Oral Interaction as a Trigger to Phonological Appropriation: An EFL Teaching Challenge?

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Abstract
The purpose of this article is to show that interaction can be seen as a trigger to phonological appropriation. Our methodology will be qualitative, descriptive, analytic and experimental. A quick survey shows that many teachers still rely on discrimination exercises to favour phonological appropriation. A first experiment in a class at a secondary high school in Reunion Island, France, with a teacher trainee confirms this choice and reveals non-satisfactory phonological results in a final interaction test. This situation comes from a confusing theoretical scope which gives contradictory data on the exact role of input and output, separate form-focused and meaning-focused phonological learning, the unclear link between conscious and unconscious processes. Cognitive psychology has very much influenced communication functions, but conative and affective functions are ignored. Our scientific scope can open up thanks to intrinsic motivation through interaction, emotional intelligence, sensory-motricity and the link between conscious and unconscious processes. A new experiment is set up in the same class with practical assumptions including an interaction-oriented sequence, a bodily involvement and a more motivational learner-centred approach. Phonological activities are based on fun and interactive games. A final interaction test reveals much better phonological results. To address the topic, the article is arranged in the following way: the acknowledgement of a confusing situation, a real need to enlarge the theoretical scientific scope and a newly assessed second experience. This would tend to show, as a conclusion, that interaction could be seen as a real trigger to phonological appropriation.

Key words: Output, form, meaning, conscious, unconscious and motivation.
Introduction

Most teachers and pupils have experienced misunderstanding in an English as a Foreign Language class. Take for example this episode of a teacher being puzzled by a pupil coming to the board, because he said, “Can’t hear!” (not “come here!”). Communication is ruined if there is phonological misunderstanding. Troubetskoy explains that a learner is deaf to foreign sounds, which receive an incorrect phonological interpretation since they are “strained through the phonological sieve of one’s mother tongue”. As a result, there are numerous misinterpretations (1986, p.54). This shows how tricky phonological appropriation can be for EFL teaching. By phonological appropriation, we mean matters of sounds, that is phonetics - the study of speech sounds - , but also, rhythm and intonation, phonology - “the abstract way phonemes function” (Roach, 2000, p.44), as well as a mastering level of a linguistic form and its meaning, allowing a learner to use it in an authentic communication situation.

Interaction is social and reveals how communication between the learner and other speakers leads to the FL appropriation. By interaction, we mean a language-dynamic communicative exchange among individuals in a functional pragmatic frame (Bailly, 1998, p.135). This paper is based on both research and teaching, since its author is a researcher and a teacher trainer; it aims at raising this crucial question: Can oral interaction be a trigger to phonetic and phonological appropriation? To start with, this was posed to a group of 80 EFL supervisors coaching teacher trainees in partnership with the University School of Education in Reunion Island (IUFM de la Réunion, France) and their answers were staggering:

Can interaction activities favour phonological learning?
Yes: 9   No: 39   Don’t know: 32

Can discrimination activities favour phonological learning?
Yes: 63   No: 13   Don’t know: 4

This quick survey shows that, unlike discrimination, interaction is not necessarily considered as a means of furthering phonological appropriation. By discrimination, we mean an auditory decoding process allowing the learner to match a speech sound with what he knows. The above-mentioned survey indeed raises many more questions:
- What about the consequent distinction between the conscious and unconscious process?
- What about the dichotomy between a form-focused versus a meaning-focused process?
- What is the respective role of input and output in phonological appropriation?
- To what extent can motivation help?
The main problem raised here is whether cognitive psychology can address all questions, and what could be done to sort it out. It will therefore be worth wondering in this qualitative, descriptive, analytic and experimental study, whether oral interaction, which is now a full skill in the Common European Frame of Reference for Languages, can be seen as a real trigger to phonological appropriation. This study is built on a teacher trainee’s experience in Reunion Island, Indian Ocean. Reunion is the 23rd French region. L1 is Creole French; L2 is French. The major first foreign language taught at school is English (80% choose English, the others taking Spanish, German, Chinese or Tamil). Pupils start learning English as early as primary teaching at the age of 7. The teacher trainee involved is a 24-year-old French-speaking colleague who studied English both at the local university and abroad through an Erasmus exchange programme. She passed the national competitive proficiency exam for EFL secondary teaching (known as CAPES). The University school of education tutor, who is also the author of this article, visits her in class three times in the year. The class involved is a B1 class (Threshold level in the CEFRL) of 24 fifteen-year-old teenagers. The school mentioned is a secondary high school. This group level is somewhat average with a majority of girls. The group personality is somewhat inhibited and introverted. Their fluency is slowed down by pronunciation difficulties. None has gone to an English speaking country before and all often feel self-conscious when they have to communicate in a foreign language.

Our analysis will be threefold. We shall first examine an experience in this B1 class, in which phonology is acquired through phonological discrimination and tested through interaction. We will therefore deduce theoretical and practical issues. In a second part, we will enlarge our theoretical scope and try to find answers to our issues. Eventually, this will lead to a second experience and us to practical assumptions in the same B1 class, this time integrating oral interaction as a trigger to phonological appropriation. A comparison between the two similar assessments should be revealing: sound acquisition, word and sentence rhythm, intonation will be tested by three persons, the trainee for the sounds, the supervisor (a qualified teacher at that school) for rhythm, and myself (a lecturer and a trainer at the university school of education) for intonation.

1. The acknowledgement of a confusing situation

First experience presentation (phonology acquired through discrimination)

An average class situation was set up in November 2006 (Classe de seconde 4, 24 pupils, Lycée Boisjoly Potier, Tampon, Réunion) taught by our teacher trainee. The sequence was planned for three lessons. The cultural unifier was violence in New York. Two documents
Examining the goals

The teacher trainee shows her sequence goals. She explains that her learning to learn goals are based on major skills like:

*Listening* (to the document “Rudolf Giuliani”),

*Reading* (the document “New York City Mayor disturbed by police officer’s use of force”),

*Speaking* (through interaction and individual production).

Her sub-skills for the listening document are consequently based on anticipating the contents through the picture and the title, listening for gist, pronouncing sounds, reproducing rhythm and intonation, summarizing the CD segments. For the reading document, she plans to develop sub-skills like anticipating through the title and the introduction, skimming, getting link words such as “On Monday”, “Of the victims…”, “In contrast”, “It’s always difficult…”, “But”, “Even if”. These link words disclose the structure of the text.

She goes on explaining what her linguistic goals are. The first document will allow making the difference between finished and unfinished past actions (past and present perfect tenses). Arguing will be the main function involved, (with expressions like “because of violence, New York was too dangerous/ the reason why New York is dangerous comes from the crime rate / since we stop more crimes, more people are going to live”). New words will be inferred through the context or thanks to synonyms. These are “felonies, mugged, raped, robbed, assign, crime rate, warrants and occur”. In the second document, the grammar goal is similar. Vocabulary inference will be set up for words such as “wounded, ignited, unarmed, steadfast, shooting and evidence”.

Phonology is planned, too, through discriminating different vowel sounds (for instance pen versus a, bus versus girl, dog versus door, eight versus height, boat versus about), consonant sounds (three opposed to this, door to tea, sea to zoo, how to hour). Word and sentence rhythm is worked out in the phrase “every crime that we stop represents a person who’s going to live”. Falling intonation is practised in “nothing about this story made sense”. Rising tone is produced in “are you kidding me?” The final goal is to test the phonological acquisition through an interaction activity.
Describing the first experience

The first lesson of the sequence deals with speaking and listening activities. The teacher makes pupils anticipate the document and encourages them to make assumptions about the picture and the title. Learners are encouraged to make statements that are jotted down on the board. Then the notes, displayed on the left of the picture, are disclosed and read. The listening of the first sentence helps the anticipation process. Some statements are added to the list on the board. Global comprehension starts with listening to the complete text. Pupils say whether the statements they gave are relevant or not. Detailed comprehension follows. Lexis is inferred through questions asked by the teacher about the text context. Sometimes a synonym is given and pupils have to look for the new unknown word. New words are repeated and therefore pronunciation is checked. Meanwhile, pupils’ anticipation statements are still either confirmed or crossed out. Eventually a summary of each section, given by a learner, is jotted down on the board.

Reading and speaking activities are set up in a second lesson. Anticipation is set up through the detached title. Global comprehension is suggested through the reading of the first two lines. Then link words allow skimming through the text. Pupils predict what these link words may suggest. Paragraphs are scanned and new words are inferred. Again, the predictive statements are either confirmed or crossed out. Pupils are invited to summarize each paragraph, and the summary is written on the board.

A discrimination activity is undertaken in a third lesson. Pupils have to do three successive tasks in which they have to tick the right answers in a double choice grid. They have to tick the right phonemes (two phonetic symbols for one word heard), rhythm (two words or two phrases with stressed syllables and words in bold characters to be ticked) and intonation (sentences given with two different intonation patterns, either falling or rising). The British assistant (a British student paid by the Ministry of education) reads the test script aloud, while pupils have to tick their grids. A “what do you think” episode follows to help learners comment upon the theme (violence in New York). Expressions related to arguing and cause are practised in an individual practice. The final test through interaction is then offered. Pairs are organized with these guidelines: “A is a tourist. B is a travel agent. Imagine a five minute conversation between the two people about a risky package trip to New York.” Pupils prepare their notes and start practising the role-play. Each pair (12) eventually interacts in front of the three testers (trainee for sounds, supervisor for rhythm and myself for intonation). The three following phonological acquisition criteria are: sounds, rhythm and intonation - 6 points each.
Each pupil is simultaneously marked three times out of six from appropriate elements produced. This gives each pupil’s performance, and then it is added to the rest of the class results, leading to an average mark out of 6 for each criterion.

The average results are as follows:

Sound acquisition: 2
Word and sentence rhythm: 2
Intonation: 1

**First experience practical analysis**

In this first experience, the phonological dimension may not be considered as a real part of active learning, since listening comprehension is not set up through stressed key words. Simple repetition of what is heard may not be so efficient. Phonology is set up once listening and reading activities are over. The way phonological discrimination is planned brings input into prominence, and consequently ignores output. Being able to match spelling and phonic skills is neglected as well. Reading in silence the script (listening document) or the text (reading document) while listening to the recording could have allowed matching phonic and spelling skills. It would have helped to set up phonological skills while reading aloud. Phonology does not seem to be thoroughly integrated into the learning process. It is more thought of as a scattered, atomized exercise than as a full jointed activity. Learners focus on new words and utterances with no phonological clues. In doing so, shouldn’t phonology be a trigger to listening comprehension? Shouldn’t phonology be integrated rather than segregated? Besides, interaction is used as a final test, not as a skill allowing learners to build up communicative competences and phonological knowledge. The exchange with the trainee at the end of the session makes her more aware of the phonological acquisition problem: learners didn’t benefit from this sequence. We shall examine shortly some of the data produced. Students misused long and short vowels (/ʌ/, /ɜ:/, /ə, /ə/): “Have you heard of violence problems in New York?” (/ʌ/ instead of /ɜ:/ in “heard”), “Which part of the city is safer?” (/θ/ instead of /θ/ in “part”), “They could steal my credit card” (/i:/ instead of /i:/ in “steal”). They ignored some consonants like /h/ in “hotels”, “hospital”. /θ/ and /ð/ were mispronounced in “thieves”, “breath”, “clothes”, “breathe”. “Dropped” and “robbed” (/drəpt/ and /rəbd/) were pronounced with a /d/ and a /t/ at the end. They spoke mechanically without rhythm. Word stress was wrong in “alone”, “paradise”, “police”, “imagine”. Sentence stress was bad in some of the sentences produced (“We’ll wait for a taxi”, “You’ll have to be careful when walking in the park”). They ignored fall and rise intonation patterns. This leads us to
confusing theoretical data brought about by an overwhelming cognitive wave, which often neglects the individual’s affective motivational dimension.

**First experience theoretical analysis**

**The conscious versus unconscious issue**

Second Language Acquisition is deeply rooted in cognitive psychology, which generates two antinomic learning theories, constructivism and interactionism. The latter is also divided into two contradictory theories, nativisism, which takes the learner’s linguistic innate acquisition for granted and environmentalism, which only favours the contribution of the environment. We can foresee the dichotomy between the conscious and unconscious process that Krashen explains. As he puts it, “pronunciation runs deeper into the student’s personality than any other aspect of language” (1988, p.35), which means that the unconscious dimension cannot be avoided. As a mentalist, he thinks that school learning could be conscious and accuracy-based, whereas natural immersion acquisition could be unconscious and fluency-oriented. Control would be conscious, whereas knowledge would be unconscious. Cognitive psychologists, like McLaughlin, distinguish explicit learning involving focal attention to some of the input from implicit learning with peripheral attention to the rest of the input. Generative phonologists add that there would be the conscious physical sounds we hear as the tip of the iceberg, and unconscious abstract sound representations underneath (Carr, 1993, p.98). The question raised here is to know whether there is a so-called impenetrable barrier between these processes, as seemed to be the case in our experience between the conscious discrimination learning accuracy and the final unconscious interaction test, or if there is a positive link between conscious learning and unconscious acquisition.

**The form versus meaning issue**

Task goals fall into three main groups: focus on meaning, focus on form, focus on forms (Oxford, 2006). Linguistic theories influence them. Structural linguistics focuses on form and forms and emphasizes controlled input reinforced by passive practice. Generative linguistics insists on form oriented innate and mental processes. But socio-linguistics deals with interactive communicative meaningful functions. Cognitive psychology makes a difference between Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency and Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills. In other words, we can wonder whether this theoretical distinction does not favour an illogical separation between phonological cognitive appropriation and communicative interaction.
The very definition of what a phoneme is reveals the issue we are faced with. Is a phoneme a distinctive feature, a physical or a psychological reality? Are notions of form and meaning contradictory? Cognitivists distinguish micro-processes, like focus on form and macro-processes like focus on meaning. Form seems to be achieved through accuracy, whereas meaning seems to be linked to fluency. Doesn’t the learner’s attention to accuracy, and consequently form, lead him to disfluency and to an absence of meaning (Ellis, 2003, p.109)?

The examples set up in the experience certainly showed how a primarily form-based discrimination exercise (as well as excessive focus on written language when it comes to phonic skills) is unsatisfactory in terms of meaning, as is the final interactive meaning-based activity as far as phonological form is concerned. Should there not be a balance between form and meaning and is not the meaning of input logically reached through phonological form?

**The input versus output issue**

Cognitivists have questioned the respective roles of both input and output in acquisition. Four contradictory hypotheses have been numbered.

- The Frequency Hypothesis insists on the input frequency to favour accuracy and acquisition (Hatch & Wagner-Gough, 1976).
- The Input Hypothesis relies on the comprehensible input and its adjustments resulting in a morphological feature acquisition (Krashen, 1985).
- The Comprehensible Output Hypothesis states that comprehensible pushed output and accuracy are as important as comprehensible input if not more, in acquiring features. If input favours comprehension, it doesn’t logically initiate production (Swain, 1985).
- The collaborative discourse hypothesis promotes phonological acquisition through strategies, vertical constructions and linguistic adjustments (Long, 1985).

These data are confusing, as is our first experience with a discrimination activity based on input only, and a test relying on interaction (implying both input and output). Is not the concept of intake, implying understanding and memorisation, also important? Collaboration with adjustments should nevertheless help.

These data are certainly interesting, but they all reveal a tricky situation, perhaps due to an excessive cognitive influence, which ignores the learner’s psycho-affective dimension and his motivation. To corroborate this overwhelming cognitive influence, cognitive data are put forward in the CEFRL (Common European Frame of Reference for Languages), but affective ones are neglected. Motivation is analysed in five lines in a 200-page book. Can EFL teaching
carry on minimizing the learner’s psycho-affective dimension? Among the CEFRL linguistic requirements, phonology is not given as a particular priority, since it is listed down as the last but one before spelling, and after vocabulary and grammar. Phonological descriptors are oversimplified, and therefore not very useful. Can vocabulary and grammar mean something without their phonological counterpart? Would it not be interesting to understand the neurobiological data implied in the phonological process?

2. A real need to enlarge the theoretical scientific scope
Cognitive psychology has greatly contributed to how the learner rationally thinks, but questions about what s/he might like and feel have often been put aside. Communication obviously implies cognitive functions - what one rationally thinks -, but can conative and affective functions be omitted - what one desires and feels - ? Some will argue that phonology is a case apart since it is mainly cognitive and deals with physical aptitude. But it is so involved in the learner’s personality that it could also concern affectivity (Krashen, 1988, pp. 32-35). If phonological learning is made more attractive, can we keep on ignoring the fact that “motivation is related to one of the most basic aspects of the human mind” (Dörnyei, 2001, p.2)? Thanks to social psychology, neurobiology and ethology, our scientific scope can open up. Dörnyei gives us motivational strategies in the language classroom following this pattern: creating the basic motivational conditions, generating initial motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation, encouraging positive self evaluation. We can wonder whether these new data will give us answers.

Towards an answer to the input versus output issue
One of the basic principles in successful instructed language learning, is to favour both extensive L2 input, and opportunities for output (Ellis, 2005). Social psychology takes into account various types of motivation. Intrinsic interest is of major importance since the learner’s curiosity is aroused and maintained through the satisfaction brought about by the activity itself and not for a result (Thill, 1997, p.377). Researchers like Dörnyei insist on creating the basic motivational strategies. One of them is to provide opportunities for communication as a way to achieve interest in an EFL learning situation. McNamara (1973) argues that, “the really important part of motivation lies in the act of communication.” If Long (1980, in Ellis, 2003, p.344), as a cognitivist, has advanced the Interaction Hypothesis stating the acquisition of new linguistic forms in negotiating for meaning, Gardner & al. (1976) have insisted on the more positive attitudes of learners experiencing interaction and a
communicative challenge. Dörnyei (2001, pp.42-45) eventually suggests that the basic motivational conditions actually come from interaction itself: “moving students round from time to time will prevent the emergence of rigid seating patterns. Activities such as pairwork, small group work or role-play are very effective in allowing people to come into contact and interact with one another.” Lahire (2001, in Narcy-Combes, 2005, p.30) adds that someone learning a language will not integrate a code, a language and a linguistic structure but verbal interaction schemata, verbal interactive types and ways of using the language. The need to interact and the context determine language use. The interaction process reveals the importance of a cognitivo-affective filter (Narcy-Combes, 2005, p.107), which can block the whole process. Neurobiologists mention the role of a teenagers’ emotional part of the brain, which has “immense power to influence the functioning of the rest of the brain, including its centres for thought” (Goleman, 1995, p.14). This is why Dörnyei suggests teachers should generate initial motivation by setting up small group tasks, using icebreakers and, above all, taking learners’ interest into account. This scaffolding should certainly help pair working thanks to a favourable affective atmosphere.

Levelt’s speech processing model (1993, in Robinson, 2001, p.208) explains the way interaction works through input (a phonological, lexical, grammatical decoding process) and output (a grammatical, lexical, phonological encoding process). Input implies an acoustic phonetic processor leading to a phonetic, then prosodic representation. Output means a phonological encoding followed by a phonetic, articulatory plan. This works out well thanks to data that will be understood and memorized, namely thanks to the “intake“ (Narcy, in Ginet, 1997, p.53). This means that a collaborative discourse will promote appropriation. Linguistic complexity is a major factor (Oxford, 2006). In fact, this complex process, concerning phonology, is not linear, but dependant on unpredictable factors like the learners’culture, mental representations, intentions and creativity, not to forget emotional filters (Narcy-Combes, 2005, p.141). Interaction is a basic condition for motivation, which can be generated through specific strategies like asking for the learners’ centres of interest before starting a sequence. Asking learners what they would like to study out of a list of topics is an initial step to favour intrinsic motivation, which will be boosted by an interaction-oriented learning. This analysis is interesting since it shows interaction as a basic motivator.

Towards an answer to the form versus meaning issue
Basic principles seem to ensure that learners develop both a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions and a rule-based competence, focus predominantly on meaning and also focus on
form (Ellis, 2005). Dörnyei (2001) insists on maintaining and protecting motivation. Is a form-focused activity necessarily set apart from a meaning-focused one? There seems to be a quick phonological process whereas there is a slow semantic process (Buser, 1998, p.256). But this is explained by a dual complementary role, played by both hemispheric brains, the right one dealing with rhythm, the left one with speech and meaning (Narcy, 1990, p.39). This shows the dual but unavoidable complete neurobiological process one has to be faced with. Besides, the input/output diagram (Narcy-Combes, 2005, p.107) shows the dual reversing form/meaning complex process and the constant intermixture of the accuracy/fluency influence. Doughty adds that explicit focus on form can occur in an implicit attention to meaning, either simultaneously or successfully (in Robinson, 2001, p.249). Attending to form only kills motivation since it is artificial (Gardner & al., 1976). This is why attending to form and meaning seems better: “There would be a crucial feature of successful language learning that would be the ability to switch to and fro in attending to meaning and form” (Lennon, 1989). Setting up tasks that involve real-world processes of languages is another way of answering the phonological acquisition issue, as is offering interactive tasks, also known as reciprocal tasks requiring a two-way flow of information (asking and answering questions, dealing with misunderstandings etc…Ellis, 2003 p.49). Besides, B1 learners have to cope with sight recognition that is the spelling skill; they have to be able at a point to match spelling and phonic skills. Through the written context, they should be able to discriminate sounds.

We must not forget though, that input as well as output will be comprehensible through form and meaning, and that positive affectivity should help. “Comprehensible input is not sufficient as learners also need to be ‘affectively’ disposed to ‘let in’ what they comprehend, with the help of contextual and extra linguistic clues” (Ellis, 1994, p.273). Since the auditory channel is unreliable, learners should rely on both the visual and the kinaesthetic channels, allowing the use of body language. This also includes the emotional feeling, a real link activating other weak sensory channels (the auditory ones for example, Rolland, 2003, p.99). Interaction can be effective thanks to 90% contextual extra-linguistic non-verbal affective signs that are clear thanks to empathy (voice tone, gesture, faces, expressive attitudes). Dörnyei insists on selecting tasks, which require mental and bodily involvement - that is non-verbal or extra-linguistic signs. These clues can help to understand form (sounds) and meaning (rhythm and intonation). They will facilitate the intake. Another point is to favour motivation through fun and competition: setting up group games is another trigger to
phonological appropriation. This analysis reveals the importance of attending to both meaning and form through sensory-motricity, bodily involvement and affectivity.

Towards an answer to the conscious versus unconscious issue
One of the basic principles seems to be developing implicit knowledge while not neglecting explicit knowledge (Ellis, 2005). Encouraging a positive attitude is certainly important since learning a foreign language brings about a conflict between what unconsciously exists and what is new and conscious in a shattering cognitive destruction and a dangerous affective shock. Narcy-Combes (2005, p.15) explains that a learner is unconsciously conditioned by his mother tongue, culture, mental representations and affectivity. Physiological emotions brought about by learning situations create affective and conative reactions leading to a cognitive reaction. Learning would therefore mean unlearning what exists before building up new rules. Through the learning process, we pass from unconscious emotions leading to conscious action, and action to thinking: this shows the link between what is unconscious and conscious. Emotions favour learning if the learner eventually becomes conscious of what is going on. Then the affective episodic memory will be effective in a long term process, bearing in mind that there is “no affectivity without memory” (Laborit, 1996, p.130). The phonological dimension should benefit from unconscious emotional data, from conscious interaction, from conscious active contextual aids (non verbal signs), from language awareness and conscious noticing-the-gap cognitive thinking (implying a phonological « restructuring continuum » from L1) and the further unconscious affective and cognitive long term memory (Robinson, 2001, p.47). This circular mental process could be explained through the metaphor of a juggler throwing and catching a ball (Rolland, 2002, p.439). We must therefore bear in mind that “the cognitive unconscious is influenced by the emotional centres” (Buser, 1998, p.298). This analysis certainly shows the useful intertwining process of conscious and unconscious data. These theoretical assumptions lead us to more practical ones and to our second experiment.

3. Towards a newly assessed second experience
New assumptions: a humanising interaction as an asset for phonological appropriation
Interaction should therefore be seen as an actual means to favour motivation and a way to set up phonological learning. For the second experience, set up in the same class, in May 2006, the sequence theme is chosen by learners among a list of potential available topics. This list contains different themes such as sports, music, education, environmental issues, politics,
corruption, drug taking, justice, history, fair trade, globalization, social issues and art creation. A majority of learners choose environmental issues and a sequence on global warming (17 out of 24). The final test is based on interaction and learners choose their role-plays, knowing which criteria are taken into account for the final mark. This sequence is pupil-centred, learners being active throughout the scheme interspersed with pupil-to-pupil interaction activities. The phonological dimension is integrated in the process. Listening activities include phonology. Listening comprehension tasks are interactive. Eventually, the English-speaking assistant is there to read the recording script aloud while pupils silently match sight recognition, spelling and phonic skills. Real communicative tasks are set up through a reading comprehension web quest followed by an interactive session. Phonological learning activities are interactive tasks appearing more like group games in which both the input and the output are developed. Learners have to attend to both form and meaning thanks to body language and non-verbal signs that are given by the teacher. This will lead pupils to a collaborative discourse helping to understand, and memorize phonological rules. There should be a mixture of interactive controlled practice and real language use. Interaction, ice-breakers, group tasks, learners’ interest, competitive games, bodily involvement, learner’s share in the final test are logically integrated.

**Second experience presentation (phonology acquired through interaction)**

The majority of students choose the sequence cultural unifier, which is “global warming.” Several documents are studied, “Climate change” (Appendix 3) as a listening activity (Speakeasy Live 06-07, interview number 4, track 31, Speakeasy Publications, Nathan, 2006), “what is global warming”? and, “take action” (on http://www.climatecrisis.net, a website dedicated to “An inconvenient truth” by Al Gore) as reading web quest activities (Appendix 4). This sequence is planned for four different lessons.

**Examining the goals**

Our teacher trainee is eager to suggest activities integrating our theoretical data for the second experience. Her sequence goals will integrate interaction as a full skill, together with listening and reading. Interaction will be developed through activities set up alongside listening and reading. Subskills will include brainstorming through a dynamic interactive game (the ball game), anticipating, listening for gist, and listening for rhythm. Inferring will be done through interaction: listening and reading items are different from one group of students to the other, allowing interaction to take place when sharing information. Pronunciation acquisition is done
through interactive games. Summarizing will end up the listening activities. Reading the Internet document will allow pupils to skim, scan, infer meaning, eventually interact through different reading e-sheets. Again pronunciation will be integrated all the way through interactive games. Phonological awareness activities will allow learners to think how English phonology works out. Summarizing the text and saying what you think of it will be done before the final test. An interaction test will allow us to measure this class phonological acquisition level.

Documents (see Appendix 3 - Climate change), (Appendix 4 - What is global warming? Take action) include functions like expressing cause and consequence (because of increasing carbon dioxide, temperatures are rising), expressing a need (it’s essential for us to recycle more), a will (people intend to plant trees), expressing the present result of a past action (hurricanes have doubled in the last 30 years), a certain or an uncertain future action (It looks as if malaria has spread to high mountains). The vocabulary is related to the environment, climate, energy and pollution; there are action verbs, technical devices, and equipment.

Phonology is dealt with thanks to interactive games allowing a sound, rhythm and intonation acquisition: The “miming game” is interesting (Lee, 1994, p.83): /θ/ and /ʃ/ are therefore discriminated through touching one’s throat to check whether it is vibrating or not. “The same or different game” (Lee, 1994, p.70) is fun as well: the teacher says two different sentences, and the learners decide whether they are the same or not. “Chinese whispers” (Lee, 1994, 81) is well known and allows to show how quick and well a phrase can be produced. A “rhyming game” will be set up (Chamberlain & Stenberg, 1976, p.16): the teacher starts saying a word, a learner goes on saying a word that rhymes: “think”, “thing”. Spelling and phonic skills are developed as well. The final test is based on interaction again, but this time learners should be better since they practised their pronunciation through fun and bodily activities.

Describing the activities previously mentioned
This new sequence is divided into four different parts. Each is interesting since it deals with interaction as a trigger to phonological appropriation.

An icebreaker as a trigger to friendliness and motivation
The first part of the sequence is an icebreaker. This is an opportunity to disclose half the film poster (“An inconvenient truth”) on the board for everyone to see. Then “the ball game” starts as an interactive game with questions and answers about what this poster could represent.
With the word pollution quickly given, a brainstorming activity is set up through the interactive game. Each new word is collectively repeated and rhythm is given through clapping (pollution, environment, industry, chimneys, power plants, smoke, carbon dioxide, greenhouse, global warming, droughts, heat waves...). The poster is then fully disclosed. Interaction and fun, bodily involvement certainly stimulated pupils who greatly enjoyed this step.

**Listening activities interspersed with interactive games and phonological appropriation**

The second part of the sequence is made up by listening to the audio document. This is aimed to generate motivation and favour bodily involvement and phonological understanding. Different listening group sheets A and B are handed out to favour further interaction. For global comprehension, A gets two questions (“what…about? /what’s the name..?”) and B gets two others (“where… ?/who… ?”). Once the listening is over, there is an interactive session: group A reads prompts from the overhead projector, corresponding to B questions (and group B does the same with prompts corresponding to A questions), so that interaction starts among learners. Prompts are for example “name?” or “place?” This goes on well and certainly favours interest in what the document will reveal. Learners then anticipate the interview through listening to the beginning of the CD and try to guess what is going to happen. Questions are jotted on the board (to be answered or crossed out if irrelevant eventually). This activity is important to raise again interest in the document.

Listening to separate CD sections helps towards detailed comprehension, phonological acquisition and will logically bring games. Answers are given to the original anticipation assumptions, which allows again interaction to be fully integrated. Learners eventually share information from their detailed comprehension group sheets. While listening again to the document, they are trained to pick out the stressed key words to integrate the language rhythm (people, youth, conscious, energy consumption, switching, turning, using, electricity, need...). Once these are spotted, various interactive games can start off.

First a silent miming game will show what articulation should be adopted for a word and its sounds. “Think” and ”their” will be articulated and learners will put their hands on their throats to see the difference between the voiceless (θ/ng) and the voiced (ŋ) initial dental fricatives. This certainly shows how different sounds are produced. Learners enjoy this episode, discovering one important aspect of their vocal chords.

Then a rhyming game starts with minimal pairs that pupils give in interaction (the teacher starts and helps if necessary): “think,” “thing,” “thin,” “thick” / “their”, “the,” “then,” “they”.
Good pupils who find it easier to produce words with just one different sound do this. Learners being shy or less open can reproduce these pairs of words. Collective repetitions are also helpful for the group.

Then the teacher gives two sentences, either similar or different (with just one different sound): “They began to think”/ “they began to sink”, one of the learners either answers by saying if the second one is similar or different. This activity goes on well since the previous one prepared the group for it.

Eventually, rhythm can be practised through Chinese Whispers. The teacher starts articulating and clicking a phrase in silence, and then each pupil does it in turns. The teacher starts again, this time articulating, clicking and whispering the key stressed words, and again everyone does the same in turn. Eventually, the whole utterance is whispered to the two groups standing in line (from the teacher and a pupil): the winning group will have repeated it quickly and correctly (Example: “But you’ll see, I think most schools within the UK these days have set up a recycling programme”).

Intonation patterns can be practised while listening to another CD section through questions and answers: learners (using prompts given from the OHP) ask and answer, and consequently stand up or sit down with the rising (yes/no questions: “are you optimistic about change”? ) or the falling (wh…questions and answers: “I’m absolutely certain”) tones. This bodily involvement is a good way to make intonation patterns clear.

Each CD section will be finally summarized. Pupils’ suggestions will be written on the board. A final activity is done with the help of the English assistant, who reads aloud the script while learners match spelling and phonic skills in silence. This is favour again phonological acquisition.

Reading activities interspersed with interactive games and phonological awareness

The third part of the sequence is about reading the first web quest. This is aimed to maintain motivation and to favour phonological awareness. Pupils are in the computer room. They are given e-sheets to visit the website http://www.climatecrisis.net, and click on the first document entitled “The science” and on the question: “What is global warming?” Group A gets questions about the first part, “present changes,” whereas group B gets questions about the second part, “catastrophic consequences” (Appendix 4). Unknown words are given with a MCQ to be ticked. Each sentence is given with a picture.

Back in class, interaction will be set up for the global comprehension around that question: “What is global warming”? Detailed comprehension will follow with group work. Interaction
is set up with the OHP from the pictures and prompts. Each group asks and answers. Expressions related to cause, consequence, need, present result of a past action are introduced and practised in interaction. When the first part is completed (present changes), a phonological guessing game starts about the present perfect (/d/ in doubled, /t/ in forced, /id/ in started). Phonetic symbols are displayed on one of the four room walls; then a “listen and point” activity starts off, allowing checking that learners can discriminate sounds.

Eventually, interaction is set up. Pupils are invited to put their hands on their throats to make a difference between the last sound of the stem being either voiced or voiceless, thus requiring the adding of either /d/ or /t/. To a question asked by a learner (“What are the results of present global warming?”), answers are given (“Hurricanes have developed, diseases have increased, animals have moved closer to the poles”).

Then an informal collaborative interactive exchange will start to favour phonological awareness in order to understand what sound determines /d/ or /t/. The teacher asks pupils to put their hands on their throats and to repeat after him, insisting on the last verb sounds. “Developed” and “moved” are therefore studied: in the first word /p/ being voiceless, the final sound /t/ is required. In “moved”, /v/ being a voiced sound, the final phoneme /d/ is necessary. Eventually the same collaborative exchange occurs for /id/ after /t/ or /d/. Words like “responded”, “devastated” are commented upon (Appendix 5). A learner writes explanatory notes on the board. Students finally give a summary of the document.

**Enlisting learners as active partners**

This fourth part of the sequence is aimed to favour appropriation.

A second web quest, in the computer room, is organized from the second document entitled “take action”. Group A deals with “reduce your impact at home” and group B deals with “reduce your impact while on the move”.

Back in class, interaction is set up again. New words are inferred through an interactive quiz. Then a new version of the Chinese Whisper game is suggested. The whole class is standing up and forms a big circle. A learner (able to reproduce the phrase) is first at the centre, claps his hands, and walks round while clapping. Then he whispers the utterance while clapping, whispers then claps and shouts for the key words. He eventually says the utterance normally. The group does the same steps, following the learner’s examples while walking round (“**How** can you **reduce** your **impact** at **home**? **By using a clothesline** instead of a **dryer**”). Each error is first treated by another learner’s elicitation or if necessary by the teacher.
Offering the same test from the second experience to assess phonological improvements:
This test is organised in the same way as the first one was. The same pairs are kept (12). They choose among a list of topics, related to the last document “take action”: spending fuel to go and buy frozen food/ not caring about recycled rubbish/ keeping electric appliances on/ using powerful bulbs/using too much hot water etc... They take a few notes for a while and start interacting when ready (Appendix 6). The three phonological acquisition criteria were the same, that is sounds, rhythm and intonation - 6 points each.

These were the final average results:
Sound acquisition: 5 / Word and sentence rhythm: 4 / Intonation: 4

Analysing and transferring this second experience
The four parts of the sequence reveal a progression in the phonological appropriation. The first part deals with promoting the development of friendly group cohesiveness (interacting and practising rhythm through the ball game) to create the basic motivational and learning conditions. Dörnyei (2001, p.138) describes motivational strategies that were, for some of them developed in this sequence. He insists on promoting interaction, cooperation and the sharing of genuine information. Preventing rigid seating patterns is also recommended. Fun (clapping and throwing/catching the ball) also helps phonological appropriation (word rhythm). Students themselves chose the topic. It certainly raised the learners’ intrinsic interest. Enthusiasm could be seen straight away in the attitudes of students, who were eager to perform.

The second part deals with listening activities. Phonology is related to listening and the input it creates. Interaction is set up as much as possible: while listening, the tasks given are meant to favour a common sharing of the information that naturally takes place in a communicative way. Listening is also used to pick up stressed key words, which helps comprehension. Phonology and comprehension are achieved through interaction. Interactive games that require bodily involvement are aimed at favouring phonological appropriation. Silent miming and articulating is a key to phonological articulatory functions. Rhyming and exchanging in a funny game helps to memorize and match similar and opposite sounds. Clicking and whispering is a means to integrate the language rhythm. Standing up when the pattern is rising or sitting down when it is falling certainly helps to understand and memorize the intonation rules of English.
The third part is based on reading. The activities are planned to make learning more stimulating for learners by increasing the attractiveness of tasks: group reading web quests, interacting for comprehension, using visual aids, discriminating through a game, discriminating sounds thanks to feeling vocal chords, understanding aspects of connected speech. What was striking was the positive effect of these activities to make learners understand the way the present perfect is pronounced in English with its /d/, /t/ and /id/ sounds. The way these students shared their remarks on how all this work was amazing. Finally, the last part aimed at making learning more enjoyable by enlisting pupils as active participants: group reading web quests, interacting for comprehension, enlisting learners as teachers.

We can notice great improvements in the three phonological criteria, due to a different sequence. Sounds were better pronounced. There was less confusion between long and short vowels, phonemes such as /h/ were pronounced if needed. /d/, /t/, /id/ sounds were selected when using the past or past participles. The language used was more rhythmical and there was a more satisfactory use of falling or rising tones. Here are the theoretical principles that should be remembered:

- Output is as important as input in the phonological acquisition process. This allows the intake to play a role through a collaborative discourse that will promote understanding and consequently appropriation.

- An interaction-oriented learning is a basic condition for intrinsic motivation, which can be generated through specific strategies like asking for the learners’ centres of interest before starting a sequence, promoting group cohesiveness, making students responsible by enlisting them in active bodily involved tasks as partners: this more learner-centred teaching should be based on frequent interaction and fun (an ice-breaker, a ball game, an interactive listening task, a miming game, Chinese whispers, an interactive web quest, a collaborative interaction, enlisted participants).

- The importance of attending to both meaning and form through sensory-motricity, bodily involvement and affectivity has to be taken into account.

- The phonological dimension should benefit from unconscious emotional data, from conscious interaction, from conscious active contextual aids (non verbal signs), from language awareness and conscious noticing-the-gap cognitive thinking (implying a phonological “restructuring continuum” from L1) and the further unconscious affective and cognitive long term memory (Robinson, 2001, p.47).
Conclusion

The original survey is interesting, since it disclosed that some teachers have not yet integrated interaction as a full skill and as a powerful aid: phonological acquisition is still considered as belonging to a form-focused teaching that discrimination exercises still logically evoke. If these can still be justified for decontextualised phonemes and phonetics, they are less helpful for a meaning-focused learning of rhythm, intonation and phonology. Contradictory theoretical cognitive and linguistic data have to be understood to explain an unsatisfactory traditional scope. Phonological appropriation is certainly at the centre of this issue, since it is one of the biggest issues in an EFL learning process. Moreover, it is more easily explained through a distinctive or physical reality than through a psychological, or affective one. We have tried to integrate new theoretical data related to intrinsic motivation, emotional intelligence and sensory-motricity, a positive link between conscious and unconscious processes through the episodic memory. Comparing the two experiences is revealing: as long as phonology is set apart from communication, as long as form is set apart from meaning, as long as motivational strategies are not developed, phonological appropriation will remain an impenetrable barrier. From our second experiment, we can state that intrinsic interest and interaction are triggers to phonological appropriation. Interaction should therefore be seen as a real motivating sparkle. Bodily involvement should consequently be considered as an unavoidable lever to reunify form and meaning. The intertwining process of unconscious, conscious, then automated effects including dual affective and cognitive loads should be crucial for the memory span. Teachers should think it over when they aim to become “good enough motivators”, as Dörnyei (2001, p.136) reminds us.

Of course, “we cannot get direct access to phonological organisation, because it comes in the form of unconscious knowledge, but we can get access to its effects…/…What the world is like is not given; it is for us to guess, through our most general and simple theories, what it is like” (Carr, 1993, p.162).
References


Appendix 1

Rudolph Giuliani

“Giuliani has served as a fearless leader and comforting shoulder for America.”

This city was too dangerous. This city was a city in which people were worried too much about whether they were going to live or die. And the places of the most poverty were the places where the people were the most afraid of living or dying—of being intimidated or being hurt.

That has changed dramatically. I have illustrated it many different ways and recently I thought of another way to do it.

When I came into office in 1993, there were 8,259 felonies per week in the City of New York. In the last year that we’ve just finished, there were 3,556 felonies. In other words that’s 4,703 people who weren’t mugged, weren’t raped, weren’t killed, weren’t robbed, didn’t have their car stolen.

I announced in the first State of the City Speech that safety was our most important civil right.

That’s still a work in progress. It’s not something that has been completely accomplished and it’s not something you can easily accomplish.

We’re going to take an additional 600 police officers and assign them just to that function, in addition to the 600 that we already have. Because we’re going to try to catch every single one of the people who are responsible for the 26,000 felony warrants, in an effort to drive the crime rate down, to see if we can reduce the 3,500 or so felonies that occur per week in the City of New York. Every crime that we stop represents a person who’s going to live, a person who can go about exercising their right as a free citizen of the United States.”

Adapted from State of the City Address, Borough of Manhattan, January 8, 2001.
Appendix 2
http://www.buzznet.com/tags/michaelbloomberg/journals

New York City mayor disturbed by police officer's use of force.
I'm surprised someone in such high of a position has reacted so quickly.

The article:

Mayor Michael Bloomberg met Tuesday with the family of a man killed outside a strip club on his wedding day by a barrage of police gunfire, the second straight day Bloomberg has reached out to angry community members.

The 50-bullet police volley — likened to a "firing squad" by the Rev. Al Sharpton — killed 23-year-old Sean Bell after his bachelor party, wounded two of his friends and ignited concerns over police tactics and firepower. The three men were unarmed.

Bloomberg went to the family's church in Queens and met with Bell's fiancee and father, and with Sharpton. The mayor then met again with other community leaders.

On Monday, Bloomberg said the police response seemed "unacceptable" and "inexplicable," but he was steadfast in his support for Police Commissioner Raymond Kelly, who has been denounced by some critics since the shooting.

Of the victims, Bloomberg said Monday: "There is no evidence that they were doing anything wrong," referring to what led up to the moment their car struck an undercover officer outside the nightclub.

In contrast to Bloomberg's outreach, former Mayor Rudy Giuliani was hounded for what some viewed as a slow response to the killing of Amadou Diallo, an unarmed African immigrant who was shot 19 times in the entry to his apartment building by four white officers. Those officers were acquitted of criminal charges.

It's always difficult to form rational opinions about these kind of things. We never seem to know all the facts and the facts that we are given don't give us a full picture. (I try to be reasonable about my opinions.)

But virtually nothing about this story made sense. The two undercover officers drank right before the shooting. (They were "allowed" two drinks by their superiors and apparently this is enough of an assurance that they weren't drunk.) Not one of the three suspects was armed. And, even if they were, 50 fucking shots? Are you kidding me?

Even if it may be merely an attempt by Bloomberg to save his own ass in some way, I've got to hand it to him. I'm impressed that he's said anything at all, but to denounce this type of police brutality almost outright is unheard of.

I hope he sticks with it.
November 28, 2006.
Speakeasy went to London office of Friends of the Earth to talk to youth and schools coordinator Vicki Fallgate. We asked what teens in the UK are doing to protect the environment.

We…a lot of people as a result of last year’s Shout About project, have been much more conscious about their own energy consumption. So they will be very, very conscious about switching the lights off, about turning computers off standby, making sure that they’re really only using the electricity that they really need to use, and trying to reduce their own impact on it. But not just that, actually sort of going home and telling their parents, telling their friends and really spreading the message that it’s something that we need to do something about now!

Let’s go back to the topic of recycling. Does it really make much difference what we as individuals do, in terms of cutting pollution?

I think everybody has to take some responsibility for their own waste and for their individual actions, in terms of what they can do to help the environment. Certainly recycling is an issue that’s taken very seriously by schools and young people in the UK. It’s something that the government have taken very seriously over recent years and that the councils are having much more of a commitment towards recycling. But you’ll see, I think most schools within the UK these days have set up a recycling scheme. They’ve installed recycling banks and that’s something that maybe was investigated by students in some cases, or maybe was investigated by parents, you know, it’s coming from a mixture.

As a youth worker with friends of the Earth, are you optimistic about change?

Having worked, whenever I go out into the schools at the moment, and I meet with young people and I hear their views and I hear what they’re doing or what they feel passionate about, I’m definitely optimistic.
Appendix 4
www.climatecrisis.net

ten things to do

Want to do something to help stop global warming?
Here are 10 simple things you can do and how much carbon dioxide you’ll save doing them.

Change a light
Replacing one regular light bulb with a compact fluorescent light bulb will save 150 pounds of carbon dioxide a year.

Drive less
Walk, bike, carpool or take mass transit more often. You’ll save one pound of carbon dioxide for every mile you don’t drive!

Recycle more
You can save 2,400 pounds of carbon dioxide per year by recycling just half of your household waste.

Check your tires
Keeping your tires inflated properly can improve gas mileage by more than 3%. Every gallon of gasoline saved keeps 20 pounds of carbon dioxide out of the atmosphere!

Use less hot water
It takes a lot of energy to heat water. Use less hot water by installing a low flow showerhead (350 pounds of CO2 saved per year) and washing your clothes in cold or warm water (500 pounds saved per year).

Avoid products with a lot of packaging
You can save 1,200 pounds of carbon dioxide if you cut down your garbage by 10%.

Adjust your thermostat
Moving your thermostat just 2 degrees in winter and up 2 degrees in summer could save about 2,000 pounds of carbon dioxide a year with this simple adjustment.

Plant a tree
A single tree will absorb one ton of carbon dioxide over its lifetime.

Turn off electronic devices
Simply turning off your television, DVD player, stereo, and computer when you’re not using them will save you thousands of pounds of carbon dioxide a year.

Spread the word! Encourage your friends to buy An Inconvenient Truth

an inconvenient truth
available on DVD
November 21
www.climatecrisis.net
The science: what is global warming?

WHAT IS GLOBAL WARMING?

Carbon dioxide and other gases warm the surface of the planet naturally by trapping solar heat in the atmosphere. This is a good thing because it keeps our planet habitable. However, by burning fossil fuels such as coal, gas and oil and clearing forests we have dramatically increased the amount of carbon dioxide in the Earth’s atmosphere and temperatures are rising.

The vast majority of scientists agree that global warming is real, it’s already happening and that it is the result of our activities and not a natural occurrence.1 The evidence is overwhelming and undeniable.

We’re already seeing changes. Glaciers are melting, plants and animals are being forced from their habitat, and the number of severe storms and droughts is increasing.

The number of Category 4 and 5 hurricanes has almost doubled in the last 30 years.2

Malaria has spread to higher altitudes in places like the Colombian Andes, 7,000 feet above sea level.3

The flow of ice from glaciers in Greenland has more than doubled over the past decade.4

At least 279 species of plants and animals are already responding to global warming, moving closer to the poles.5

If the warming continues, we can expect catastrophic consequences.

Deaths from global warming will double in just 25 years -- to 300,000 people a year.6

Global sea levels could rise by more than 20 feet with the loss of shelf ice in Greenland and Antarctica, devastating coastal areas worldwide.7

Heat waves will be more frequent and more intense.

Droughts and wildfires will occur more often.

The Arctic Ocean could be ice free in summer by 2050.8

More than a million species worldwide could be driven to extinction by 2050.9

There is no doubt we can solve this problem. In fact, we have a moral obligation to do so. Small changes to your daily routine can add up to big differences in helping to stop global warming. The time to come together to solve this problem is now — TAKE ACTION.

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3. World Health Organization.
6. World Resources Institute.
Take action

REDUCE YOUR IMPACT AT HOME

Most emissions from homes are from the fossil fuels burned to generate electricity and heat. By using energy more efficiently at home, you can reduce your emissions and lower your energy bills by more than 30%.

In addition, since agriculture is responsible for about a fifth of the world’s greenhouse gas emissions, you can reduce your emissions simply by watching what you eat.

Here’s how:

Replace a regular incandescent light bulb with a compact fluorescent light bulb (CFLs) use 60% less energy than a regular bulb. This simple switch will save about 300 pounds of carbon dioxide a year. If every family in the U.S. made the switch, we’d reduce carbon dioxide by more than 90 billion pounds! You can purchase CFLs online from the Energy Federation.

Move your thermostat down 2° in winter and up 2° in summer
Almost half of the energy we use in our homes goes to heating and cooling. You could save about 2,000 pounds of carbon dioxide a year with this simple adjustment. The American Council for an Energy Efficient Economy has more tips for saving energy on heating and cooling.

Clean or replace filters on your furnace and air conditioner
Cleaning a dirty air filter can save 350 pounds of carbon dioxide a year.
Install a programmable thermostat
Programmable thermostats will automatically lower the heat or air conditioning at night and raise them again in the morning. They can save you $100 a year on your energy bill.

Choose energy efficient appliances when making new purchases
Look for the Energy Star label on new appliances to choose the most efficient models. If each household in the U.S. replaced its existing appliances with the most efficient models available, we’d eliminate 175 million tons of carbon dioxide emissions every year!

Wrap your water heater in an insulation blanket
You’ll save 1,000 pounds of carbon dioxide a year with this simple action. You can save another 550 pounds per year by setting the thermostat no higher than 120 degrees Fahrenheit.

Use less hot water
It takes a lot of energy to heat water. You can use less hot water by installing a low flow showerhead (330 pounds of carbon dioxide saved per year) and washing your clothes in cold or warm water (300 pounds saved per year) instead of hot.

Use a clothesline instead of a dryer whenever possible
You can save 700 pounds of carbon dioxide when you air dry your clothes for 6 months out of the year.

Turn off electronic devices you’re not using
Simply turning off your television, DVD player, stereo, and computer when you’re not using them will save you thousands of pounds of carbon dioxide a year.

Unplug electronics from the wall when you’re not using them
Even when turned off, things like hairdryers, cell phone chargers and televisions use energy. In fact, the energy used to keep display clocks lit and memory chips working accounts for 5 percent of total domestic energy consumption and spews 18 million tons of carbon into the atmosphere every year!
Appendix 5

Learner 1: What are the results of present global warming?
Learner 2: Hurricanes have developed.
Learner 3: Diseases have increased.
Learner 4: Animals have moved closer to the poles.

Then an informal collaborative exchange will start to understand what sound determines /d/ or /t/.

“Teacher: Can you put your hands on your throats and repeat after me? What are the last verb sounds and what can you conclude?
Learner 5: developed/.../l/...no, /p/ is voiced.
Learner 6: No, it’s voiceless!
Teacher: moved/
Learner 7: /v/ is voiced!”

Eventually the same collaborative exchange occurs for /id/ after /t/ or /d/.

“Teacher: What other consequences can we notice?
Learner 8: Plants have responded by moving, too.
Teacher: What is the last verb sound?
Learner 9: The last verb sound is /d/.
Teacher: What about Katrina?
Learner 10: Hurricane Katrina has devastated Louisiana.
Teacher: What is the last sound?
Learner 11: The last verb sound is /t/”.

Appendix 6

“Paul!
-Why are you shouting?
-There is no hot water, the electric heater is empty again! What have you done?
-Well... I’ve had a bath and... I’ve washed my hair! and my jeans! and my sweatshirt! and my t-shirt! and my socks!
-But it takes a lot of energy to heat water! You should use less hot water!
-Ah! Come on!
-Next time,” take” a shower, and use cold water, it’s good for your health!
-Do you use cold water for your shower?
-Of course!
-That’s why you never wash, that’s the truth!”
Nature of Discussions in a Foreign Language Literature Class

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Abstract
Use of literature in foreign language teaching has been viewed as one of the traditional ways of teaching for centuries. However, the research about the use of literature is quite limited compared to the popularity of its use. In this study, I analyzed the discursive structure of classroom talk both academically and socially to identify the nature of literary discussions. A foreign language literature class in Turkey was observed for one semester and qualitative analyses were conducted following a discourse analysis method. The findings of the study revealed mixed results. Possible reasons of the findings were explained with educational implications.

Key Words: Use of literature, classroom discourse, teacher questions, EFL

Introduction
Use of literature in foreign and second language teaching is taken for granted for many teachers and researchers. However, how literature is studied and nature of classroom discourse in second/foreign language literature classrooms have not been examined thoroughly (Donato & Brooks, 2004; Kim, 2004; Mantero, 2001). Studies that have investigated what is happening in literature classes are very few in number. As it is often articulated, previous research on the use of literature in second and foreign language teaching has focused mostly on the reading comprehension of cultural texts (Donato & Brooks, 2004), and very few studies have examined the verbal interactions of second/foreign language learners in literature discussions (Kim, 2004). A review of previous studies and books that are devoted to the relationship between literature and language learning demonstrate that the
study of literature seems to entail mostly receptive skills: for the most part reading and literacy development, and only sometimes writing or speaking (Akyel & Yalcin, 1990; Carter & Long, 1991; Chen, 2006; Cho & Krashen 1994; Ghosn, 2002; Lao & Krashen, 2000; Lazar, 1993, 1994; Liaw, 2001; McKay, 1982; Parkinson & Thomas, 2000; Shanahan; 1997; Widdowson, 1984).

Use of Literature in Foreign Language Teaching

Most of the studies that examined the relationship between literature and language teaching have articulated four benefits of literature: (1) literature helps developing linguistic knowledge both on usage and use level (Lazar, 1994; McKay, 1982; Parkinson & Thomas, 2000; Widdowson, 1984), (2) literature may enhance students’ motivation (Akyel & Yalcin, 1990; Ghosn, 2002; Lazar, 1993; McKay, 1982; Parkinson & Thomas, 2000), (3) literature has the potential to increase learners’ understanding of the target culture (Akyel & Yalcin, 1990; Ghosn, 2002; Lazar, 1993, 1994; McKay, 1982; Parkinson & Thomas 2000; Shanahan; 1997), (4) literature may help develop skills of cognitive and critical thinking (Ghosn, 2002, Lazar, 1993; Parkinson & Thomas, 2000). Most of these benefits are based on the experiences of teachers and researchers who had substantial background in the teaching of literature; however, none of them is supported by research that is coming from real classroom settings.

Motivated from the lack of research on the nature of discussions in literature classrooms, this study examined the nature of literary discussions in an advanced level English literature class in a Turkish EFL (English as a Foreign Language) setting. The study focused on the discursive features of a foreign language literature course offered at a Turkish university. The discursive structure of classroom talk was analyzed both academically and socially to identify the nature of the literary discussions. Students’ perceptions of the class and on-going discourse, and their views about their roles were investigated as well. In other words, both academic and social aspects of the classroom discourse were addressed to increase the understanding of ‘what-is-going-on’ in an advanced level foreign language literature class.

By conducting this study, the researcher aimed to contribute to the literature by providing naturalistic, uncontrolled data about the nature of literary discussions in an advanced level English literature class at a Turkish university. In other words, by analyzing the nature of whole group discussions in a college level foreign language literature class, this study provided empirical data regarding the nature of discussions in a literature class, which in turn might offer some insights about the validity of the claim that the study of literature in the collegiate curriculum is useful in developing foreign language proficiency.
The discursive structure of the classroom talk, i.e., how the discussion evolves, may help us see the major significant points in a discussion, namely how the discussion is constructed, who starts it, who finalizes it and who contributes to it. Characteristics of discussions may further shed some light on the perception of knowledge and schooling by the teachers and students. Many previous studies demonstrate that most of the schooling in many settings have been built on the traditional IRE (Initiation-Response-Evaluation) routine, which may indicate that, among other things, the teacher have the ultimate control in the classroom (Gutierrez, 1994; Lemke, 1990; Nystrand, 1997). On the other hand, open-ended discussions are less prescribed, including less teacher control, and may be a sign of teachers’ interest in students’ ideas and comments (Nystrand, 1997). The significance of the nature of discussions has been acknowledged by many researchers who deal with classroom discourse in different fields of education (Cazden, 2001; Gutierrez, 1994; Lemke, 1990; Nystrand, 1997; Walsh, 2006; Wells, 1999b).

The following research questions guided this study:

1- What is the nature of literary discussions in an advanced level literature course in a Turkish EFL setting based on the analyses of the discursive structure of the classroom talk?

2- What do students think about this specific literature class and their roles in this class?

Methodological Framework

The research questions influenced the choice of the methodological framework, the social interactionist perspective (Green, 1983; Green & Wallat, 1981; Mehan, 1979, 1998) that provided a comprehensive outlook about the classroom discourse. A social interactionist perspective to teaching focuses on the discourse and interaction in the classroom, and uses a discourse analysis framework to analyze the classroom interaction. In his seminal book *Learning Lessons*, published in 1979, Mehan pointed out the significance of studying interaction in the classroom context by stating “because educational facts are constituted in interaction, we need to study interaction in educational contexts… in order to understand the nature of schooling” (p. 6). After more than 25 years, as Wells (2005) states, many people who study classroom learning and teaching today agree that “the nature of the interaction that takes place in class is one of the most significant influences on the quality of student learning” (p. 1).

From this perspective, a second or foreign language classroom is not only an academic environment, but also it is a social context (Cazden, 2001). Classroom language is analyzed as
it pertains to two different functions in classroom life: (a) the communication of propositional information, which is also called as referential, cognitive or ideational function, and (b) the establishment and maintenance of social relationship and identity that refers to the social and affective features of language (Cazden, 2001).

Data Collection Procedures
Following Harklau (2005), the present study can be defined as ethnographic research that involves a case study, which is quite common in qualitative research (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). Natural and systematic audio and video recordings of the classroom sessions for nine weeks (a whole semester), field notes taken as a non-participant observer during this time, and semi-structured interviews with the instructor, students, and the administrators of the program constituted the primary data sources. Discourse analysis was used as a major research tool to examine the nature of literary discussions. The main aim of using multiple data collection techniques was to get various perspectives of the same classroom phenomenon to increase the credibility of the study. Another concern of the study was to get the insider’s perspective and understanding of the classroom interaction.

Data Analysis
Discourse analysis technique was used while analyzing the data. The following steps were followed prior to data analysis: (i) transcription of the audio and video recordings, (ii) data indexing, (iii) data reduction, and (iv) data coding. Data transcription process involved the transcription of the video and audio-recordings in their entirety. Data indexing was performed by describing the context in which data occurred, in other words, where and when the activity took place in the study. Each teacher-fronted whole group discussion was indexed by providing the context of when and where it took place. The description of the topic, pseudonyms for each participant, and major activities of the lesson in each episode were included in this session as well. After indexing the relevant parts, data was reduced into smaller and manageable chunks of information (episodes) according to the research questions. Finally, the data was coded using a top-down, deductive coding procedure where the analyst pinpointed a set of codes before engagement with data began. The four constructs were already identified by utilizing the findings of the previous literature and theoretical framework.
Interrater Reliability

After I identified 69 episodes of teacher-fronted text-based discussion, and coded them according to the research constructs, two external reviewers were asked to re-code some parts of the data to increase the reliability of the findings. External raters were familiar with classroom discourse research and each coded 10% of the data, which was randomly selected. For the part of the study that was discussed in this paper, external raters coded the level of learner utterances. I prepared a training manual that included the definitions of each level of learner utterances together with at least two examples. After the final codings, there was 98% interrater reliability between the researcher and the first rater, and 97% interrater reliability between the researcher and the second rater.

Context of the Research

The research was conducted in the Drama Analysis and Teaching class offered at the sixth semester of English Education program at a major Turkish University, during the spring semester of 2006, which started on February 27th and ended on June 16th. The class met regularly on Tuesdays between 8:30 A.M. and 11:30 A.M. It had three hours of class with two breaks for ten minutes after each hour. The participants of this study were advanced level English Education majors attending a Turkish public university. I was particularly interested in advanced level learners, because they had adequate English proficiency and the necessary background in literature to carry out the classroom discussions in the target language. The instructor of the course, Dr. Anne, held a PhD in English Literature and had been teaching the same course for more than 10 years. The background survey indicated that the participants ranged in age from 20 to 22, and they had been studying English for 5 to 12 years. Pseudonyms were used to protect the identities of the participants of the study.

During videorecordings, I positioned the camcorder I used to the right corner of the classroom, and kept it at the same place during the whole semester. I sat next to the camcorder, and remained silent as much as I could. My main concern was being as invisible as possible, and I did it as best as I could, even though I needed to talk in the classroom from time to time.
Findings

Discursive Structure of Classroom Talk

During nine weeks of recordings, I identified 69 whole group teacher fronted text-based discussions. The teacher fronted text-based discussions, i.e., the episodes, ranged between one minute and ten seconds and twenty-six minutes and twelve in duration. In each of these episodes, the focus was the text that had been read, and the teacher asked at least two questions. After each text-based discussion was identified, they were coded based on (a) initiation move of each episode, (b) major patterns of the moves (e.g., initiation, response, evaluation), (c) level of the learner utterances (i.e., word, phrase, sentence, or discourse), and (d) finalization move of each episode.

The average number of episodes per week was 7.6. The first week of the recordings had fourteen episodes, and eighth week had only four. Time spent on discussions in each week varied between 47 and 104 minutes. The average time spent on discussion was 77 minutes. Week 3 had the shortest time with 47 minutes, on the other hand in Week 5, 104 minutes of class time was spent on discussions. The distribution of the episodes in each week is provided in Table 1.
Table 1

*The Number of Episodes in Each Week*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weeks</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; Hour</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; Hour</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; Hour</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Initiation. While examining the initiation move of each episode, I focused on two main points: (a) Who initiated the discourse, and (b) how it was initiated. Out of 69 episodes, 67 were initiated by the teacher, and only two were initiated by the students (episode 1.2.3 and 2.2.1). Throughout the initiation move the dominance and control of the teacher was strongly felt: 97% of all episodes were initiated by the teacher. It was observed that 59 of 67 teacher initiation moves included questions (88%), and only eight of them were statements (12%). When the questions in the initiation move were further analyzed, it was found that 34% (n=24) of these questions were test questions, and 48% (n=34) of them were authentic questions. Five episodes involved the use of both types of questions (please check Note 1 for more information about teacher questions).

Major patterns of discussion. Traditional IRE, extended IRE and open-ended discussions constituted three major patterns of moves. Out of these three, traditional IRE sequences dominated the discussions. The main features of the traditional IRE pattern in the Drama Analysis and Teaching class were as follows: a) initiation was a teacher move, b) the teacher mostly used questions in the initiation move, c) the teacher usually evaluated every student response, d) the students’ responses tended to be short, and e) the teacher’s questioning strategy was well balanced.

As I mentioned, Dr. Anne initiated the discussions with a question most of the times. In fact, she employed questions quite frequently during the whole nine weeks. Following comments of Dr. Anne might help us better understand her thoughts about questioning sequences in the classroom and what students think about Dr. Anne’s questioning practices.

“You see- questions are everywhere in the exam, in the afterlife, we are busy with questions.”

- Dr. Anne (5.3.4)
“Why? I am asking ‘why’ [questions] (++) teachers always ask ‘why question’ because I want to be sure whether you know or not … We should ask ‘why [questions]’ to obtain (++) more knowledge. Why are we asking ‘why’?”  
- Dr. Anne (8.2.2)

“I really like Dr. Anne’s questions. They are very good. Also Dr. Anne wants us to ask questions during the discussions but we cannot ask as good questions as she does”  
Esra, Second Interview

“Dr. Anne’s questions are challenging and let us think more on the plays we read. Most of the times, they are open for different interpretations and they allow us to present different perspectives on the topic.”  
- Fatih, Second Interview.

The main difference between a traditional IRE sequence and an extended IRE sequence was in the response move of the students that lasted 3-4 turns and included teacher comments. In other words, during extensive IRE sequences, the teacher evaluated the student comments immediately, however she did not finish the conversation at that point. Instead she gave some more time to students, which helped them elaborate their ideas. I have provided an example of an Extended IRE sequence (please check Note 2 for the transcription conventions used in this study).

Excerpt 1 An Example of an Extended IRE Sequence (6.3.1)

| T   | 198 | Yes, flower he even knows he remembers the (++) Hakan (++) yes! Bill and Tom similarities differences the relations? (++++) both are (++) lonely. [INITIATION- TEACHER QUESTION] |
| T   | 199 | Both are deprived of[ [RESPONSE] |
| Ha  | 200 | Very good [EVALUATION] |
| Ha  | 201 | Male dominant features [RESPONSE] |
| T   | 202 | Both are deprives of fathers, good fathers [COMMENT] |
| Ha  | 203 | No, male features I said [RESPONSE- ELABORATION] |
| T   | 204 | Hmm (++) yes, but Bill at least pretends [EVALUATION- COMMENT] |
| Ha  | 205 | He was like Tom in his seventeen’s. [RESPONSE- ELABORATION] |
| T   | 206 | Very good! Wonderful! Thank you! Yes please Feride [EVALUATION- INITATITITON] |
During open-ended discussions, the teacher asked fewer questions and more importantly, she did not immediately evaluate each student response. Among all discussion patterns, this was the closest to the dialogical discussions as discussed by Nystrand (1997), Gutierrez (1994) and Skidmore (2000). Students acted freely during this time, and made comments one after the other without waiting for the teacher’s assignment. I summarized the basic features of each type of discourse in Table 2.

Table 2
Overview of the Basic Features of Each Type of Discourse

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Teacher Questions</th>
<th>Student Involvement</th>
<th>Initiation/Finalization</th>
<th>Teacher Evaluation</th>
<th>Teacher Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Traditional IRE</td>
<td>Many</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Frequent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extended IRE</td>
<td>Balanced</td>
<td>Mediocre</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Occasional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open-ended</td>
<td>Few</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Little</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Level of student talk. Analysis of level of student talk revealed that students found chances to speak in all levels during the discussions in the Drama Analysis and Teaching class (see Table 3 for details). The majority of the student utterances were sentence level utterances (42%). The scarcity of discourse level student talk was obvious throughout the semester in almost every week.

Table 3
Number and Percentages of Level of Learner Utterances for Each Week

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Word Level</th>
<th>Phrase Level</th>
<th>Sentence Level</th>
<th>Discourse Level</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sentence level talk was higher than the others in all weeks but Week One. The uneasiness in students’ talk was quite evident when the classroom discourse in the first week was analyzed. As it can be seen in Excerpt 2, which is taken from the second episode of second hour in the first week, students spoke only one or two words, and did not seem eager to elaborate their ideas. Therefore, the teacher needed to talk more and assumed the roles of both teacher and students during the discussions. For the first week, in the field notes, I wrote that the students did not seem natural and were highly affected by the presence of the camera and the researcher.

Excerpt 2

An Example of Dominance of Word Level Talk from the First Week

<p>| | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>18 %</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>28 %</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>52 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>20 %</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>20 %</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>57 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>34 %</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>29 %</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>36 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>933</td>
<td>28 %</td>
<td>948</td>
<td>28 %</td>
<td>1400</td>
<td>42 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finalization. In the Drama Analysis and Teaching class, 98% of all episodes were finalized by the teacher. The final turns of the episodes included one or more of these moves:
Repetition (26%), evaluation (72%), question (16%), paraphrase (44%), comment (35%). Some of the teacher utterances in the final turn of the episode were quite decisive and signaled the end of the episode definitely. These utterances did not leave any room for further elaboration to the students. These utterances revealed the ultimate teacher control over the classroom discourse. Some examples of decisive teacher statement in the final turn of the episodes are provided in Table 4.

Table 4  
**Some of the Decisive Teacher Statements in the Final Turn**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Utterance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We finish this one and then the other one, page thirteen please.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ok, the other page.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ok this is the end of the poem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thank you and then the day is over.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We’ll see each other in the next hour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So, we finished. Yes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Students’ Perceptions about the Course**

The analysis of the classroom talk during literary discussions revealed some important features of the class I observed. To gain a deeper understanding and to triangulate the findings, I used the data obtained from teacher and student interviews. Most of the students argued that reading was the main aspect of the Drama Analysis and Teaching class even though more than 60% of the class time was devoted to the literary discussions. This was an interesting finding, which can be related with the general perceptions of language learners and teachers about the place of literature in foreign and second language learning. Especially following comments of the students about how they perceived the literature class reflected the understanding of literature classes in many parts of the world by many teachers and researchers.

“Literature courses are important because they make us read, and also we learn the culture of other countries while reading the works of literature”  
- Buket, Second Interview

“My English improved overall during [in this course] this semester, however I benefited a lot for my reading skills, and vocabulary learning”  
- Fatih, Second Interview
“I believe Drama course is all about understanding and interpreting what you read.”

- Kadir, Second Interview

**Perceptions of Student Roles**

Most of the roles/duties the teacher and students discussed during the interviews were traditional student roles. Answering teacher questions, learning what Dr. Anne was trying to teach, coming to class prepared and passing the exam seemed like they made students passive receivers of the information.

“Main student duties are answering teacher questions and participating in classroom discussions”

- Dr. Anne, Final Interview

“Our main role is learning some content information from this course as we are supposed to learn. Sometimes, Dr. Anne asks us ‘What did you learn from this week?’ and then we discuss what we assume we learned. Then she corrects some points, and makes us focus on information that we need.”

- Buket, Second Interview

“Hmm, what are student roles? They should study, they should come to class prepared.”

- Fatih, Second Interview

“One of the things that is important is passing this course. I see some of the students jotting down notes all the time, because they think about the exam, they don’t participate in discussion, but they listen everything carefully”

- Kadir, Second Interview

Another important duty/role of the students was attending the classes. In many university settings in Turkey, attendance is voluntary and many professors do not take the roll. However, in Dr. Anne’s class it was compulsory, and not attending the classes would affect students’ final grade. Attending the class was also important for the exams. The discussion of the student roles in the interviews emphasized the traditional roles in the classroom. However, when I analyzed the discourse in the classroom, there were some instances where students moved beyond their traditional roles and initiated new topics, asked questions, changed the flow of the conversation and challenged teacher’s authority.
Discussion of the Findings

The analysis of each construct yielded some mixed implications. I observed that most of the findings were not parallel. In other words, there were instances where students used language in meaningful situations and engaged in co-construction of information and meaning (Wells, 1999a) and some others where most of the talk was teacher-dominated and students mostly parroted information from the book, and did not find many chances to elaborate upon their ideas. In a similar vein, sometimes Dr. Anne held tight classroom control, and on some other occasions, she allowed the students to take control and diverge from the flow of prescribed conversation. In my opinion, the gist of the discussion in Excerpt 3 might portray the findings of this study succinctly.

Excerpt 3

Classifying People

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Oz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Fe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Oz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Es</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Excerpt 3 was taken from the third hour of Week One. Dr. Anne and students were discussing the poem in the book ‘Case of Crushed Petunias’. The excerpt began with Dr. Anne’s question about classifying people in extremes. She pointed out the biases one of the characters, Dorothy, had. In this excerpt, Dr. Anne wanted to show the students that many people in life were neither tall nor short, and neither good nor evil. In fact, according to Dr. Anne, most of the people fitted into the gray shade. In a similar way, when I thought about the findings of this study, I observed that they were neither all promising nor very disappointing. To put it in a better way, some of the findings of this study were encouraging, and they exemplified dialogically-oriented discussions, on the other hand, some others were rather unsatisfactory and implied tightly controlled monologically-oriented discourse where voice of students were silenced.

Based on these findings, it was difficult to claim that ‘literary discussions in the Drama Analysis and Teaching course reached high levels of student engagement and students freely discussed any topic in their minds’, as it was not fair to say ‘the students spoke too little and did not find any chance to elaborate upon their ideas because of tight teacher control’. Overall interpretations of findings were in the gray area as Dr. Anne mentioned. In fact this interpretation was line with Akyel and Yalcin’s (1990) comments about the place of literature in English education in the Turkish context. Based on their study that focused on the state of literature teaching in the English departments of five selected private high schools, Akyel and Yalcin suggested that the Turkish educational system was “wavering between modern and traditional practices” (p. 174). To name a few examples from their study, traditional practices would include teacher centered guided questions, informative background lectures, and/or reading the text aloud or silently. On the other hand, student centered group activities such as debates, discussions or writing activities would be categorized as modern practices.
Educational Implications

From a sociocultural perspective, Gibbons (2006) argues that teacher’s main role in student learning is that of mediation and the fundamental premise of teaching as mediation is “the recognition that both language and content learning depend on the nature of the dialogue between teacher and students” (p. 174). This premise reminds teachers that they should be aware of the discourse in the classroom because discourse as a tool can impede or facilitate the emergence of learning opportunities in many classrooms. A suggestion to the teachers who use literature in their language classrooms would be giving more focus to linguistic structures and creating opportunities for students to use the target language while using/teaching literature. While discussing their results, Donato and Brooks (2004) state that “discussions that take place in literature classes have the potential to incorporate advanced proficiency goals” (p. 195), however, to achieve this goal instructors and students should be aware of and well-prepared for this potential of literary discussions.

Based on the findings of this study, specifically when the level of student utterances is taken into consideration, one can argue that the discussions in this specific literature class did not provide opportunities that would enable students to incorporate advanced level proficiency goals. As we can see in Table 3, most of the discussions in Drama Analysis and Teaching class did not reach to the discourse level, where the students produced sentences one after the other without teacher’s interruption. Possible pedagogical implications drawn from this fact would be (a) asking questions that would produce occasions of dialogical discussions, and (b) creating a classroom atmosphere where students can freely use the target language without teacher’s control and interruption.

Students’ perceptions about literature in general and literature courses in collegiate curriculum in particular might be the focus of another suggestion for teachers and educators. Most of the students in this study viewed literature classes as a part of ‘reading’ courses that were offered throughout their programs of study. In fact, this reflects a global perception of literature classes in many parts of the world by students, teachers, and researchers (Akyel & Yalcin, 1990; Carter & Long, 1991; Cho & Krashen 1994; Lao & Krashen, 2000, among others). This perception of literature might be a big barrier in front of the students (and educators) who can benefit more from the more active and participatory side of literature. The problem can be tackled by emphasizing the utilization of literary texts to improve oral skills of students with the help of techniques such as interpretive role-playing (Kramsch, 1985), critical discussion or debate based on the literary texts (Lazar, 1993), and other conversation activities (Berg, 1993; Martin, 1990).
The findings of this study also revealed that students found many chances to use English in meaningful contexts during the nine weeks of recordings. However, there were only two student-initiated episodes. There are some studies that claim that topics that are initiated by students have a better chance of being claimed to be learned (Slimani, 1989; Troudi, 1994). Particularly, it is argued that “classroom language acquisition is facilitated if the learner is able to nominate and control the topic of a conversation” (Troudi, 1994, p. 246). This argument does not sound plausible if teaching of basic skills to beginner-level learners is considered. However, it might be quite applicable in situations where content is taught to advanced-level learners. Therefore assigning an active role to students in determining the topic and flow of the conversation might result in better results with respect to learning.

**Conclusion**

The findings of this study, among other things, reiterated the lack of speaking and practice opportunities that literature classes may provide to foreign language learners. This problem, if taken together with the exploration of new ways about using literary texts to create pedagogically effective environments for the development of proficiency (Carter, 2007), might be a good start to think about specific features of literature and literature teaching that might have some influence on the development of second language skills such as speaking.

As it is widely acknowledged, speaking is a major problem in foreign language contexts and learners do not find enough opportunities to develop their speaking skills. Teachers and students often feel frustrated because of the limited opportunities of “speak[ing], read[ing] and writ[ing] meaningfully in English in a learning situation in which there is little of substance worth talking about” (Handscombe, 1994, p. 334). The findings of this study demonstrated that literature classes in the foreign language curriculum would be a venue to provide opportunities for the meaningful use of language in a context while most other interactions were based on some in-class mechanical drills, repetition, and memorization of chunks. However, in order to do that, foreign language literature teachers should be aware of the tool they have and develop the opportunity for discourse accordingly, which remind us, again, of the suggestions of Gibbons (2006) about the mediation role of teachers in the foreign language teaching classrooms.

**Notes**

1. Detailed analysis of the teacher questions in the *Drama Analysis and Teaching* class was conducted as well. However, because teacher questions were not the specific focus of this study, further discussion of the topic is not included. You can refer to Yuksel & Yu (2008) for further exploration of this aspect of the classroom discourse.
2. Following transcription conventions are used in this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Teacher Turns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fa, Sev, Fe</td>
<td>Student Turns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S1, S2, S3, S4</td>
<td>Unidentified Student Turns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>Extra Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>Pause (number of “+” indicates the seconds)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>Overlapping speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Tr.]</td>
<td>Utterances in Turkish</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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References


Using Online Instruction in English for Art Education

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Abstract
Technology is not currently used in ESP classrooms at the College of Home Economics. Therefore an attempt was made to use online learning in ESP instruction from home, in addition to traditional classroom instruction. Comparisons of pre- and posttest scores of ten graduate students revealed significant differences in students’ achievement. Results showed that in learning environments where technology is unavailable to ESP students and instructors, use of technology from home and even as a supplement to classroom techniques helps motivate ESP graduate students and enhance their mastery of English.

1. Background
Although Arabic is the medium of instruction at the College of Home Economics (CHE) in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, graduate students majoring in art education at CHE need to be proficient in English to be able to read specialized reference materials in their major area of study, and need to locate information in English resources such as journal articles, reports, dissertations and reference books for their courses, assignments, term papers and theses. For those reasons, graduate students majoring in art education at CHE are required to take an English-for-Specific-Purposes (ESP) course in the first semester of the doctoral program. In
Due to the latest advancements in information and communication technology, many forms of computer-mediated communication (CMC) such as interactive computer messages (E-messages), electronic mail (E-mail); online forums, and computer conferencing are being used in EFL/ESL instruction, in addition to a plethora of websites for teaching language skills, grammar, vocabulary, spelling, literature and so on.

The integration of technology in the teaching of ESP has been the focus of several research projects in various countries around the world. For example, Dahlman and Rilling (2001) described a distance learning course in Finland where technology was integrated into instruction to develop students’ English through a variety of real-world language tasks. Distance learning was combined with traditional classroom instruction in an advanced EFL course for teachers, as part of an 8-week summer program at a Finnish university. Moreover, Goertzen and Howard (1995) developed a computer software to teach EFL skills for medical diagnosis. Their report describes the overall design of the courseware, hardware used, stages of development (preliminary planning, choice of authoring software, structuring and creation of the activity, graphics and sound, programming), planned improvements, problems and issues encountered, piloting with five learners, and time requirements for software development. However, online courses were not integrated into any of the projects that teach ESP to graduate and undergraduate students. A review of the ESP literature in the ERIC database showed that studies that investigated the effect of integrating online course in ESP classrooms on students’ achievement are lacking. Therefore, an attempt was made by the author to use an online course from home as a supplement to classroom instruction. The aims of the present study were to find out whether the integration of an online learning component in ESP instruction significantly improves graduate students’ achievement in ESP and whether the frequency of participating in the online course correlated with their achievement level, and whether online instruction had any effect on students’ attitudes.

2. Participants
Ten female graduate students participated in the study. They were all art education majors and were in their first semester of the doctoral program in art education. They were enrolled in an English for Art Education course which the author taught for two hours a week, in partial fulfillment of the Ph.D. requirements. The students were concurrently enrolled in three art courses. All the subjects were working as lecturers at the Art Education Department, where
they taught art courses to undergraduate students. They were all Saudi, and were all native speakers of Arabic. Their median age was 32 years with a range of 28-36 years. They all had 6 years of EFL instruction in grades 6-12, and two semesters of English at the B.A. and M.A. levels.

3. Identifying Graduate Students’ Needs
The first day of classes, the students’ English language needs were assessed by a needs assessment questionnaire which consisted of the following questions: (A) For what purposes do you need English while studying? (B) For what purposes do you need English after you graduate? (C) For what purposes do you need to use the internet while taking your Ph.D. courses and writing your thesis? (D) For what purposes will you be using the internet after you graduate? (E) What kind of information would you like to locate in the internet? Students’ responses were tallied and their language needs were identified. It was found that all the students needed to learn English to be able to read specialized materials in English in their major area of study during the doctoral program and after graduation and to be able to translate the information that they need from English into Arabic.

4. The ESP Program
On the basis of the students’ language needs, and their proficiency level in English, an ESP course was designed (see Procedures Section for the pretest). The course had four components: (A) a reading comprehension component, (B) a specialized vocabulary building component (C) a translation component. This study will focus on describing how the online course was integrated into in-class instruction and its effect on achievement and attitudes.

5. Online Instruction
In addition to in-class instruction, the students used an online course with Nicenet. They used their PC’s and the Internet from home as the Internet was inaccessible from the CHE campus. The ESP class met once a week for 2 hours. Prior to online instruction, the students were given the class key and they enrolled themselves. The Nicenet course components such as “Link Sharing”, “Conferencing”, “Course Materials” were explained and instructions on how to use them were given.

Each week, some websites (hyperlinks) about art were added in the “Link Sharing” area such as: le Louvre, The British Museum, Turkish Plastic Arts Archives, fiber Arts for practice, visual elements and principles (line, shape, color, space, texture, balance, emphasis,
movement/rhythm), art lessons, National Art Education Association (NAEA), the Getty, Digi Arts (from UNESCO), ARTcyclopedia (Artists, works of art, and art developments through history etc...), Dictionary of Art Terminology. Those websites were used as a source for the in-class reading material, vocabulary and translation instruction. They also served as a source for answering the weekly vocabulary, reading and translation homework-assignments posted online. The students had to download the material to be discussed in class. The texts were read on the screen (offline) in class. The students received instruction in text macro- and micro-structure, locating main ideas and supporting details such as names of artists, artworks and place names, characteristics, classification, time sequences, enumeration, comparison and contrast, outlining and highlighting key concepts and key terms. Vocabulary instruction focused on figuring out meanings of key terms from context. Art terms were broken into prefixes, suffixes and roots and their part of speech was identified by looking at the derivational suffixes. Verb-forming, adjective-forming and noun-forming suffixes were always identified. Translation instruction focused on rendering a translation of the overall meaning of paragraphs that had already been read and discussed in class rather than full or literal translation of those paragraphs. Students’ work was monitored and feedback was provided. The author made sure translations were cohesive and meaningful. Students had to rewrite their translations at home.

Each week, a homework-assignment that required the students to locate art terminology related to art tools, materials, art schools, kinds of art …etc and post their answers to questions in the “Conferencing” area. They were also required to post their re-written translations so that they could read each other’s and comment on them if they wished.

Throughout the semester, the author served as a facilitator. She provided technical support on how to use the online course tools, and responded to individual students’ needs and requests for certain sites. Through e-mail and “Conferencing”, she sent public and private messages to encourage students to interact and communicate. The author did not correct anything that the students posted. Spelling and grammatical errors were not corrected. The online course was assigned 20% of the total course grade.

6. Procedures
Before instruction, the students’ proficiency level in English was assessed by a teacher-made test consisting of four subtests: reading comprehension, vocabulary subtest, paragraph-writing and translation. The pretest consisted of the following questions: (i) Write the Arabic meaning of the following words; (ii) Write the English meaning of the following words; (iii) Break the
following words into prefixes, suffixes and roots using dashes (-); (iv) Read the following paragraph and fill in the table; (v) Translate the following paragraph into Arabic; (vi) Write a paragraph in which you introduce yourself and talk about your job and field of study. Results of the English Proficiency Test revealed that 90% of the subjects exhibited poor reading comprehension skills, poor vocabulary knowledge and very poor writing and spelling and translation ability (See Table 1).

At the end of the semester (week 14), the students took a posttest that consisted of 10 questions: (i) Write 5 types of art materials; (ii) Write 5 types of art tools; (iii) Write 5 art schools; (iv) Write 5 art elements; (v) Write the names of 5 artists; (vi) Write the Arabic meaning of the following words; (vii) Write the English meaning of the following words; (viii) Break the following words into prefixes, suffixes and roots; (ix) Read the text then complete the sentences; (x) Translate the following. The pre- and posttests were blindly graded by the author. An answer key was used. Each student was given 3 scores: a vocabulary score, a reading score and a translation score. Scores were converted into percentages. In addition, the students answered a post-treatment questionnaire that consisted of several open-ended questions, which aimed at finding out how the students felt about their experience with online learning and whether they found it helpful in improving their reading, vocabulary and translation skills.

7. Test Validity and Reliability

The posttest is believed to have content validity, as it aimed at assessing the students’ comprehension of art texts, knowledge of basic art terminology and ability to translate the overall meaning of a paragraph. The content covered in the test was comparable to that covered in the online course materials and in class discussion and assignments. The test instructions were phrased clearly and the examinees’ task was defined. All of the students comprehended the questions and responded to them as instructed.

Concurrent validity of the posttest was determined by correlating the students’ total score on the posttest and their total score on the midterm test that measured reading, vocabulary and translation skills as well. The validity coefficient was .62 and it was significant at the .01 level.

Since the author was the instructor and the scorer of the pretest and posttests for both groups, estimates of inter-rater reliability were necessary. A 30% random sample of the pretest and posttest answer sheets was selected and double-scored. A colleague who holds a Ph.D. degree scored the pre and posttest answer sheets. In scoring the sample answer sheets,
she used the same answer key and followed the same scoring procedures utilized by the author. The marks given by both raters for each subtest in the sample were correlated. Interrater correlation was 98% for each group, which reflects the high accuracy with which the responses were marked.

Furthermore, examinee reliability was computed as it indicates how consistently examinees perform on the same set of tasks. Examinee reliability was calculated by correlating the students’ scores on the even items with their scores on the odd items. Split halves reliability was calculated by correlating scores for the odd and even items. The split halves reliability coefficient was .68. Examinee reliability was also calculated by using the Kuder-Richardson 21’ formula as it estimates the internal-consistency of the test items. The reliability coefficient of the posttest was .73. The split-halves and internal consistency reliability coefficients show that that the test has a good reliability, taking into consideration that it is a teacher-made test and the number of students who took the test.

8. **Data Analysis**

The mean, median, standard deviation, standard error and range were computed. To find out whether the students made any progress (gain) as a result of instruction, a within group paired T-test was computed using the pre and posttest scores. To find out whether the frequency of using the online course is related to the student’s English achievement level, the online course usage frequency was obtained for each student. The usage frequency represented the total number of paragraphs posted by each student in response to all the conferencing topics and questions over the 12 weeks. For each student, the usage score was correlated with her posttest score.

Finally, the effect of online instruction on graduate students’ attitudes towards online learning and whether it helped improve their reading comprehension, vocabulary and translation skills was based on qualitative analyses of the students’ comments on and responses to the open-ended questions in the post-treatment questionnaire.

9. **Results**

9.1 **Effect of Instruction on Achievement:**

Table (1) shows that the median score on the pretest was 22.5% (range = 15% - 48%) and the median score on the posttest was 62.5% (range = 40% - 88 %) with larger variations among the students posttest scores than the pretest score as revealed by the standard deviation values. Results of the paired T-test in Table (2) shows a significant difference between the pre and
posttest mean scores at the .01 level, suggesting that the students’ achievement significantly improved as a result of exposure to a combination of in-class and online instruction from home (T = 14.6, Df = 9).

Table (1)
Distribution of Pre- and Posttest Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Range</th>
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<td>22.5</td>
<td>9.49</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15-48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>66.5</td>
<td>13.54</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>40-88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (2)
Paired T-test Results

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<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE Mean</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
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</thead>
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<td>3.00</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>13.54</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.000</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table (3)
Pearson Correlations among Vocabulary, Reading and Translation Posttest Scores

<table>
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<th></th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Reading</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
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<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>.77**</td>
<td>.51*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

9.2 Correlation between the Vocabulary, Reading and Translation Scores:
Results of the Pearson correlation matrix in Table (3) show that there is a significant positive correlation between the students’ vocabulary and translation scores (r = .77; P<.001) and a significant correlation between students’ reading and translation scores (r = .51; P<.05). However, the correlation between the reading and vocabulary scores was non-significant.
9.3 Correlation between Posttest Scores and Frequency Usage:

The Nicenet course statistics showed that the students posted a total of 229 messages (Median = 25; Range = 8 - 37). It was found that there is a significant positive correlation between the total posttest scores of the students and the frequency of using the online course ($r = .39$; $P < .05$). This suggests that a student’s achievement in the ESP course correlated with the number of contributions she made to the discussion topics and questions posted in the “Conferencing” area of the online course. This means that high and low usage frequencies of the online course were found to correlate with high and low achievement levels as measured by the posttest. It can be concluded that using the online course did contribute to the students’ overall proficiency level.

9.4 Effect of Online Instruction on Attitudes:

Findings of the post-treatment questionnaire revealed that 90% of the subjects found the online course very important and very useful. They found it a new way of learning and doing homework. It made the art material easy to grasp, as art concepts and information were associated with real pictures, color paintings and art objects. They practiced reading and learning material in English about art topics that they already knew about in Arabic. The material posted in the online gave them an opportunity to exchange, share and discuss information. They developed the ability to search for information in online and conventional hard copy resources to answer the instructor's questions. They became more aware of art websites on the Internet, a resource that they will continue to use in the future.

However, the students felt that two hours per week were insufficient to develop reading, vocabulary and translation skills. Since they were involved in teaching and were concurrently taking 3 specialized courses, they could not devote a lot of time to internet searching, reading, learning vocabulary and translating extra texts. They expressed a need for having the first semester of the doctoral program fully devoted to learning English and developing internet searching skills. Other shortcomings were related to the Nicenet online course design and tools, since the students could not format their posted material, could neither insert nor upload digital pictures. They could not have audio or video conferencing with each other or with the instructor over the weekend.

10. Discussion

The present study found that use of the Nicenet online course as a supplement to in-class instruction was significantly more effective in enhancing students’ reading comprehension,
art vocabulary and translation skills than using in-class instruction alone. Using the online course had a positive effect on students’ attitude towards the course. It enhanced their motivation to learn the material and to locate extra information about art. The amount of student participation in the online course increased in a favorable innovative context. The online course provided the students with extension activities that they enjoyed. Finally, online instruction provided a student-centered learning environment in which students were encouraged to explore different aspects of art autonomously.

Throughout the classes, the students were excited, enthusiastic and eager to learn. They always submitted their homework on time. Although they were intimidated by technology at the beginning of the semester, they felt more comfortable browsing the internet and using the online course in English at the end of the semester.

The positive effect of online instruction on reading, vocabulary and translation skill development as well as attitudes of female doctoral students obtained in the present study is partially consistent with findings of other studies in the literature that used other forms of technology. In a study that aimed at determining students’ perceptions of the role of the instructor in technology-enhanced language learning, the accessibility and relevance of technological components and the effect of technology on foreign language learning experiences, Stepp-Greany (2002) found that students attributed an important role to instructors and perceived that cultural knowledge, listening and reading skills were enhanced, but were divided in their perceptions about the learning and interest values. Data collected by Kung & Chuo (2002) revealed that students had an overall positive attitude to using the teacher-selected websites for learning English. They reported that they were helpful in learning English. However, the students seemed reluctant to use ESL websites for independent learning unless they were required to do so. They reported that the main reason for not accessing websites was lack of time and use of more convenient media like TV, newspapers and books to learn English. By contrast, a study by Izzo (1996) found that use of technology in ESP was ineffective. Hand-written essays were significantly longer and more organized than technical essays produced by college students learning ESP in Japan using computer workstations, because the instructor spent time teaching about workstation use instead of the writing process and the students could not see what the final paper looked like. In addition, they wasted time working on other homework and activities while using the workstations.
11. Recommendations

In the present study, online instruction was found to be a powerful learning tool for improving graduate students’ proficiency level in English. Results also showed that in learning environments where the internet is unavailable to ESP students and instructors in the classroom, use of online courses from home and even as a supplement to in-class techniques helps motivate and enhance graduate students’ language skills and knowledge. To improve graduate students’ reading, vocabulary and translation skills, use of the online courses in instruction is strongly recommended. ESP instructors may be trained to develop and use online courses in teaching ESP courses to graduate students from home as it requires no scheduling, no equipment and no connectivity from campus. Administrative support is required for making online instruction an integral part of ESP courses.

For online instruction to be successful in promoting students’ comprehension and vocabulary skills, the minimum requirements of students’ contributions in the online course, a minimum number of topics posted by each student may be specified. The instructor can always prompt the students to use the course site by sending public and private messages and by responding to and commenting on students’ ideas. The students can be encouraged to select and post their own art topics. Class discussions about the material to be posted in the online course may be held before and after the material is posted. To enable students to upload pictures and video clips and have teleconferences, other online courses such as Blackboard, WebCT or Moodle may be used instead of Nicenet. In addition, online courses used for teaching ESP to art education students may become more effective if online activities are executed not only independently but also collaboratively.

Furthermore, studies like this could be improved and become even more successful in promoting ESP students’ reading comprehension, vocabulary and translation skills by using a larger group of students, and by using an experimental and a control group of equal sizes and comparable pre-treatment test scores. Subjects in those groups may be randomly selected or may be assigned to the experimental and control groups by matching. The control group can learn ESP using in-class instruction only, and the experimental group can learn ESP using a combination of in-class and online instruction. Pre- and posttest scores of both group can be compared to determine the effect of online instruction on achievement. When Internet access is available to students and instructors on campus, the ESP course can be accessed from the classroom or computer lab under direct supervision and feedback from the instructor. Finally courses that are fully delivered online may be offered. The effect of fully delivered online
culture courses on the achievement of groups of EFL male and female students in general is still open for further investigation.

References


