilles d'observation :

Fiche (1) comprend deux performances:

1. Établir un contexte de communication propice.
2. S'assurer de la compréhension des explications.

Fiche (2) comprend deux performances:

1. Présenter les informations de façon pédagogique.
2. Manifester sa disponibilité aux élèves.

Fiche (3) comprend deux performances:

1. S'exprimer de façon vivante.
2. Utiliser efficacement le langage non verbal.

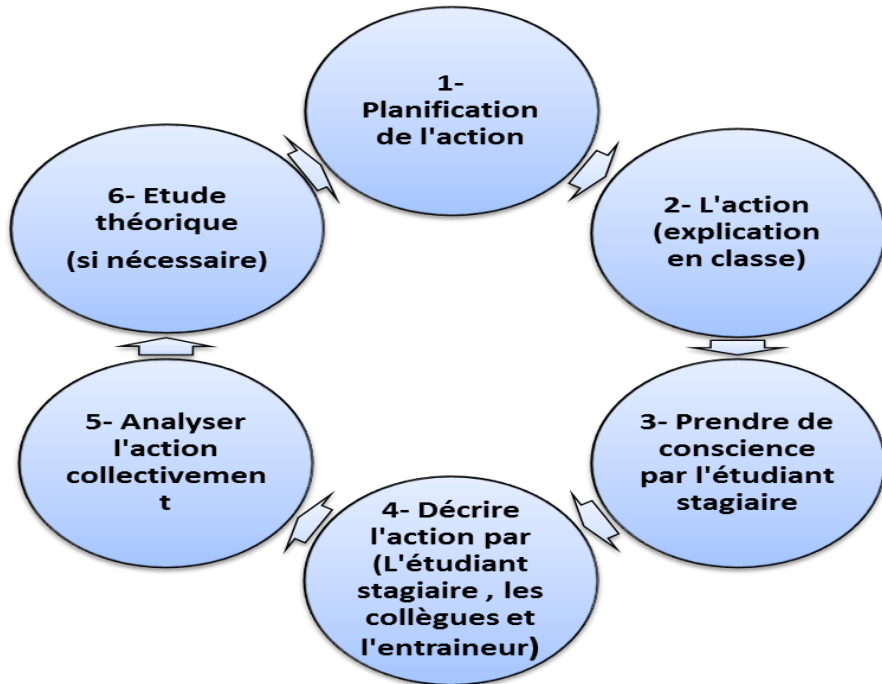
Chaque grille contient trois colonnes :Une colonne pour le degré de maîtrise des performances, allant de 0 à 2. 0= faible , 1= moyen, 2=excellent, une autre colonne pour les commentaires et une troisième pour les propositions.

Chaque grille est utilisée par l'entraîneur (évaluation), par les étudiants stagiaires (co-évaluation) au cours de l'explication et par l'étudiant qui explique comme fiche d'auto-évaluation après l'explication.

Troisièmement : Le modèle proposé

En profitant de l'étude théorique sur l'enseignement réflexif, la chercheuse propose le modèle suivant pour l'appliquer au stage pratique :

1. Planifier l'action.
2. Expliquer en classe (l'action).
3. Prendre de conscience des aspects essentiels de l'explication par l'étudiant stagiaire au cours de l'explication.
4. Décrire les aspects essentiels de l'explication par l'entraîneur et les collègues pendant le cours et par l'étudiant stagiaire après le cours.
5. Analyser l'action collectivement. (discussion et remue ménage)
6. Faire une étude théorique pour modifier l'action (si c'est nécessaire).
7. Répétition du cycle d'enseignement réflexif.



Quatrièmement : L'expérimentation

L'échantillon

La chercheuse a choisi l'échantillon parmi les étudiants stagiaires de la 3^{ème} année, section de français à la faculté de pédagogie de Hérouville. Le nombre de l'échantillon est 15 étudiantes stagiaires divisées en deux groupes dans deux écoles.

Ces étudiantes ont étudié le français comme 2^{ème} langue étrangère au cycle secondaire. Donc, elles ont le même niveau linguistique.

L'arrière- plan théorique et pratique des étudiants stagiaires: se représente dans le contenu du cursus des compétences d'enseignement de 2^{ème} année: Définitions de quelques terminologies pédagogiques , Qualités d'un bon enseignant ,La formulation des objectifs, La sensibilisation, Le renforcement ,La communication verbale ,L'utilisation d'exemples ,Facilité à poser des questions ,La généralisation de

la participation, L'évaluation, La clôture ,La planification des leçons et Le micro enseignement .

Le plan temporel de l'expérimentation

L'expérimentation a duré 10 semaines pendant les mois décembre 2014, février, mars et avril 2015. Un jour de stage pratique par semaine et dix jours de stage pratique continué de 29 mars à 9 avril 2015.

Remarques sur l'application du module proposé de l'enseignement réflexif :

1. On a commencé par expliquer aux étudiantes stagiaires un extrait sur l'enseignement réflexif, le modèle proposé d'enseignement réflexif et l'emploi des fiches d'observation.
2. Le travail se fait en équipe de 3 à 4 étudiantes stagiaires selon les cours disponibles aux écoles.
3. Chaque étudiante stagiaire a expliqué six cours, deux pour chaque grille d'observation.
4. La plupart des manques dans la performance des étudiantes, surtout au début de l'application de la recherche est due à:
 - le manque de confiance en soi ;
 - la peur ;
 - le premier contact avec les élèves en classe comme enseignant ;
 - le manque des compétences linguistiques ;
 - le manque d'expériences pratiques ;
5. Au début de l'application du modèle, les étudiantes stagiaires, en évaluant les performances de ces collègues, penchent à être complaisantes et donnent des commentaires neutres, ça change après quelques cours.
6. Les étudiantes stagiaires ont accepté de rentrer avec leurs collègues en classe et faire attention à leurs performances pour les évaluer et de même à être évaluées, elles donnent des propositions vraiment précieuses à leurs collègues.

7. L'auto évaluation basé sur la réflexion était un peu difficile pour la plupart des étudiantes stagiaires, surtout au début de l'application, elles voient qu'elles sont parfaites, elles sont surprises en écoutant les commentaires de leurs collègues. D'autres s'auto -évaluent toujours faible (elles voient le côté négatif et ne voient pas le côté positif de leur explication).
8. La remue méninge et de même la discussion entre les étudiantes étaient vraiment fruitifs.
9. On n'a pas eu recours à une étude théorique pour résoudre un problème ou améliorer une performance, les commentaires et les propositions des étudiantes stagiaires étaient suffisants.
10. Les étudiantes stagiaires ont du mal à s'exprimer de façon vivante, leur niveau linguistique ne les aide pas, elles ont commis des fautes de prononciation et ont eu de difficulté à bien lire ce qui les rend timides. Ça change en lisant la leçon à haute voix avec les collègues, le professeur de la classe ou l'entraîneur pour corriger les fautes de prononciation, l'intonation
11. Les étudiantes stagiaires expliquent en écrivant au tableau et parfois elles concentrent leur regard sur un rang, sur quelques élèves....etc. Pour maintenir « Le contact visuel entre l'enseignant et le groupe classe » c'était suffisant d'attirer l'attention de l'étudiante stagiaire sur cette performance et souligner son importance.
12. L'indicateur de poser des questions pour vérifier la compréhension des explications est une sorte d'évaluation formative. Les étudiantes stagiaires en essayant de terminer l'explication de la leçon, elles, peut-être, oublient de vérifier la compréhension et d'autres n'estiment pas la valeur de cette performance.
13. Souligner l'importance de l'évaluation formative en classe, diviser le temps du cours pour laisser au moins dix minutes pour faire un exercice sur la leçon expliquée et poser une question de type : c'est clair ? Vous avez

compris ? après chaque partie expliquée de la leçon, étaient les solutions les plus favorables.

14. Les étudiantes stagiaires ne sont pas égales devant la classe à cause des différences individuelles ; quelques-unes trouvent des difficultés à communiquer avec la classe, d'autres sont d'emblée à l'aise devant la classe.

Cinquièmement :Analyse et discussion des résultats

Pour vérifier l'efficacité de l'enseignement réflexif à développer les performances de la communication orale en classe chez les étudiants stagiaires de la section de français faculté de pédagogie, la chercheuse va exposer les résultats et l'analyse statistique à travers la vérification des hypothèses de la recherche.

L'analyse statistique se fait par le programme SPSS.

Première hypothèse

Il existe une différence significative entre la moyenne des notes des étudiants stagiaires du groupe expérimental dans la pré application des grilles d'observation des performances de la communication orale en classe et leur moyenne des notes dans la post application des grilles d'observation en faveur de post

Deuxième hypothèse

Il existe une différence significative entre la moyenne des notes des étudiants stagiaires du groupe expérimental dans la pré application des grilles d'observation pour CHAQUE performance de la communication orale en classe et leur moyenne des notes dans la post application des grilles d'observation en faveur de post application.

Ces deux hypothèses sont vérifiées par le test des rangs signés de Wilcoxon (Z). Ce test calcule la différence entre les moyens des rangs des notes des groupes appariés, en raison de la perte de condition de la distribution normale de la variable

quantitative ce qui se représente dans l'inégalité dans les notes de chaque performance de la communication orale en classe.

L'équation de taille d'effet (R) :

$$R = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{N}}$$

√ N (nombre total de l'échantillon)

Tableau (1)

Performances	rangs	N	Moyen des rangs	Somme des rangs	Z	Taille d'effet R
1ère	Négative (post<pré)	0	0	0	2,828**	0,52
	Positive	8	4,5	36		
2ème	Négative (post<pré)	0	0	0	3,471**	0,63
	Positive	15	8,0	120		
3ème	Négative (post<pré)	0	0	0	3,341**	0,61
	Positive	14	7,5	105		
4ème	Négative (post<pré)	0	0	0	3,427**	0,63
	Positive	15	8,0	120		
5ème	Négative (post<pré)	0	0	0	3,354**	0,61
	Positive	14	7,5	105		
6ème	Négative (post<pré)	0	0	0	3,345**	0,61
	Positive	14	7,5	105		
Totalité	Négative (post<pré)	0	0	0	3,419**	0,62
	Positive	15	8,0	120		

(**) Z est significatif à niveau de 0,01

1ère performance : ÉTABLIR un contexte de communication propice.

2ème performance : S'EXPRIMER de façon vivante.

3ème performance : UTILISER efficacement le langage non verbal

4ème performance : S'ASSURER de la compréhension des explications.

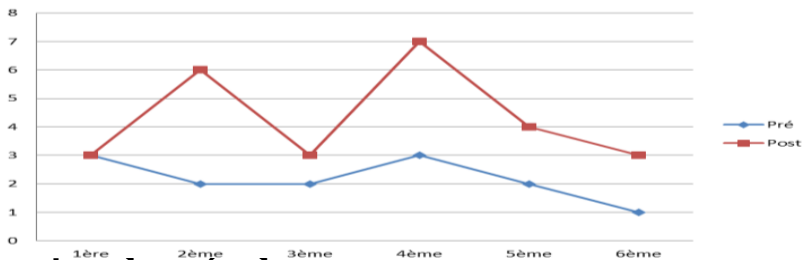
5ème performance : PRÉSENTER les informations de façon pédagogique.

6ème performance : MANIFESTER sa disponibilité aux élèves.

Nombre des rangs positifs = le nombre des étudiants qui sont améliorés parmi les 15 membres de l'échantillon.

1. En consultant le tableau (1) et le diagramme, il est à noter que parmi les six performances, la 1^{ère} performance « ÉTABLIR un contexte de communication propice » est la seule dont huit étudiantes seulement sont améliorées c'est parce que, dans cette performance dès le début de l'expérimentation les étudiantes stagiaires ont pris de hautes notes par rapport aux autres performances.
2. Dans Les cinq autres performances et la note totale de toutes les performances de quatorze à quinze étudiantes sont améliorées.
3. En consultant le critère de Cohen (1988), (0,1) est décrit comme un effet faible, (0,3) moyen et (0,5) comme fort. (Pallant, 2011, 21, p 230).
4. D'après le tableau (1), la taille d'effet de chaque performance et de la totalité des performances a dépassé le (0,5), donc la taille d'effet est FORTE.

pré et au post application des grilles d'observation des performances de la communication orale en classe



Discussion des résultats :

Ce qui mène à la réalisation des hypothèses de cette recherche:

1. La réflexion invite les étudiantes stagiaires à faire partie du problème qu'elles font face.
2. Les étapes du modèle proposé vont de pair avec la nature et le but du stage pratique.
3. Les trois méthodes de l'évaluation ; l'évaluation des pairs, l'autoévaluation et l'évaluation par l'entraîneur ont aidé les étudiantes stagiaires à voir leurs pratiques à travers plusieurs points de vue.

4. Les performances de la communication orale en classe sont des pratiques primordiales pour l'étudiant stagiaire surtout au premier contact avec ses élèves.
5. Le modèle proposé permet aux étudiantes stagiaires de porter un regard critique tout au long de leur pratique et de se poser des questions à propos des différentes composantes de leur pratique en faisant des retours sur leurs expériences.
6. Le choix de grille d'observation comme outil pour décrire et analyser les performances de la communication orale en classe, était réussi car la plupart des étudiantes stagiaires trouvent de difficulté à utiliser la langue pour écrire des phrases claires et compréhensibles afin de décrire et analyser les pratiques.
7. Le travail en équipe a joué un grand rôle à réussir le modèle proposé de l'enseignement réflexif et à enrichir les pratiques des étudiantes stagiaires où chacune met ses compétences et ses connaissances en commun.

Sixièmement : Recommandations de la recherche

A la lumière des résultats de cette recherche, on recommande de/d' :

1. Entraîner les étudiants stagiaires à l'enseignement réflexif avant de commencer le stage pratique aux écoles.
2. Favoriser le travail en équipe chez les étudiants stagiaires et chercher à promouvoir le travail en équipe cycle ou matière aux écoles.
3. Généraliser l'enseignement réflexif aux écoles comme moyen pour aider les enseignants à réaliser le développement professionnel.
4. S'intéresser aux performances de la communication orale en classe soit la communication verbale, soit la communication non verbale.
5. Elaborer un programme pour le stage pratique basé sur l'approche par compétences et les trois méthodes

d'évaluation ; l'évaluation des pairs, l'autoévaluation et l'évaluation par l'entraîneur .

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