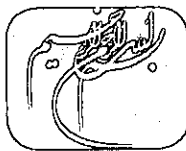# FLT

Foreign Language
Teaching Journal

FOREIGN LANGUAGES OPEN DOORS TO NEW HORIZONS

Weblogs should not be seen merely as a technological tool for teaching and learning. It should be used as a situated practice used with particular pedagogical and disciplinary practices.
O'Donnell (2005)

● مجله‌ی رشد آموزش زبان حاصل تحقیقات پژوهشگران و متخصصان تعلیم و تربیت، بویژه هنرآموزان، دبیران و مدرسان را، در صورتی که در نشریات عمومی درج نشده و مرتبط با موضوع مجله باشد، می‌پذیرد. ● مطالب باید تایپ شده باشد و به همراه cd ارسال شود. ● شکل قرار گرفتن جدول‌ها، نمودارها و تصاویر ضمیمه باید در حاشیه‌ی مطلب نیز مشخص شود. ● نثر مقاله باید روان و از نظر دستور زبان فارسی درست باشد و در انتخاب واژه‌های علمی و فنی دقت لازم مبذول شود. ● مقاله‌های ترجمه‌شده باید با متن اصلی همخوانی داشته باشد و متن اصلی نیز ضمیمه‌ی مقاله باشد. ● در متن‌های ارسالی باید تا حد امکان از معادل‌های فارسی واژه‌ها و اصطلاحات استفاده شود. ● زیرنویس‌ها و منابع باید شامل نام کامل نویسنده،سال انتشار، نام اثر، نام مترجم، محل نشر، ناشر، و شماره‌ی صفحه‌ی مورد استفاده باشد. ● مجله در رد، قبول، ویرایش و تلخیص مقاله‌های رسیده مختار است. ● آرای مندرج در مقاله‌ها، ضرورتاً مبین نظر دفتر انتشارات کمک‌آموزشی نیست و مسؤولیت پاسخگویی به پرسش‌های خوانندگان، با خود نویسنده یا مترجم است. ● مجله از بازگرداندن مطالبی که برای چاپ مناسب تشخیص داده نمی‌شود، معذور است.

در این نوشتار، نکاتی را درباره‌ی یادگیری زبان و درک مطلب بیان می‌دارم که برای دبیران محترم مفید است. گرچه نیاز چندانی نیست که بر اهمیت مفهوم در علم زبان تأکید شود، ولی باید در خواندن و درک مفاهیم به سؤال‌های زیر پاسخ داده شود:

۱. آیا معنی جزئی از زبان است؟

۲. اگر هست، ماهیت دقیق و جالب آن کدام است؟

۳. آیا معنی می‌تواند برای تحلیل‌های عینی حالت انتزاعی و ذهنی داشته باشد و اگر می‌تواند، روش‌های آن چیست؟

۴. آیا معنی می‌تواند در تحلیل‌های نظام هم‌زمان مورد استفاده قرار گیرد، یعنی آیا چالشی برای معیارهای معنی‌شناسی در دستور زبان وجود دارد؟

سوء تعبیر در مورد این سؤال‌ها از این واقعیت نشئت می‌گیرد که نویسندگان معدودی نتوانسته‌اند بین معنی که جزء ذاتی زبان است و محتوای بیان، تفاوت قائل شوند. در مورد جمله نیز اکثر آن‌ها در خصوص معنی محتوا دچار ابهام هستند؛ علی‌رغم آن‌که زبان‌شناسی پیشرفت‌های چشم‌گیری داشته است. به‌هرحال، مسئله این است که چه چیزی در سطح جمله، محتوا را از معنی جدا می‌سازد. این موضوع می‌تواند توضیحات متفاوتی داشته باشد. اول، عده‌ای زبان را مربوط به روان‌شناسی و معنی را پدیده‌ای ارادی از یک تصور و مشهود می‌خوانند که تصور یا معنی، هر دو نشانگر دانش ذهنی یا انتزاعی هستند و به‌ناچار معنی و برداشت با هم اشتباه می‌شوند. در واقع آن‌ها بر ابهام مفهوم و ویژگی انتزاعی آن تأکید می‌کنند.

اما نکته‌ی مهم این است که معنی با دانش انتزاعی یکی نیست، چون معنی همان دانش واقعی است. برای مثال، دانش مربوط به نمک، خود نمک معدنی نیست، ولی شناخت نمک معدنی می‌تواند معنی نمک را دربر داشته باشد. البته دانش افراد نسبت به هرچیز با هم متفاوت است و بستگی به هر یک از آن‌ها دارد. مثلاً شیمی‌دان به معنی نمک کاری ندارد، بلکه به ماده‌ی واقعی آن می‌اندیشد. بسیاری از سوء تفاهم‌ها در معنی‌شناسی به‌خاطر وجود خود آن است، چون طرف‌داران آن تصور می‌کنند که کارشان بررسی معنی زبان است، ولی چنین نیست. البته این سؤال بسیار اهمیت دارد که: آیا جملات صحیح و دستوری دارای معنی هستند و آیا صحیح بودن جمله به شرایط معنی‌شناسی بستگی ندارد؟ جواب این است که هر جمله‌ای را می‌توان با سه عامل شکل، معنی و محتوا ارزیابی کرد که عامل آخر هیچ اثری در صحیح یا غلط بودن جمله ندارد و صحیح بودن جمله صرفاً به معیارهای رسمی زبان بستگی دارد [Antal, 1964].

به‌طور خلاصه، می‌توان گفت که معنی عمدتاً دانش ذهنی گوینده نیست، بلکه جنبه عینی زبان مورد استفاده است. با آن‌که اگر گوینده با معنی آشنا باشد، برای او نوعی دانش است، ولی به شیئی مربوط نمی‌گردد و شکل زبانی دانش قلمداد می‌شود.

در باب قضاوت در مورد جملات باید گفت، تعداد قابل توجهی از آن‌ها که گفته و شنیده می‌شوند، برای ارتباط مناسب نیستند؛ مانند جملاتی که ستاره‌شناسان به‌کار می‌برند و معنی آن را درک می‌کنند، ولی مردم عادی چیزی از آن‌ها در نمی‌یابند. این نوع جملات در انواع علوم وجود دارند و آن‌ها را تخصصی یا حرفه‌ای می‌نامند. برعکس، جملاتی نیز وجود دارند که همه‌ی افراد آن‌ها متوجه می‌شوند و جملات کلی یا همگانی نام گرفته‌اند اما کدام یک از این دو نوع جمله برای تحلیل زبانی محتوا مناسب‌تر است؟

جملات خاص هر علم یا شغل، فقط برای متخصصان آن قابل درک است، ولی نوع دوم برای همگان معنی و مفهوم دارد و کار تحلیل آنها بهعهدهی زبانشناسی است. و به توجه و بررسی نیاز دارد. چون محتوای آنها دانش متداولی را برای همه بیان میکند. البته میتوان نتیجهگیری کرد که در هر دو مورد، تحلیل محتوا خارج از زمینههای زبانشناسی است. زبانشناسی به یک جنبهی واقعیت توجه دارد که خود زبان است و محتوا جزئی از زبان تصور نمیشود. موضوع واقعی زبانشناسی شکل زبانی است، ولی به عقیدهی نگارنده این مطلب هم نمیتواند کاملاً صحیح باشد.

تمام جملات دارای محتوا و معنی هستند، ولی این دو به یک مفهوم نیستند. چون محتوا باید دارای معنی باشد، ولی معنی میتواند محتوا نداشته باشد. برای درک صحیح معنی جمله، دانستن زبان لازم است، در حالیکه برای درک یک دانش یک محتوا، علاوه بر آن داشتن اطلاعات زبانی نیز ضروری است. بنابراین، دو نوع درک وجود دارد: یکی درک معنی که مربوط به شرایط زبانی است و دیگری درک محتوا که مربوط به شرایط زبانی نیست.

معنی جزئی از زبان است، ولی محتوا چنین نیست و این دو با هم تفاوت دارند. چون معنی قابل تجزیه به اجزایی کوچکتر است، ولی محتوا یک کل غیر قابل تقسیم است. مثلاً، تمام رمانها دارای محتوا هستند، ولی هیچ رمانی معنی ندارد. حتی قسمتهای متفاوت آن هم معنی ندارند و بزرگترین واحد معنیدار یک رمان یا هر گفتمانی، جمله است. بهعبارت دیگر، جمله کوچکترین واحد محتوا و بزرگترین واحد معنی است. البته، بعضی از فلاسفه هم خلاف آنرا قبول دارند و در این زمینه تضاد عقاید دیده میشود. اگر صحت یک جمله از شکل آن قابل تشخیص است، ولی صحیح بودن دستوری یک جملهی بدون معنی هم ممکن است. در حقیقت، محتوا جزئی از جمله نیست، همانگونه که خرگوش شکاری نمیتواند جزئی از تفنگ باشد. بنابراین، محتوای هر رمانی شامل محتوای جملات سازندهی آن و هر جملهای جزء بسیار کوچکی از محتوای کلی رمان است.

ماهیت معنی را با اطمینان کامل نمیتوان شناخت، چون مشخص نیست. هرگاه گفتوگویی در جامعهی انسانی انجام میشود، دو عامل مورد توجه است: یکی علائم زبانی و دیگری واقعیتی که علائم به آن اشاره دارند. بنابراین، وقتی گفتوگویی انجام میگیرد، میباید به دو پدیدهی علائم و موضوع مورد اشارهی آن توجه داشت. ولی معنی، یک وسیلهی فرضی برای توضیح هر چیزی است و تا زمانیکه آنرا بهطور مفید و ساده اعمال کند، با ارزش است. البته معنی میتواند فرضی باشد، ولی واقعیت هم دارد. نه تنها در نظریهها وجود دارد، بلکه یک حقیقت است. در نهایت باید قبول کرد که رابطهی بین زبان و تفکر، رابطهی بین معنی و مفهوم را نشان میدهد، چون زبان وسیلهی ارتباط انسان است و این عمل از طریق تفکر انجام میگیرد.

بنابراین، ارتباط بین زبان و تفکر مسئلهای ابتدایی و مکانیکی نیست، چون هر کدام ساختار مخصوص بهخود را دارند. البته باید قبول کنیم که زبان فقط در ذهن گوینده یا استفاده کننده از زبان وجود ندارد، بلکه به محیط خارج نیز بستگی دارد. دانش زبانی ذهنی هر گویشگری فقط انعکاس نظری زبان عینی است. از اینرو، دانش زبانی یک چیز و زبان چیز دیگری است. و دانش معنایی نباید با خود معنی اشتباه شود. اگر زبان را عینی بدانیم، معنی هم چنین است.

البته علاوه بر آنچه دربارهی زبان گفته شد، باید قبول کرد که انسانها غیر از افکار، احساس هم دارند. بنابراین با استفاده از زبان، احساسات و عواطف نیز بیان میشوند و انتقال مییابند. به عبارت دیگر، معنی کلمات دارای نیروی احساسی است. احساسات هماهنگ افکار جزئی از زبان هستند و زبان همانند افکار میتواند احساسات را هم بیان کند. همهی این موارد پیچیدگی و عظمت زبان را نشان میدهند. در یادگیری زبان باید به تمام این موارد و از جمله محتوا و معنی توجه داشت تا درک صحیح از زبان ممکن شود و مردم بتوانند به بهترین وجه با هم ارتباط برقرار کنند. از سو تفاهم و تعبیرهای غلط برحذر باشند و امکان زندگی مسالمتآمیز و همراه با آرامش را دنبال کنند.

همهی این نکات اهمیت آموزش و یادگیری درست زبان را خاطرنشان میسازند و وظیفهی سنگینی را بر دوش معلمان زبان میگذارند. آنها باید مسئولیت تدریس خود را به بهترین و صحیحترین شیوه انجام دهند تا نه تنها نسلِ فعلی، بلکه نسلهای آینده نیز دور از تشنج و اضطراب زبان را یاد بگیرند و در همهی زمینهها، به موفقیت و پیشرفت لازم برسند و به گذشتگان خود درود فرستند.

Ahmad Mohseni, Ph. D
Ahmad Mohseny@yahoo.com
Islamic Azad University, South
Tehran Branch

یادگیری و تدریس زبان از طریق روش ارتباطی

Abstract

Communicative language teaching was suggested to the field of methodology in the 1970's. Today, there is a great emphasis on this Method in most of the universities and institutions all over the world trying to create a real conditions to teach a foreign or second language. In this Method, students are directly involved in using the languages in and outside the classroom. In both cases, students become familiar with the real functions of a language.

The special performances can be promising, inviting, prediction, discussion and conversation about the current matters, etc...

Key Words: communicative method, the real condition, target language, nataive speakers, promising, prediction.

چکیده

شیوه‌ی یادگیری و تدریس زبان به روش ارتباطی که در دهه‌ی ۱۹۷۰ در دنیا مطرح شد، امروزه در بسیاری از مؤسسات و دانشگاه‌های جهان مورد تأکید است. این روش تلاشی است برای فراهم آوردن محیط واقعی آموزش زبان در کشورهایی که آن زبان با عنوان زبان خارجی تدریس می‌شود، و یا در کشورهایی که آن زبان به عنوان زبان دوم مطرح است و زبان‌آموزان مستقیماً در خارج از کلاس نیز در محیط واقعی آن زبان قرار می‌گیرند. در هردو حالت، زبان‌آموزان با فعالیت‌های اصلی گویشوران آشنا می‌شوند. فعالیت‌های خاص در این روش آموزش زبان عبارت‌اند از اجرای اعمالی چون: قول دادن، دعوت به عمل آوردن، پیش‌بینی کردن، بحث و گفت‌وگو درباره‌ی مسائل روز و...

کلیدواژه‌ها: روش ارتباطی، محیط واقعی، زبان مقصد، گویشوران اصلی، قول دادن، پیش‌بینی کردن

شیوه‌ی یادگیری زبان از طریق دستور و ترجمه، سالیان متمادی در نقاط گوناگون دنیا توجه بیشتری به خواندن و نوشتن داشته است. پس از جنگ دوم جهانی که باعث تحولات زیادی در سراسر گیتی شد، به‌ویژه در قلمرو آموزش و یادگیری زبان خارجی نیز تحولات چشم‌گیری رخ داد و روش‌های آموزش زبان مانند: روش مستقیم به شنیداری- گفتاری و غیره، یکی پس از دیگری ابداع شدند و در بسیاری از مؤسسات و دانشکده‌های زبان مورد بهره‌برداری قرار گرفتند.

در دهه‌ی ۱۹۷۰، بسیاری از متخصصان تعلیم و تربیت این پرسش را مطرح می‌کردند که: «آیا روش‌های آموزش زبان اهداف درستی را دنبال می‌کنند یا نه؟» بسیاری به این نتیجه رسیدند که زبان‌آموزان به هنگام تدریس و یادگیری، می‌توانستند جملات صحیحی را به زبان مقصد بیان کنند، ولی همان زبان‌آموزان هنگامی که در شرایط یا محیط واقعی قرار می‌گرفتند، قادر به ادای جمله و ایجاد ارتباط نبودند. بعضی دیگر از متخصصان زبان‌آموزی نیز اظهار می‌کردند که توانایی ایجاد ارتباط به چیزهایی نیاز دارد که بیش از تسلط بر ساختارهای زبان‌شناسی اهمیت دارند. زبان‌آموزان ممکن است که قواعد زبانی را بدانند، ولی توانایی به‌کارگیری آن‌ها را نداشته باشند [Widdowson, 1978].

به تدریج مشخص شد زبان‌آموزان در برقراری ارتباط به عملکردهایی مانند: قول دادن، پیش‌بینی کردن، دعوت کردن و یا رد دعوت در محدوده‌ی یک بافت اجتماعی نیاز دارند [Wilkins, 1976]. خلاصه این که، «قابلیت ارتباطی»[1] فراتر از «قابلیت زبانی»[2] است. در قابلیت ارتباطی، زبان‌آموز باید بداند که چه موقع، کجا، با چه کسی و چگونه ارتباط برقرار کند.

در اواخر دهه‌ی ۱۹۷۰، دگرگونی در آموزش زبان، از تمرکز ساختارگرایانه به شیوه‌ی ارتباطی تبدیل شد. در روش آموزش ارتباطی زبان، قابلیت ارتباطی را هدف آموزش می‌دانند و وابستگی بین زبان و ارتباط را مورد تأیید قرار می‌دهند. این ارتباط می‌تواند به شیوه‌ی مستقیم و یا غیرمستقیم باشد.

روش آموزش ارتباطی زبان که در اواخر دهه‌ی ۱۹۷۰ و اوایل دهه‌ی ۱۹۸۰ مورد توجه جدی قرار گرفت، بسیاری از تئوری‌های دیگر آموزش زبان را که تا آن زمان معمول بودند، تحت‌الشعاع خود قرار داد. یکی از شیوه‌هایی که این روش به آن تکیه می‌کند، عبارت از این است که زبان‌آموزان یا باید به‌طور مستقیم در محیط حقیقی قرار بگیرند و یا تلاش شود تا محیط واقعی زبان مورد آموزش به‌طور غیرمستقیم برای آنان فراهم آید. مطالب درسی که در کلاس مورد استفاده قرار می‌گیرند، همه باید «مطالب واقعی»[3] و برگرفته از وسایل ارتباط‌جمعی و به‌روز باشند.

در این روش، برنامه‌ی درسی هرگز به‌صورت سنتی و خطی[4] تنظیم

نمی‌شود، بلکه معلم زبان مطالب روز را از روزنامه‌ها استخراج می‌کند و پس از تنظیم آن‌ها در جزوه‌ای، به زبان‌آموزان خود در کلاس می‌دهد. برای مثال، بخشی از ستون ورزشی روزنامه را معرفی می‌کند و به زبان‌آموزان می‌گوید که «پیش‌بینی‌ها»ی[5] گزارشگر را مشخص کنند و بگویند که در کدام‌یک از آن‌ها گزارشگر با اطمینان بیشتری کار کرده است و در کدام‌یک کمتر. در این بخش، زبان‌آموزان تلاش می‌کنند تا قصد و نظر گوینده و یا نویسنده را حدس بزنند و قدرت ارتباطی خود را تقویت کنند.

در این کلاس، «زبان مقصد»[6] وسیله‌ی ارتباطی است و نه صرفاً عامل مطالعه. زبان‌آموزان می‌کوشند پیش‌بینی‌های گزارشگر را با کلمات متفاوت خودشان بیان کنند. زیرا هر عملکردی را می‌توان به شکل‌های گوناگون زبان‌شناسی بیان کرد. زبان‌آموزان با زبان گفتمانی و فراجمله‌ای سروکار دارند. آن‌ها باید چگونگی انسجام و پیوستگی جملات را تشخیص دهند، زیرا یکی از ویژگی‌های زبانی نحوه‌ی پیوند جملات به یکدیگر است.

در آموزش هر زبانی، اجرای بازی‌های گوناگون بسیار مهم است. زیرا بازی‌ها مشخصه‌های یکسانی در رخدادهای ارتباطی پیدا می‌کنند. در برقراری ارتباط همواره هدفی نهفته است. هم‌چنین، گوینده یک «بازخورد»[7] فوری از شنونده دریافت می‌کند مبنی بر این که: آیا به‌طور موفقیت‌آمیزی ارتباط برقرار کرده است یا خیر. بدین‌صورت، آن‌ها معنی را مورد مذاکره قرار می‌دهند و سرانجام، با واداشتن زبان‌آموزان به کار در گروه‌های کوچک، مقدار تمرین ارتباطی آنان را به حداکثر می‌رسانند [Mirhassani & Ghaemi, 2007]. از زبان‌آموز چگونگی احساسش را نسبت به پیش‌بینی‌ها می‌پرسند، زیرا او باید برای بیان عقاید و نظریات خود فرصت کافی داشته باشد.

اگر زبان‌آموزی اشتباهی مرتکب شود، معلم زبان و سایر زبان‌آموزان آن را نادیده می‌انگارند. اشتباهات زبانی زبان‌آموزان به‌عنوان پیامد طبیعی مهارت‌های ارتباطی تلقی می‌شوند و قابل تحمل هستند. از آن‌جا که این‌گونه فعالیت‌های زبان‌آموزی بر روان و سلیس بودن گویش‌ها تأکید دارد، معلم زبان خطاها را تصحیح نمی‌کند و این کار را به مراحل بعدی آموزش می‌سپارد.

کلاس به چند گروه کوچک تقسیم می‌شود. معلم زبان به هر یک از گروه‌ها داستانی تصویری و کاری برای اجرا ارائه می‌دهد تا با ایجاد شرایط محیطی زبان، احتمالاً قدرت ارتباط زبان‌آموزان را بالا ببرد. زبان‌آموزان با همکاری یکدیگر می‌کوشند، تصویر بعدی در داستان تصویری را حدس بزنند. انتخاب چنین فعالیت‌هایی مبتنی بر آن است که «تعامل ارتباطی»[8] باعث تشویق به همیاری و تعاون میان زبان‌آموزان می‌شود و فرصتی به آن‌ها می‌دهد تا به مذاکره درباره‌ی معانی و مفاهیم زبانی بپردازند.

در فعالیتی دیگر مشاهده می‌شود که معلم زبان زبان‌آموزان را وا می‌دارد نقش بازی کنند. برای مثال، تصور کنند که همگی کارمندان یک شرکت هستند و یکی از آن‌ها رییس شرکت است و دیگران هنگامی که خطاب به او صحبت می‌کنند، باید به این موضوع کاملاً توجه داشته باشند. این‌گونه

بازی‌ها در کلاس براساس این واقعیت انجام می‌شوند که بافت اجتماعی حوادث ارتباطی، در معنا بخشیدن به گویش‌ها بسیار لازم و ضروری است و به زبان‌آموزان کمک می‌کند، ساختارهای زبانی را به‌درستی فراگیرند و به‌کار برند.

یکی دیگر از بخش‌های مهم در فراگیری زبان و سعی در به‌دست آوردن تسلط کافی بر آن، بهره‌گیری از توانمندی ارتباطی زبان است. معلم گروه‌های کوچک کلاس خود را زیر نظر می‌گیرد و توصیه‌های لازم را به آن‌ها می‌دهد و یا احیاناً، به سؤال‌های ایشان پاسخ می‌گوید. درحقیقت وی در فعالیت‌های ارتباطی به‌عنوان هماهنگ‌کننده عمل می‌کند و نقش مشاور را نیز برعهده دارد. در برقراری هر ارتباطی، گوینده گزینه‌ای را در نظر دارد. نه‌تنها لازم است بداند، چه باید بگوید، بلکه چگونگی بیان آن را نیز باید بداند.

پس از آن که بازی‌های متفاوت در نقش‌های گوناگون به پایان می‌رسند، زبان‌آموزان واژگان مربوط به این گفت‌وگوها را نیز مشخص می‌کنند. در آخر هر جلسه‌ی آموزشی، معلم به ایشان توصیه می‌کند، در اوقات‌فراغت خود در منزل به بحث‌ها و برنامه‌های رادیویی و تلویزیونی گوش دهند تا فرصتی باشد برای درک مفاهیم و عناصر زبانی در شرایط ارتباطی و حقیقی آن.[9]

ابزارها و وسایلی را که در روش یادگیری و تدریس ارتباطی زبان به‌کار گرفته می‌شوند، می‌توان به قرار زیر برشمرد [Littlewood, [1981].

۱. مطالب معتبر و موثق

طرفداران این روش، به‌منظور فائق آمدن بر ناتوانی زبان‌آموزان در

انتقال آن چه که در کلاس درس فراگرفته‌اند، به خارج از کلاس، و به‌منظور در معرض محیط زبانی قرار دادن زبان‌آموزان در شرایط گوناگون، به‌کارگیری مطالب معتبر، موثق و یا اصلی در هر زبان مورد آموزش (زبان هدف) را توصیه می‌کنند [Widdowson, 1998]. برای مثال، ما معلمان از مقالات روزنامه‌های به‌روز بهره می‌گیرند و یا زبان‌آموزان را به گوش دادن و یا تماشای برنامه‌های زنده‌ی رادیو و تلویزیون تشویق می‌کنند [Johnson and Morrow, [1981].

۲. جملات به‌هم ریخته[10]

به زبان‌آموزان متنی را ارائه می‌دهند که جملات آن به‌هم ریخته است و آن‌ها با توجه به پیوستگی و انسجام عناصر زبانی که در اثر تمرینات گوناگون و ممارست در آن‌ها فراگرفته‌اند، می‌کوشند جملات آن متن را مرتب و منظم کنند. گاهی اوقات به‌جای متن می‌توان از یک مکالمه استفاده کرد و یا از آن‌ها خواست، تصاویر یک داستان تصویری را مرتب کنند [Lee and Patten, 1995].

۳. بازی‌های مربوط به زبان

در این روش، انواع بازی‌های مربوط به یادگیری زبان مورد بهره‌برداری قرار می‌گیرند. زبان‌آموزان بیشتر از بازی لذت می‌برند و اگر بازی‌ها به‌درستی طراحی شده باشند، تمرین‌های ارتباطی بسیار ارزشمندی ارائه می‌دهند [Hymes, 1971].

٤. داستان‌های تصویری

بسیاری از فعالیت‌های آموزشی با داستان‌های تصویری و حتی فکاهی قابل اجرا هستند. همان‌گونه که در بخش جملات به‌هم‌ریخته مثال‌هایی از این قبیل داستان‌ها ارائه شد، زبان‌آموزان را به گروه‌های سه، چهار، و یا پنج نفری تقسیم می‌کنند و به یکی از آن‌ها در هر گروه، بخشی از یک داستان تصویری را می‌دهند. او آن را به سایر اعضای گروه خود نشان می‌دهد و از آن‌ها با مطرح کردن پرسشی می‌خواهد، تصویر بعدی را حدس بزنند. با وجود فقدان اطلاعات، زبان‌آموزان نمی‌توانند محتوای تصویر را پیش‌بینی کنند و با داشتن گزینه‌ی پیش‌بینی و چگونگی بیان کلامی آن، و یا بازخورد آن با مشاهده‌ی تصویر و مقایسه‌ی آن با پیش‌بینی خود، مفهوم را نه در شکل بلکه در محتوا دریافت می‌کنند [Wilkins, 1976].

فعالیتی که توصیف شد، مثالی است برای استفاده از روش «حل مسئله» تحت عنوان تکنیک ارتباطی. روش حل مسئله کاربرد بسیار خوبی در تدریس زبان به روش ارتباطی دارد. این‌گونه فعالیت‌ها طوری سازمان‌دهی می‌شوند که زبان‌آموزان با تقسیم اطلاعات و با همکاری یکدیگر، به راه‌حل می‌رسند. تمرینی است برای فعالیت‌هایی چون بحث و مذاکره‌ی معنایی.[11]

٥. نقش بازی کردن[12]

ما همواره با نقش بازی کردن به‌عنوان یک تکنیک مواجه هستیم. نقش بازی کردن در تدریس زبان به شیوه‌ی ارتباطی، بسیار اهمیت دارد. زیرا به زبان‌آموزان فرصت می‌دهد، در بافت‌ها و نقش‌های گوناگون اجتماعی تمرین کنند. نقش بازی کردن را هم می‌توان به‌صورت بسیار سازمان‌یافته و ساختاری تنظیم کرد (برای مثال، معلم به زبان‌آموزان می‌گوید که آن‌ها چه کسی هستند و یا چه باید بگویند) و هم به‌صورت کمتر سازمان یافته و غیرساختاری.(برای مثال، معلم به زبان‌آموزان می‌گوید که چه کسی هستند یا شرایط چیست و درباره‌ی چه چیزی صحبت کنند. اما زبان‌آموزان خود تصمیم می‌گیرند که چه بگویند.)

مثال دوم با روش تدریس به شیوه‌ی ارتباطی تناسب بیشتری دارد. زیرا به زبان‌آموزان گزینه‌های بیشتری ارائه می‌دهد. توجه داشته باشید، نقش بازی کردن باعث پرکردن فقدان اطلاعاتی زبان‌آموزان می‌شود، از آن‌جا که زبان‌آموزان اطمینان ندارند، فرد و یا افراد مقابل آن‌ها چه می‌گویند، باعث تمرین شکل‌های گوناگون اطلاعاتی آن‌ها می‌شود. به‌علاوه، آن‌ها بازخوردی را دریافت می‌کنند که بیانگر برقراری ارتباط آن‌ها به‌طور مؤثر یا غیرمؤثر است [Larsen-Freeman, 2003].

نتیجه‌گیری و ابعاد کاربردی روش ارتباطی

روش ارتباطی آموزش زبان بر مهارت‌های شنیداری[13] و گفتاری[14] تأکید بیشتری دارد؛ مهارت‌هایی که در روش‌های کنونی تدریس زبان در دوره‌های راهنمایی و دبیرستان‌های ما یا به کلی فراموش شده‌اند و یا بسیار کم و گذرا به آن‌ها پرداخته می‌شود. در این روش، زبان‌آموزان از طریق به‌کارگیری عناصر زبانی، زبان را یاد می‌گیرند. به‌عبارت دیگر، آنان می‌آموزند که چه موقع دانش زبانی خود را در ارتباطات روزمره به‌کار گیرند. ولی در شیوه‌ی یادگیری زبان از طریق دستور ترجمه، عناصر متداول زبان[15] را یاد می‌گیرند و نه به‌کارگیری صحیح آن‌ها را.[16]

منظور از عناصر متداول زبانی، دقت بر گویش‌های زبان و تأکید بر آن‌هاست و به جنبه‌های زبان‌شناسی مربوط می‌شود. درحالی‌که به‌کارگیری عناصر به انطباق‌پذیری آن‌چه که زبان‌آموز می‌گوید، ربط دارد. عناصر زبانی به جامعه‌شناسی زبان مربوط هستند. عناصر متداول زبانی عبارت‌اند از آن‌چه که می‌باید بیان یا گفته شود. درحالی‌که به‌کارگیری یا کاربرد عناصر زبانی به چگونگی بیان در روش ارتباطی و تلاش برای توسعه و گسترش عناصر متداول زبانی محدود نیست، بلکه زبان‌آموزان باید به‌کارگیری آن عناصر را نیز به‌خوبی بیاموزند [Widdowson, 1998].

اهداف روش ارتباطی آموزش زبان مبتنی بر تجزیه و تحلیل نیازها هستند. نیازها می‌توانند بر مبنای آن چیزی باشند که زبان‌آموز می‌خواهد و شرایطی را ایجاد کنند که در به‌کارگیری عناصر زبانی مورد نیاز اوست [Savington, 1997].

هدف دیگر این روش، کمک به زبان آموزان برای به‌کارگیری زبان به‌عنوان ابزار بیانی است. زبان‌آموزان باید قادر باشند، زبان را به‌عنوان ابزاری در جهت بیان ارزش‌ها و نقطه نظرات خود به‌کار گیرند. در این روش، تدریس صرف گرامر مدنظر نیست، بلکه توسعه‌ی گسترش «قابلیت زبان‌آموزان در زبان‌شناسی، جامعه‌شناسی، فنون تدابیر زبانی و گفتمان است [Yalden, 1987].

در کلاس‌هایی که به «روش دستور ترجمه»[17] اداره می‌شوند، معلم به‌صورت یک‌طرفه عمل می‌کند و زبان‌آموزان «غیرفعال»[18] خواهند بود. در کلاس‌هایی که از «روش گفتاری و شنیداری»[19] بهره‌مند هستند، معلم به مدل‌سازی عناصر زبانی می‌پردازد و زبان‌آموزان طوطی‌وار مطالب او را تکرار می‌کنند. اما در روش ارتباطی، معلم عضوی از اعضای کلاس، مشاور و مدیر محسوب می‌شود و زبان‌آموزان با او وارد مشورت و مذاکره می‌شوند و فعالانه به گفتمان و ایجاد ارتباط می‌پردازند [Richards and Rodgers,2001].

منابع

Hymes, Dell (1971). 'Competence and
Performance in Linguistic Theory' in R. Huxley
and E. Ingram (eds.). *Language Acquisition:*
Models and Methods. London: Academic Press.
Johnson, Keith and Keith Morrow (eds.)
(1981). *Communication in the Classroom.* Essex:
Longman
Larsen-Freeman, Dian (2003). Techniques and
Principles in Language Teaching. uK: Oxford
University Press.
Lee, James F. and Bill Van Patten (1995).
Making *Communicative Language*
Teaching Happen. New York: McGraw–Hill.
Littlewood, William (1981). Communicative
Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge
University Press.
Mirhassani & Ghaemi. (2007). *Teaching*
Language Theories, Approaches, Methods
and Skills. Tehran: Kasa Kavosh.
Richards, J., & Rodgers, T. (2001). *Approaches*
and Methods in language Teaching. (2nd ed.).
Cambredge: Cambridge University Press.
Savington, Sandra (1997). *Communicative*
Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice.
(2nd edn.). New York: McGraw–Hill.
Widdowson, H.G. (1978). *Teaching Language as*
Communicative. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

زیرنویس

1. Communicative Competence
2. Linguistic Competence
3. Authentic Materials
4. Traditional and Linear Syllabus
5. Predictions
6. Target Language
7. Feedback
8. Communicative Interaction
9. Authentic Communication
10. Scrambled Sentences
11. Negotiate meaning
12. Role play
13. Listening
14. Speaking
15. Language uage
16. Language use
17. Grammar translation method
18. Passive
19. Audio–lingual method

Widdowson, H.G. (1998). 'Context
Community: and Authentic Language.'
TESOL Quarterly 32/4:705–15
Wilkins, David A (1976). Nationalsyllabuse,
Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Yalden,Janice(1987). *The Communicative*
Syllabus. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

ایده‌ها،
تجربیات و پیشنهادات
دبیران زبان انگلیسی

هیأت تحریریه رشد

مجله‌ی «رشد آموزش زبان»، به منظور ایجاد فضای مناسب برای تبادل تجربیات، ایده‌ها و افکار، و ارائه‌ی پیشنهادات دبیران و مدرسان محترم، از شماره‌ی قبل صفحه‌ای را در بخش «رشد و معلم» به این منظور اختصاص داده است. در این شماره مطلبی داریم از آقای فرج طاهری، دبیر زبان انگلیسی شهرستان میانه تحت عنوان «مشکلات طراحی جدول در زبان انگلیسی». وی به همراه این مطلب نمونه‌ای از یک جدول کلمات متقاطع را نیز که خود طراحی و تنظیم کرده، ارسال داشته است.

«رشد آموزش زبان»، ضمن تشکر از آقای طاهری، بخش‌هایی از نوشته‌ی او را انتخاب و درج کرده است.

وی در مقدمه‌ای کوتاه، به تأثیر حل جدول کلمات متقاطع در افزایش سطح دانش عمومی و دایره‌ی لغات پرداخته است و می‌نویسد: «طراحی جدول با ابعاد و اشکال گوناگون به زبان فارسی، برای اهل فن کاری لذت‌بخش و کم دردسر است، اما این مقوله در زبان انگلیسی مشکلات و پیچیدگی‌های خاصی دارد.»

وی در چنین ادامه می‌دهد که در زبان فارسی، حروف الفبا به همراه شش علامت صداساز و یک ساکن، وظیفه‌ی کلمه‌سازی را برعهده دارند. از شش علامت ذکر شده، سه مورد که صداهای بلند هستند، با حروف املایی خودشان نشان داده می‌شوند. اما سه مورد دیگر که دارای صداهای کوتاه هستند، صورت املایی ندارند. برای نمونه در یک جدول فارسی، هرگاه در یک ستون افقی واژه «بد» bad بیاید، در قسمت عمودی همان حرف «ب» می‌تواند با صدای دیگر و یا کلمات از قبیل «به» beh و یا «بُن» bon مورد استفاده قرار گیرد و این موضوع کمک

زیادی به طراحی جدول در فرایند واژه‌یابی و تنظیم آن‌ها در خانه‌های سفید می‌کنند.

در ادامه‌ی بحث، ایشان به این نکته اشاره می‌کند که در زبان انگلیسی حروف صدادار، یعنی [a-e-i-o-u[y، قبل یا بعد از حروف صامت می‌آیند. در برخی واژه‌ها، دو حرف صدادار پشت سرهم صدایی متفاوت تولید می‌کنند و تعدد حروف صدادار در املای کلمات انگلیسی، طراحی جدول را به زبان انگلیسی با مشکلات زیادی مواجه می‌کند. در جدول فارسی، طراح بیشتر با صامت‌ها درگیر است، اما در جدول انگلیسی مصوت‌ها در انتخاب واژه‌ها بیشتر سهیم هستند. این تفاوت معلم را به عنوان طراح جدول انگلیسی چنان در تنگنا قرار می‌دهد که او به ناچار، یا ابعاد جدول را محدودتر می‌کند یا برای مثال در یک جدول ۱۵×۱۵ بیش از اندازه از کلمات ناقص یا به صورت املایی درهم ریخته، استفاده می‌کند.

در جای دیگری از مطلب، وی بیان می‌دارد که نقش مصوت‌ها در املای کلمات انگلیسی موجب می‌شود تا گردآوری و انتخاب واژه‌های دلخواه در یک جدول، به وقت و حوصله‌ی بیشتری نیاز داشته باشد. همین وقت‌گیر بودن طراحی جدول به دلیل دشواری‌های موجود سبب می‌شود، معلمان اشتیاق و یا علاقه برای طراحی و تنظیم آن را از دست بدهند.

ایشان در پایان، یک جدول کلمات متقاطع را با بهره‌گیری از لغت‌نامه‌های 'Oxford' و 'Webster' طراحی کرده است که در شماره‌ی آینده در بخش English Through Fun چاپ خواهد شد.

معلم حرفه ای، روزمرگی یا عمل

سال‌ها و روزهای تدریس برای هر معلمی سرشار از خاطره و احتمالاً درس‌هایی است که پایه‌های فعالیت‌های بعدی او را پی می‌ریزند. تسلط دبیران در کار و آن‌چه از دانشگاه و مراکز علمی آموخته‌اند، خلاقیت و درک صحیح از این‌که چرا معلم شده‌اند و ..... مواردی هستند که در آینده‌ی شغلی و حرفه‌ای آنان و هم‌چنین در آینده‌ی دانش‌آموزان تأثیر بسزایی دارد.

بنده به عنوان معلم معتقدم، معلمی تنها شغلی است که در آن گذران ماه‌ها و سال‌ها، به جای ردپای واقعی پیری، انرژی و نشاط درونی و شادابی قلبی به ارمغان می‌آورد.

سرکار خانم فرح مرشلی، دبیر زبان انگلیسی در شهر شیراز است. ۲۶ سال سابقه‌ی تدریس در آموزش‌وپرورش دارد. «در کانون زبان ایران» و در دانشگاه نیز تدریس کرده است. در عین حال، تمام دروس تخصصی رشته‌ی کارشناسی زبان انگلیسی را که قبلاً در دوره‌های آموزش ضمن خدمت ارائه می‌شدند، تدریس کرده است. حدود هشت سال سرگروه آموزش زبان انگلیسی استان بوده و با توجه به حساسیت ویژه‌ای که نسبت به ارتقای سطح دانش دبیران داشته است، برای آنان جشنواره‌ی استانی تدریس، مسابقه‌ی کتاب‌خوانی، امتحان تافل و امتحان IELTS برگزار کرده است. برای ارتقای سطح علمی دانش‌آموزان نیز مسابقات مقاله‌نویسی و المپیاد زبان انگلیسی تدارک می‌دیده است.

● آیا مجله‌ی رشد آموزش زبان را دریافت می‌کنید؟

تقریباً تمام شماره‌های آن را دریافت کرده و خوانده‌ام.

● کدام قسمت مجله برای شما جالب‌تر است؟ آیا تاکنون از

مطالب آن در کلاس استفاده کرده‌اید؟

تمام مقالات را مطالعه می‌کنم. مقالاتی که در مورد روش تدریس نوشته شده‌اند، بسیار مفیدند. بعضی از فعالیت‌های معرفی شده هم برای ارائه در کلاس کارایی زیادی دارند.

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

اگر معلمان در مقالاتی تحت عنوان «یک تجربه»، تجربه‌های ارزنده‌ی خود را بنویسند و ارسال کنند تا در مجله چاپ شود، بسیار مفید خواهد بود. پیشنهاد می‌کنم، مقالات بیشتری در مورد دانش تدریس درج شوند.

● با توجه به تجربه و سوابق خود، فکری کنید معلمان به چه نوع مطالبی نیاز دارند؟

به نظر بنده، معلمان از یافته‌های جدید و مقالاتی در مورد اصول کاربردی در کلاس‌داری، تدریس، نحوه‌ی برخورد با دانش‌آموزان بسیار استقبال می‌کنند. معرفی سایت‌های مربوط به آموزش زبان سودمند است.

● آیا تا به حال به مقاله‌ای در زمینه‌ی یادگیری و تدریس زبان نوشته‌اید؟ اگر بله، در کدام مجله چاپ شده است؟

مقاله‌ای در مورد استفاده از رایانه در آموزش زبان نوشته‌ام. ضمناً دو کتاب در مورد اصول عملی تدریس و مهارت‌های ضروری تدریس ترجمه کرده‌ام که به زودی چاپ می‌شوند.

● به نظر شما، از چه راه و یا راه‌هایی می‌توان دبیران را به مطالعه و تحقیق ترغیب کرد؟

به نظر بنده بهتر است، دوره‌های غیرحضوری عمومی و تخصصی

آشنایی با مجله های رشد

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

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

• رشد کودک   (برای دانش آموزان آمادگی و پایه ی اول دوره ی ابتدایی)

• رشد نوآموز   (برای دانش آموزان پایه های دوم و سوم دوره ی ابتدایی)

• رشد دانش آموز   (برای دانش آموزان پایه های چهارم و پنجم دوره ی ابتدایی)

• رشد نوجوان   (برای دانش آموزان دوره ی راهنمایی تحصیلی)

• رشد جوان   (برای دانش آموزان دوره ی متوسطه)

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

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

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

رشد برهان راهنمایی (مجله ریاضی برای دانش آموزان دوره ی راهنمایی تحصیلی)، رشد برهان متوسطه (مجله ریاضی برای دانش آموزان دوره ی متوسطه)، رشد آموزش قرآن، رشد آموزش معارف اسلامی، رشد آموزش زبان و ادب فارسی، رشد آموزش هنر، رشد مشاور مدرسه، رشد آموزش تربیت بدنی، رشد آموزش علوم اجتماعی، رشد آموزش تاریخ، رشد آموزش جغرافیا، رشد آموزش زبان، رشد آموزش ریاضی، رشد آموزش فیزیک، رشد آموزش شیمی، رشد آموزش زیست شناسی، رشد آموزش زمین شناسی، رشد آموزش فنی و حرفه ای

مجلات رشد عمومی و تخصصی برای آموزگاران، معلمان، مدیران و کادر اجرایی مدارس، دانشجویان مراکز تربیت معلم و رشته های دبیری دانشگاه‌ها و کارشناسان تعلیم و تربیت تهیه و منتشر می‌شوند.
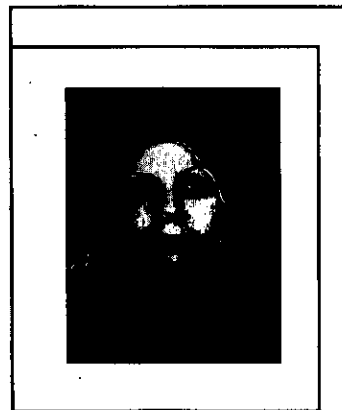
آموزش ضمن خدمت را افزایش دهیم. این تمرین‌ها به عادت مبدل می‌شوند. یک ضرب‌المثل چینی می‌گوید: «تمرین بکار، عادت درو کن»

یکی از منابعی که از آن می‌توان در کلاس‌های بازآموزی استفاده کرد، مجله‌ی رشد آموزش زبان است. این مجله با بهره‌گیری از استادان بهنام می‌تواند، با طراحی کارگاه‌های آموزشی و معرفی آن‌ها به دست اندرکاران، گامی مؤثر در این زمینه بردارد.

از سرکار خانم مرشلی از این که در این گفت‌وگو شرکت کردند و نظرات و پیشنهادات خود را ارائه دادند، بسیار سپاس گزاریم.

شرایط:

۱. واریز مبلغ ۳۰/۰۰۰ ریال به ازای هر عنوان مجله درخواستی، به صورت علی‌الحساب به حساب شماره‌ی ۳۹۶۶۲۰۰۰ بانک تجارت شعبه سه راه آزمایش (سرخه حصار) کد ۳۹۵ در وجه شرکت افست

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

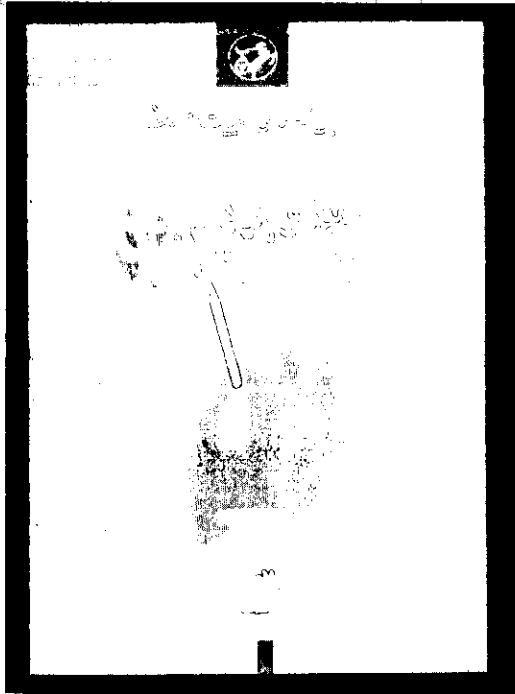• **نام مجله :** ....

• **نام و نام خانوادگی :** ....

• **تاریخ تولد :** ....

• **میزان تحصیلات :** ....

• **تلفن :** ....

• **نشانی کامل پستی :**

استان : .... شهرستان : ....

خیابان : ....

پلاک : .... کدپستی : ....

• **مبلغ واریز شده :** ....

• **شماره و تاریخ رسید بانکی :** ....

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

امضا :

یادآوری :

• هزینه برگشت مجله در صورت خوانا و کامل نبودن نشانی، بر عهده مشترک است.

• مبنای شروع اشتراک مجله از زمان وصول برگ اشتراک می‌باشد.

• برای هر عنوان مجله برگ اشتراک جداگانه تکمیل و ارسال کنید (تصویر برگ اشتراک نیز مورد قبول است)

زبان به‌عنوان یکی از ضروری‌ترین، پیچیده‌ترین و درعین‌حال بدیهی‌ترین ابزار ارتباطی انسان با محیط پیرامون خویش، نقش اساسی اما پارادکس در روابط انسانی دارد، زیرا از یک‌طرف ساده‌ترین عامل و از طرفی دیگر مشکل‌ترین مانع تعامل بین انسان‌هاست. از همین‌روست که متخصصان آموزشی (مجازی) زبان تلاش می‌کنند اصولی‌ترین و سریع‌ترین راه ممکن را برای تسلط به زبان‌های خارجی ابداع کنند. تا همین اواخر تنها بستر عمده‌ی آموزش زبان، بستر فیزیکی با آموزش متعارف و سنتی بود. با گسترش اینترنت و پیدایش محیط چهارم، استفاده از فناوری ارتباطات و اطلاعات (فاوا) در حوزه‌ی تحقیقات زبان‌آموزی و زبان‌شناسی کامپیوتر قرار گرفت. کتاب حاضر کوشیده است ضمن بررسی مؤلفه‌ها و پارامترهای بستر مجازی، شیوه‌های متعارف و متفاوت آموزش زبان را با ارائه‌ی بنیان‌های نظری یادگیری مورد مقایسه قرار دهد و چگونگی انتقال آموزش زبان به این بستر را براساس مدل‌های مجازی طرح و تحلیل کند.

4. IDIOM

Go Over Someone's Head

(Too difficult for one to understand)

-Sarah!? I've heard you have dropped your Mathematics course! Tell me, why!??

-Oh, dear! Thank's God! The first session was just beyond my understanding since whatever the instructor said **went over my head!** I said to myself I will fail this course, so I dropped it the moment I could. I think I'll take it next term with a less sophisticated professor.

QUESTION & ANSWER

The reason we chose Henry Phillipson for this issue's Close-Up is one email we received from a dear colleague who had asked about the role of English culture, or better to say Anglo-American culture, in EFL classrooms in Iran. Should English culture be incorporated into language teachers' lesson plans? What will be at stake if classrooms turn into forums for promulgating another culture? On the other hand, is it wise to discard culture altogether from language classes? These are a few questions which have haunted language teaching circles around the globe for a while. In fact, a lot of scholarly articles and books have been written by people with different takes on the issue.

WHAT DO YOU THINK?

Send us your answers (etfun@roshdmag.ir) and we'll try to include it in this section under your name and affiliation in the next edition of ETFun.

REFERENCES

Abedini, A. (2005). 101 The Best English Jokes. Tehran: Jungle Publications.

Collis, H. (1992). 101 American English Proverbs. Lincolnwood: Passport Books.

Collis, H. (1996). 101 American English Riddles. Lincolnwood: Passport Books.

Collis, H. (2004). 136 American English Idioms. Lincolnwood: Passport Books.

Microsoft Encarta Reference Library (2007). 1993-2006 Microsoft Corporation.

Finally, imperialistic ambitions are not merely limited to the English language. At various times, especially in colonial settings or where a dominant culture has sought to unify a region under its control, a similar phenomenon has arisen. In the Far East, Africa and South America, regional languages have been or are being coercively replaced or marginalized by the language of a dominant culture—Tibetan and minority Chinese dialects by Chinese, Quechua by Spanish, and so on.

BRAINTEASERS

We are honored to announce that our lucky winner this time is MR. RAMEZAN RAHMANI, an English teacher from Qazvin, who managed to solve the last edition puzzle and is thereby entitled to our free annual subscription. If you are also interested, you can send us the solution etfun@roshdmag.ir or the magazine's postal address) and try your luck.

DO THE MATH!
Once upon a time, an old lady went to sell her vast quantity of eggs at the local market. When asked how many she had, she replied: Son, I can't count past 100 but I know that.

If you divide the number of eggs by 2 there will be one egg left.
If you divide the number of eggs by 3 there will be one egg left.
If you divide the number of eggs by 4 there will be one egg left.
If you divide the number of eggs by 5 there will be one egg left.
If you divide the number of eggs by 6 there will be one egg left.
If you divide the number of eggs by 7 there will be one egg left.
If you divide the number of eggs by 8 there will be one egg left.
If you divide the number of eggs by 9 there will be one egg left.
If you divide the number of eggs by 10 there will be one egg left.
Finally, if you divide the Number of eggs by 11 there will be NO EGGS left!

How many eggs did the old lady have?

Where can you find the largest diamond in the world?

WHAT YOU NEED TO KNOW (II)

3. RIDDLE

A **diamond** is a beautiful, clear stone used in jewelry, but it is also the name of the playing field in the game of baseball. A baseball **diamond** is shaped something like the stone.

(On a baseball field!)

CLOSE UP!

ROBERT PHILLIPSON AND LINGUISTIC IMPERIALISM

ROBERT PHILLIPSON is a graduate of Cambridge and Leeds Universities, UK, and has a doctorate from the University of Amsterdam. He worked in Spain, Algeria, Yugoslavia and London before settling in Denmark. He is a Professor at Copenhagen Business School. He is the author of many books and articles on different dimensions of Linguistic Imperialism which involves the transfer of a dominant language to other peoples. The transfer is essentially a demonstration of power—traditionally, military power but also, in the modern world, economic power—and aspects of the dominant culture are usually transferred along with the language.

Phillipson critiques the historic spread of English as an international language and that language's continued dominance, particularly in postcolonial settings such as India, Pakistan, Uganda, Zimbabwe, etc., but also increasingly in "neo-colonial" settings such as continental Europe. His theory draws mainly on imperialism theory, Antonio Gramsci's social theory, and in particular on his notion of cultural hegemony.

A central theme of Phillipson's theory is the complex hegemonic processes which, he asserts, continue to sustain the pre-eminence of English in the world today. His book analyzes the British Council's use of rhetoric to promote English, and discusses key tenets of English applied linguistics and English-language-teaching methodology. These tenets hold that:

- English is best taught monolingually ("the monolingual fallacy");
- the ideal teacher is a native speaker ("the native-speaker fallacy");
- the earlier English is taught, the better the results ("the early-start fallacy");
- the more English is taught, the better the results ("the maximum-exposure fallacy");
- if other languages are used much, standards of English will drop («the subtractive fallacy").

According to Phillipson, those who promote English- organizations such as the British Council, the IMF (International Monetary Fund) and the World Bank, and individuals such as operators of English-language schools-use three types of argument:

- Intrinsic arguments describe the English language as providential, rich, noble and interesting. Such arguments tend to assert what English is and what other languages are not.
- Extrinsic arguments point out that English is well-established: that it has many speakers, and that there are trained teachers and a wealth of teaching material.
- Functional arguments emphasize the usefulness of English as a gateway to the world.

WHAT YOU NEED TO KNOW (I)

1. PROVERB

Where There's Smoke, There's Fire

- You look upset, son, what's wrong with you?
-Mom… I… I failed my Geology exam…
-Umm… I knew it. **Where there's smoke, there's fire.**
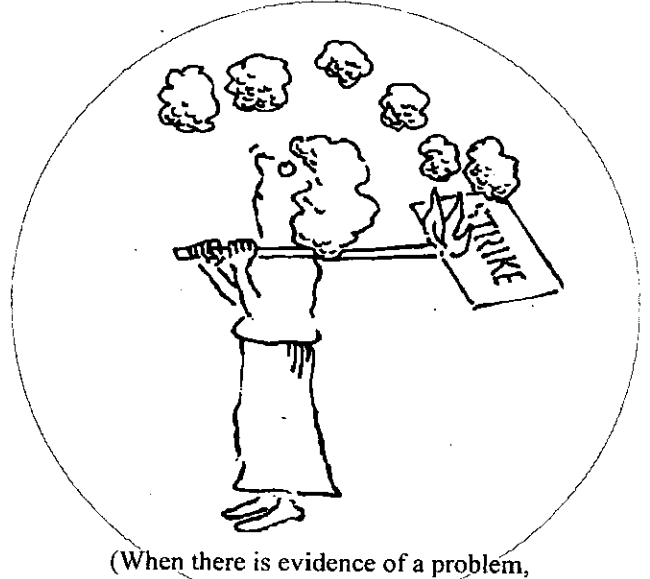
(When there is evidence of a problem, there probably is a problem)

2. JOKE

- Waiter! Waiter! There's a fly in my soup!
- Please don't speak so loudly, sir, or everyone will want one!!

4. A list of <u>objectives:</u> consisting of behavior (what the student is expected to be able <u>to do</u> upon completion of the lesson) or knowledge (what the student is expected <u>to know</u> upon completion of the lesson)
5. The <u>introductory remarks</u> (showing pictures or models, asking leading questions, or reviewing previously taught lessons)
6. The <u>instructional component</u> (the sequence of events, input, etc.)
7. The <u>summary</u> of the lesson
8. <u>Evaluation</u> (the teacher can check for mastery of the instructed skills or concepts)

To wrap up the discussion, see below for a simple sample lesson plan for lesson 7 from the second grade high school English book. Check the book and see how the aforementioned steps are followed here. Following these steps seems a bit difficult in the first glance, but don't panic! After you've prepared a couple of lesson plans, you can't help making a new one, promise! By the way, you can type/write your lesson plan on a paper and attach to the inner side of the front cover for the ease of access. Now, I'm really going to say good bye, since I have a class tomorrow and I need to type my own lesson plan: Good Bye!

Lesson Plan	
Instructor: Alireza Vasheghani Farahani	**Date:** Ordibehest 1387, Week 8
Course Title: How Are You?	**Lesson Number:** 7
Required Materials: The core book (Grade 2), flash cards, markers	**Needed Time:** 60 min.

Objective	**Behavioral:** At the end of the class, students should be able to make proper use of conditional sentences (Type B) in their sentences.
	Knowledge: At the end of the class, students should be able to realize the structure and logic behind conditional sentences (Type B) in sentences.

Introductory Remarks: Exemplify two friends, first greeting each other, and then talking about their wishes, making proper use of conditional sentences (Type B).
Instructional Components: First, warm up the class. Second, read the text. Third, use a few sample sentences to inductively teach the conditional sentences (Type B). Fourth, make sure students have understood the structure. Fifth, answer the questions about lexical problems.
Summary: (You may write down the structural rules or the summary of the lesson itself. It depends on your memory!)
Evaluation: Give students a few fill-in-the-blanks questions to answer. Then, students should make conditional sentences (Type B) using the new vocabularies list at the end of the lesson.

The Third World is not a reality but an ideology.
Hannah Arendt (1906 - 1975) German-born U.S. philosopher and historian; crises of the Republic, "On Violence"

A real diplomat is one who can cut his neighbor's throat without having his neighbor notice it.
**Attributed to Trygve Lie** (1896 - 1968)Norwegian statesman

TEACHING TIPS

LESSON PLAN

Let me tell you an unwritten rule in this very beginning: there are times of despair for every teacher in the classroom! Sometimes, we lose track of time! Sometimes, we forget the answers to the questions we ask! And yet some other times we may be wondering about what we had planned to do!! But don't worry at all! This will not make a bad teacher of you: this is quite natural; we are humans. However, this would be awfully abnormal if it happens again and again! This, consequently, makes you look a disorganized, uncaring teacher who neither respects students' future nor the responsibility to which they are assigned. You may ask, "How can I prevent such abnormality!?" I will answer, "Lesson Plan!" Now, let's see what a Lesson Plan is and how we can make best use of it.

A Lesson Plan is a *detailed description of the course of instruction for an individual lesson* at a teacher's disposal. When I say it is 'for an individual lesson' it means your lesson plan for the 4th session of your second grade English class, as an instance, is different from that of the 3rd and/or 5th sessions. In other words, every session entails its specific description. When you have prepared your lesson plan, you will prevent time loss, management problem, lack of linguistic aids, and may be more significant than these, your confidence. While there are several formats for a lesson plan, and the exact format chosen for a lesson plan will be driven by school/ institutional requirements and personal tastes of yours as the teacher, most lesson plans include some or all of these elements, typically in this order:

1. The <u>title</u> of the lesson (which helps you to take a quick look whenever you leave the picture!)
2. The amount of <u>time</u> required to complete the lesson (and, of course, necessary time to be allocated to each section of the class, e.g. warm up, reading, grammar discussion, assessment,review, etc.)
3. A list of required <u>materials</u> (to use in the proper time of your instruction to add to your teaching efficacy, such as auditory (e.g. tapes and CDs) and visual (e.g. pictures, rods) devices.
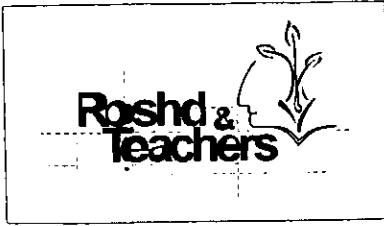
English Through Fun

B. Dadvand *(babak.dadvand@gmail.com)*
H. Azimi *(azimi.ho@gmail.com)*

Ph.D Students in Teaching English as a
Foreign Language (TEFL), Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran

AUTHORS' NOTE

Here is another issue of ETFun and here we are again. As it has become quite typical of our column, we begin the section by dropping a few lines of gratitude to all those who care enough about their profession, in this case English language teaching, and seize any opportunity to enrich their knowledge repertoire for a better practice. Hope you all keep up good work! In case you want to contact us, we are all available 24/7 at (etfun@roshdmag.ac.ir).

QUOTABLE QUOTES

* You can have brilliant ideas, but if you can't get them across, your ideas won't get you anywhere.
Anonymous

* *A nation must be willing to look dispassionately at its own history.*
Willy Brandt (1913 - 1992) German statesman; declaration on the 25th anniversary of the end of World War II

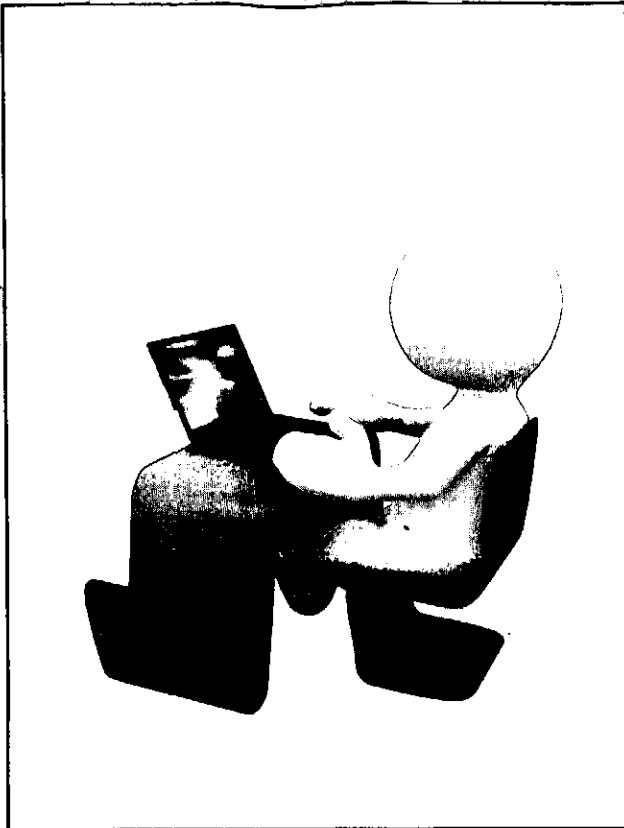* *I respect only those who resist me; but I cannot tolerate them.*
Charles de Gaulle (1890 - 1970)French president; New York Times Magazine

any one technology replace all others since no single tool can serve all functions.

What matters most is to use each technology for its best features and to exploit its specificity.

REFRENCES

Armstrong, L., Berry, M., & Lamshed, R. (n.d.). *Blogs as Electronic Journals.* Retrieved March 11, 2008, from, http://www. usq.edu.au/electpub/e-jist/docs/Vol7-No1/ Currentpractice/Blogs.htm

Barger, J. (1999). *Weblog Resources FAQ.* Retrieved March 11, 2008. from, http://www. robotwisdom.com/weblogs/

Bella, M. (2005), *Weblogs in Education in B. Hoffman* (Ed.). Encyclopedia of Educational Technology. Retrieved March 18, 2008, from http://coe.sdsu.edu/eet/articles/blogsined/ start.htm

Campbell, A. P. (2003), Weblogs for Use With ESL Classes. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 9 (2), Retrieved March 18, 2008. from, http:// iteslj.org/Techniques/Campbell-Weblogs.html.

Carter, R., Nunan, D. (2001). *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Downes, S. (2004). Educational Blogging. *EDUCAUSE Review*, 39 (5). 14-26.

Eide, F. & Eide, B. (2005). *Brain of the Blogger.* Retrieved March 26, 2008, from, http:// eideneurolearning blog.blogspot.com/2005/ 03/brain-of-blogger.html.

Furstenberg, G. (1997). Teaching with Technology: What is at Stake? *ADFL Bulletin,* 28 (3), 21-25.

Huffaker, D. (2004). *The Educated Blogger: Using Weblogs to Promote Literacy in the Classroom.* Retrieved March 15, 2008 from, http://www.firstmonday.dk/issues/issue9_6/ huffaker/index.html

Jett, J. (2007). *Internet in the Classroom.* Retrieved March 22, 2008, from, http:// www.teflcorp.com/articles/complete_articles. php?index = 609&category=66.

Johnson, A. (2004). Creating a Writing Course Utilizing Class and Student Blogs. The *InternetTESLJournal.* 10(8). RetrievedMarch 26, 2008 from, http://iteslj.org/Techniques/ Johnson-Blogs/.

Mynard, J. (2007). *A Blog as a Tool for Reflection for English Language Learners.* Retrieved March 26, 2008, from, http://www. asian-efl-journal.com/pta_Nov_07_jm.pdf

O'Donnell, M. (2005). *Blogging as Pedagogic Practice:ArtFactandEcology.* Paperpresented at the Blog Talk Downunder Conference, May 19-21, 2005, Sydney, Australia.

Paquet, S. (2002). Personal Knowledge Publishing and its Uses in Research. Retrieved March 25, 2008, from, http://radio.weblogs. com/0110772/stories/2002/10/03/Personalk Knowledge Publishing Andits Uses In Research.html.

Pinkman, K. (2005). Using Blogs in the Foreign Classroom: EncouragingLearnerIdependence. *JALT CALL Journal,* 1(1), 12-24.

Richardson, W. (2004). Blogging and RSS – the "What's It?" and "How To" – of powerful new web Tools for Educators. Information *Today Magazin,* 11(1).

Wijnia, E. (2003). *Understanding Weblogs: A CommunicativePerspective.* RetrievedMarch 18, 2008, from, http://tc.eserver.org/25480. html.

Wu, C. (2006). Blogs in TEFL: *A New Promising Vehicle.* Retrieved March 10, 2008, from, http://www.teacher.org.cn/doc/ucedu200605/ ucedu20060512.pdf

that can serve a variety of purposes in the EFL classroom. Blogs provide a rich and easy-to-use environment for language learning and teaching. It is also a medium to reflect on material and interact with others. The recent popularity of blogs as well as their user-friendly nature makes them a choice for teachers who want to introduce out-of class resources to their learners. However, if mismanaged, blogs could lead to disruptive communication.

Although using blogs in EFL classes offers a lot of advantages, its positive potentials has been neglected in Iranian contexts. It is partly due to the lack of enough facilities, such as online classes, and partly due to the teacher-centered educational system. Teachers' unfamiliarity with using computer and the Internet in teaching is also a critical issue.

Popularity of blogs among Iranian students will give the teachers an opportunity to use it as an effective educational tool. Such an electronic learning environment will demolish the walls of the classroom and therefore, in such a context there will be a shift from a teacher-centered to a learner-centered approach. Such context will give the students the chance to take advantage of a blog as an interesting educational tools. However, teachers should consider has blogs can replace some of their existing tools. It is noteworthy that the benefits of educational blogs can be fully realized only when they are integrated into the teaching and learning practices of the education community. The choice of e-Learning tools, as Furstenberg (1997) asserts, should reflect rather than determine the pedagogy of a course; that is, how technology is used in more important than which technology is used. It is important to view technology not as a panacea but as a toll. Modern Technology can not replace other tools such as the paper and pencil, textbook, or blackboard. Nor will

blog hosting services. Creating a blog at Blogger will be used as an example here. First, you have to visit the blogger website at http://www.blogger.com/Blogger offers three easy steps to create a weblog.

1. Create an account
2. Name your blog
3. Choose a template

In the first step, you are required to fill in all the basic information such as user name and password. Then, you have to give your blog a title and choose a URL address. Finally, you have to pick up your favorite template. When finished, you can start writing down your own thoughts and publish them. You can also add photos, and even insert a piece of audio or video clip.

Conclusions and implications for teachers

Blogs are authentic, interesting, communicative, and collaborative resources

or suddenly out of service when most needed. For this reason, hard drive backups and printouts of material posted to weblogs and essential.

In short, even with its obvious shortcomings, blogs still have the potential to be a truly transformational technology in that they provide a teaching and learning platform where students enjoy a high level of autonomy and opportunity for greater interaction with peers and teachers who conduct their teaching with high efficiency (Wu, 2006).

Application of weblogs to the EFL classroom

The use of blogs in teaching EFL appears to still be in its infancy but has much potential, especially in teaching written communication skills. Campbell (2003) sets out three types of blogs that may be of use to second language teachers:

- *The tutor blog:* This is written and published by the teacher and may provide students with information about classes, homework tasks, useful web links, a forum for discussion, and even self-study exercises that can be submitted via the comments facility.
- *The learner blog:* This is written and published by individual learners, or by small groups of learners in collaboration. The blog content may be left to the students to decide, or it may involve completing tasks set by the teacher.
- *The class blog:* Class blogs can be used as a forum for students to express opinions, ideas, and interesting information. This type of blog is written and managed by the whole class. It requires decentralized access rights so that all users can add content from remote locations. The class blog can be useful for project-based learning, group discussions, or as a bulletin board.

Educational uses of weblogs

On the issue of educational uses of blogs,

O'Donnell (2005) argues that weblogs should not be seen merely as a technological tool for teaching and learning. It should be used as a situated practice used with particular pedagogical and disciplinary practices. Farrell (2003, cited in Downes, 2004) identifies five major uses of blogs in education. First, teachers use blogs to replace the standard class web page. Instructors post class times and rules, assignment notifications, suggested readings, and exercises. Aside from the ordering of material by date, students would find nothing unusual in this use of the blog. Second, and often accompanying the first, instructors begin to link to the Internet items that relate to their course. Third, blogs are used to organize in-class discussions. The conversation possible on the weblog is also an amazing tool to develop our community of learners. The students get to know each other better by visiting and reading blogs from other students. The student who usually talks very loud in the classroom and the student who is very timid have the same writing space to voice their opinion. It puts students in a situation of equity. Fourth, some instructors are using blogs to organize class seminars and to provide summaries of readings. Finally, students may be asked to write their own blogs as part of their course grade.

Weblogs can offer an extension of class discussions. If the discussion had to end due to time, it can be continued online long after the school is over. Students can post their comments on certain topics, and others can respond or start new ones. For students, weblogs can provide the opportunity to practice authentic communication with peers both in and outside the classroom (Bella, 2005).

Setting up a weblog site

There are many websites which offer free

Positive potentials of a weblog

When used in TEFL classes, blogs may show tremendous advantages both to EFL teachers and students. Weblog has been reported to be a useful tool for language learners for a number of reasons: Blogs can offer an alternative way of communicating with teachers and peers (Maynard, 2007). They help students to create a virtual collaborative classroom environment (Richardson, 2004; Huffkar, 2004), promote self-expreesion (Huffkar, 2004), and are a motivating learning activity (Pinkman, 2005; Carter & Nunan, 2001). They also allow easy peer review and attract the participation of experts or mentors from outside the classroom (Richardson, 2004). Students can have a personal space to read and write alongside a communal one where ideas are shared, questions are asked and answered, and social cohesion is developed.

Furthermore, teachers can benerfit from using blogs. All of the teahcers' notes can be viewed together in a chronological order and they can easily edit class material. All students' writing samples can be kept in one place and can be read from any computer connected to the Internet at anytime (Johnson, 2004). Finally, students can have access to online English dictionaries. They can find more information on their class material and report it to other classmates. They can also strengthen their reading skills and strategies by exploring others' weblogs and hyperlinks (Oravec, 2002, cited in Paquet, 2002).

Eide and Eide (2005) examine the effect of blogging on the brain of blogger. They believe that blogs can promote critical, analytical, and analogical as well as creative, and intuitive thinking. Blogging, as they argue, is a good way for promoting personal knowledge and social interaction. Blogs can help the creation of a virtual cooperative learning environment in which students become active subjects in a news stimulating setting. Obviously, in such a context, the role of the teacher and student changes; there is a shift from a teacher-centered to a learner-centered approach.

Negative potentials of weblogs

While the Internet has immense value as a learning tool, it has certain pitfalls. The first problem is availability of computers in the classroom and the Internet connection. The second problem is the credibility and quality of the materials. Students must learn to distinguish between official sources of information and self-published material, and how to evaluate the quality of both, Both teachers and students should be aware that use of online English may be informal in e-mails and online conversations. The third problem is that students should know how to protect themselves online, especially with respect to sharing personal information (Jett, 2007).

Wrede (2003, cited in Wu, 2006) Explains that the reading skills developed from scrolling the computer screen lead to an accelerated but superficial, and often inaccurate understanding of the content. He also voices concerns about some of the disadvantages to writing skills that may be developed from activities such as blogging. There have been many cases of students using phrases like BTW (by the way) cuz (because) and U (you).

Moreover, Students who post their work and ideas in the public sphere may receive some criticism which could be unproductive, hurtful or even offensive. Students need to ensure that their own comments might not accidentally cause offence. Security issues should be taken into account took. Like websites, weblogs have the potential to be hacked, accidentally deleted
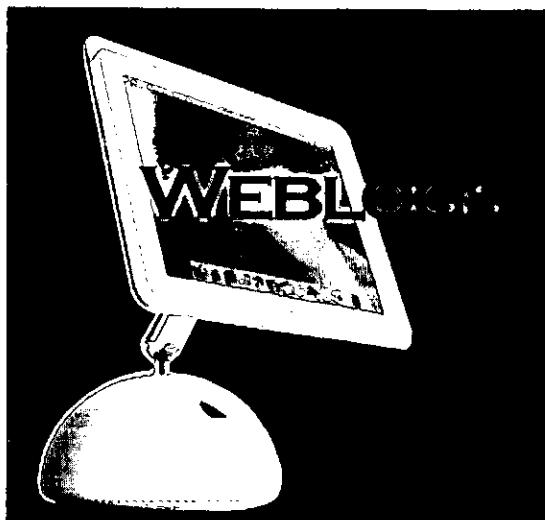
computer language or Hyper Text Markup Language (HTML) to create webpage, By 1997, a new kind of website was emerging which was not a standard home page. It was a sort of an annotated bookmark list available for public viewing.

Most of the first weblogs were home-grown by web designers and software developers who were aware of the capabilities of the techonology. In 1999, however, several free or inexpensive web logging services such as *Pitas*, *Live journal*, and *Blogger* were introduced. As using these systems requires little technical knowledge, the practice suddenly became much more accessible (Paquet, 2002).

Key features of weblogs

A defining feature of a blog is the order in which posts are arranged on the site. A blog is primarily a website that is frequently updated with new posts. The posts are arranged in reverse chronological order, with the most recent entry at the top of the weblog>s main page (Paquet, 2002). In addition to this feature, Paquet describes four other characteristics of a blog:

- *Personal editorship:* The content of the site is under the responsibility of a single person (although visitors may post comments in designated sections).
- *Hyperlinked post structure:* The site>s content consists of typically short posts that feature hypertext links referencing material outside the site.
- *Archival features:* Postings are archived automatically after a certain period of time.
- *Free public access to the content:* The site's contents are freely accessible via the World Wide Web without restriction such as payment or membership.

The main features of a blog as a publishing tool are ease of use, no need for installing any server software on the users' machine, extensive control of the blogger over how her/his blog looks and operates, instant availability of the most recent editions of the blog, and ability to be navigated and linked (Armstrong, Berry, & Lamshed, n.d.).

Positive and negative potentials of weblogs

As a tool in the EFL classroom, the weblog is still new to most teachers. Therefore a positive-negative analysis of its potentials is useful for better assessment of its value as a teaching tool.

Abstract

One of major trends in the area of modern technology and the Internet is blogging. Weblogs were created as a tool to create online journals with no need to any knowledge or experience in program writing. Blogs are potentially a valuable tool for teaching of a second language. This paper intends to analyze the features of a blog, explain possible ways to use a blog in EFL classes, and discuss potential advantages and shortcomings of using blogs in EFL situations.

Key Words: weblog, blog, EFL, modern technology, online journals

Introduction

The Internet has provided our society with new communication opportunities and can improve teaching and learning. New technologies such as weblogs can change teachers' roles in the classroom. Teachers' primary responsibility in an interactive electronic environment is no longer to make sure that students learn what they think they should learn. Their role, as Furstenberg (1997) believes, is to design tasks that enable students to tell teachers what they have seen, learned, or understood. Furthemore, teachers provide opportunities in classes that enable students to work collaboratively to create valid arguments and contexts that they can support, illustrate, and justify. Blog Assisted Language Learning (BALL) is a new pedagogical method recently developed by researches for new uses of web technology in foreign language education and can be considered as an extremely valuabe tool for the teaching of second language skills.

Definition

The term weblog was coined by John Barger in 1997. A weblog, or blog for short, is a personal web page with posts organized in chronological order. The format is normally to add the newest entry at the top of the page, so that frequent / repeated visitors can catch up by simply reading down the page until they reach a link they saw on their last visit (Barger, 1999). The author of the blog can add many other tools to his/her own weblog, such as comment function, links, forums, trackback function (to track discussion between different blogs), and Rich Site Summary, or Really Simple Syndication (RSS), which is a format for delivering regularly changing web content. Those who subscribe to RSS feeds will be notified every time the content is updated on a particular site they are interested in.

Looking at weblog in a communicative way, Wijnia (2003) defines weblog as a webpage on which the author publishes pieces with the intention to start conversation. Wijnia (2003) asserts that in order to speak of a weblog there are a few technical demands to be met. First of all, conversation must be possible. This is achieved through a comment function to enable dialogue within the same blog. To be able to track conversation through different weblogs, one should have trackback functionality. Finally, to encourage people to read the weblog continuously one should offer a RSS.

History of weblogs

Weblogs have existed online for almost a decade. However, it wasn't until the second half of the 1990s that weblogs began to grow in popularity. Blogs function mostly as online journals and their content is traditionally personal (Pinkman, 2005). Early bloggers were required to at least have a basic level of
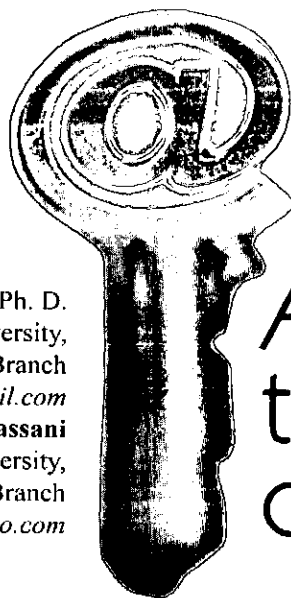
Weblogs: A promising tool in EFL classes

Mojgan Rashtchi, Ph. D.
Islamic Azad University,
North Tehran Branch
Mojgan.rashtchi@gmail.com
Hassan Hajihassani
Islamic Azad University,
North Tehran Branch
hhajihassani@yahoo.com

چکیده

با پیشرفت و توسعه‌ی اینترنت و شبکه‌های اطلاعاتی الکترونیکی در اوایل دهه‌ی 1990، استفاده از فناوری‌های نوین وارد عرصه‌ی آموزش نیز شد. آموزش‌های مبتنی بر فناوری‌های نوین، با تغییرات اساسی که در مفاهیم آموزش سنتی ایجاد کرده، توانسته است بسیاری از کاستی‌ها و ناکارآمدی‌های سیستم‌های سنتی آموزش را برطرف کند و در تکنیک‌ها، روش‌ها و رویکردهای آموزشی، تغییراتی بنیادی و اساسی به وجود آورد.

از جمله تحولات عمده در زمینه‌ی فناوری‌های نوین و اینترنت، ایجاد و انتشار وبلاگ است. وبلاگ‌ها یا به طور اختصار بلاگ‌ها، به‌عنوان وسیله‌ای برای ایجاد مجلات آن لاین به وجود آمدند تا افراد بتوانند بدون نیاز به‌دانش یا تجربه در زمینه‌ی برنامه‌نویسی، به ایجاد و انتشار آن‌ها روی اینترنت اقدام کنند. برخلاف وب‌سایت‌ها، مطالب وبلاگ را می‌توان مستقیماً در صفحه‌ی مربوطه تایپ و سپس با یک کلیک آن را روی اینترنت منتشر کرد. نشر مطالب براساس یک ساختار زمانی و از جدید به قدیمی شکل می‌گیرد. دریافت سریع بازخوردها، امکان درج نظرات، تسهیل در ارتباط بین نویسنده و خواننده، طبقه‌بندی محتوا در زمینه‌های گوناگون و دسترسی آسان و آزاد برای عموم، از ویژگی‌های وبلاگ است.

در زمینه‌ی آموزش نیز وبلاگ‌ها می‌توانند به عنوان ابزاری ارزشمند در زمینه‌ی آموزش زبان به کار گرفته شوند. با وجود این، هنوز استفاده از اینترنت و دیگر فناوری‌های مرتبط با آن، مانند وبلاگ جایگاه ارزشمند خود را در مدرسه‌های ما به دلایلی ازجمله عدم دسترسی به امکانات لازم در مدرسه‌ها و نگرش سنتی بعضی از دبیران به امر آموزش و عدم آگاهی آنان از ویژگی‌های ارزشمند اینترنت، پیدا نکرده است. مقاله‌ی حاضر پس از معرفی وبلاگ و بیان ویژگی‌های آن، راه‌های استفاده از وبلاگ در کلاس‌های آموزش زبان، به عنوان زبان بیگانه و مزایا و معایب استفاده از آن در محیط‌های آموزش زبان را بررسی می‌کند.

کلیدواژه‌ها: فناوری‌های نوین، آموزش سنتی، وبلاگ، مجلات آن‌لاین، آموزش زبان به عنوان زبان خارجی.

Appendix B: Sample Lesson Plan

Lesson 16

Aim To practice talking about clothes, material and colours.

New Vocab. Adjectives: woolen, leather, cotton, nylon, plastic.

Structures Present continuous:......... is wearing......... (revision).

1. Review Show pictures of clothes. Ss give words: coat, hat, shirt, trousers, etc.

2. Presentation Show objects made of wool, leather, plastic, etc.
Present new adjectives. Write them on the board.

3. Practice   1) Ss look at pictures and make sentences
e.g. "She's wearing a green cotton dress".
2) Pair work. A: What's she wearing?
3) She's wearing a green cotton dress.
"Last weekend I was wearing........."

4. Writing   1) Write on board: | " Last weekend I was wearing........... " |

Ss write sentences about themselves.
2) Collect about 10 students' papers. Read them out.
Others guess who wrote them!

5. Reading   1) Write on board:

| Peru |
| Sudan |
| Pakistan |

Ask: Where are they?
What's the climate like?
What do people wear there?

2) Ss read the text silently, and find answers to guiding questions.
3) Ask and answer question taken from the book.

References

Bailey, K.M. (1996). *Voices From the Language classroom*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, H.D. (2001). *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. (2nd ed.). London: Longman.

Celce-Murcia, M. (2001). *Teaching English as a Second/Foreign Language*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

Doff, A. (1992). *Teach English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hadley, A.O. (2004). *Teaching Language in Context*. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

Harmer. J. (2001). *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. London: Longman.

Hunter, M. (2005). How Can We Plan More Effective Lessons. *Modern English Teacher*, 14(1), 53-82.

Purgason, K.B. (2002). Planning lessons and units. *System*, 30(2), 151-178

Richards, J, C. (1998). *Beyond Training*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J.C. & Renandya, W.A (2002). *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Tyler, R. (2006). Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction. *Language Problems and Language Planning*, 30(2), 119-147.

Ur, P. (1996). A Course in Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

APPENDIX A

(Lesson Plan Template for a 50-minute Class (Celce-Murcia, 2001

	Bakground Information: Course/level Description of students (if necessary) Aims/objectives Skills focus/grammar/vocabulary Texts/materials Previous class work Work to be collected or returned	**To do before class:** **Bring to class:**
Time Frame **(in minutes)** 35- 45- 10 10 1520- 35-	**Procedures:** Warm-up Review Introduction Presentation activities Communicative activities Questions/homework Extra activites (if necessary)	**Notes:** Transitions Seating plans Potential trouble spots Contin
	Comments/Evaluation:	

simply mean crossing out the original activity title or course book page number, and replacing it with what we used in reality. However, if we have time to record how we and the students experienced the lesson. reflecting carefully on successful and less successful activities, not only will this help us to make changes if and when we want to use the same activities again, but it will also lead us to think about how we teach and consider changes in both activities and approach. Lesson planning in this way allows us to act as our own observers and aids us in our own development.

It is of great importance for teachers to know that for truly professional teachers, lesson planning is not optional, it is essential preparation for teaching. It is a matter of deciding exactly what you are going to teach, and how. Unless you establish your objectives and activities in this way, you may find yourself just going mechanically through the course book, or trying to improvise whole lessons. Such approaches usually produce poor results, although some improvisation and flexibility is good, even essential, in teaching. Learners can easily notice the difference between teachers who plan and those who do not. And if their teacher does not make an effort, why should they?

To begin your lesson plan, decide where the lesson first into your week's work plan or teaching cycle. Then establish specific objectives for the lesson. These will largely be determined by the phase in the teaching cycle. Here are some examples of lesson objectives:
- To present and achieve controlled production of a new grammatical functional item.
- To achieve guided communicative use of a new item.
- To achieve the communicative use of a mixed range of language in writing.
- To promote the learners' confidence in the conversational use of English.
- To develop comprehension of public announcements.

The activities and materials should be appropriate for your objectives, and also for your specific group of learns. When deciding on appropriate activities and materials, take into account the learners' age, interests, and abilities. Calculate the approximate time for each activity so that you do not end up doing only half of what you planned; or having no plan for the last quarter of the lesson. And remember that there needs to be a variety of activities and interaction, for example, between lockstep, pair work, group work, and individual work.

The result of this study indicate that the main elements and considerations in a lesson plan are:
- Clear stages: warm-up (1); lead-in (2); main activity (3); follow-up(4); and wind-down(5)- and smooth transitions between them.
- A unifying theme, running through different skills.
- Appropriate relationships between objectives, activities, materials, and procedures.
- Attention to both the communicative use of English and formal correctness in the language, i.e. fluency and accuracy.
- Consideration of the learners' interests and the learning conditions, as well as the grammatical- functional items in the syllabus.

is these evaluative comments that can make a lesson plan a truly useful resource for future course and lesson planning.

Ur (1996) takes it as important to think after teaching a lesson and ask "whether it was a good one or not, she says, is for self-development." Of course, both "success" and "failure" are relative terms and their definitions will vary according to each individual teacher's and student's perspective. Nevertheless, Brown (2001) believes that without an evaluative component in the lesson, the teacher has no way of assessing the success of the students or what adjustments to make for the next lesson.

Ur (1996) believes that when evaluating a lesson, the first and most important criterion is student learning because that is why we have a lesson in the first place. Even though it may be difficult to judge how much has been learned in a lesson, Ur emphasizes that we can still make a good guess. This guess can be based "on our knowledge of the class, the type of activity they were engaged in, and some informal test activities that give feedback on learning" (p.220).

Ur (1996) offers the following criteria of effectiveness and orders them as follows:

(1) The class seemed to be learning the material well; (2) the learners were engaging with the foreign language throughout; (3) the learners were attentive all the time; (4) the learners enjoyed the lesson and were motivated; (5) the learners were active all the time; (6) the lesson went according to plan; (7) the language was used communicatively throughout (p.220).

The following questions may also be useful for teachers to reflect on after conducting a lesson (answers can be used as a basis for future lesson planning):

• Did the lesson plan help you? If so, in what way?

• Was your lesson different from the plan? In what ways?

• Think about each stage of the lesson. Did you spend: too long? Not long enough? The right amount of time?

• Think about the aims and the language you taught. How many of the students learned what you set out to teach? How do you know?

• What tasks were most successful? Least successful? Why?

• What changes (if any) will you make in your teaching and why (or why not)?

Conclusion & Implications

Teachers must feel flexible in planning in their own way, always keeping in mind the yearly, term, and unit plans. As Bailey (1996) points out, a lesson plan is like a map

"which describes where the teachers hopes to go in a lesson, presumably taking the students along" (p.18). Actually a clear plan will maximize time and minimize confusion of what is expected of the students. Thus making classroom management easier.

Written plans are not just proposals for future action; they are also records of what has taken place. Thus, when we are in the middle of a sequence of lessons, we can look back at what we have done in order to decide what to do next.

Since we may have to modify our lesson depending on student reactions we need to keep a record of how successful certain activities were to aid our memory. A record of lessons can also help colleagues if and when they have to teach for us when we are absent.

Our original written plans will, therefore, have to be modified in the light of what actually happened in the classes we taught. This may

see a clock in the classroom in order to be aware of the time. More often than not, an activity is underestimated in terms of length, so teachers should decide ahead of time what part of a lesson could be shortened or saved for the next class. This does not mean that teachers should not over plan. There are times when an activity will take less time than anticipated or suddenly seems too easy or difficult, so the teacher will decide to sacrifice it; good teachers are on the side of over planning and/or have some useful five to ten minute supplementary activities available in their repertoire of teaching tricks. According to Celce – Murcia (2001), it can be a very frightening experience for the novice teacher to look up at the clock and see that she has ten minutes left until the end of class and no idea of what to do. Initially, it is useful for inexperienced teachers to plan minute of their lessons that each minute of class is accounted for before they step into the classroom.

6. Teachers should check for the flow and integration of classroom activities. They should plan transitions that either make each activity a logical continuation of the one before it or make it clear that there will be a shift in focus.

Sometimes it helps to explain briefly why students are doing certain activities. This means that the teacher should let them see what benefits he/she hope they will derive from the planned practice. For example, a dictation exercise may be introduced by saying, "Now let's practice writing some of the things we've been learning to say. This will help reinforce the new material in your mind". In other words, Some teachers find it useful to write brief comments on a lesson plan that help with the transition from one activity to another, so that the lesson flows well and the various activities have a sense of connection.

7. Teachers should provide variety in classroom tasks. Fifty minutes of the same thing – even if it's an interesting type of exercise – is not varied from the students' perspective. If course goals encompass the four skills, students should have opportunities to listen, write, read, and speak during the hour, both in whole-class and small –group activities. Having students work at the board, move around in a social – interaction game, Pair up for interviews, or do role – plays for the rest of the class lends variety to the class hour. Variety gives the impression of a faster pace, which tends to enliven instruction for most learners (Tyler, 2006).

Evaluating the plan

It is important to stop and think after giving a lesson whether it was a good one or not, and why. This is not in order to indulge in self – congratulation or vain regrets, but in order to have a basis for your own learning from reflection on experience: this lesson was unsatisfactory, what could I have done to improve it? or: this lesson was good, what was it exactly that made it so?
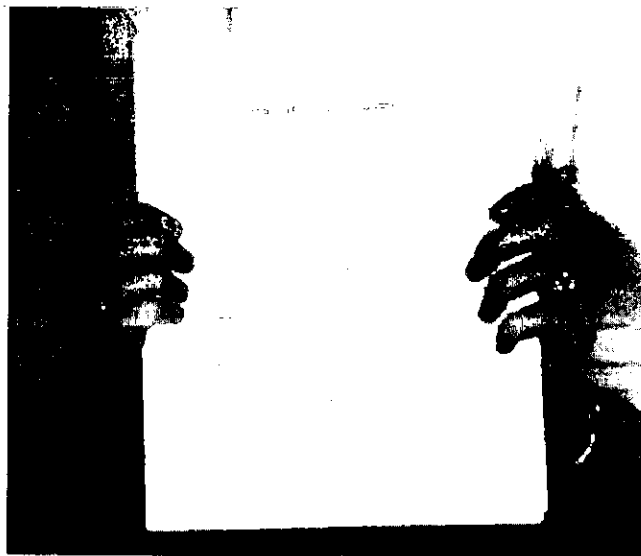
A plan should be evaluated after the class is over. The teachers should decide whether he/she would do the same things if the same lesson were supposed to be taught again or if same changes the teachers should ask himself/herself how well students responded to the planned activities and try to diagnose the causes of problems.

So it is a good idea to include space for lesson evaluation by the teacher after the class is over. The evaluation component of lesson planning provides an opportunity for honest reflection on what activities worked or did work and why, as well as how the lesson could be improved or modified the next time around. Teachers also find it useful to add comments concerning student reactions to the lesson. It

list of texts, materials, and equipments such as audiovisual aids. Some instructors find it helpful to list the day's materials and audiovisual aids in a box at the top of the page to serve as a reminder of what they need to bring to class. If more elaborate material preparation is necessary before class, teachers may also list the steps necessary to prepare these materials. Noting any homework or assignments to be returned or collected that day is also useful information to have at the beginning of the lesson plan (Celce - Murcia, 2001).

3. Teachers should consider the content that is to be taught for a given class day. They should think in terms of themes, cultural contexts, and functional tasks to be mastered, as well as grammar and vocabulary. According to Hadley (2004), teachers should plan a lesson that flows within the contexts he/she has identified, integrating the grammatical concepts, functions, vocabulary, and cultural information into the chapter themes. They should avoid exercises that consist of unrelated sentence – length frames and choose, instead, to embed the practice activity in larger discourse units: minidialogues, paragraphs, role plays, and the like. For example, if they plan to teach interrogative words and expressions. They should consider how students can use questioning strategies to accomplish a real – word task that is coordinated with the theme of the unit or chapter. In a unit on travel, students can use the new interrogative structures to ask about train or plan schedules, obtain directions, or request hotel accommodations.

4. Teachers should plan activities that help students reach functional objectives. They should make activities student-centered; that is plan practice activities that involve all students actively during the class hour. Hadley (2004) emphasizes that the teacher should try to avoid lengthy explanations or one-to-one exchanges that leave most students unoccupied and bored. Students need to use the skills they are learning if they are to become more proficient; watching the teacher use language is not so beneficial to them. Small-group work, board work, dictation, paired interviews, and active listening practice are a few of the strategies that require all students to participate simultaneously and actively.

5. Teachers should prepare an outline of what they intend to do during the class period. It is helpful to write down an estimated time for each activity so that the lesson flows at a reasonable pace. Beginning teachers may want to include detailed notes on their lesson plans, while outline. Using index cards or small slips of paper enables teachers to consult their plans easily and unobtrusively during the lesson.

Time management can also be challenging for beginning teachers and even experienced teachers cannot always accurately predict how long a certain activity will take or when a discussion will become so engaging that it should be allowed to continue longer than planned. Nonetheless, it is important to note the number of minutes allotted for each activity in the margin of the lesson plan; this also means that the teacher should wear a watch or be able to

clearly have tremendous variation. But, as a very general set of guidelines for planning, the teacher might think in terms of making sure his/her plan includes

a. An opening statement or activity as a warm-up.

b. presentation: The teacher presents new words and structures.

c. practice: Students practice words and structures in a controlled way.

d. presentation: Students use language they have learnt to express themselves more freely.

A set of activities and techniques in which the teacher has considered appropriate proportions of time to:

    i. whole-class work

    ii. small- group and pair work

    iii. teacher talk

    iv. student talk

5. Evaluation

Next, how can teachers determine whether their objectives have been accomplished? If their lesson has no evaluative component, they can easily find themselves simply making assumptions that are not informed by careful observation or measurement. Now, be careful that every lesson does not need to end with a little quiz, nor does evaluation need to be a separate element of the lesson. Evaluation can take place in the course of regular classroom activity. Some forms of evaluation may have to wait a day or two until certain abilities have had a chance to build. But evaluation is an assessment, formal or informal, that the teacher makes after students have sufficient opportunities for learning, and without this component the teacher has no means for (a) assessing the success of his/her students or (b) making adjustments in his/her lesson plan for the next day (Tyler, 2006).

6. Extra-class work

Sometimes misnamed "home work" (students don't necessarily do extra-class work only at home), extra class work, if it is warranted, needs to be planned carefully and communicated clearly to the students- whether you are teaching in an EFL or ESL situation, you can almost always find applications or extensions of classroom activity that will help students do some learning beyond the class hour (Doff, 1992).

Practical guidelines for planning lessons ====
Like most activities, a lesson plan has stages:

1. Most plans begin with a brief description of the class and students; for example, the name of the course and the level, and the background of the students are useful to note. It is also important to add the date as well as the week and day of the course. Given the trend of adhering to competency requirements and published standards, a lesson plan may also need to include the competencies and standards that the lesson addresses. Some teachers list the grammatical structures and key vocabulary items that will be introduced as well.

2. A lesson usually begins with warm-up and/or review activities. Teachers need to decide how they will connect the day's lesson to the previous class meeting and how they want to interest and motivate their students for the day's lesson to the previous class meeting and how they want to interest and motivate their students for the day's activities. Once warmed up, the class is then ready for the presentation and practice stages of the lesson. It is wise to note what has been covered during the previous class or what students already need to know for the particular lesson, especially if it will begin with a review of previous material. The day's goal and objectives should be included as a

Introduction

Richards (1998) stresses the importance of lesson planning for English language teachers: "The success with which a teacher conducts a lesson is often thought to depend on the effectiveness with the lesson was planned" (p.103). Teachers need to plan what they want to do in their classrooms.

According to Purgason (2002), an English teacher can benefit from daily lesson planning in the following ways:

• A plan can help the teacher think about content, materials, sequencing, timing, and activities,

• A plan provides security (in the form of a map) in the sometimes unpredictable atmosphere of a classroom

• A plan is a log of what has been taught.

• A plan can help a substitute to smoothly take over a class when the teacher cannot teach.

Most teachers engage in yearly, term, unit, weekly, and daily lesson planning (Richards & Renandya (2002). Yearly and term planning usually involve listing the objectives for a particular program. A unit plan is a series of related lessons around a specific theme such as "The Family". Planning daily lessons is the end result of a complex planning process that includes the yearly, term, and unit plans. A daily lesson plan is a written description of how students will move toward attaining specific objectives. It describes the teaching behavior that will result in student learning.

A certain amount of lesson planning takes place the night before a class is taught. This planning, taking place just hours before entering the classroom, should be the micro tuning of the lesson, but the big picture of macro planning is based on the syllabus of the course. A good lesson plan is the result of both macro planning and micro planning. In brief, an actual lesson plan is the end point of many other stages of planning that culminate in a daily lesson (Celce-Murcia, 2001).

Format of a lesson plan

1. Goal(s)

The teacher should be able to identify an overall purpose or goal that he/she will attempt to accomplish by the end of the class period. This goal may be quite generalized: whose function is to serve as a unifying theme for the teacher.

2. Objectives

It is very important to state explicitly what the teacher wants the students to gain from the lesson. The lesson may focus on a particular topic (e.g.sports), a particular structure (e.g.practice of 'going to') or a skill (e.g. understanding spoken instructions). When thinking of the aim. The teachers can ask: What should the students learn to do in this lesson?

In stating objectives, the teachers should distinguish between terminal and enabling objectives. Terminal objectives are final learning outcomes that you will need to be measured and evaluated. Enabling objectives are interim steps that built, taken together, lead to a terminal objective (Hardley, 2004).

3. Materials and Equipment

It may seem a trivial matter to list the materials needed, but good planning includes knowing what the teacher needs to take with him/her to arrange to have in the classroom. It is easy, in the often hurried life of a teacher, to forget to bring to class a tape recorder, a poster, some handouts the teacher left on his/her desk at home, or the workbooks that students gave him/her the night before (Harmer,2001).

4. Procedures

At this point, Hunter (2005) believes lessons

How to Prepare a Lesson Plan

Maryam ghaneh, M.A. in TEFL
English Teacher, Shahriar District
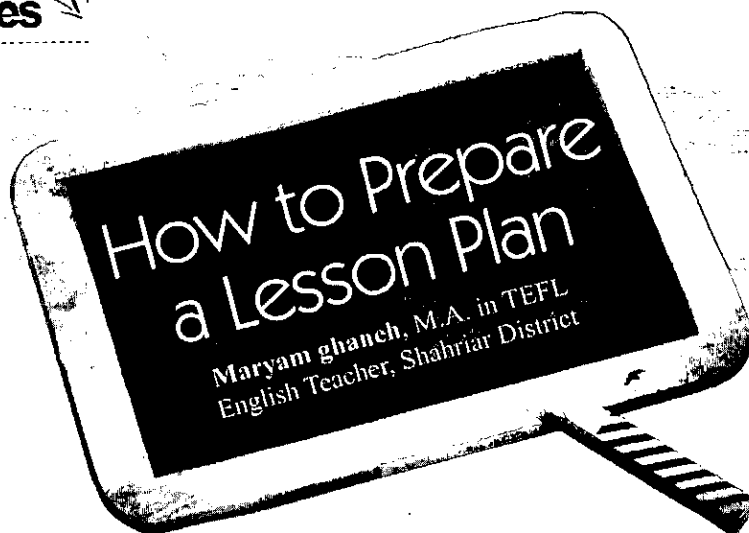
چکیده

تهیه‌ی طرح درس برای تمامی معلمان ضروری به‌نظر می‌رسد و معلم با تجربه و کاردان هرگز بدون طرح درس وارد کلاس نمی‌شود. طرح درس پیش‌نویسی است که گام‌های تدریس را برای معلم تعیین می‌کند. به‌علاوه، مثلاً هنگام ارزیابی آموخته‌های دانش‌آموزان می‌تواند به آن مراجعه کند، و یا زمانی‌که همان درس را مجدداً درس می‌دهد، می‌تواند به راحتی به آن مراجعه و از تکرار اشتباهات پرهیز کند. در واقع نوشتن طرح درس به معنی ایجاد آمادگی برای رفتن به کلاس است. طبق نظریه‌ی پرگاسون (۲۰۰۲)، تهیه‌ی طرح درس قبل از کلاس باعث می‌شود که معلم به محتوا، مطالب، زمان‌بندی و نوع فعالیت‌ها بیندیشد و مسائل احتمالی را پیش‌بینی کند. چنین تدریسی مطمئناً به یادگیری دانش‌آموزان می‌انجامد.

در این مقاله، نحوه‌ی تهیه‌ی طرح درس روزانه به‌صورت عملی ارائه شده و علاوه بر آن، به جزئیات و حتی نحوه‌ی ارزیابی طرح درس پس از استفاده در کلاس نیز اشاره شده است.

کلید واژه‌ها: طرح درس، قالب طرح درس، ارزیابی طرح درس

Abstract

A lesson plan is essential for novice teachers and convenient for experienced teachers. In fact all good teachers have some type of plan when they walk into their classrooms. The lesson plan serves as a checklist that guides a teacher in knowing what he/she wants to do next. A lesson plan is also a record of what the teacher did in class; this record serves as a valuable resource when planning assessment measures such as quizzes, mid term, and final exams. Besides, a record of previously taught lessons is useful when the teacher teaches the same course again, so that he/she has an account of what he/she did the term or the year before to avoid reinventing the wheel. In addition, just as teachers expect their students to come to class prepared to learn, students come to class expecting their teachers to be prepared to teach. A lesson plan is part of that preparation. So this paper will serve as a guide for developing good and practical daily lesson plans, format of a lesson plan, and how to evaluate the plan

Key Words: lesson plan , format of a plan , evaluating a plan.

effort or analysis to access. This kind of ready-to-use knowledge is called "*procedural knowledg*". (p.43).

Teaching Grammar

Larsen Freeman (1981) believes that the goods of language instruction include teaching students to use grammar accurately, meaningfully, and appropriately, therefore a compelling case can be made for teaching grammar. Instead of viewing grammar as a static system of arbitrary rules, it should be seen as a rational, dynamic system that is comprised of structures characterized by the three dimentions of form, meaning, and use. Her idea may confirm what both empiricists and rationalists claim about language teaching where both respectively say that "Teach the language not about it and the rules of language are psychologically real" (see Mirhassani 2003).

It can concluded that there are three approaches to grammar teaching: *teaching grammar as product* (to make certain specifed forms as noticeable as possible by carefully drawing the learner's attention to them, this can help students structure their knowledge.) *teaching grammar as process*, task based (engaging learners in language use, formulating their own meanings in contexts over which they have procedural control and in so doing, drawing on grammar as an ongoing resource, focus on meaning). *Teaching grammar as skill* (striking a balance between product teaching with some emphasis on grammatical forms remained, and process teaching by involving learner in tasks which involves a measure of self-expression and focus on meaning.)

The problem with teaching grammar as product is that much of the knowledge gained is remained delicate and transitory unless the learner can put it into use in a meaning-focused context. At the same time in a process based teaching many of these forms may never emerge at all or not at all adequately. Therefore, an English teacher, especially those who teach at high schools should make a balance and teach in a way that students be able to use about is
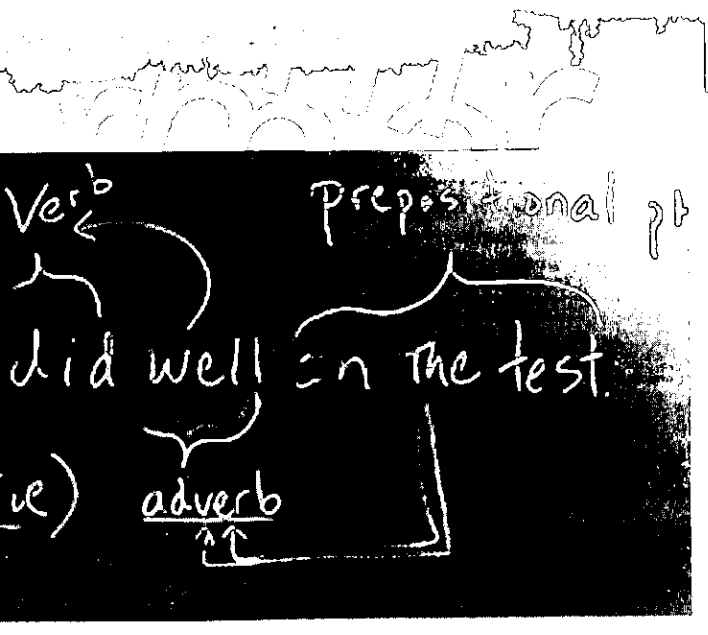
necessary for them and do not try to avoid language use because of their weakness or unfamiliarity with the ways and procedures of putting their ideas into practice and communication.

What Iranian students need is not only the knowledge but also how to use what they know or learn inside the classrooms. They have to learn to practice what is taught and learn inside the calss in real life conditions on outside the classes.

References:

Batstone, R. (1994). *Grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bowen, D. (1985). *TESOL Teachniques and Procedures*. Newbury House Publishers, INC.

Harmer, J. (2001). The practice of English language teaching. (3rd Ed.) Harlow: Pearson education limited.

Hudson, G. (2000). Essential Introductory Linguistics. Malden: Blackwell Publishers Inc.

Larsen Freeman, D. (1987). *Techniques and Priciples in Language Teaching*. N. Y. Oxford University Press.

Nunan, D. (2001). *Second Language Teaching & Learning*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publisher.

Mirhassan. S.A. & Ghaemi (2007) *Language Teaching Theories: Approuaches, Melhods and skill*. Tehran: kasa Karosh.

Mirhassani, S.A. (2003) *Theories, Approaches & Methods of TEFL*. Tehran: zabankadeh

and reading tell us what goes with what and explains the constituents of a sentence. Last but not least is the generative grammar deals with the deep and surface structure of sentences.

Spoken and written grammar

Grammar is usually discussed considering the written form of the language and it is just recently that the oral language has come to focus. As Harmer (2001) states:

"For many years grammars have told us about the written language so that, for example, we confidently state that a sentence needs at least a subject and a verb, which can then be followed by an object,... the grammar of speech has its own constructional principles, it is organized differently from writing... what is clear is that we need different grammar rules for speech and writing." (p.13)

Bowen (1985) believes that essentially the same kind of grammar is applied to written and spoken English. Although there are differences, the differences are in application rather than of kind. Since oral language is used in an appropriate physical setting, more deletion patterns are allowed. Written English, on the other hand, has more and greater range of embedding.

As Batstone (1994) points "we do not simply pick grammatical items off the shelf, packaged with ready made meanings. We fashion and

choose language to express ourselves, conveying a particular point of view." (p.16) He also states that other factors as social distance (being polite, avoid naming or responsibility, etc.), psychological distance (dominance of our mental world), and the hypothetical distance (unlikely or unreal world) affects the language we choose and use.

Need of grammar

As Batstone (1994) states shared hnowledge in some occasions eliminates the need of using grammar as a matter of redundancy, though there are some situations which the use of grammar and complete grammatical sentences is inevitable. Some of such instances are: unshared knowledge, the given-new principle, and the social context. He further notes that grammar provides useful signals which help us weave together the given and the new, and thus to keep the track of things in the ongoing discourse. In social contexts and appropriate deployment of grammar may not always be essential for communication of specific items of information but, again we can easily be upset, or even offended, if it is not used with the expected sensitivity. He also deals with the idea of learning grammar and suggests:

"It involves a number of operations. Firstly, learners need some language material to begin working on. This means extracting intake from input, a process which will frequently involve the conscious noticing of new language. Secondly, this material needs to be gradually sorted and restructured... Learning grammar for communication requires something more than noticing and structuring. What it requires is the ability to access knowledge efficiently, under the considerable pressure of real time communication" (p.42). He goes on always, "the learner has to mentally organize language into a user friendly mode, so that she can manage this complex of skills and reach a point where language can be deployed without the need for too much careful attention... these and countless more expressions trip off the tongue so easily because they are stored as wholes, and so they require no great

Introduction

As Nunan states "When someone is said to lack skills in language, or when the popular press descries what it sees as the declining standard of English, they are generally referring to an actual or perceived decline in the ability of individuals to express themselves grammatically."(2001,p.96). He also states that" the most comprehensive recent conceptualization of grammar has been provided by Larsen- Freeman (1995). Who sees grammar as a higher order concept within linguistics, arguing that it has three interrelated dimensions: *form, meaning* and *use*. Her model thus attempts to integrate three aspects of linguistics that have traditionally been kept separate: *syntax* (study of form), *semantics* (the study of meaning), and *pragmatics* (the study of use)" (2001, p.101). So, It can be concluded that the study of how syntax (form), semantics (meaning), and pragmatics (use) work together to enable individuals to communicate through language.

Grammar as Bowen states is "the rules by which we put together meaningful words and parts of words of a language to communicate messages that are comprehensible." (1985, p.161). He defines two aspects of grammar as knowing the rules, and applying the rules. The latter is true for native speakers who might not even know the rules but apply them expertly since the rules are internalized. On the other hand, there are some foreign language learners who though know the rules quite well cannot communicate. Harmer (2001, p.12) defines grammar as "the description of the ways in which words can change their forms and can be combined into sentences in that language."

Batstone makes a distinction between grammar as product and process (1994, p.5). He explains that in product view of grammar we isolate particular forms, regarding them first in terms of form and then in terms of meaning, while the study of grammar as process is the study of grammar as it is deployed in communication, and communication is concerned

in part with the exchange and sharing of knowledge through language. He states that a thorough knowledge of the formal grammatical system is not sufficient to enable us to communicate. We also need knowledge of the world so that we can make sense both of language and with language... To put language to use, then, we require two kinds of knowledge, known respectively as schematic knowledge or knowledge of the world and systemic knowledge or knowledge of the language system. Mir hassani & Ghaemi, 2007.

Syntax as Hudson (2000) states concerns sentence structure, and sentence structure may be said to have three aspects: *grouping* (grouping of words into meaningful and functional phrases, which are members, or constitutes, of larger phrases), *function* (the relationship of the noun phrases to the verb and to other words and groups in the sentences), and *word order* (the temporal or linear sequence of words of the sentence).

Applications of grammar

Approaches to teaching grammar as Bowen (1985) lists are usage grammar, scholarly grammar, signals grammar, slot-and-filler grammar, finite –state grammar, immediate-constituent grammar, and generative grammar. The usage grammar is mainly used in foreign language learning and deals with the correct and incorrect usage of the language. Scholarly grammar is a "massive compendium of sentences and examples, explaining in great details the rules and the expectations, usually reaching back to early literary sources for examples." (p.161). Signal grammar is quite useful for the practice of listening and speaking. The focus here is on the structure of function words. Slot-and-filler grammar provides considerable practice on the structural patterns of the language and places an emphasis on the morphology and syntax. In a finite-state grammar the listener is at the centre of attention. It encourages the listener to predict what the speaker is intended to say. Immediate-constituent grammar which serves in translation

Grammar

How to Teach Grammar

S.Mahmood Mirtabatabaei
Iran University of Science & Technology
emial: mtabatabaei@iust.ca.ir

چکیده

دستور زبان همیشه موضوع مشکل‌آفرینی بوده و هست. وجود نظرات متفاوت و گوناگون در مورد تدریس دستورزبان باعث شده است که عده‌ای آن را به‌صورت انتزاعی و جمعی به شکل غیرانتزاعی و یا به بیان بهتر، به دو نوع از کل به جز و یا از جز به کل توصیه و تدریس کنند. در روش‌های سنتی تأکید بر یادگیری اصول به‌صورت نظری یا حفظی است ولی در روش‌های جدید و به‌خصوص در عصر حاضر، توانایی استفاده از نکات دستوری اهمیت بسزایی یافته است. اگر فردی دستورزبان را به خوبی بداند و بر کاربرد آن نیز تسلط داشته باشد نوعی یادگیری ایده‌آل خواهد بود چون دانستن قواعد زبان را شرحی یا تعریفی بر دستور می‌خوانند، ترجیح داده می‌شود که فرد کاربرد و استفاده از زبان را یاد بگیرد و در شرایط مختلف از آن استفاده برد و با دیگران ارتباط برقرار کند و این نکته‌ای است که معلمان محترم ما هم باید به آن توجه کنند.

کلید واژه‌ها: دستور زبان، آموزش زبان، روش سنتی، روش غیرانتزاعی

Abstract

Grammar has always been a controversial issue in the teaching of language. Some believe that grammar be taught deductively by focusing on the forms, others think that it be taught inductively, enabling the students to explore the rules themselves and build up their knowledge throgh being involved with language in use. Different approaches to language teaching have adopted different views for teaching grammar. The traditional "Grammar Translation Method", as the name speaks, has adopted a completely deductive approach to teaching grammar, while more modern approaches have turned to use inductive ways of teaching grammar to different degress. These days grammar is mainly known as describing language as it is used, rather than prescribing how it should be used.

Key Words: grammar, language teaching, traditional deductive approach

reflect on their new experiences. Finally, it is important to note that different understandings might provide with an improved not a "correct" view of the world.

REFERENCES

Brooks, J. C. and Brooks, M. G. (1993). The Case for Constructivist Approach to Teacher Education. *Journal of Teacher Education*. 43(5), 323-335.

Brooks, J. C. and Brooks, M. G. (1999). *In Search of Understanding: The Case for Constructivist Classrooms*. Virgina: Associations for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Bruner, J. S. (1968). *Process of Cognitive Growth: Infancy*. New York: Clark University Press.

Bruner, J (2002). *Constructivist Learning Theory*. Retrieved July 20, 2004, From http://www.artsined.com/teachingarts/pedage/Dewy.htmI.

Chambliss, J. J. (1996). *Philosophy of Education: An Encyclopedia*. New York and London: Garland Publishing Company.

De Vries, R. (2000). Vygotsky, Piaget, and Education: A Reciprocal Assimilation of Theories and Educational Practices. *New Ideas in Psychology*, 18 (1), 187-213.

Fosnot, C. (1996). *Constructivism: A Psychological Theory of Learning. In C. Fosnot (Ed.) Constructivism: Theory, Perspectives, and Practice*, (pp. 8-33). New York: Teachers College Press.

Good, T. L. and Brophy, J. E (1990). Educational Psychology: A Realistic Approach. (4tn Ed.). *White Plains*, New York: Longman.

Green, S. K. and Gredler, M. E. (2002). A Review and Analysis of Constructivism for School-based School. *Psychology Review*, 31 (1), 53-70.

Jonasson, D. (1991). Evaluating Constructivist Learning. *Educational Technology*, 36 (9), 28-33.

Li, C. H. and Matthews, R. (2005). Vygotsky's Philosophy: Constructivism and Its Criticism Examined. *International Education Journal*, 6 (3), 386-399.

Mahoney, M. J. (2003). *Constructive Psychotherapy*. New York: Guilford.

Olsen, D. G. (1999). Constructivist Principles of Learning and Teaching Methods. *Education*, 120 (2), 347-355.

Piaget, J. (1973). *To Understand Is to Invent*. New York: Grossman.

Saunder, W. (1992). The Constructivist Perspective: Implications and Teaching Strategies For Science. *School Science and Mathematics*, 92 (3), 136-141.

Taylor, P. (1996). Mythmaking and Mythbreaking in the Mathematics Classroom. In: *Educational Studies in Mathematics* 31 (2), pp. 151-173.

Von Glasersfeld, E. (1996). Introduction: Aspects of Constructivism. In C. Fosnot (Ed.), *Constructivism: Theory, Perspectives, and Practice*, (pp. 3-7). New York: Teachers College Press.

Vosniadou, S. (1996). Towards a Revised Cognitive Psychology for New Advances in Learning and Instruction. *Learning and Instruction* 6, 95-109.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). *Thought and Language*. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press.

Vygotskcy, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wheatley, G. H. (1991). Constructivist Perspectives on Science and Mathematics Learning. *Science Education* 75 (1), 9-21.

way by lecturing, or should they teach in a constructivist way, where the children have to construct the knowledge for themselves. Some may feel that the constructivist theory is the best and most effective way for their children to learn. The students should have a constructivist teacher along with a constructivist classroom to help them discover new things for themselves. Constructivism promotes increased social interaction and discussion in the classroom, both between teachers and students and between students.

Pedagogical implications

Constructivism has roots in philosophy, psychology, sociology, and education. But while it is important for educators to understand constructivism, it is equally important to understand the implications this view of learning has for teaching and teacher professional development.

Constructivist's central idea is that human learning is constructed, that learners build new knowledge upon the foundation of previous learning. This view of learning sharply contrasts with one in which learning is the passive transmission of information from one individual to another, a view in which reception, not construction, is the key.

Two important notions orbit around the simple idea of constructed knowledge. The first is that learners construct new understanding using what they already know. They come to learning situations with knowledge from previous experiences. Prior knowledge influences what is constructed from new learning experience.

The second notion is that learning is active rather than passive. Learners confront their understanding in the light of what they encounter in the new learning situation. If what learners encounter is inconsistent with their current

understanding, their understanding change to accommodate new experiences. Learners remain active throughout this process: they apply current understandings, note relevant elements in new learning experiences, judge the consistency of the emerging knowledge, and based on that judgment, they can modify knowledge.

Constructivism has important implications for teaching. First, teaching cannot be viewed as the transmission of knowledge from the enlightened to the unenlightened; constructivist teachers do not take the role of the "sage on the stage." Rather, teachers act as "quides on the side" who provide students with opportunities to test the adequacy of their current understandings.

Second, if learning is based on prior knowledge, then teachers must note and exploit inconsistencies between learners' current understanding and new experiences before them. This challenges teachers, for they often assume that all children understand things in the same way. Further, children may need different experiences to davance to different levels of understanding.

Third, if students are supposed to apply their current understandings in new situations in order to build new knowledge, then teachers must engage students in learning, and try to bring students' current understandings to the forefront. Teachers should ensure that learning experiences incorporate problems that are important to students, not those that are primarily important to the educational system and the teachers themselves. Teachers can also encourage group interaction, where the interplay among participants help individual students become explicit about their own understanding by comparing it to that of their peers.

Fourth, active construction of knowledge takes time. Students need some ample time to

Brooks and Brooks (1993) have five guiding principles of constructivism.

1) Problems should be of relevance to students in instruction. 2) Learning structured around primary concepts. 3) Students' points of view should be valued. 4) The curriculum should be adapted to address students' suppositions. 5) Students learning should be assessed in the context of teaching.

Brooks and Brooks (1993) also have a model which is appropriate to any teaching environment and subject. The above models are not prescribed tasks, but rather "best practices" that constructivist teachers do. All of the models allow for the individual needs and conditions that the teacher may find himself/herself in and accommodate most subjects taught in schools.

Conclusion

Although constructivism is not a theory of teaching, is suggests a radically different approach to instruction from that currenty used in most schools. Instructors need to realize that the best way to learn is not receiving knowledge from lectures, but letting learners construct knowledge for themselves. People often say that everyone can learn. Yet the reality is that everyone does learn. Every person is born with a brain that functions as an immensely powerful processor. However, traditional schooling inhibits learning by discouraging, ignoring, or punishing the brain's natural learning processes.

In order for learners to be able to actively construct their own knowledge, rather than receive preformed information transmitted by others, curriculum emphases, classroom interactions, classroom dynamics must change in major ways (Green and Gredler, 2002). Changing the traditional ways of schooling is not an easy task though. Just as students do not easily let go of their ideas, neither do school boards, principals, parents, or even teachers.

In the talk of education, Constructivism is a very common word. There is much debate on whether teachers should stick to the traditional

2. Invite students to make decisions.

3. Encourage "what if" questions.

4. Encourage students to use their own methods

5. Promote discussion and communication.

6. Be replete with patterns.

7. Lead somewhere.

8. Have an element of surprise.

9. Be enjoyable.

10. Be extendable.

While the students are working together on the problem, the elements of cooperative learning should be taken into consideration including positive interdependence, Face to face interaction, individual accountability, and the appropriate use of interpersonal and small group skills. After the children have had an opportunity to explore the problem for about 25 minutes, Wheatley (1991) suggests that the teacher lead the class in a discussion in which each of the groups present their solutions methods, inventions, and insights. It is important for the teacher to maintain a neutral stance during this session and does not correct any "wrong" answers, but allows the students to discuss them.

Another approach to pedagogy, but more specifically related to science education is Saunders' (1992) four step approach. Saunders (1992) states that being a constructivist in science education does have implications and that the implications lead to a certain approach to teaching science. His first step is to organize hands-on investigative labs. These are problem centered and differ from the traditional "recipe" labs in that there are no prescibed methods or procedures to solving the problem or exploring the phenomena. Saunders (1992) states that in using the inquiry approach; the students must utilize their own schema to formulate expectations about what is likely to be observed.

The second implication is that there is active cognitive involvement. This is in contrast to the passive learning that takes place in many teacher "centered" oriented classrooms. Saunders (1992) explains that learning is made meaningful through activities like "thinking outloud, developing alternative explanations, interpreting data, participating in cognitive conflict (constructive arguing about phenomena under study), development of alternative hypotheses, the design of further experiments to test alternative hypotheses, and the selection of plausible hypotheses from among completing explanations" (p. 140).

The third component to Saunders' (1992) model is that students work in small groups. Saunders (1992) explains that "small-group work tends to stimulate a higher level of cognitive activity among larger numbers of students than does listening to lectures and thus provides expanded opportunities for cognitive restructuring."

The last implication of Saunders' (1992) model is higher level assessment. Although vague to what is really meant for this implication, the literature on alternative assessment is vast. Saunders (1992) explicitly states that by incorporating the above three strategies without assessing the way the students were taught cognitive activity will remain at a low level. It is to be mentioned that the tool should fit the task and reflect the way learning took place in the classroom. This has real implications for the traditional fill in the blank and multiple choice tests.

Saunders (1992) has great pieces of advice to the person who claims to be a constructivist. Although the strategies fit well the science classroom, they may be easily adapted to fit any subject area and accommodate many different learning styles.

manner. The student now knows that there is one answer to the teacher's question and that they have to find that one right answer. Another thing is that the student now knows that they put themselves at risk if they raise their hands, unless they are certain that they have the right answer. The teacher should respond to the student's answers by saying, "Gee, I never thought of it that way" or "That is a creative way of looking at it."

The teacher's response "No", causes the students to feel foolish. The teacher needs to encourage the student and support them. This is the idea of constructivism and what it means to be a constructivist teacher. The purpose of a constructivist teacher is to make the students think for themselves, and not to wait for the teacher to tell them what to think. In traditional classrooms the teacher seeks the correct answer to validate students' learning, whereas in a constructivist classroom the teacher seeks the students' point of view (Brooks and Brooks, 1999). The students will learn to proceed with less focus and direction from the teacher. With a constructivist teacher the students can express their own ideas clearly in their own words and not have to respond to restricted questions.

Creating a constructivist EFL classroom

Along with having a constructivist teacher you also need to have a constructivist classroom. "Creating a constructivist classroom requires that the classroom teacher be in a position to: (1) Influence or create motivating conditions for students, (2) Take responsibility for creating problem situations, (3) Foster acquisition and retrieval of prior knowledge, and (4) Create a social environment that emphasizes that attitude of learning to learn, (5) The learning process not the product of learning is the primary focus of constructivism" (Olsen, 1999, p. 2). The

constructivist teacher has to guide and not tell. The students have to make their own meanings and decisions. They are not to be handed to them by the teacher. To facilitate real learning, teachers need to organize their classroom and their curriculum so that students can collaborate, interact, and raise questions to be answered by both classmates and the teacher.
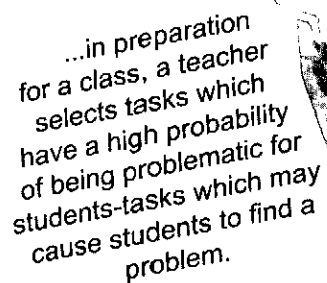
Constructivism and its impact on practice

There are three approaches which explore the impact of constructivism on pedagogy as follows: Wheatley's (1991) problem centered learning approach, Saunders' (1992) four step approach and Brooks and Brooks (1993) five guiding principles.

In 1991 Wheatley proposed a model of constructivist teaching using the problem centered learning approach. Wheatley (1991) states that "each student must be encouraged to build his/her own conceptual constructs that will permit the ordering of knowledge into useful problem solving schema". Wheatly adds that the teacher's role is to "provide stimulating and motivational experiences through negotiation and act as a guide in the building of personalized schema."

Wheatley's (1991) problem centered learning approach has three components: tasks, groups, and sharing. The model is a simple one to follow. Wheatley (1991) suggests that "in preparation for a class, a teacher selects tasks which have a high probability of being problematic for students-tasks which may cause students to find a problem. Secondly, the students work on these tasks in small groups. Finally, the class is convened as a whole for a time of sharing" (p. 15). Wheatley (1991)then goes in further detail explaining that the selection of tasks should be based upon students' beliefs and that the tasks should contain the following 10 attributes:
1. Be accessible to everyone at the start.

...in preparation for a class, a teacher selects tasks which have a high probability of being problematic for students-tasks which may cause students to find a problem.

"Cultural" and "Critical" constructivism can be placed under the umbrella of social constructivism.

• Cultural constructivism

Beyond the immediate social environment of a learning situation are the wider context of cultural influences, including customs, religion, biology, tools and language, For example, the format of books can affect learning, by promoting views about the organization, accessibility and status of the information they contain.

"[What we need] is a new conception of the mind, not as an individual information processor, but as a biological, developing system that exists equally well within an individual brain and in the tools, artifacts, and symbolic systems used to facilitate social and cultural interaction." (Von Vosniadou, 1996).

Critical constructivism

Critical constructivism looks at constructivism within a social and cultural environment, but adds a critical dimension aimed at reforming these environments in order to improve the success of constructivism applied as a referent.

Taylor (1996) describes critical constructivism as a social epistemology that addresses the socio-cultural context of knowledge construction and serves as a referent for cultural reform. It confirms the relativism of radical constructivism, and also identifies the learner as being suspended in semiotic systems similar to those earlier identified in social and cultural constructivism. To these, critical constructivism adds a greater emphasis on the actions for change of a learning teacher. It is a framework using the critical theory of Jurgen Habermas to help make potentially disempowering cultural myths more visible, and hence more open to question through conversation and critical self-reflection.

Constructivist classroom

Becoming a constructivist EFL teacher

We have all been in a classroom where the teacher asks a question from the students and hands fly up excitedly because the students feel that they know the answer. The teacher then looks around the room and chooses a student. The student answers and the teacher says, "No". The teacher then calls on another student who answers and the teacher says, "Close but not quite." The teacher then proceeds to call on a third student who answers and then teacher replies, "Yes, that is the right answer!."

The teacher conveys many lessons to the students by conducting their classroom in this

root of all the other shades of constructivism is what Von Glasersfeld (1996) calls trivial constructivism, also known as personal constructivism. The principle has been credited to Jean Piaget, a pioneer of constructivist thought, and can be summed up by the following statement:

Knowledge is actively constructed by the learner; not passively received from the environment.

This reacts against other epistemologies promoting simplistic models of communications as simple transmission of meanings from one person to another. The prior knowledge of the learner is essential to be able to "actively" construct new knowledge.

• Radical constructivism

Radical constructivism adds a second principle to trivial constructivism (Von Glasersfeld, 1996), which can be expressed as:

Coming to know is a process of dynamic adaptation towards viable interpretations of experience. The knower does not necessarily construct knowledge of a "real" world.

What is there to stop an individual from developing any "reality" they like? Taken to extremes, wouldn't we all be living in our own dream worlds, unable to communicate with other people or do anything for ourselves? Well, to some extent, we do all create our own realities. Radical constructivism does not deny an objective reality, but simply states that we have no way of knowing what that reality might be. Mental constructs, constructed from past experience, help to impose order on one's flow of continuing experience. However, when they fail to work, because of external or internal constraints, thus causing a problem, the constructs change to try and accommodate the new experience. How can people with different world views communicate? From a radical constructivist perspective, communication needs not involve identically shared meaning between participants. It is sufficient for their meanings to be compatible (Taylor, 1996). If neither of the parties does anything completely unexpected to the other, then their illusions of identically shared meaning are maintained (Von Glasersfeld, 1996).

Social constructivism

The second type of constructivism is social constructivism. It is a theory developed by psychologist Lev Vygotsky. Vygotsky's theory is very similar to Piaget's assumptions about how children learn, but Vygotsky places more emphasis on the social context of learning. Also, in Piaget's theory, the teacher plays a limited role whereas in Vygotsky's theory (Vygotsky, 1978) the teacher plays a very important role in learning. There is much more room for an active, involved teacher. Social constructivism argues that students can, with help from adults of children who are more advanced, grasp concepts and ideas that they cannot understand on their own. Unlike cognitive constructivism, teachers is social constructivism do not just stand by and watch children explore and discover. The teacher may guide students as they approach problems, may encourage them to work in groups to think about issues in question, and support them with encouragement and advice.

There is a great deal of overlap between cognitive constructivism and social constructivism, but there is also a great deal that is different. Cognitive theorists might argue that social theories do not adequately account for the process of learning, and social theorists might report that cognitive theories fail to account for the production and reproduction of the practices of schooling and the social order (Fosnot, 1996).

is based on two key ideas (1986). First, he proposed that intellectual development can be understood only in terms of the historical and cultural contexts children experience. Second, he believed that development depends on the sign systems that individuals grow up with: the symbols that cultures crate to help people think, communicate, and solve problems-for example, a culture's language, writing system, or counting system. Evidence for Vygotsky as a constructivist comes principally from his theory of the dialectic (De Vries, 2000, p. 187).

● *Jerome Bruner*

Along with the previous psychologists mentioned, Jerome Bruner also had a big influence on the theory of constructivism. Bruner's major ideas were that learning was an active, social process in which students construct new ideas or concepts based on their current knowledge. He also said that the instructor should try and encourage students to discover principles by themselves (Bruner 2002).

According to Bruner (1968) "cognitive growth involves an interaction between basic human capabilities and culturally invented technologies that serve as amplifiers of those capabilities".

These culturally invented technologies include not just obvious things such as computers and televisions, but also more abstract notions such as the way a culture categorizes phenomena, and language itself. Bruner would likely agree with Vygotsky that language serves to mediate between environmental stimuli and the individual's response.

Bruner's felt that the curriculum should be organized in a sprial manner so that students continually build upon what they already know.

Different types of constructivism

Today, among the espoused variants of constructivism, two are said to figure most prominently:

Cognitive constructivism, or personal constructivism, or, sometimes, radical constructivism; and social constructivism or, at times, realist constructivism (Liu and Matthews, 2005, p. 387). Within this prominent classification of cognitive and social constructivism, there are some sub-classifications which were discussed by some scholars such as Von Glasserfeld (1996), Vosiniadon (1996), and Taylor (1996).

● *Cognitive constructivism*

The first type of constructivism is cognitive constructivism. It is based on the work of the developmental psychologist Jean Piaget. Piaget's theory has two major parts: the "ages and stages", which predicts what children can and cannot understand at different ages, and the theory of development that describes how children develop cognitive abilities (Chambliss, 1996). The theory of development is the major foundation of cognitive constructivist approaches to teaching and learning. Piaget's theory of cognitive development suggests that humans cannot be "given" information which they automatically understand and use, they must "construct" their own knowledge. They have to build their knowledge through experience. Experiences allow them to create mental images in their head. Cognitive prospective theories focus on both what students learn and the process by which they do so (Fosnot, 1996). Cognitive constructivism is divided into "trivial" and "radical" constructivism.

● *Trivial constructivism*

The simplest idea in constructivism and the

What is constructivism?

The verb "to construct" comes from the Latin con struere, which means to arrange or give structure. Ongoing structuring (organizing) processes are the conceptual heart of constructivism.

Bartlett (1932, cited in Good and Brophy 1990) pioneered what became the constructivist approach. Constructivists believe that Learners construct their own reality or at least interpret it based upon their perceptions of experiences, so an individual's knowledge is a function of one's prior experiences, mental structures, and beliefs that are used to interpret objects and events. Accoring to Jonasson (1991) "What someone knows is grounded in perception of the physical and social experiences which are comprehended by the mind".

Few disciplines have changed as much or as rapidly as psychology. One expression of the changing language in psychology is the increasing use of trems that express constructive dimensions. The words "construct" and "construction" have been in use for centuries, of course. But "constructivism" is a relatively new word. Yet it is appearing with an accelerating frequency in the titles of books and articles in psychology (Mahoney 2003).

Important people in the development of the theory of constructivism

● *John Dewey*

Many psychologists worked on the theory of constructivism, but John Dewey was one of the first major contemporaries to develop this theory. According to him education dependes on action. For Dewey, mind is a means of transforming, reorganizing, reshaping accepted meanings and values, a means of attending to "the lived situations of life." Dewey kept telling his readers, "mind is active, a verb and not a noun" (Fosnot, 1996, p. 126). Dewey stressed the importance of having a student's knowledge grow from experience. Knowledge and ideas come only from a situation where learners have to draw them out of experiences that have meaning and importance to them. These situations, according to Dewey, have to occur in a social environment, where students can come together to analyze materials and to create a community of learners who build their knowledge together (see Democracy and Education, Dewey 1966, cited in Fosnot, 1996).

● *Jean Piaget*

Jean Piaget, as a psychologist, had a great influence on the theory of constructivism. Piaget was very interested in the way that children think. Piaget's constructivism was based on his view of the psychological development of children. He believed that the fundamental basis of learning was discovery: "To understand is to discover, to reconstruct by rediscovery, and such conditions must be complied with if in the future individuals are to be formed who are capable of production and creativity and not simply repetition." (Piaget 1973). According to Piaget (1973), to reach an understanding of basic phenomena, children have to go through stages in which they accept ideas they may later see as not truthful. Understanding is built up step by step through active involvement. "The focus of Piaget's theory is the various reconstructions that an individual's thinking goes through in the development of logical reasoning" (Green and Gredler, 2002, p. 3).

● *Lev Vygotsky*

A third view of constructivism was developed by Lev Vygotsky. Vygotsky believed that children learn concepts from their everyday notions and adult concepts. Vygotsky's work

Hossein Hashemnezhad, Islamic Azad University of Khoy
TEFL Ph.D Student, Tehran Islamic Azad University,
Science & Research Campus
H_hashemnezhad2000@yahoo.com

Constructivism and its Pedagogical Implications in Teaching

چکیده

هدف مقاله مرور مختصری بر شاخه‌های متفاوت نظریه‌ی ساختن‌گرایی در امر مطالعات آموزشی بوده است. در این راستا، ابتدا مفهوم ساختن‌گرایی شرح داده شده است. سپس به معرفی چهره‌های برجسته‌ای پرداخته شده است که در رشد و توسعه‌ی این نظریه دخالت داشته‌اند. در ادامه، شرح شکل‌های متفاوت نظریه‌ی ساختن‌گرایی، از جمله: بنیادی یا رادیکال، اجتماعی، فرهنگی و انتقادی آمده است.

از آن‌جا که رابطه‌ی تنگاتنگی بین نظریه و کاربرد عملی آن وجود دارد و وظیفه‌ی اصلی معلم، بیشتر پرداختن به ابعاد عملی آموزش زبان است تا بعد نظری آن، لذا در مقاله‌ی حاضر، این بعد آموزشی با توصیف ویژگی‌های معلم و کلاس براساس نظریه‌ی ساختن‌گرایی مورد توجه ویژه قرار گرفته و سعی شده است، تأثیر این نظریه در کاربردهای عملی آموزش تبیین شود. درنهایت، نتایج کلی و پیامدهای آموزشی این نظریه ارائه شده است.

کلیدواژه‌ها: ساختن‌گرایی، پیامدهای آموزشی، معلم پیرو نظریه‌ی ساختن‌گرایی، کلاس پیرو نظریه‌ی ساختن‌گرایی

Abstract

The purpose of this papers twofold; first, to present a brief review of the various streams of constructivism in studies of education and second to explore the application of the theory of constructivism to language pedagogy by describing the characteristics of constructivist teacher and classroom. To achieve these aims, the paper first introuduces the concept of constructivism and a number of key figures who have contributed to the development of this concept followed by a review of the different versions of constructivism. The discussion then shifts to application by a description of the characteristics of "Constructivist teacher" and "Constructivist classroom". The paper concludes with some pedagogical implications.

Key Words: constructivism, pedagogical implications, constructivist teacher, constructivist classroom

Cognition, 4:103 – 108.

Greenwald, A.G. (1981). "Self and Memory" In G.H.Bower (ed.). The Psychology of Learning and Motivation, Vol. 15. New York: Academic Press.

Greenwald and Johnson, (1989). "Undermining Reasonableness: Expert Testimony in a Case".

Harmer, J. (1987). Teaching and Learning and Learning Grammar. Longman.

Healy, A. F., Havas, D. A., & Parker, J.T. (2000). Comparing Serial Position Effects in Semantic and Epiodic Memory Using Reconstruction of Order Tasks. Journal of Memory and Language. 42,147167-.

Jacoby, L.L., and Craik, F.I.M., and Begg, I. (1979). "Effects of Decision Difficulty on Recognition and Recall". Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 18:585- 600.

Johnson – Liard, P.N., and Stevenson, R. (1970). "Memory for Syntax. Nature". O.U.P.

Jourabchi, S. (1994). The Effect of L2 Knowledge on the Generation Effect Phenomenon. Ph. D. Thesis. Tehran: Islamic Azad University.

Kane, J.H. and Anderson, R.C. (1978). "Depth of Processing and Interference Effects in the Learning and Remembering of Sentences". Journal of Educational Psychology, 70:625- 635.

Keenan, J. Macwhinney, B. and Mayhew, D. (1977). "Pragmatics in Memory: A study of Natural Conversation". MIT Press.

Kinjo, H. & Snodgrass, J.G. (2000). Does the generation effect occur for pictures? American Journal of Psychology 113, 95117-.

Littlewood, W. (1981). Communicative Language Teaching. C.U.P.

McElroy, L.A. and Slamecka, NJ. (1982). Consequences: "Memorial of Generating Nonwords: Implications for Semantic Memory Interpretations of the generation Effect. "Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 21:249259-.

McFarland, C.E., Frey, T.J., and Rhodes, D.D. (1980). "Retrieval of Internally Versus Externally Generated Words in Episodic memory". Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 19:210225-.

Pennington, M. (2002). Grammar and Communication: New Directions in Theory and Practice. In E. Hinkel and S. Fotos, (Eds.), New Perspectives on Grammar Teaching in Second Language Classrooms (pp. 7798-). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Sachs, (1967). "Comprehension of Two-word Instructions by Children in One – word Stage". Papers and Reports on Child Language Development.

Sharifian, F. (2000). The Effect of Self – generated Cues on ESL Learners' Recall of Narrative Texts. Proceedings of Western Australian Institute for Educational Research Forum 2000. Available http:// cleo. Murdoch. Edu. au/ waier / forums/ 2000 / contents. Html.

Sharifian, F. (2001a). The Mnemonic Influence of Self – cues on Narrative Recall. Issues in Educational Research. 11 (1), 1524-.

Slamecka, N.J. and Katsaiti, L. T. (1987). "The Generation Effect as an Artifact of Selective Displayed Rehearsal. "Journal of Memory and Language, 26:589- 607.

Slamecka, N.J. and Graf, P. (1978). The Generation effect: Delineation of a Phenomenon. "Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Learning and Memory, 4:592604-.

Thompson, G. (1996). "Some Misconceptions about Communicative Language Teaching. "ELT Journal, 50:1.

Tyler, S.W., Hertel, P.T. McCallum, M.C., and Ellis, H.C. (1979). "Cognitive Effort and memory". Journal of Psychology: Human Learning and Memory, 5:607617-.

Wanner, E. (1976). "An ATN Approach to Comprehension". C.U.P.

Widdowson, H.G. (1990). Aspects of Language Teaching. O.U.P.

Wilkins, D.A. (1972). Linguistics and Language Teaching. London: Edward Arnolds.

A careful study of tables 1 and 2 reveals that the means and the variances in both groups are nearly the same. The figures indicate that the two groups are homogenous, with no previous knowledge about the passivization rule.

After the task performance, the following results were obtained:

Table 3: The results of the students' posttest scores

Group	Mean	SD	Variance
1	12.63	2.13	4.54
2	15.88	1.83	3.53

Table 4: The results of t-test applied to the means of the two groups

t-critical value	Mean	One tailed probability	t – observed
2.046	58	0.05	6.34

A careful study of tables 3 and 4 points out a highly significant difference between the two groups. Clearly, the generating group performed more significantly than did the reading group. The mean of the generating group differed more sizably than that of the other one. The main effects of the t–test shown in table 4 provides a strong support for the hypothesis posed earlier.

Further, the current findings seem to complement and lend support to the related findings reported earlier. The analysis showed the priority of learning FL grammatical rules by generating over learning them by reading.

Implications of the Study ————◇—

The study is highly related to the teaching issues. Nowadays most of the time in the classes of grammar is wasted on teaching the rules of grammar. But a good condition such as the generating condition has opened a new window to the teaching of grammar, which will be of benefit for both teachers and learners. Undoubtedly, any issue related to teaching would be related to testing as well. The present research provides a key for designing and preparing valid and reliable tests of grammar as well.

The result of the present study may be of benefit for theoreticians as well. At this stage, our theories of teaching grammar are fragmentary. Presently, we know that our methods in teaching grammar are inadequate and possibly passive.

This study will pave the way for arriving at a validated method of teaching grammar, the elements of which can serve as major instructional objectives in course design.

References

Anderson, R.C., Goldberg, S.R., and Hidde, J.L. (1971. "Meaningful Processing of Sentences" *Journal of educational Psychology,* 62:395- 399.

Bartelett, J.R. (1932). *"Books of Anecdotes".* Basil Blackwell.

Birjandi, P. et al (1996), *"800 – test Items"* Ghomes Publication.

Bobrow, S.A. and Bower, G.H. (1969). *"Comprehension and Recall of Sentences." Journal of Experimental Psychology,* 80:455461-.

Dooling and Christiansen, (1977). *"Constructive Theories of Long – Term Memory"* C.U.P.

Flagg and Reynold, (1977). "Curriculum for Class". Prentice – Hall.

Fotos, S. (2005). Traditional and Grammar Translation Methods for Second Language Teaching. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 653670-). Mahwah, JN: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Goldberg and Hidde, (1971). *"Memory Enhancement in Language Pedagogy".* Methuen.

Graf, P. (1980). "Two Consequences of Generating: Increased Inter – and Intraword Argumentation Sentences. *"Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior,* 19:319327-.

Greenwald, D. (1976). "The Attentional Demands of Mnemonics Control Processes".*Memory and*

proficiency test of grammar was given to 200 students. The subjects were homogenous as far as English grammar was concerned. The age range of the subjects was from 15 to 16.

B. Instrumentation and Materials

First of all, in order to form homogeneous groups, a proficiency test of grammar was given to 200 students who were taking the English courses at Shokouh's institute. Then, a pretest was given to ensure that the subjects had not learned the passivization rule before. After scoring, the subjects were divided into two groups of thirty. A list of sentences was prepared. The list contained fifteen pairs of active sentences and their passive counterparts.

At the end of the study, a posttest containing 60 items selected from the book 800 – test items written by Dr. Birjandi et al (1996) and TOEFL was given to the two groups to find out the probable differences between their performances.

C. Design

The design of this study was "Pretest posttest control group design".

There were two groups of thirty in the study.

| X | T2 | | T1 | (R | G1 (A |
| T2 | | | T1 | (R | G2(B |

G = Group   R = Random
     X = Passivization
        Pretest = T1
Posttest =   T2

Procedure

Since the purpose of this study was to compare the two groups, they were given the materials differently. Subjects in group 1 were given the reading task and subjects in group 2 were given a generating task. The learning condition was the same for both groups. In the former, the subjects were given a passivization rule. The subjects had to read the rules and then the given examples. To be sure that the subjects had understood the rules, they were checked by being asked to convert one structure into another.

In the generating condition, the researchers gave the generating group the same materials given to the reading group. But the passivization rule was not given. The subjects' duty was to bring forth the rule of passivization after reading the given sentences.

At the second stage, the same groups of subjects took the posttest. The scores obtained from the posttest then were compared in terms of their means.

Data Analysis and Conclusions

Hypothesis: The hypothesis in this study was that when grammar rules are generated by the learners, they would be recalled better than when they are just being read.

In other words, learning the FL grammatical rules is better is the learners generate those rules compared with when they passively read them ($P<0.05$).

Table 1: The results of the students' proficiency scores

Group	Mean	SD	Variance
1	13.53	1.64	2.96
2	14.01	1.98	3.93

Table 2: The results of the students' pretest scores

Group	Mean	SD	Variance
1	8.75	1.17	1.37
2	8.06	1.80	3.24

well remembered (Keenan, Mac Whinny and Mayhew, (1977). Sachs (1967) showed that people rapidly forget surface syntax. She conducted her experiment regarding listening comprehension. Her subjects listened to some passages and at the end of listening activity; four kinds of test sentence were used: the original, a passivized version of it, a version with phrases switched round and a version in which the roles of characters were reversed. When the test was immediate, the subjects were good at distinguishing all three kinds of changes. Wanner (1974) demonstrated forgetting of spoken detail at seven apparent instructions for a different experiment after they had read them and found that they were unable to remember the details.

In most cases, researchers have demonstrated that self-generation of cues (i.e., one or a few words) for the paragraphs of a text either during learning or at the onset of recall facilitates the retrieval of a text's contents, whether or not the cues are inspected during recall (Sharifian, 2000, 2001 a; Van Dam & Brinkerink, Carlier, 1988, 1989, 1990).

Jourabchi (1994) performed some experiments to measure the extension of GEP into FL vocabulary. In her study, she conducted four experiments. She carried out the experiments with dual and unilingual combinations of Farsi (L1) and English (FL). The subjects' retention of the study items in the reading and generating conditions was measured by free recall and recognition memory tests. The results of the data analysis showed that her hypotheses were tenable.

Anderson, Goldberg, and Hidde (1971) prepared a series of sentences in such a way that the rest of sentences semantically determined the last word of those sentences. They showed that the subjects who had generated the last word of the sentences remembered significantly more than the subjects who read the already completed sentences.

It seems that the generation phenomenon involves deeper meaning processing in comparison with pure reading and this deeper meaning processing produces better memory (Anderson, Goldberg & Hidde, 1971; Jacoby, 1978; Kane & Anderson, 1978). In fact, the act of generation requires more effort than reading (Griffith, 1976; McFarland, Frey & Rhodes, 1980), which can play an important role in producing a stronger trace in memory (Jacoby, Craik & Begg, 1979; Tyler, Helter, McCallum & Ellis, 1979).

When subjects are generating the items themselves, any memory trace(s) should involve attributes that are related to one's cognitive operations and this enhances memory (Greenwald, 1981; McFarland et al. 1980). In short, many experts agree upon the effect of GEP on different parts of language. Thus, GEP might also affect the grammar of language too.

Method ⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯⎯◇⎯

A. Subjects

Sixty female students participated as subjects in two groups of thirty in this study. They were selected from among the first–year high school students. In the initial stage of selection, a

been frequently shown that people remember words best when they have generated them in comparison with when they have only read them. Bower (1969) showed that cued recall for pairs of words was better if people generated their own responses cued by the experiments. Slamecka and Graf (1978) conducted a series of five different experiments evaluating the effects of generation by recognition testing under five different encoding rules such as: associate (lamp – light), category (ruby – diamond), opposite (short–long), synonym (sea-ocean), and rhyme (save – cave). The results showed that there was better remembering in the generation task as compared with the reading task. Greenwald and Johnson (1989) in a series of experiments showed the effect of GEP in a wide range of circumstances.

In memorizing a list of items or events, the first few items are remembered best, the last few next best, and the items in the center are the hardest to recall (Frensch, 1994; Healy, Havas & Parker, 2000; Todd & Roediger, 1995). This effect is referred to as "The Serial – Position Effect". The higher recall for the first items on the list is called "The Primacy Effect", and the better recall on end – of-list is called "The Recency Effect". It seems that Serial Position Effects influence the generation of items to a large extent (Healy, Havas & Parker, 2000).

According to Thompson (1996) grammar is too complex to be taught and the focus has now moved away from the teacher covering grammar to the learners discovering grammar. His idea may be a support for an inductive approach of teaching grammatical rules.

While it is essential for learners to be able to manipulate grammatical form, it is not sufficient. Learners also need to understand the concept(s) expressed and the function(s) performed by a particular grammatical element (Harmer, 1987:9 – 11 & 17; Littlewood,

1984:1; Widdowson, 1990:95, 97 & 166). Fotos says: "It is time to take the position that a combination of grammar instruction and the use of communicative activities provide and optimum situation for effective L2 learning" (2005, p. 668). The old-fashioned notion that teaching grammar is a matter of teaching "rules" has given way to a recognition that grammar is, as Pennington says, "nothing more or less than the organizing principles of a linguistic or (broader) communicational system, without which, there is no system" (2002, p. 78). Pennington calls for the field to bring grammar "back from the margins and into the heart of language and the language teaching profession where it belongs" (2002, p. 78).

Miller in his Kernel-plus-tags theory emphasized syntax claiming that sentences are remembered in terms of their syntactic structures. After giving this assumption, it became necessary to determine what aspects of sentences people actually remember. It appeared that they could not remember syntactic details very well. This showed that people are mostly content-interested rather than form-interested.

There are several factors that show why the surface form of sentences is forgotten so rapidly. One of these factors is auditory versus visual presentation of the text to be remembered. Thus, it is more difficult to remember the form of spoken sentences than the forms of written sentences (Flagg and Reynold, 1977). Another factor is the time between presentation and testing. Surface form is remembered well only for a short time (Bartlett, 1932, Dooling & Christiansen, 1977). Third, people who are expecting a memory test on surface form can remember it, while the others who have seen or heard the same materials cannot (Johnson Laird Stevenson, 1970). Finally, if the surface form of a sentence has been specifically chosen to convey in formation, it may be comparatively

in the study a proficiency test, a pretest, and a posttest. Teaching materials were fifteen pairs of active/ passive sentences. The subjects, while being divided into two equal groups in number, had to read the study lists. The generating group, the group generating the rules, produced the rules inductively, while the group who read the rules (reading group), was given the rules beforehand.

After taking a posttest, the mean was calculated for each group and the t value was also determined. The result was that the generating group had outperformed the reading group. This confirmed the hypothesis posed above.

Key Words: generation effect, lexical activation, lexical memory, semantic file, syntactic file.

Introduction ——————————◇——

In recent years there has been an upsurge of interest in the Generation Effect Phenomenon proposed by Slamecka and Graf (1978). They argued that the same materials were better retrieved, when produced by the subjects themselves than when they are read. Slamecka and Katsaiti (1987) found no generation effect in dual language study lists, but showed the generation effect in unilingual materials in English.

McElroy and Slamecka (1982) in three different experiments demonstrated that the GEP is sensitive to the lexical status of the item to be remembered. In defense of a lexical activation hypothesis, McElroy, et al. (1982) reason that since non-words contain no lexical entry, one should be unable to obtain a generation effect with such stimuli because no contact with lexical memory is possible.

After that, their experiments yielded a GE for the word responses but not for the non-word ones. Their study can be developed to sentence level as well. If the sentence is ungrammatical and as a result has no fixed meaning, then there should be no GE for it. But if the words are in their correct slots; in other words, if the sentences are both grammatical and acceptable, then the GE must occur.

Semantic analysis occurs in the deep stages of processing. We have boxes in our heads called "Schemes of memory". Information is transferred from stage to stage until some of it is finally lodged in the long-term memory. When the subjects produce a rule, they should transfer information about the words and find their references in their memory. In other words, when a sentence like "Mary saw Jack" is to be compared with "Jack was seen by Mary", the subjects refer to their mental lexicon and find out that "Jack" and "Mary" are in the same slots since the pointers to these items are the two verbs and the object movement to the beginning of the sentences and finally adding a "by doer" at the end of passives. To do these interpretations, the subject should refer to the mental lexicon for each item.

The grammatical items should be found in a syntactic file and the acceptable meaning is to be judged in the semantic file.

In the case of a reading task, it can be argued that all of these bits of information are given and the brain has nothing to do with information processing. The thing that is to be done is a simple searching in the semantic file for the related meaning. But in the generating task, both syntactic and semantic files are activated. Thus, the stability of this task will be much more than that of reading. But whether the GEP can be extended to the learning of grammatical rules is a matter of investigation in the present research.

Review of the Related Literature ——◇——

In the literature concerning GEP, it has

Inducing or Deducing Grammar? (A GEP Perspective)

HAMID REZA KHALAJI
hkhalaji@yahoo.com)
&
PAYMAN RAJABI
paymanrajabi2002@yahoo.com)
Islamic Azad University, Malayer Branch

چکیده

اسلامکا و گراف (۱۹۷۸)، پس از انجام یک سلسله آزمون‌های جامع، اصطلاح «تأثیر تولید» را وضع و ثابت کردند، آزمون‌شوندگان مطالبی را که خود تولید می‌کنند، بهتر از مطالبی که به‌صورت انفعالی می‌خوانند، به‌خاطر می‌سپارند. برای اثبات گسترش پدیده‌ی تأثیر تولید در یادگیری قوانین دستوری، آزمایشی انجام گرفت و به کمک یک آزمون چند گزینه‌ای، توانایی کاربرد قوانین معلوم و مجهول کردن جمله در آزمون‌شوندگان اندازه‌گیری شد، در این تحقیق، سه نوع آزمون: تست دانش عمومی زبان، پیش تست و پس تست (آزمون نهایی) مورد استفاده قرار گرفتند.

پس از انجام تست نهایی، میانگین دو گروه «تولیدکنندگان» و «خوانندگان انفعالی» محاسبه و ثابت شد که گروه اول (تولیدکنندگان) عملکردی به مراتب بهتر از گروه دوم داشت. بدین‌ترتیب نظریه‌ی اسلامکا و گراف مجدداً مورد تأیید قرار گرفت.

کلیدواژه‌ها: تأثیر تولید، فعال‌سازی واژگانی، حافظه‌ی واژگانی، فایل معنایی، فایل ترکیبی/ نحوی

Abstract

Slamecka and Graf (1978) coined the term "Generation Effect" after conducting a comprehensive series of tests that demonstrated the subjects' superior retention of the self-produced targets over the items that are passively read.

The generation effect refers to the finding that learners are more likely to remember the items that they have generated in one way or another, either totally or partially, than the items they have just read or memorized (e.g. Kinjo & Snodgrass, 2000).

An experiment was performed in order to show the extension of GEP iinto learning Foreign Language grammatical rules. The subjects' retention of the rules of making passive sentences was measured by a multiple-choice test. The participants were all at the age of 1517-. Three kinds of materials were used

Conclusion

On peut apprendre une culture étrangère sans suivre l'enseignement correspondant à la langue, mais on ne peut pas apprendre bien une langue sans connaître sa culture. Si on connaît bien la culture cible, le nombre de perturbations dans des situations réelles de communication se diminuera.

L'analyse de la méthode Campus a bien montré que les éléments culturels de cette méthode sont présents dans le contexte, dans des images, dans les textes et il ne s'agit pas uniquement de faits isolés; donc cette méthode essaie d'intégrer les éléments culturels.

Notre objectif principal était de montrer si les éléments interculturels contenus dans la méthode *Campus* peuvent participer à la bonne création des situations réelles de communication.

Pour ceci nous avons accompli notre travail par une étude du terrain. Nous avons choisi un groupe parmi les apprenants qui venaient de finir le premier livre de cette méthode; ce qui veut dire qu'ils se trouvent au niveau intermédiaire. Nous avons choisi également un groupe d'enseignant qui utilise cette méthode.

En comparant les questions, on a pu voir que non seulement cette méthode ne pose aucun problème perturbant l'apprentissage, mais en plus elle encourage les apprenants à parler. Ce qui signifie qu'elle est convenable pour mener les apprenants à se débrouiller dans des situations réelles de communication.

Bibliographie

Baumgratz-Gangl G., 1992, *Compétence Transculturelle et Échanges Éducatifs*, Paris, Hachette.

BEACCO J.C., 2000, *Les Dimensions Culturelles des Enseignements de Langue*, Paris, Hachette.

COURTILLON J., 2003, Élaborer un Cours de FLE, Paris, Hachette.

Cuq J.P., Sous la Direction, 2003, *Dictionnaire de Didactique Français. Langue Étrangère et Second*, Paris, Clé International.

FENNER A.B. et al, 2002, *Sensibilisation Aux Cultures et Aux Langues Dans L'apprentissage des Langues Vivantes Sur la Base de L'interaction Dialogique Avec des Textes*, Strasbourg, Conseil de l'Europe.

GIRARDET J., PÉCHEUR. J., 2002, *Campus 1, Méthode de Français*, Paris, Clé International.

KOLODZIEJSKA E. et al, 2002, *Les Langues à Travers le Curriculum: Travail en Réseau et Élaboration de Supports Pédagogiques Dans un Contexte International*, Strasbourg, Conseil de l'Europe.

LAZAR I., 2003, *Intégrer La Compétence en Communication Interculturelle Dans La Formation Des Enseignants*, Strasbourg, Conseil de l'Europe.

PORCHER L., 1986, *La Civilisation*, Paris, Clé International.

ZARATE G., 1986, *Enseigner Une Culture Étrangère*, Strasbourg, Hachette.

Ici on divise les questions en cinq catégories en fonction de leurs similitudes. On donne le signe H à chaque catégorie.

H1: les expériences interculturelles facilitant l'apprentissage de la grammaire.
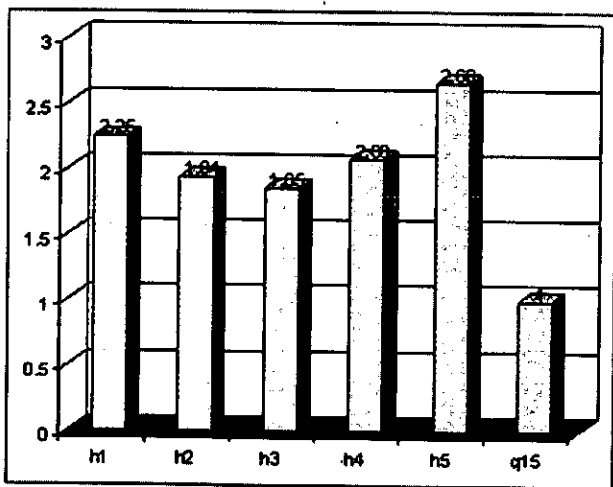
H2: variation culturelle.

H3: les éléments culturels encourageant l'apprentissage.

H4: situation communicative correspondants aux besoins culturels.

H10: éléments culturels perturbants l'apprentissage.

La catégorie du résultat obtenu par les enseignants

H1: l'intégration des caractéristiques culturelles par la méthode.

H2: Les aspects encourageants de la méthode *Campus* pour les apprenants.

H3: Présentation de l'identité française dans la méthode *Campus*.

H4: Initiation à la culture de l'autre (à la culture étrangère par la méthode *Campus*

H5: Situation réelle de la communication.

q15: les éléments perturbants l'apprentissage.

Aussi on catégorise les questions communes entre ces deux groupes de la manière suivante:

1. Les aspects encourageants de la méthode Campus: la moyenne obtenue chez les apprenants H3: 2,75 et chez les enseignants H2: 1,75.

2. Situation réelle de communication pour les apprenants la moyenne obtenue est H4: 2,68 et selon les enseignants H5: 2,66.

3. Les éléments perturbants l'apprentissage selon les apprenants H10: 1,63 et Selon les enseignats H15: 1,00.

Le résultat de la comparaison:

Les questions posées aux apprenants et aux enseignants ont été divisées en quelques catégories selon leurs similitudes. En comparant les questions communes posées à ces deux groupes, on a constaté qu'ils ne partagent pas exactement les mêmes idées; par exemple, les questions qui portent sur l'aspect encourageant de la méthode pour faire parler les apprenants ne donnent pas un résultat pareil.

D'après les apprenants, les éléments culturels de cette méthode les encourage à parler (la moyenne: 2,75). Et selon les enseignants ces éléments ne sont pas aussi encourageants que les apprenants pensent (la moyenne: 1,75).

Mais, pour la question qui examine les situations réelles de communication dans cette méthode, on trouve les mêmes réponses chez les deux groupes. La moyenne obtenue selon le collimateur des apprenants (H4) est de 2,68, et la moyenne obtenue selon le collimateur des enseignants est de 2,66.

Et aussi par rapport à la question qui étudie les éléments interculturels perturbant cette méthode, les deux groupes ont trouvé qu'elle ne pose aucun problème aux apprenants.

pour aborder la méthode. Cette méthode est réalisée par Jacky Girardet et Jacques Pécheur.

Des objectifs visant une compétence de communication adaptée aux besoins

Les objectifs généraux que se fixe *Campus* ont été déterminés par une enquête menée auprès de nombreux utilisateurs potentiels: lycées et universités, écoles de langues, centre culturel et institut français, etc. Il s'agit de préparer les apprenants à faire face aux situations de communication les plus diverses à l'exclusion des situations professionnelles spécifiques. Cette visée suppose des savoir-faire communicatifs, des savoir culturels, mais également des savoir-vivre (vaincre la peur de parler, se positionner en tant que locuteur étranger, etc.). Les objectifs de *Campus* entrent dans le cadre commun de référence défini par le Conseil de l'Europe. Ils incluent également la préparation aux épreuves du DELF (unité A1 après le niveau 1, A2 après le niveau 2.)

La présentation des éléments culturels dans la méthode Campus

Il y a beaucoup d'éléments culturels dans cette méthode. Quelques leçons sont uniquement consacrées à des aspects culturels de la langue française et quelques autres sont consacrées aux cultures internationales. Les éléments culturels de cette méthode sont présents dans le contexte, dans des images, dans les textes et il ne s'agit pas uniquement de faits isolés. Ainsi, cette méthode essaie d'enseigner les éléments culturels illocutionnairement c'est-à-dire que cette méthode enseigne les éléments culturels indirectement.

On peut dire qu'à travers sa thématique *Campus* I donne l'image d'une France actuelle, moderne, plurielle et ouverte sur le monde.

En même temps qu'un intérêt pour les spécialités françaises, on cherche donc à établir une proximité entre les apprenants étrangers et les français. Dans cette méthode on trouve plusieurs images, plusieurs reportages qui considèrent une affaire sous tous ses aspects. C'est pourquoi, dans cette recherche, nous visons à savoir si les éléments interculturels contenus dans la méthode Campus peuvent participer à la bonne création des situations réelles de communication. Pour ceci nous avons accompli notre travail par une étude du terrain. On a préparé un questionnaire à distribuer entre les apprenants du français concernés par cette méthode (un groupe de 22 personnes). Ces apprenants se trouvent au niveau intermédiaire et ils viennent de terminer le premier livre. Ensuite, on a distribué le même questionnaire entre les enseignants de cette méthode. Et enfin on a analysé et comparé le résultat obtenu des questions communes chez les deux groupes.

Ici on considère un seuil critique 2,5 (la moyenne de déviation) et on compare tous les résultats obtenus avec ce seuil critique.

La catégorie du résultat obtenu par les apprenants à partir des questions posées sur la méthode Campus.
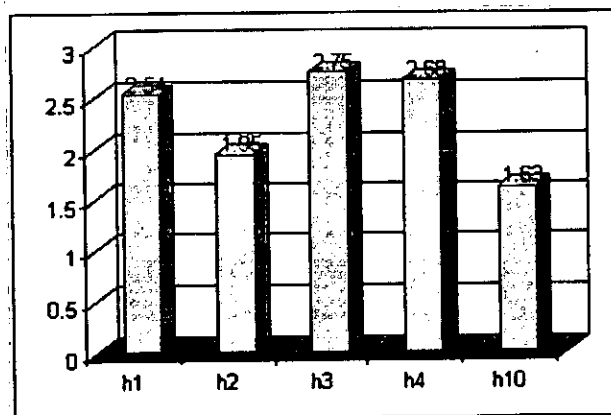
conflits sociaux, ainsi que des structures sous-jacentes à la culture étrangère."

En reprenant ces différentes idées sur les objectifs et les informations concernant la culture, on peut dire que le but de l'interculturel serait d'amener les apprenants à:

1) Pouvoir comprendre grâce à un effort personnel les cultures des pays francophones et surtout la France.

2) Pouvoir entrer en contact avec l'autre et pouvoir faire son portrait culturel et savoir se positionner par rapport à lui.

3) Pouvoir s'exprimer par tous les moyens possibles pour présenter objectivement les autres cultures.

D'après Ross Steele (1990: 45), "l'approche interculturelle doit passer par la connaissance de la propre identité culturelle des apprenants. En faisant l'analyse des attitudes et des comportements de leurs concitoyens, les étudiants aboutissent à l'idée que leur identité culturelle représente un système complexe, sans homogénéité d'idées supposées.

Cela leur permet d'éviter la généralisation sur les mentalités des français et de relativiser les stéréotypes et les idées reçues sur la France."

Il faut donc miser dans la classe de langue sur le désir et l'effort de comprendre l'"autre, sur l'interaction avec l'autrui et sur le refus des préjugés personnels et nationaux. Il faudrait en tout cas faire de l'autre un moyen d'enrichissement. Ce qui pourrit favoriser le terrain pour l'agir et l'interagir dans une perspective communicative et co-actionnelle.

L'enseignement transculturel comme un savoir-être

Le contact avec une société autre que la sienne par le biais de la langue est un moyen d'échapper à l'ethnocentrisme et de s'ouvrir sur d'autres groupes afin d'élargir son champ de perception et de tendre vers l'humanité dans son ensemble.

Ceci permet aussi une relativisation des pratiques sociales, des convictions et des croyances de chaque individu par la rencontre d'autres cultures.

C'est pourquoi, G. Baumgratz-Gangl propose de substituer le terme "transculturel" à l'adjectif interculturel «issu du contexte de l'enseignement des langues étrangères pour les immigrés" (1992: 19). Cette décentration qui favorise la découverte d'autres manières d'être au monde (le savoir - être) correspond à l'image d'un univers en mutation et prépare les apprenants à vivre l'expérience de coexistence. Dans cette perspective, il faudrait faire de la langue étrangère un médiateur capable de lier la conscience individuelle à la conscience sociale afin de les faire cohabiter dans des sociétés internationalisées et multiculturelles.

Cette fonction continue à être assumée, même sur le monde mineur, par la classe de langue, où ce qui importe alors n'est plus tant la connaissance que l'on peut acquérir d'une culture différente, mais l'attitude, moins spontanément ethnocentrique, la qualité d'écoute dont chaque apprenant sera en mesure de faire preuve, de manière à réintégrer les autres cultures au terme du périple langagier, "plein d'usage et raison". L'approche transculturelle fait partie de cette connaissance.

Présentation de la méthode Campus et ses intérêts interculturels

C'est une méthode pour l'enseignement du français langue étrangère à des grands adolescents et à des adultes débutants.

La méthodologie, la pédagogie et l'univers thématique de Campus ont été choisis pour convenir à ce type de public. Celui-ci n'a besoin d'aucunes connaissances préalables en français
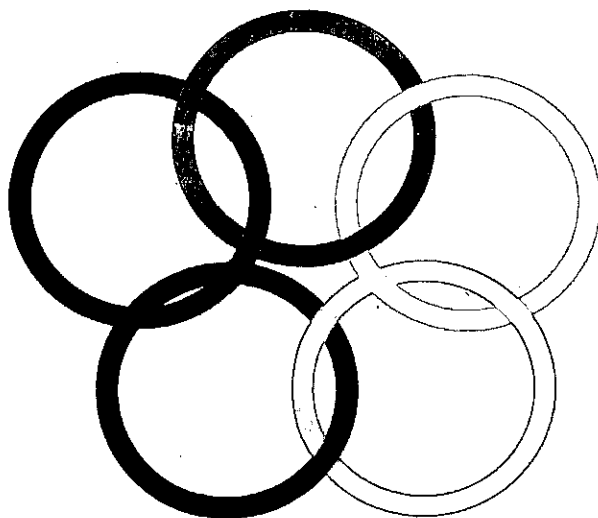
L'approche interculturelle

Compte tenu des mutations sociale, politique, didactique et cognitive, l'enseignement d>une langue ne peut plus être dépendant de la promotion d'une seule culture considérée comme supérieure.

De ce point de vue, un enseignant de la langue doit-il tenter de réconcilier les rapports entre les groupes culturels avec la culture et la langue enseignées, ainsi que son propre rapport vis-à-vis des autres cultures présentes dans sa classe.

Parmi les deux termes qui composent l'expression "interculturelle", le concept de culture renvoie le pédagogue à un questionnement sur le champ même de définition du mot "culture" ainsi que sur les modalités possibles d'appropriation et de perception d'une culture.

"La culture est un système de valeurs dynamiques formé d'éléments acquis, avec des postulats des croyance et des règles qui permettent aux membres d'établir des rapports entre eux et avec le monde, de communiquer et de développer les capacités créatrices qui existent chez eux." (Culture; publication de UNESCO, 1977: 90)

Selon Beacco j.c. "S'engager dans la voie de la culture nécessite d'une part un travail sur Soi sur son propre engagement, et de l'autre, un effort de se rapprocher du monde et des autres. Cette mise en perspective de soi et des relations qui nous unissent aux autres, conditionne toute approche qui se veut multidimensionnelle et interactive". (2000: 57)

En ce sens, tout travail sur une culture autre renvoie à un travail sur sa propre identité et sur la reconnaissance de l'identité d'autrui non pas comme objet mais comme sujet et acteur.

L'approche interculturelle est fondée sur cette double reconnaissance et suggère une approche des cultures basée sur la compréhension plutôt que sur la description. En mettant l'accent sur l'altérité, il s'agit davantage de promouvoir une ouverture sur autrui, conditionnée par l'ouverture à soi.

En ce qui concerne l'interculturel, nous préférons nous référer à la définition du Conseil de l'Europe que nous estimons opératoire.

L'importance à cet égard, consiste à établir, entre ces cultures, des connexions, des relations, des articulations, des passages. Il ne s'agit pas de gérer au mieux la juxtaposition de diverses cultures, mais de les mettre en dynamique réciproque, de les valoriser par le contact.

Byram cite Keller (1983) qui souligne combien "il est important d'éviter de donner des informations éparses et de fournir au contraire des aperçus des nombres et des

En vérité, l'enseignement de la culture ne peut pas être séparé de son contexte interculturel. Cependant, il ne faut pas nier le risque de la perturbation auquel sont confrontés les apprenants, étant donné que la pédagogie interculturelle les met en présence des situations culturelles variées et des stéréotypes ayant des origines différentes.

L'objectif de cet article est donc de voir si les éléments interculturels contenus dans la méthode "Campus" peuvent participer à la bonne création des situations réelles de communication.

Quelle est en vérité la place de la culture et des éléments interculturels dans l'enseignement de la langue? Quelles sont les caractéristiques culturelles de la méthode "Campus"? Et enfin les éléments interculturels contenus dans la méthode "Campus" peuvent-ils encourager ou perturber la situation de communication?

Culture et langue

La culture peut être définie comme la capacité de faire la différence ou de distinguer; capacité que met en place un individu ou une société. Ainsi, on voit bien que la culture se précise comme un concept qui touche un individu aussi bien qu'une société. La culture est déjà une affaire d'interaction, étant donné qu'une personne entre d'une part en contact avec un certain nombre d'élément qu nous définissons comme un capital culturel et se distingue d'autres individus par l'enrichissement de ses capacités culturelles. Se pose de cette façon la question des valeurs et leur place dans une société. Pour J.P. Cuq, la question de la culture va avec une légitimation des distinctions qui "consiste à élever ses propres préférences, ou celle de son groupe, au rang des préférences les meilleures, celles qui dominent toutes les autres" (2003: 63). Cette définition montre combien que la capacité culturelle est liée à la question de savoir et des

connaissances. En effet, pour élever le rang de ses préférences, il faut savoir distinguer et pour distinguer, il est nécessaire de connaître. Par exemple, savoir lire un poème ou un roman dans une langue étrangère et parler de leur thème, c'est s'offrir le moyen de distinguer plusieurs types de littérature (nationale et internationale), de vision du monde et de réflexion, et d'élever ainsi son rang culturel. Mais, pour atteindre un tel objectif il faut commencer par connaître une langue étrangère. Ceci montre très bien que se doter d'une culture se présente comme un procès ayant plusieurs phases: <u>acquisition</u>, <u>amélioration</u>, <u>distinction</u>, <u>élévation</u>. Ainsi apprendre, une langue étrangère, c'est se donner l'occasion d'accéder au fur et à mesure à beaucoup de finesse culturelle. Ce qui signifie qu'une connaissance permet de s'ouvrir progressivement sur des richesses culturelles qui nous poussent à leur tour vers d'autres domaines de connaissance.

La culture-civilisation comme savoir-faire

Outre leur intérêt éducatif intrinsèque, les dimensions culturelles peuvent, dans certaines situations, déboucher sur des processus cognitifs et donner lieu à des connaissances diverses, nécessaires pour élargir le champ communicatif de l'activité de l'enseignement/apprentissage.

Ceci oriente l'usage que l'on peut faire de l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère, étant donné que de telles connaissances peuvent se trouver au service de la mise en fonction de la langue dans des cas très précis. Autrement dit, cet aspect de la culture-civilisation touche à la pratique concrète de la langue et met l'accent sur son caractère opératoire. Ce fonctionnalisme est ancien dans l'enseignement des langues où l'on a produit et continue à produire des manuels de conversation à usage des voyageurs ou des touristes se rendant à l'étranger.

survie: savoir acheter un ticket d'autobus, connaître les horaires d'ouverture des magasins et des administrations ...Tous ces éléments culturels sont présentés dans les manuels de langue, dans la perspective de séjours effectifs à l'étranger.

Cette recherche vise dans l'ensemble à étudier les éléments culturels de l'une des méthodes de l'enseignement des langues, à savoir la méthode Campus. En vérité, l'enseignement de la culture ne peut pas être séparé de son contexte interculturel et dans la mesure où la pédagogie interculturelle permet aux apprenants de prendre conscience des stéréotypes et des cultures qui sont véhiculés et de les démystifier (tant ceux qui concernent la culture cible que ceux qui s'appliquent à la culture des apprenants), souvent ces éléments interculturels peuvent perturber l'apprentissage.

Dans cette recherche, nous nous sommes forcés de savoir dans quelle mesure les éléments interculturels de méthode Campus peuvent perturber l'apprentissage du français chez les apprenants iraniens ou bien encourager les apprenants à mieux apprendre la langue.

Les mots clés: l'enseignement des langues, l'interculturel, classe des langues, la méthode Campus

Introduction

L'implication des sciences sociales dans le domaine de l'apprentissage des langues s'avère plus nette désormais. D'autant plus qu'elle permet de rencontrer et de découvrir une société autre dans ses aspects multiples:

économiques, démographique, politique, régionaux. Une telle implication peut cependant viser des formes sectorielles plus concrètes et éviter de s'étendre à des perspectives globales. On note une présence plus franche de contenus de civilisation relatifs à la "vie quotidienne", avec ses savoir-faire et ses comportements nécessaires à la survie: savoir acheter un ticket d'autobus, savoir demander une information, savoir demander une adresse, connaître les horaires d'ouverture des magasins et des administrations...

Cette connaissance des règles d'actions et des rituels sociaux se trouve à la base d'une certaine efficacité, et elle est capable de conduire vers cette intégration passagère et provisoire qui permet de ne pas se faire remarquer en milieu étranger.

Tout enseignement/ apprentissage des langues est ainsi mise en relation avec d'autre comportement, d'autre croyances, rythmes et habitudes, d'autres passages, d'autres mémoires.

Les étudiants qui apprennent la langue française hors du pays cible, sont souvent confrontés au problème de "l'emploi" de la langue. Leurs supports interactionnels peuvent se limiter seulement à une connaissance scolaire "sur" la langue, tandis que le besoin d'agir "dans" la langue étrangère cause des blocages interactionnels dans leurs communications quotidiennes.

Ainsi apprendre à parler est un acte parfaitement culturel, mais on doit considérer que même les enseignants peuvent ignorer quelquefois les éléments culturels de méthode qu'ils enseignent; de même qu'ils peuvent négliger de faire appel à la culture lors de l'enseignement d'une langue étrangère.

Aujourd'hui, presque toutes les méthodes d'enseignement des langues contiennent des éléments culturels mais la manière de présentation de ces éléments change selon chaque méthode.

Cet article vise à voir de quelle manière les éléments culturels s'organisent dans la méthode Campus et à démontrer en quoi dépend leur efficacité.

Dr. Hamid Reza shairi
Membre du cadre enseignant à l'université Tarbiat Modares
shairih@yahoo.fr
et
Sharereh khayam

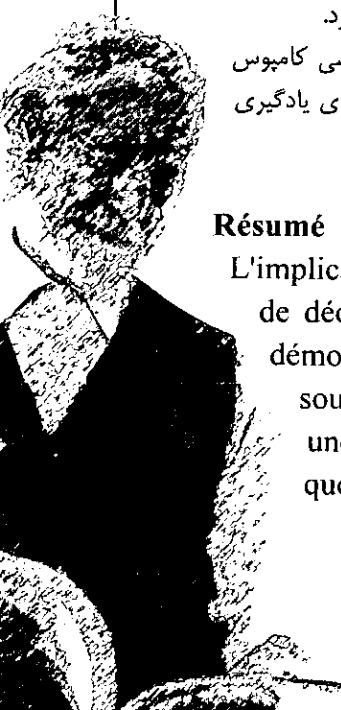# Etude de la dimension interculturelle de la méthode «Campus»

چکیده

یادگیری هر زبانی به ما کمک می‌کند که با فرهنگ دیگری آشنا شویم. زیرا آموزش زبان تنها به آموزش قواعد گرامی محدود نیست و درواقع آموزش‌های فرهنگی ابزار بسیار مهمی در آموزش زبان است. معمولاً زبان‌آموزانی که زبان خارجی را در محیط خارجی فرانمی‌گیرند، همیشه با مشکل «کاربرد» زبان مواجه هستند؛ چرا که یادگیری آن‌ها فقط به آموزش‌های گرامری زبان محدود می‌شود. در صورتی که اگر با فرهنگ کشوری آشنا نباشیم، در مکالمات روزمره دچار مشکلات بسیاری می‌شویم.

زبان‌آموزان ایرانی نیز زبان خارجی را در کشوری آموزش می‌بینند که تفاوت فرهنگی زیادی با کشور آن زبان دارد. آموزش قواعد گرامری بسیار ملموس است و آموزش مسائل فرهنگی همیشه در درجه‌ی دوم اهمیت بوده است. ولی تمام روش‌های آموزش زبان سرشار از عناصر بین‌فرهنگی هستند و شناخت و نحوه‌ی آموزش این عناصر فرهنگی برعهده‌ی استاد است؛ زیرا زبان و فرهنگ جزلاینفک یکدیگرند. و آموزش فرهنگ نیز هیچ‌گاه جدا از مسائل بین‌فرهنگی آن نیست.

این تحقیق به بررسی عناصر فرهنگی و بین‌فرهنگی یکی از روش‌های آموزش زبان فرانسه در ایران به نام متد «کامپوس» پرداخته است. آموزش فرهنگ نمی‌تواند از محتوای بین‌فرهنگی‌اش جدا باشد. آموزش مسائل بین‌فرهنگی به زبان‌آموز فرصت می‌دهد، کلیشه‌ها و فرهنگ‌های متفاوت زبان مقصد را یاد بگیرد و آن‌ها را با فرهنگ خودش مقایسه کند. در این بین، بعضی از مسائل بین‌فرهنگی مانعی برای آموزش زبان می‌شوند، زیرا گاهی تفاوت‌های زیادی بین دو فرهنگ وجود دارد.

در این تحقیق ما تلاش کردیم که بدانیم، چه اندازه عناصر فرهنگی و بین‌فرهنگی روش آموزشی کامپوس می‌تواند مانعی برای آموزش زبان نزد زبان‌آموزان ایرانی بشود و آیا این روش، زبان‌آموز ایرانی را برای یادگیری هرچه بهتر زبان ترغیب می‌کند.

Résumé

L'implication des sciences sociales est plus nette désormais et elle permet de découvrir une société autre dans ses aspects multiples: économiques, démographique, politique, régionaux. Elle peut cependant être monnayée sous des formes sectorielles et non dans une perspective globale. On note une présence plus franche de contenus de civilisation relatifs à la "vie quotidienne", avec ses savoir-faire et ses comportements nécessaires à la

Roshd
Foreign
Language
Teaching
Journal

ROSHD FLT 90

Quarterly

@

FLT

Foreign Language
Teaching Journal