

THE EFFECTS OF EXPLICIT INPUT-BASED FOCUS ON FORM
ON THE COMPREHENSION AND USE OF NOUN CLAUSES
BY INTERMEDIATE LEVEL EFL LEARNERS AT ATILIM UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECTS OF EXPLICIT INPUT-BASED FOCUS ON FORM ON THE COMPREHENSION AND USE OF NOUN CLAUSES BY INTERMEDIATE LEVEL EFL LEARNERS AT ATILIM UNIVERSITY

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This thesis investigates the effects of explicit input-based focus on form on the comprehension and production of noun clauses by the intermediate level students studying at Atılım University. To this end, a comparison was made between the comprehension and production scores of two groups of students from this context, one receiving explicit input-based focus on form (Group 1) and the other receiving no additional instruction other than the one suggested in the syllabus they were following (Group 2). Before and after this instructional intervention, both groups were given three different tests, namely an interpretation test (to evaluate how the students comprehended noun clauses), a production test (to evaluate how they used noun clauses), and a grammaticality judgment test (to evaluate the students' explicit knowledge of noun clauses). The comparisons between Group 1 and Group 2 revealed that explicit input-based instruction may have a power to influence the L2 learners' comprehension and explicit knowledge of noun clauses. However, the results indicated that this type of instruction may not be effective on the production of learners as it is on their comprehension of L2 forms.

Keywords: Focus on Form, Explicit Input-Based Instruction, Processing Instruction, Input Processing, Consciousness-Raising

ÖZ

AÇIK GİRDİ-TEMELLİ YAPIYA ODAKLI ÖĞRETİMİN ATILIM ÜNİVERSİTESİNDE YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENEN ORTA DÜZEYDEKİ ÖĞRENCİLERİN İSİM CÜMLELERİNİ ANLAMA VE KULLANMALARINA OLAN ETKİLERİ

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Bu tez açık girdi-temelli yapıya odaklı öğretimin Atılım Üniversitesinde okuyan orta düzeydeki öğrencilerin isim cümlelerini anlama ve kullanmalarına olan etkilerini araştırmaktadır. Bu amaçla, bu özel bağlamdan biri açık girdi-temelli yapıya odaklı öğretim gören (1. Grup) ve biri de müfredatın öngördüğü programın dışında herhangi bir farklı öğretim görmeyen (2. Grup) iki öğrenci grubunun isim cümlelerini anlama ve kullanma puanları arasında bir karşılaştırma yapılmıştır. Bu öğretimden önce ve sonra her iki gruba da üç farklı test verilmiştir. Bu testler sırasıyla öğrencilerin isim cümlelerini anlamalarını değerlendirmek amacıyla kullanılan bir yorumlama testi, isim cümlelerini nasıl kullandıklarını ölçmek için kullanılan bir yazılı üretim testi, ve öğrencilerin isim cümleleri ile ilgili bilgilerini değerlendirmek için bit dilbilgisel yargılama testidir. 1. Grup ve 2. Grup arasında yapılan karşılaştırmalar açık girdi-temelli öğretimin öğrencilerin isim cümlelerini anlama ve bu konudaki bilgilerini geliştirmelerini etkileme gücü olabileceğini göstermiştir. Ancak, karşılaştırma sonuçlarına göre, bu tarzda bir dil öğretiminin öğrencilerin dilsel üretimleri üzerinde, anlamaları üzerinde olduğu kadar etkili olmayabileceğine işaret etmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yapıya Odaklı Öğretim, Açık Girdi-Temelli Öğretim, Bilişsel Süreçten Geçirme Öğretimi, Bilişsel Süreçten Geçirme, Farkındalık Yaratma.

*Dedicated to my family, who have
always supported me...*

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the theoretical background to the study, describes the central problem investigated in relation to the particular context of Atılım University, and introduces the purpose of the study and the research questions on which the study is based. Next, the significance of the study is stated. Finally, the definitions of the terms are provided to prevent the reader from confusion.

1.1 Background to the Study

For about 2500 years, foreign language teaching was considered to be necessarily the same as teaching the grammar of a language (Rutherford, 1987). Because of this, teachers spent a good deal of time on target language forms, using a structural syllabus and behaviorist methods. However, this view of second language teaching was challenged by Chomsky, who was concerned with grammatical competence of language users, rather than their performance as in the preceding view where Chomsky argued for the existence of a universal grammar (UG), which indicated that all humans were born with an underlying set of linguistic principles, and the aim of research was basically to explain how surface and deep structures were connected by transformations at sentence level (Cook & Newson, 1996). Therefore, an early cognitive understanding of language acquisition emerged.

Another view which demonstrated dissatisfaction with behaviorist approach to second language acquisition (SLA) belongs to Krashen (1985). He asserted that first language acquisition and SLA were similar processes. According to this view, “language acquisition is the natural way to develop linguistic ability and is an

unconscious process” (Krashen, 1985, p. 26). He also suggested that formal learning (instruction which entails consciousness) did not have a considerable effect on the L2 performance apart from monitoring the outcome (Krashen, 1985).

Although Krashen’s views were challenged by psychologists and linguists because of the difficulty of testing his hypotheses by empirical research, it had considerable impact since these hypotheses emerged at the same time as a transition from behaviorist approach to communicative approach (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Along with the emergence of the communicative approach, the language teachers began to adopt a view which dictated doing lessons with almost no emphasis on or attention to linguistic form (Williams, 2005). Nevertheless, several problems started to disprove the effectiveness of communicative language teaching (Higgs & Clifford, 1982). It was seen that meaning-focused language teaching could not sufficiently change L2 learners into fluent users of language since teachers could not create real communication in the language classrooms (Dickins & Woods, 1988). As a result, second language researchers started to question whether the instruction with attention to the forms of target language facilitated the SLA processes (Ellis, 2001).

At this point, studies investigating whether the teaching of target linguistic forms accelerated language learning started to approach the issue from different perspectives and take diverse variables into account. Therefore, the question has turned out to be “which instruction works better?” and several types of instruction under the umbrella term *form-focused instruction* (FFI) have emerged. The two major subcategories of FFI are focus on form (*FonF*) and focus on forms (*FonFs*) (Ellis, 2001). According to this categorization, the former refers to spontaneously directing attention to form when communication problems occur during classroom activities, whereas the latter, *FonFs*, is seen as the type of formal instruction which is basically built around the teaching of forms rather than engaging meaning or communication.

More specifically, *FonFs* can be identified with the traditional teaching method of grammar, which perceive language as a ‘thing’ to be studied ‘analytically’, and

learners as ‘students’ rather than ‘users’ of the particular language (Ellis, 2001). According to Long (1991), *FonFs* is an approach to FFI which allows for the isolation of linguistic forms to teach and test one at a time and it can be found in structural syllabi. Within this instructional approach, “discrete parts of the syllabus” is sequentially mastered in a linear order, which brings up full “mastery of L2” (Klapper & Rees, 2003, p. 288).

On the other hand, *FonF* is an approach to teaching linguistic forms which involves switching between a focus on meaning and a focus on form according to some principles and it can be found in task-based syllabuses (Ellis, 2005). It is based on communication and meaning, but it involves some overt focus on linguistic forms within the context of a communicative activity. However, the main aim of the instruction is not teaching these linguistic forms. In this type of instruction, learners notice the forms that they have previously had problems with in a meaningful context and get a deeper insight into the meaning and usage of these forms.

Both of these two approaches to FFI have proved beneficial under certain conditions. However, *FonFs* has been criticized in that the linear teaching of discrete linguistic forms is not congruent with SLA theories because developmental stages of L2 is ‘U shaped’ rather than being ‘unidirectional’ as it is dealt in *FonFs* (Klapper & Rees, 2003). In other words, it is considered that language learners do not proceed to a next linguistic form after fully mastering another one; instead, they review their knowledge of these forms at several intervals.

Despite these grounds for *FonF*, there have been criticisms of this approach (e.g. Sheen & O’Neill, 2005), and in some studies, the findings have indicated an ineffectiveness of this type of instruction (Williams, 2005). However, as researchers find more information about the factors influencing *FonF* studies and cognitive processes that learners are involved in, the reasons why varied results are obtained from *FonF* studies are revealed, and this can increase the effectiveness of the language pedagogy (Williams, 2005). This statement is obviously of great importance because, despite the arguments against the effectiveness of *FonF*, studies

which report significant positive correlations between formal instruction within a communicative context and increased linguistic gains can be abundantly found in the SLA literature (e.g. Sharwood-Smith, 1993; Lyster, 1994, 2004a).

Over the last two decades, the number of studies looking into various types of FFI has dramatically increased. The most frequently investigated ones are pure rule explanation (Macaro & Masterman, 2006), incidental focus on form (Loewen, 2004), recasts (Lyster, 2004a; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Sheen, 2006), textual enhancement (Radwan, 2005), structured input (Erlam, 2003), mechanical vs. meaning-oriented output practice (Kondo-Brown, 2000). In fact, these types of instruction can be analyzed within two major groups: Input-based and output-based instruction. These two major types of instruction are further studied in terms of their implicitness and explicitness. However, the classification of the input-based instruction as to its degree of explicitness has not been made completely. Therefore, one concept in one study is viewed as a subcategory very differently from that of its original (e.g. Erlam, 2003).

As mentioned above, the research into FFI is currently living its popularity throughout the world. While the earliest subcategories of FFI, namely, the *FonF* and *FonFs* types, are still compared (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993; Doughty, 2001; Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2002; Loewen, 2003; Klapper & Rees, 2003), further comparisons are made between input-based and output-based instructional methods (Nagata, 1998a, 1998b; Kondo-Brown, 2000; Benati, 2001, 2005; Toth, 2006), implicit and explicit FFI methods (Burgess & Etherington, 2002; Radwan, 2005; Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Tode, 2007; Andrews, 2007), and mechanical output-based and meaningful output-based form-focused instructional options (Kondo-Brown, 2000).

One of the most popular of issues regarding FFI is input-based instruction, which can be examined with in terms of the degree of its explicitness. With implicit input-based instruction, what is meant is that learners are not provided with any rules or there is no attempt by the teacher to draw learners' attention to the target L2 feature

(Norris & Ortega, 2000). The two basic types of implicit FFI are enriched input and enhanced input (i.e. textual enhancement) (Erlam, 2003). Enriched input, also termed as *input flooding*, refers to “input that has been enriched by including plentiful exemplars of the target feature without any device to draw attention to the feature” (Ellis, 2001, p.20). On the other hand, enhanced input (not used as synonymous with input enhancement) or textual enhancement involves some external manipulation of the text which is to be used in L2 classroom. According to Peart (2008), it is “a focus-on-form technique based on using typographical cues such as bolding, italics, underlining, or bigger fonts to draw the reader’s attention to particular information in a text” (p.15). By making the target form in the input perceptually salient for the learners, the teacher aims to enable them to notice it and create some kind of relationship between this form and its meaning.

The implicit types of FFI discussed above do not require the teacher or the learners to verbalize what type of rule is applicable regarding the form or what type of form-meaning relationships are involved during the activities based on the input. On the contrary, explicit types of input-based FFI entail the learner-generated (inductive) or teacher-generated (deductive) overt focus of these mentioned aspects in the input. In order to create a clear understanding of the explicit input-based FFI methods, it is crucial to explicate the role of consciousness-raising (C-R) or input enhancement in SLA.

Consciousness-raising is defined by Rutherford (1987) as “the drawing of the learner's attention to features of the target language” (p.189). On the other hand, Sharwood-Smith (1991) used the term input enhancement to mean the same concept as he uses the following definition for this new term: “a deliberate attempt to make specific features of L2 input more salient in order to draw the learner’s attention to these features” (p. 118). The reason why he changed the term C-R, referring to this definition, is that when the teacher makes the form in the input more salient with some manipulation, this will not ensure that the learners will direct their attention to the form, cognitively process it, and acquire it (Sharwood-Smith, 1991). Therefore, what the teacher here does is not necessarily raising the consciousness of learners,

but modifying the input they are exposed to, and what will be the linguistic gains depends on the extent to which the learner connects forms to their meanings.

Nevertheless, Sharwood-Smith (1991) also provides a number of techniques which can be considered as input enhancement. These techniques are defined according to their explicitness and elaboration. Input flood, typographically enhanced input (textual enhancement) and rule explanation are seen as some of these techniques. Therefore, input enhancement is regarded as focus on form in the input in various ways, including implicit and explicit ways.

Consciousness-raising activities and tasks are currently viewed as a way of input enhancement, among some others such as simplification of input, frequency of exposure, explicit instruction and implicit instruction (Richards, 2002). These tasks create opportunities for learners to engage with input and allow them to make form–meaning associations of target structures, “rather than produce immediate accurate output” (Shak & Gardner, 2008, p.390). Therefore, in C-R activities, learners are not expected to produce target structures as in the practice given in traditional grammar instruction, but just to comprehend them and create a mental representation of the way they operate (Ellis, 1994).

It is also claimed that when learners’ consciousness of a target structure is raised, this will influence their explicit knowledge of this structure, whereas production practice is expected to have an impact on learners’ implicit knowledge (Ellis, 1994). However, this explicit knowledge is believed to facilitate the implicit knowledge of the target structures (Ellis, 2003). This is important because communicating in L2, which involves the automatic use of linguistic structures, is seen as employment of implicit knowledge. This view is supported by the findings of a study carried out by Housen, Pierrard, and Daele (2005) in that they found that explicit instruction given to 69 Dutch-speaking learners of French-Foreign Language induced changes in the learners’ implicit knowledge (the researchers found strongest effect in the spontaneous oral production of the learners) as well as their explicit grammatical knowledge.

All these things considered, it can be said that explicit input-based methods of grammar teaching are expected to bring about mental representations of the target linguistic features in learners' mind by deliberately making them to engage in the form in the input. According to Erlam (2003), the prominent types of explicit input-based grammar instruction are structured input and input processing instruction. As she claims, these two types "have not always been clearly differentiated" (p.560). She attributes this situation to the researchers' wrong description of their own studies and VanPatten's – who is viewed as the originator of the processing instruction (PI) – previous definition of structured input activities used in PI treatments (Erlam, 2003). Despite this criticism, it has been observed that in many studies structured input activities are considered as activities which facilitate the teaching of how to process a certain linguistic form (e.g. Collentine, 1998; Çelik-Yazıcı, 2007; Peart, 2008). For this reason, structured input activities need to be accepted as facilitators of processing instruction, rather than a separate input-based instruction type.

Processing instruction is based on the input processing model suggested by VanPatten (1993). The processes of second language acquisition are claimed to happen as it is depicted in Figure 1 below.



Figure 1.1 The Input Processing Model
(Source: VanPatten, 1993)

According to this model, while learners are trying to understand the meaning in the input, they will process the input and use it in order to make form-meaning associations. At that point, they take only some of the input, which is called *intake*, and the quality of intake is thought to have a direct impact on the acquisition of a second language. On the other hand, as VanPatten (1996, 2002a, 2002b, 2004) argues, L2 learners employ several default input processing strategies which cause them misinterpret the input and store wrong linguistic data in their minds. These strategies can be summarized as in the following:

1. Processing for meaning occurs prior to processing for form,
2. Processing form that is not meaningful results when little attention is needed to process information,
3. Detecting the agent in a sentence depends on the order of words, first noun phrase=agent.
4. The location of the elements in the sentence influence how successfully they are processed.

Processing instruction basically aims to change these strategies of learners in order to help them develop better ones. Ellis (1997) also talks about interpretation tasks, which can be seen very similar to the activities or tasks used in processing instruction. By means of these interpretation tasks, learners are helped in the ways they relate the forms and the meanings they carry. Both processing instruction and interpretation tasks suggested by Ellis (1997) can be considered an intervention in the second language acquisition is carried out with an attempt to lead to better acquisition. However, “input processing is not equivalent to acquisition and is only one set of processes involved in the creation of an underlying mental representation” (VanPatten, 2004, p.32). In other words, processing instruction by itself does not bring about acquisition because there are processes other than the input processing. What processing instruction does is to increase the quality of the intake which will be processed in the minds of L2 learners.

According to Benati (2001), processing instruction is not compliant with the traditional type of grammar instruction, which is characterized by explicit grammar teaching accompanied with production practice. Research into the effectiveness of PI has shown that providing learners with instruction on input processing results in positive results for both comprehension and production (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993; Cadierno, 1995; VanPatten & Sanz, 1995). In other words, processing instruction, by making learners recognize how to best process input, can enable them to generate better output, instead of asking them to produce linguistic forms too early, i.e. before they establish proper form-meaning connections in their mind. Therefore, processing instruction or explicit input-based instruction, can be more

promising than currently known in terms of helping learners canalize what they receive from input to production in L2, which is similar to that of native speakers of this language.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

At Atılım University, the medium of instruction is English, and the students receive one-year English education at the Preparatory School of English. After passing the proficiency exam, the students start to have their departmental courses. As one of the requirements of their programs, they take English courses for four semesters. The unit which provides these courses for them is called DELSU, Departmental English Language Studies Unit. This unit aims to improve the students' both receptive and productive skills in English and enable them to follow their departmental courses with ease. However, DELSU offers several courses to post-preparatory and non-preparatory students. None of these courses aim to teach “English for Specific Purposes” (ESP), but only for academic purposes. Post-preparatory courses can be seen in Table 1 below in their order:

Table 1.1 The post-preparatory courses offered in DELSU

	Semester	Course Offered	Prerequisites	Primary Focus	Secondary Focus
Freshman	1	ENG 111 Introduction to Communication Skills	-Proficiency Exam Score: 60- 65	-Reading -Vocabulary -Grammar - Paragraph Writing	-Speaking -Listening
		ENG 113 Academic Listening and Note-Taking Skills	-Proficiency Exam Score: 67- 79	-Listening and note- taking -Speaking	-Paragraph Writing -Reading - Vocabulary
	2	ENG 104 Communication Skills II	-Proficiency Exam Score: 80+ OR -Pass ENG 111 or ENG 113	-Reading -Vocabulary -Essay Writing	-Speaking -Grammar
Sophomore	3	ENG 211 Communication Skills III	-Pass ENG 104	-Critical Reading -Response Writing -Summarizing -Argumentative Essay Writing -Citation	-Speaking
	4	ENG 202 Presentation Skills (For Students of the Management Faculty)	-Pass ENG 211	-Speaking -Listening	-Reading -Writing
		ENG 212 Technical Report Writing (For Students of Engineering Faculty)	-Pass ENG 211	-Report Writing -Reading -Summarizing	-Speaking

The ENG 104 (Communication Skills II) course, which all the participants of this study were taking, is mainly designed to improve the reading skills of the students and equip them with essay writing skills. The students who were taking this course completed either ENG 111 (Introduction to Communication Skills) or ENG 103 (Academic Listening and Note-Taking) courses. As can be seen from Table 1, ENG 111 basically aims to develop the overall proficiency of the students and involves a syllabus which allocates most of the time for activities for reading, vocabulary, grammar, and writing instruction and practice, whereas students who have taken ENG 113 are mostly trained in listening and note-taking. The main reason for this is

the fact that the proficiency level of ENG 111 students is not as high as those in ENG 113, and they need more support in developing target language grammar and vocabulary, as well as more exposure to texts written in English. In addition to students coming from ENG 111 and ENG 104 courses, a small number of students take ENG 104 course as they have failed it before, and another small portion of the students who take this course have taken neither ENG 111 nor ENG 113. They are not repeating the course, either. This small group of students have been exempted from ENG 111 and ENG 113 because of their higher score (80+) in the proficiency exam. Thus, the ENG 104 course allows for the formation of classes with diverse profiles.

English for the Academic Purposes entails the teacher to consider the immediate academic needs of the group of learners in question. These needs mainly include understanding texts written in L2 to have access to the knowledge of content and writing to fulfill the requirements of their departmental courses such as doing research and preparing assignments or reports. Although students can understand texts in the target language to some extent, producing written work is generally reported as a more challenging task by most of the learners since it requires various cognitive and linguistic repertoires (Rao, 2007).

Although there are some students in the Atılım context who can write both accurately and fluently, a considerable number of students have great difficulty in communicating their ideas in writing because of their remarkable deficiencies in target language forms. Therefore, the instructors teaching this profile of learners frequently report that they find grading their students' compositions a highly challenging task. They say that the use of language in student compositions can sometimes turn out to be so problematic that content becomes almost completely inaccessible. That is, the meaning cannot be understood. Therefore, here we cannot talk about communication.

It is a well-known fact that there is a general consensus on the primacy of meaning and communication and that language teaching cannot be merely based on the

teaching of target language structures or forms. However, a certain degree of knowledge of these structures or forms is needed so as to convey the message one wishes to the interlocutors. As Hinkel (2004) states, “extensive, thorough, and focused instruction in L2 academic vocabulary, grammar, and discourse is essential for developing the L2 written proficiency expected in general education courses and studies in the disciplines” (p.7). Therefore, the students need to be instructed on the formal features of the target language so that they can have opportunities to express themselves adequately and understand texts better to master in their subject area.

On the other hand, the syllabuses of the courses offered by DELSU, except ENG 111 to some extent, do not allow for a comprehensive teaching of grammatical features of English language and creating opportunities for production practice on problematic linguistic structures. In other words, the instructors generally cannot plan a whole lesson based on a specific grammatical feature. However, the teachers face a dilemma because they feel an urgent need to deal with the use of grammar in their class. At this point, a *focus-on-form* approach can serve as a solution to this problem.

It is obvious that some techniques of *FonF* are employed in L2 classrooms consciously or unconsciously. For example, corrective feedback is used for spoken production and written production. Instructors draw students’ attention to their non-targetlike uses of language implicitly or explicitly. Or during a classroom discussion, they ask their students to reconsider what they have uttered; that is, the interaction is enhanced so that target language forms are focused. These types of *FonF*, however, are not believed to be effective enough since they are spontaneous and they do not directly address to the source of linguistic problem, that is, wrong cognitive representations of the target structure. Therefore, what the students need actually is changing their existing misconceptions of the target linguistic features and produce these features properly. That is, they need to both consciously attend to how these features operate and learn to process them successfully. Therefore, it is believed that processing instruction, which is in line with the interpretation tasks of Ellis (1997), would be very useful for the students taking ENG 104 course at Atılım University

since they need help in refining their interpretations of some grammatical features and express themselves better in spoken and especially in written mode.

On the other hand, it is impossible to focus on all the structures problematic for the students. The choice of forms to be focused in the classroom should be established on a reasonable basis. Every linguistic problem students have does not need to be dealt with in teaching; instead, only important ones should be chosen to be more realistic about the progress of students (Hinkel, 2004). Instructors working in DELSU constantly report that students are having difficult times using adjective clauses, noun clauses, adverbial clauses, passive voice, modals, and so on because they cannot use these structures effectively, and thus, their spoken and written production suffer from lack of meaning and clarity to a considerable extent. In fact, the profile of students taking ENG 104 is mixed as stated above. While there are students who are very skillful at use of language, there are those who cannot convey their message clearly. Therefore, the instructors try to help the students in the latter group express themselves better. For this purpose, focus on form techniques can be helpful for these students. Among the structures mentioned above, noun clauses were selected for the purposes of the present study since it was problematic for students in both groups. It is assumed that the students' knowledge of noun clauses and their ability to comprehend and use this feature will be promoted if they receive explicit input-based instruction.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

As stated above, the students of ENG 104 course have difficulty expressing their thoughts, especially in writing, because they lack a sufficient control of structures in English. From this point of view, the present study probes into the integration of grammar instruction based on a *focus-on-form* approach into a reading and writing course in order to develop their comprehension and grammatical accuracy of the students in their writing. Indeed, a way of improving students' linguistic proficiency and their ability to use target linguistic structures effectively in their writing without allocating much time is sought.

For this reason, the general aim of this study is to investigate whether explicit input-based form-focused instruction improves the learners' comprehension and production of a target language structure. More specifically, the purpose of the present study is to find out whether processing instruction, or explicit input-based instruction, induces positive changes in the learners' comprehension and production of noun clauses, as well as their in explicit knowledge of this structure.

1.4 Research Questions

Since the present study aims to look into whether the provision of explicit input-based instruction can help EFL learners retain a certain grammatical point and use it effectively in writing, answers to the following research questions are sought:

1. Does explicit input-based instruction enable L2 learners to comprehend noun clauses more effectively than learners who do not receive this type of instruction?
2. Does explicit input-based instruction enable L2 learners to produce noun clauses more effectively than learners who do not receive this type of instruction?
3. Does explicit input-based instruction positively affect the explicit knowledge of L2 learners?

1.5 Significance of the Study

Students at university level are expected to be able to understand written material and communicate their ideas without resorting to grammar reference books because they need to carry out academic tasks in a limited time; as a consequence, they need to have a good linguistic knowledge and ability. It is obvious that the particular group of learners at Atılım University need to be instructed on problematic L2 structures. However, whether this instruction will be helpful or not is unknown. Thus, the present study will supply the answer to this question, and the results of this study are believed to give a further idea about whether to teach grammar and how to

teach grammar. Finally, the present study may also provide useful data for the administrators to ponder upon when developing instructional strategies for their institutions and for material developers deciding what type of activities and in what way they will include in their materials.

1.6 Definitions of the Terms (In Alphabetical Order)

The following definitions need to be borne in mind in order to draw better conclusions from the findings of the present study:

Consciousness-raising: A purposeful attempt to make specific features of L2 more salient to direct learners' attention to these features (Sharwood-Smith, 1991).

Explicit knowledge: "The conscious awareness of what a language or language in general consists of and/or of the roles that it plays in human life" (Ellis, 2004, p.229).

Explicit input-based instruction: The type of instruction which utilizes any type of spoken or written input to teach formal aspects of an L2 by overtly drawing learners' attention to the relationship between form and meaning.

Form-focused instruction (FFI): "Any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form" (Ellis, 2001, p.2).

Implicit input-based instruction: The type of instruction which utilizes any type of spoken or written input to aims to teach specific formal aspects of an L2 by making the target forms noticeable via either increasing the number of the forms in the input or making them salient typographically or phonologically.

Implicit knowledge: The unconscious knowledge of language which is accessed automatically. For example, in normal language use, "production and comprehension

processes require little or not attention and are executed very rapidly” (Ellis, 2004, p.231).

Input-processing: “A research domain about how learners make form-meaning connections as well as parse incoming sentences in the L2” (Sanz & VanPatten, 1998).

Processing instruction: “An approach to instruction in which learners are given explicit information about the language feature to be learned and their practice activities involve the comprehension (not production) of sentences or texts that cannot be understood without a focus on the language it self” (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 203).

Output-based instruction: The type of instruction which is characterized by the use of learner-produced oral or written output in order to draw attention to the target language structures.

Structured input: The activities utilized during processing instruction, which are manipulated in a way that learners are engaged in actively processing input by depending on the form but do not require them to produce the form (VanPatten, 1996).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

In this chapter, firstly, the major perspectives of teaching second language grammar are described. Then, the form-focused instruction is presented. Further subcategories of this type of instruction, namely focus on forms and focus on form, are explained. Finally, input-based and output-types of instruction are underpinned with respect to the studies in second language acquisition research literature.

2.1 Perspectives in the Teaching of Second Languages

In this section, the perspectives that have had widespread impact on the field of second/foreign language teaching are discussed with reference to traditional, communicative, cognitive, and interactional approaches.

2.1.1 Traditional Perspectives

According to Hinkel and Fotos (2002), for more than 2,000 years, grammatical analysis and translation of written forms have been the basic method of studying a second language. This method, known as grammar-translation method (GTM), was developed to teach Greek and Latin by using L1 and basically required students to memorize vocabulary and syntax, morphology and grammar rules. During 1840s, the teaching procedure followed in a foreign language classroom was “(1) statement of the grammar rule; (2) presentation of new vocabulary; and (3) translation of a text into the target language” (Fotos, 2005, p.661).

The earlier conceptions of teaching grammar brought about the structural syllabuses widely used at the beginning of the 20th century (Larsen-Freeman, 2001). These

types of syllabuses were characterized with the systematic teaching of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation to learners, and providing them with opportunities to practice the forms just after they were presented with these forms (Nunan, 1991). Since grammar rules were demonstrated and studied overtly by providing practice with lots of translation, a deductive teaching of grammar was adopted by the practitioners (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

Behaviorism, originally developed as a psychological approach, was quite influential in the field of L2 teaching between 1940s and 1970s (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). It brought about the audiolingual methodology, and through the use of the stimulus-response-reinforcement model, it aimed at developing good habits in language learners (Harmer, 2001).

As a result, “when the structural view of language was combined with the stimulus-response principles of behaviorist psychology, the audio-lingual and direct approaches to second language learning emerged” (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002, p.2). Audiolingual methodology profoundly emphasized mimicry, and learners were required to memorize dialogues and sentence patterns they had studied. This way was believed to help learners adopt new L2 habits because their L1 would prevent them from developing L2 habits (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). On the other hand, direct method, which was “first formulized in 1901” and “officially adopted by France and Germany shortly after”, followed an inductive way of teaching grammar, used culture as the content, and abundantly exploited conversation (Fotos, 2005, p.663). In addition, target language was introduced in meaningful or communicative contexts, and translation and use of L1 was avoided. As for vocabulary, visual aids and pantomime were utilized to teach lexical items (Fotos, 2005). Therefore, the decontextualized teaching of grammar in the GTM and audiolingual method was replaced with contextual teaching provided in the Direct Method.

However, there were still some problems with the learners’ progress in the acquisition of L2 grammar. The reason was that the methods of grammar teaching discussed above were based on a linear teaching of grammatical structures. In other

words, these structures were taught in a discrete way, one by one, and learners were expected to accumulate them in their mind. However, as Rutherford (1987) maintains, learners do not learn L2 structures in a steady accumulation of more and more complex entities. Instead, they deal with these structures in their minds simultaneously (Nunan, 1988).

2.1.2 Communicative Approach

In 1970s, due to the urgent need for equipping the non-native speakers of English in the US schools with immediate survival competency (i.e. the skills needed for using the language communicatively), a new approach to language teaching, communicative approach - or communicative language teaching- became popular (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002). According to this approach, L2 teaching was to be concerned with language functions as they are used in real life, rather than the study of grammar or vocabulary so that learners could use language forms “appropriately in a variety of context and for a variety of purposes” (Harmer, 2001, p.84). Therefore, the primary aim of the communicative teaching of language was to help learners get to the meaning and be able to convey their messages to others.

The aims mentioned above were tried to be achieved using activities such as role-play and pair-work or group-work, rather than ways of a formal teaching of grammar, and these activities were based on the fact that learners needed to have an information gap (Harmer, 2001). By this way, they would try to reach the information required through the attempts to express themselves and understand information provided for them. It was clear that learners were assigned a goal which was similar to those in real life.

As previously stated, this approach did not include the formal teaching of grammar, but learners were exposed to a lot of meaning-focused input with target forms and vocabulary because it was assumed that just as children do while learning their mother tongue, L2 learners would acquire target forms and vocabulary naturally during communication. This assumption was an influence of Krashen’s Input

Hypothesis, which stated that learners reach linguistic competence through natural language acquisition taking place in real communication (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002). According to this view, it is crucial that there is ‘comprehensible input’ for learners in meaningful ways integrated with listening / speaking and reading for enjoyment. According to Lightbown and Spada (2006), “classroom research has confirmed that students can make a great of progress through exposure to comprehensible input without direct instruction” (p.38).

As a result, one of the important characteristics of communicative L2 teaching was that learners are not provided with explicit grammar teaching or correction of their errors (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002). However, research into the effectiveness of CLT has shown that students are likely to stop progressing on some features if they have no access to instruction which guides them effectively (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Therefore, communicative activities alone were considered to be insufficient for second language acquisition. It was also suggested that grammatical competence was essential for communication (Brown, 1994). In addition, the achievement of effective academic and professional oral or written communication entails high level proficiency in both productive skills, and the way to reach proficiency of this level seems to be formal instruction.

The problems with the communicative approach were also pointed out by Kumaravadivelu (2006). He contended that there were serious doubts as to the authenticity, acceptability and adaptability of communicative language teaching. As he maintains, teachers in communicative classrooms could not provide genuine interactions and there were psychological barriers in the minds of students. One of the reasons why teachers had difficulty in creating real communication in the classroom could be the lack of emphasis on formal aspects of language. Especially, on the most meaning-oriented extreme of communicative language teaching, meaning was seen as the sole importance-bearing aspect of language teaching, while on the structure-oriented extreme, the emphasis was intensified on the structural aspects of language to the “detriment of meaning” Skehan (1998, cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p.65). Thus, learners in one extreme lacked grammatical

competence, which was also part of the communicative competence, and those in the other extreme suffered from not being able to communicate effectively.

In brief, as learners were deprived of a medium amount of linguistic repertoire in communicative language teaching, although they might have a real desire to contribute to the interaction, they were likely to get stuck expressing what they wanted. Because of this, currently, there is profound research into the nature, extent and type of grammar instruction along with whether, when, and how error correction should be done.

2.1.3 Cognitive Perspectives

Cognitive approaches to how second and foreign languages are learned also have great impact on how they should be taught. Since there are a number of perspectives within the cognitive view of SLA, it would be better to analyze them under several categories. The two prominent ones can be listed as innatist views of cognition, information-processing theory.

Innatist Views of Cognition

As stated above, the structural teaching of language accompanied with a behaviorist approach was criticized by Chomsky because this type of teaching did not consider the grammatical competence of the learner, but just shaped their performance. However, this view of second language teaching was challenged by Chomsky, who was concerned with grammatical competence of language users, rather than their performance. Actually, the point that concerned him was that learners were not engaged with language mentally in the behaviorist view of language teaching. The unobservable processes taking place in the minds of learners were of great importance for him (Larsen-Freeman, 2001).

According to Hinkel and Fotos (2002), Chomskian theories of universal grammar (UG) and syntax in 1950s and 1960s caused more emphasis on explicit grammar

teaching. Grammar was taught in a way that learners could build new grammatical points onto those they already knew, and they could deduct new meanings. According to this view, grammar was regarded as too complex. Therefore, it was believed that grammar could not be learned naturally and if learners were to gain linguistic competence, there had to be mental processing of language. As a result, the aim of “developing learners’ analytical linguistic skills” was added to the traditional formal grammar instruction (McLaughlin & Zemblidge, 1992, cited in Hinkel & Fotos, 2002, p.4).

The hypotheses formed by the researchers of SLA from the UG perspective are varied. There is a disagreement as to how formal instruction or in what ways feedback influences learners’ knowledge of L2. Lightbown and Spada explained this debate as in the following:

Bonnie Swartz (1993), for example, concludes that such instruction and feedback change only the superficial appearance of language performance and do not really affect the underlying systematic knowledge of the new language. Rather, language acquisition is based on the availability of natural language in the learner’s environment. Lydia White (1991) and others who think that the nature of UG is altered by the acquisition of the first language suggest that second language learners may sometimes need explicit information about what is not grammatical in second language. (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p.36)

The proponents of White’s (1991) view believe that UG can account for the explanation of the first language acquisition, but second language acquisition needs to be explained with something else (e.g. psycholinguistic processes and social interactions) because learners of L2 very often fail to reach full success (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

Information-Processing Theory

One way of explaining SLA is based on information-processing theory. According to this theory, language learning can be explained with how other kinds of learning take

place. In fact, cognitive psychologists specialized in information-processing model of human learning and performance hold the view that SLA is building up knowledge which will be retrieved automatically in need of speaking and comprehending (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). However, in order for knowledge to be built, elements of information need to be taken in. In line with this, according to the Noticing Hypothesis, put forward by Schmidt (1990), linguistic features supplied in the input are to be consciously attended by L2 learners so that input becomes intake.

Schmidt (1990) also differentiates between the levels of awareness, which is thought to be also relevant to the attention issue. The first level of awareness is perception, which refers to the mental organization and the ability to form internal representations of external events. The second level of awareness is noticing. It is believed that at this level, if the learner does not consciously notice the target features of L2, no learning will occur. The third level of awareness according to Schmidt (1990) is the level of understanding. This level refers to analyzing and comparing it to the previously noticed elements, and thus, it involves reflecting on the significance of the information received. These mental activities (i.e. analyzing and reflecting) are commonly known as “thinking” and occur within consciousness.

Schmidt (1990) argues that features can be perceived without awareness; however, the learners need to be aware of these features. As Schmidt (1995) argues, noticing is “nearly isomorphic with attention” (p.1). That is, learners need to pay attention to the linguistic features if they are to notice them. Also, it is argued that noticing is a result encoding input in short-term memory, and the noticed material can be transferred into the long-term memory (Robinson, 1995). In other words, if the information related to the L2 features should be sent to the long-term memory so that they can be recalled later, they need to be encoded in the short-term memory by means of noticing.

However, there are researchers who oppose this idea. For example, Truscott (1998) believes that noticing is not a necessary condition for learning and asserts that the Noticing Hypothesis does not have cognitive foundation and supporting factual data.

According to Truscott (1998), conscious noticing may be related to only metalinguistic forms, but competence in second language is not. Also, according to Tomlin and Villa's (1994) model of attention, which includes the components of alertness, orientation, and detection, the registered information will further be processed even though it is not consciously noticed or the learner is not aware of it. In the same vein, recently there have been some studies empirically indicating the facilitative role of noticing (Leow, 2000, 2001), which support Truscott's (1998) and Tomlin and Villa's (1994) views of noticing.

The different views of the role of noticing in learning have various implications for L2 teaching. The views claiming that it is essential for the learner to be aware of the linguistic features to learn them imply that L2 learners need to be instructed on the target linguistic items explicitly. To put it in other words, the teacher should direct learners' attention to these features overtly. For this reason, it is believed that form-focused instruction can help learners by leading them consciously to notice linguistic features in the input, which results in intake (Ellis, 1997; DeKeyser, 1998). On the other hand, the views seeing a less influential or no role of attention and noticing in language learning imply that learners do not need explicit teaching of linguistic features. Instead, it is sufficient to expose them to these features and they will learn them implicitly (Krashen, 1985).

2.1.4 Interactional Perspectives

This perspective is based on the belief that language is acquired through our interactions with other people. Two major views are advocated within this perspective. The first one is that interactions with others enable us to analyze the effectiveness of our utterances, and by the help of the feedback of any type coming from our interlocutors (people whom we interact with) we alter these utterances so that they become easier to be comprehended. On the other hand, the second view is basically associated with the social aspect of our interactions, rather than the mental processing in the interactions. A more detailed explanation of these views are presented below.

Long's Interaction Hypothesis

According to Krashen's Monitor Model, learners acquire a second language when they are exposed to comprehensible input and when they are free from affective barriers, which allows for processing of the comprehended input (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Adopting Krashen's view about the significance of comprehensible input, Long "stressed the importance of interaction as a source of this" (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p.167).

In Long's Interaction Hypothesis, by involving in interaction, learners have a chance to adjust their language production, when they realize that their interlocutors have not comprehended their utterance. This is also called a "modified interaction" (Nunan, 2001, p.90). Modification of the interaction is achieved by a negotiation of meaning which is understood by the interlocutor's attempts to avoid or repair communication breakdowns by resorting to several ways like asking for clarification, repeating, and so on. By the help of these, the learner *notices the gap* between his or her production and the target-like version of this production (Breen, 2001). Therefore, the learners are pushed to be more alert to work on the input they receive and try to produce better or more target-like output.

When this assumption is applied to the language classroom, it can be said that when a student participates in an interaction with his or her native/ nonnative speaker teacher or classmates, this will create an obligation to refine language production on the part of the student. Thus, student participation helps language acquisition through the internal refinement of language utterances.

Sociocultural Theory

According the sociocultural theory, originated by Vygotsky, Luria and Leontiev, the construction of knowledge is socially oriented (Lantolf, 2005). This theory suggests that learning occurs through interactions "with and within" the environment where these interactions occur and learning is affected by the cultural elements to a large

extent (Moore, 2004). Therefore, social interactions are seen as tools which shape the cognitive development, including the development of language. Speaking and thinking are considered to be highly interrelated with each other. Therefore, it is assumed that when individuals understand what they hear from others and what they say to them, they can begin to have a control over the processes they undergo mentally. This is accepted as a sign of the fact that speaking (also writing) facilitates thinking (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

Moreover, proponents of this perspective suggest that learning occurs by means of interactions with people within the learner's zone of proximal development (ZPD), which is defined as "the distance between the actual developmental level of a learner and the level of potential development under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, cited in Brynes, 2005, p.147). In other words, more skillful and knowledgeable peers or mentors help learner, who is seen as an apprentice and thought not to have a sufficient capability of the skill or subject in question (Bigge & Shermis, 1999). By this way, the support of other people helps the learner reach higher levels of performance.

Although ZPD seems similar to Krashen's $i+1$ in his Input Hypothesis, when considered in terms of second language acquisition, they are different because in $i+1$, the comprehensibility of the input which contains structures a little beyond the learner's current level is emphasized, whereas in ZPD, it is stressed that learners and interlocutors co-construct learner's knowledge by means of the interaction occurring between them (Lantolf, 2005).

In addition to Krashen's approach, interaction hypothesis is also regarded as very similar to sociocultural view. However, they are also different in that while the former has a focus on the enhanced cognitive processing by the help of the interaction, the latter attaches primary importance to the conversations between interlocutors since it is claimed that learning takes place via social interaction (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Also, ZPD is different from the learning that is induced by the interactions in the way they are viewed by Long since learners, instead of

modifying their output, may be imitating what they hear from adults or their peers although they do not understand the meaning of this speech (Lantolf, 2005).

To sum up, the major approaches to the teaching of a second or foreign language are the traditional approach, the communicative approach, the cognitive approach and interactional approach. As maintained above, the traditional approach involved a more linear, discrete and behavioristic teaching of language whereas the communicative approach challenged the traditional approach and emphasized the use of language for real life purposes. Therefore, in the classes where communicative language teaching was done the learners were encouraged to use the language for communicative functions and the syllabuses used in these classes were based on the situations that can be faced in real life. However, due to the overemphasis on communication, the learners in these classes had a limited linguistic repertoire.

The findings from SLA research also influenced the approaches to the teaching of languages. The cognitive approach pointed to the fact that learners' cognitive representations and processings influence the learning of a language, and thus, these representations and processings need to be taken into account when a second or foreign language is taught. In other words, this approach emphasized the importance of the intrapersonal factors (i.e. psycholinguistic processes) while teaching L2.

On the other hand, the interactional approaches focused on the place of social interactions in language acquisition. Therefore, they pointed to the influence of the interpersonal factors on language teaching.

It is obvious that focus on form, which refers to a way of teaching the formal aspects of the L2 briefly drawing learners' attention to some linguistic forms when a communication is in question, has a relevance to all of the perspectives discussed above.

2.2 Form-Focused Instruction

By the contribution of these perspectives, it has been understood that learners should be taught language structures if they are expected to involve in communication successfully. Therefore, “to address the limitations of the purely communicative methodology, a new approach to grammar instruction that combines formal instruction and communicative language use” (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002, p.5) has been adopted by many methodologists and practitioners. This new approach is *focus on form (FonF)*, which was first put forward by Long (1991).

Indeed, Long (1991) made the distinction between three types of focusing on the formal aspects of language: *FonF*, *focus on forms (FonFs)* and *focus on meaning (FonM)*. As he maintains, *FonM* involves no attempt for the teaching of linguistic forms and is found in purely communicative classrooms. As discussed above, this instruction caused several problems in that learners’ errors were fossilized. On the other hand, the purely structural and traditional instruction, considered to be *FonFs*, did not produce communicatively competent learners, and Long (1991) proposed that *FonF* was a way of mediator between these two extreme approaches to grammar teaching. In this section, only *FonF* and *FonFs* will be dealt with since the purpose of the present study is not to probe into meaning-focused instruction, but to investigate the effects of form-focused instruction, which is a broad term covering both *FonFs* and *FonF* (Williams, 2005).

2.2.1 Focus on Forms

According to Long (1991), the major characteristic of a *FonFs* approach is that the linguistic items are preselected and presented in an isolated way. Therefore, since it involves teaching of discrete linguistic structures, it is also described as a traditional teaching approach. For example, the teaching of grammar in situational language teaching (which involves the characteristics of direct method) and audiolingual methods is in *FonFs* type since linguistic forms are presented in a linear manner and discretely (Long & Robinson, 1998). In these methods, the progress of the

instruction is closely associated with the learners' mastery of the linguistic items presented, and their L2 development does not address their real life communication needs. Moreover, the instruction is teacher-centered in that she provides the explanation of the grammatical rules, gives explicit feedback to learners on their mechanical practices on the specific structures.

However, the current definitions of *FonFs* are somewhat different from the original one provided by Long (1991). For example, Ellis (2005) argues that *FonFs* can be done in a more meaningful and learner-centered manner. He claims that this type of grammar teaching includes learner's attention to the structures of language in varying degrees. According to Ellis, the major subdivisions of *FonFs* type of instruction are explicit (deductive and inductive) and implicit instructions, structured input, production practice and negative feedback. On the other hand, while referring to the distinction between *FonFs* and *FonF*, Andrews (2007) states that *FonF* is sometimes considered an implicit type of instruction using more inductive reasoning while *FonFs* is sometimes viewed as an explicit type of instruction utilizing more deductive reasoning. With this definition, Andrews stresses that the *FonFs* provides a more teacher-centered instruction and more metalinguistic explanations.

Similarly, in a recent study, Norris and Ortega (2000) developed some criteria for considering a type of instruction as *FonF*. Their criteria assumed that if learners are engaged with form prior to meaning, if there is no attempt to avoid obtrusiveness (i.e. damage on meaning), if how learners process input is not taken into consideration, if learners' attention is focused on the particular structure for learning, this type of instruction is also considered as *FonFs*. In short, they classified more explicit and deductive types of formal instruction under the *FonFs* category and more implicit and inductive types of formal instruction under the *FonF* category. In their article, Norris and Ortega (2000) suggest that both of these approaches are equally effective.

2.2.2 Focus on Form

According to Long (1991), *FonF* type of teaching requires cognitive engagement and linguistic features are focused briefly or simultaneously while an act of communication is in question. Thus, the primary focus is on meaning. On the one hand, it presumes the importance of communicative language teaching principles like authentic communication and learner-centeredness, and, on the other hand, it regards the overt study of linguistic features as valuable.

Long and Robinson (1998) argue that teachers and curricula designers need to enable students to learn how to use L2 in realistic communicative contexts, such as doing job interviews or writing letters to their friends. In addition, they claim that most of the time spent in the classroom should be used for teacher-student/student-student interaction, no matter whether it is oral or written. If learners have difficulty in understanding or producing certain linguistic features, the teacher and other learners will help them to notice the problematic forms. This help can be in the form of certain explanations or modeling (Long & Robinson, 1998). Therefore, the responsibility of drawing attention of learners to problematic L2 forms is shared by both the teacher and the students.

FonF can be achieved in two major ways: planned and spontaneous (Williams, 2005). The subcategories of these two ways can be seen in Table 2.1 below:

Table 2.1 Some options for focus on form

Planned		Spontaneous	
Reactive	Proactive	Reactive	Preemptive
-Targeted (intensive) -General (extensive)	-Targeted (intensive) -General (extensive)	-Teacher-initiated -Learner-initiated	

(Source: Adapted from Williams, 2005)

As can be seen in Table 2.1., *FonF* can be planned in advance no matter when the need arises: before a task when a specific form is thought to be needed by the learners (as proactive) or just after the use of a specific form erroneously (as reactive). On the other hand, in the spontaneous *FonF*, linguistic forms occur naturally and in a scattered manner in the context, and this may result in learners' paying attention to any grammar point extensively (Ellis, 2001). This type of *FonF* has two further categories: pre-emptive *FonF* and reactive *FonF*. The former refers to the fact that learners could be incidentally supplied with *FonF* even though there is no problem in question. Here the aim is to prevent any difficulty which is thought to be possible by the teacher (Williams, 2005). In the latter, the reactive spontaneous *FonF*, the errors are dealt with either implicitly or explicitly after they occur. Therefore, the reactive spontaneous *FonF* can be considered to be negative evidence or corrective feedback.

Since Long (1991) made a distinction between *FonF* and *FonFs*, numerous studies have been carried out, taking into account different variables related to form-focused instruction. These variables are mainly associated with problematicity of the target form, planning, obtrusiveness (to what extent teaching deviates from connecting meaning to form), and locus of responsibility (whether the teacher or learners draw attention to form (Long & Robinson, 1998; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Spada, 1997; Ellis, 2001; Loewen, 2004).

For example, Loewen (2004), in his study, approached *FonF* from the perspective of locus of responsibility and studied the effectiveness of learner-initiated form-focused episodes (FFEs) and compared learner-initiated FFEs in his study with those in Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2001). He found that, in his own study, the rate was 38% lower than the results of Ellis *et al*'s study, reporting that 30 students did not attempt any focus on form at all (Loewen, 2004). This difference is attributed to elements such as cultural background, classroom atmosphere, and personality factors. In one of his earlier studies, he found that students coming from European countries displayed higher frequencies of learner-initiated FFEs than students with Asian

background did. Another factor influential in this difference is students' perceptions of their role in the classroom (Cotterall, 1995, cited in Loewen, 2004).

2.2.3 Focus on Form vs. Focus on FormS

Of these two approaches, Ellis (1994) assumes that *FonF* can accelerate learning more and considers *FonFs* counter-productive in the sense that it involves deductive, discrete and non-communicative teaching. Doughty (1991) conducted a study to investigate the effectiveness devising different activities to enable learners to focus on form or forms. In this study, a comparison was made between three groups: meaning-oriented (*FonF*), rule-oriented (*FonFs*) and control groups. Of these groups, the *FonF* group was found to have more advantage than the other groups, namely the *FonFs* group and the control group (the one which received no instruction).

In addition, a longitudinal study on *FonF* and *FonFs*, carried out by Klapper and Rees (2003), revealed important findings comparing two groups. In the four-year study, the participants of which were 57 British students of German as a foreign language, one group of students received explicit teaching of grammar (*FonFs*) and the other group received meaning-focused instruction with only incidental attention to grammar (*FonF*). Starting their programs with similar scores, both groups were exposed to the same amount of the instruction, and they both spent one year abroad. They were tested several times, and the mean progress rates showed that learners could not acquire some grammar points in German without any explicit instruction (*FonFs*) (e.g. word order and modals). As a result of this study, it was found that *FonFs* group demonstrated higher progress than the *FonF* group (Klapper & Rees, 2003).

The findings of Klapper and Rees' (2003) study can be compared to the findings of Norris and Ortega's (2000) meta-analysis of a number of studies on form-focused instruction. In this study, Norris and Ortega found that that explicit instruction was more effective and long-lasting than the implicit instruction. However, when *FonF*

and *FonFs* types of instruction are compared, they saw that these two types were “equally effective” (p.501).

Although *FonF* instruction was claimed to be more effective than traditional types of instruction, there were also some criticisms of this instruction. One of these criticisms came from Sheen (2003), who claimed that regarding *FonF* as the best instructional option does not have any empirical ground. He referred to *FonF* as a “developing myth”, which created bias among the researches (p.225), and he suggested that the dichotomization as *FonF* and *FonFs* was unnecessary in the literature. He also claimed that this was due to the concepts developed on the basis of SLA theories rather than the practical processes going on in the classroom (Sheen, 2003).

Blaming other researchers not making comparative research on the topic, Sheen (2003) himself did a comparative research on two different groups exposed to *FonF* and *FonFs* separately. After the pretests and posttests were applied, he concluded that *FonFs* instruction helped automatic production of question formation. While the *FonF* group maintained the fossilization of the errors, the *FonFs* group did not. With these findings, he justifies his claim that *FonFs* is more effective than *FonF* (Sheen, 2003).

Sheen’s point about the automatization of production is important because currently SLA researchers tend to investigate whether explicit instruction or implicit instruction leads to implicit knowledge, which is also known as procedural knowledge and involves the automatized, or spontaneous, use of language. DeKeyser (1998) supports that if the learner is to use L2 forms automatically, he or she needs to have productive practice on these forms mechanically and meaningfully; in other words, he advocates a *FonFs* approach for the improvement of the implicit knowledge. However, this has not been proven yet, partly because of the measuring difficulties. In conclusion, it is quite obvious that there is a need for more studies looking into the effects of *FonFs* and *FonF* on the implicit knowledge of learners.

2.3 Input-Based Focus on Form

The desire to promote learners' implicit knowledge of L2 forms brought about different views of form-focused instruction. One of these views is input-based focus on form (Erlam, 2003). The major claim of the proponents of input-based focus on form is that input, which is defined as "the language that the learner is exposed to (either written or spoken) in the environment" (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p.201), has a very vital role in the acquisition of language. Thus, the aim of this type of instruction is to help students notice the input, process it appropriately, and comprehend correctly.

Krashen's Input Hypothesis stresses the importance of exposing the learner input which is slightly above his or her actual competence. As he argues, learners will implicitly acquire L2 forms although their attention is not explicitly directed to these forms. Moreover, for the information-processing theories, input is essential for intake, which plays an influential role in the acquisition of L2. In order to convert input into intake learners should pay attention to the linguistic features in the input and connect these features to their meaning. However, learners may not always understand the form-meaning relationships although they focus on input. Long (1996) claims that learners may not be aware of the forms in an utterance because additional contextual clues, redundancy, and knowledge of the world may help learners to predict get the message in the utterance. As a result, in order to help learners notice and make form-meaning connections, the input needs to be manipulated. Indeed, research has shown that the order in which L2 learners developmentally acquire linguistic forms cannot be changed by formal instruction (Ellis, 1994), but the rate of learners' acquisition can be accelerated via instructional intervention (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993).

According to Erlam (2003), there are two major types of input-based focus on form: implicit and explicit. In the former, certain linguistic features in the textual input are made salient in some way (e.g. underlining, bolding, capitalizing, etc.), while the latter involves further learner engagement with the linguistic forms which are

targeted through brief explicit explanations accompanied with activities for providing learners with understand the relationships between the forms and their meanings. More detailed explanations of these two types of input-based focus on form are provided in the following sections.

2.3.1 Implicit Input-Based Instruction

In this type of instruction, the targeted linguistic forms to be presented in the input are made salient in ways which do not require a deductive or inductive discussion of the underlying grammatical rules. The manipulation of the targeted forms aims at making the learner process them perceptually. According to Erlam (2003), the two major ways to achieve implicit input-based instruction are input flood and enhanced input (textual enhancement), which are discussed below.

2.3.1.1 Input Flood

Input flood refers to exposing learners to a number of examples of the target structure; however, there is no other attempt to make the learner to pay attention to the structure (Ellis, 2001). Trahey and White (1993) investigated whether this instructional option had an impact on French learners' ability to learn adverb placement in English. They found that input flood could be facilitative in the learning of target forms; however, it would not eliminate fossilized errors of learners. Therefore, they claim that in order to achieve this, learners need to be given explicit instruction.

In a later study, what Trahey and White (1993) suggested was studied by Williams and Evans (1998). They investigated whether university level L2 learners in a second language setting would make any progress on the participial adjectives of emotive verbs and passive constructions when they received input flood only and input flood accompanied with explicit rule explanation. By using explicit (sentence completion) and implicit (narratives) measures, they evaluated to what extent learners could retain the target forms. The results of the study revealed that the type of instruction

did not make a difference, but receiving input was what mattered because both experimental groups outperformed the control group, which received no instruction.

2.3.1.2 Enhanced Input (Textual Enhancement)

According to Erlam (2003), *enhanced input* or *textual enhancement* refers to using techniques to highlight linguistic features of language for perception, such as bolding, coloring, capitalizing, underlining, etc. (i.e. typographic enhancement).

Jourdenais, Ota, Stauffer, Boyson, and Doughty (1995) studied the effects of textual enhancement on the college students' use of Spanish verbs. They formed two groups. They exposed one of the groups to texts in which Spanish verbs were typographically enhanced, and the other group, the control group, did not receive any enhanced texts. After the treatment, Jourdenais *et al.* (1995) applied the think-aloud protocol technique to find out to what extent both groups attended the Spanish verb forms. The results of this study revealed that the students who were exposed to textual enhancement attended to Spanish verb forms more frequently than the control groups.

However, some other studies indicated that textual enhancement on its own was not sufficient to improve the performance of the learners (White, 1998; Izumi, 2002; Radwan, 2005). For instance, Radwan (2005) compared the effects of various formats of instruction on dative alternation, namely, implicit format only (textual enhancement only), implicit format (textual enhancement) accompanied with explicit interventions (rule orientation) and no intervention but only the content-based format (control group). In this study, Radwan found that the textual enhancement which was supported by explicit rule orientation helped learners have significant gains on dative alternation.

Although it seems that these implicit input-based types of instruction can be beneficial for L2 learners, they are criticized in that they do not attempt to make any

change in how learners use the linguistic forms enhanced in the texts. One of these criticisms is as follows:

FonF pedagogical intervention can occur by increasing the input (and output) frequency and enhancing the saliency of problematic linguistic features. Such treatments, however, do not claim to develop immediate mastery of target structures. What they strive for is the heightening of learners' awareness to facilitate further noticing and analysis of the target structures in subsequent input. (Shak & Gardner, 2008, p.389)

As a result, considering that the basic aim of L2 instruction is to enable the learner to comprehend and use the L2 appropriately and accurately, it seems that implicit instruction does not supply a comprehensively effective way to achieve this aim.

2.3.2 Explicit Input-Based Instruction

As maintained above, focus on form can be carried out by increasing the frequency or highlighting the typographic appearance of the forms. However, since these techniques do not facilitate intake due to awareness which is confined with noticing and a lack of awareness at the level of understanding, it is believed that they would not be sufficient for L2 learners to internalize how to use these forms (Radwan, 2005). In this case, learners need to be supplied with tasks which will help them establish a conscious representation of the linguistic form and/or make clear form-meaning connections.

2.3.2.1 Consciousness-Raising

According to Ellis (1997), learners can be assisted to establish a conscious representation of the target form by designing consciousness-raising tasks, which aim at contributing to the explicit knowledge of the L2 learner. There are two prominent ways to do this: deductive and inductive.

In the deductive, or direct way, the teacher provides explanations about the rules concerning the linguistic form in question, and so, learners are given metalinguistic information. This information about the target form can be given in several ways. First, a presentation can be supplied verbally or non-verbally (e.g. diagrams). Second, learners can be asked to consider whether the target form is contrastive or non-contrastive with their L1. The final alternative can be providing partial information so that learners can be asked to find out the limitations of the form and develop a more complete or accurate version of it (Ellis, 1997).

On the other hand, the inductive, or indirect way, requires learners to work out how the linguistic form operates and to find out the grammatical rules related with it on their own. Ellis gives an example for this type of instruction:

They [learners] might be given an English written text that contains several instances of the use of the present perfect tense and the past simple tense and be required to identify first the verbs in both tenses and then construct a 'rule' to explain their different functions. (1997, p.86)

In a recent study, Takimoto (2008) explored how effective different types of focusing on form were. Takimoto compared a deductive approach, inductive approach with a problem-solving task and inductive approach with structured input tasks. The instruction given in all groups involved explicit input-based instruction and the aim of the study was to explore the differences between the deductive approach and inductive approach. In this study, a variety of input-based and output-based pretests, posttests, and follow-up tests were used. The researcher found that all these groups significantly outperformed the control group in the comprehension and production of English polite requests, and that both deductive and inductive approach to focusing on form can work well. However, it was also revealed that inductive treatment could be superior in long term. Therefore, considering that inductive explicit grammar instruction is a way of consciousness-raising, this approach can have beneficial effects in the L2 classroom.

2.3.2.2 Processing Instruction (PI)

As mentioned above, the second type of task can help learners internalize L2 forms by assisting learners to make appropriate form-meaning connection. Ellis (1997) states that this can be realized by giving learners interpretation tasks. These tasks essentially have the following goals:

1. To enable learners to identify the meaning(s) realized by a specific grammatical feature (i.e. to help them carry out a form-meaning mapping),
2. To enhance input (Sharwood-Smith, 1993) in such a way that learners are induced to notice a grammatical feature that otherwise they might ignore [i.e. noticing]
3. To enable learners to carry out the kind of cognitive comparisons ... between the way a particular form works to convey meaning in the input and how they are using the same form or, alternatively, how they convey the meaning realized by the form when they communicate.

(Ellis, 1997, pp.152-153)

The type of instruction utilizing interpretation tasks, which is suggested by Ellis, is indeed, associated with processing instruction, proposed by VanPatten (1996). Processing instruction is defined as “a psycholinguistically motivated focus on form that is an adjunct to communicative language teaching and/or to comprehension-based approaches” (Sanz & VanPatten, 1998, p.50). Processing instruction refers to the type of focus on form or grammar instruction which features in the VanPatten’s (1993, 1996) input processing model. In this model, input needs to be intake in order to provide data which is necessary to promote the *developing system*. Here the developing system can be regarded as “the core grammatical system, cognitively analogous to the native speaker’s linguistic competence” (Collentine, 1998, pp. 577-578). Therefore, this type of instruction is a synthesis of recent developments in SLA and cognitive science.

According to Collentine (1998), processing instruction is better than traditional approaches in that it does not require the learners to produce any form which they have not fully internalized while the traditional output-oriented activities pressurize

them, resulting that all of their attention and memory resources are used for monitoring, not working out a form's relationship with its meaning. For this reason, learners are engaged in producing language prematurely (VanPatten, 1996).

Processing instruction is also viewed as more effective than pure comprehensible input. When learners are exposed to comprehensible input only, they will not be able to either notice some forms or decode how they operate because contextual clues will help them to infer meaning out of the input. According to Collentine (1998), in processing instruction, it is assumed that comprehensible input alone does not boost grammatical development sufficiently due to the fact that exposure to input containing a grammatical structure does not necessarily convert the input into intake.

Furthermore, processing instruction is somewhat different from consciousness-raising tasks suggested by Ellis (1997). These tasks are concerned with metalinguistic information related with the form in question whereas processing instruction directly aims to change the way learners process input or help them adopt better processing strategies. While explaining what processing instruction aims, VanPatten (1996) suggests this: "PI [processing instruction] does not seek to 'pour knowledge' of any kind into learners' heads; it assists certain processes that can aid the growth of the developing system over time" (p. 85). For this reason, he advocates that processing instruction is not concerned with making learners more conscious about a linguistic form, but altering their psycholinguistic processing ways and making their intake as qualified as possible.

2.3.2.2.1 Input Processing Principles and PI

According to the model of SLA developed by VanPatten (1996), second language acquisition occurs in three stages: (1) input processing, (2) accommodation and restructuring and (3) access. Input processing is concerned with how some of the input becomes intake, which is defined as "the linguistic data actually processed from the input and held in working memory for further processing" (VanPatten, 2002a, p.757), while accommodation refers to how intake is incorporated into the

developing system of learners and restructuring to how new intake causes changes in the already existing knowledge of L2; finally, access concerns how the learners reach the linguistic knowledge in their developing system by means of output they generate for communicative purposes.

As it is obvious, input processing plays a crucial role in the acquisition since the later stages in the acquisition relies to a great extent on the initial processing of the input. At this initial stage, it is quite important that learners process the input they are exposed to appropriately by creating form-meaning connections. However, as VanPatten (2002b) states, “given the limitations on working memory and the nature of the learner’s developing linguistic system, learners may process input in ways that are less than optimal” (p.241). Learners mostly rely on the content words and the general meaning of the sentence they hear or read, rather than the grammatical forms in the sentence. Therefore, they do not process these forms, even if they notice them because noticing is seen as solely a registration of linguistic data into the working memory, and thus, it does not mean that a learner who has noticed an L2 form will consequently process how it is related to some meaning.

Input processing occurs via two subprocesses: (1) initial form-meaning connections and (2) parsing. In the first subprocess, the learner establishes a connection between a form and a meaning or a function it may carry. This connection is likely to be correct or incorrect, whole or partial, but the important thing is that some sort of connection is started. In later form-meaning associations, the incorrect and/or partial connections can be corrected and/or completed. In the latter subprocess, parsing, learners assign syntactic categories to words that they comprehend, and thus, they decide what word(s) form the subject and what word(s) the object.

VanPatten (1996, 2002a, 2002b, 2004) listed several strategies on which learners rely while processing L2 input. These strategies or principles are attributed to cause inefficient processing of input, and therefore, negatively influence the acquisition process. The principles underlying the input processing of L2 learners based on the most recent categorization of VanPatten are presented in Table 2.2:

Table 2.2 Input processing principles of L2 learners

<p>Principle 1: The Primacy of Meaning Principle Learners process input for meaning before they process it for form.</p> <p><i>1a: The Primacy of Content Words Principle</i> Learners process content words in the input before anything else.</p> <p><i>1b: The Lexical Preference Principle</i> Learners will tend to rely on lexical items as opposed to grammatical form to get meaning when both encode the same semantic information.</p> <p><i>1c: The Preference for Non-redundancy Principle</i> Learners are more likely to process non-redundant meaningful grammatical form before they process redundant meaningful forms.</p> <p><i>1d: The Meaning-before-non-meaning Principle</i> Learners are more likely to process meaningful grammatical forms before non-meaningful forms irrespective of redundancy.</p> <p><i>1e. The Availability of Resources Principle</i> For learners to process either redundant meaningful grammatical forms or non-meaningful forms, the processing of overall sentential meaning must not drain available processing resources.</p> <p><i>1f: The Sentence Location Principle</i> Learners tend to process items in sentence initial position before those in final position and those in medial position.</p> <p>Principle 2: The First Noun Principle Learners tend to process the first noun or pronoun they encounter in a sentence as the subject/agent.</p> <p><i>2a: The Lexical Semantics Principle</i> Learners may rely on lexical semantics, where possible, instead of word order to interpret sentences.</p> <p><i>2b: The Event Probabilities Principle</i> Learners may rely on event probabilities, where possible, instead of word order to interpret sentences.</p> <p><i>2c: The Contextual Constraint Principle</i> Learners may rely less on the First Noun Principle if preceding context constrains the possible interpretation of a clause or sentence.</p>

(Source: Adapted from VanPatten, 2004, p.14,18)

The first principle (P1) and the sub-principles *1a-1d* refer to a common way of input processing by learners. It is claimed that when learners are exposed to input, they first attempt to derive what message is given in this input before directing their attention to the forms which convey the message. For this reason, the items that the learner prefers to process are content words and meaning-bearing morphology, rather than grammatical items or non-meaningful morphology. For example, while processing a sentence in simple past tense which contains both the word ‘yesterday’ and the past tense marker –ed, the learner will pay attention to the word ‘yesterday’ before the tense marker (VanPatten, 2002b). In brief, the first principle states that an L2 learner tends to process the items which have a more communicative value.

The sub-principle *Ie* refers to the requirements for learner to be able to process forms which are not meaningful. According to VanPatten (1996, 2004), if the learner has difficulty understanding the overall meaning of the input, he or she will not have any attentional resources to pay attention to form non-meaningful or less meaningful items. If there is no difficulty in comprehending the message, the learner is likely to focus on these items.

As for the sub-principle *If*, it refers to the sensitivity of learners to the positions of elements in a sentence or utterance. According to this principle, the elements in the initial positions will be processed before those in the final positions and the elements in the final positions will be processed before those in the middle positions.

As far as the second principle (P2) and its sub-principles (*2a-2c*) are concerned, when processing input, learners also tend to depend on the subject-verb-object (SVO) word order and assign the first noun or noun phrase the function of subject even though the sentence or utterance does not start with a subject. For example, given the sentence “John makes Mary walk the dog”, when learners are asked “Who walks the dog?”, they will have a tendency to say ‘John’ because it is the first noun in the sentence and they will roughly translate the sentence as “John walks the dog for Mary” (VanPatten, 2002a, p.765). As can be clearly seen, this type of processing can cause the storage of incorrect linguistic data into the developing system (i.e. interlanguage) of learners.

As a result, these principles show how learners can miss processing some grammatical forms and how they can create wrong linguistic data in their minds due to incomplete or incorrect form-meaning connections and parsing (i.e. assigning words to syntactic categories). However, it is believed that processing instruction can help learners be informed about these input processing strategies and how they can develop better strategies. Therefore, processing instruction serves as an explicit focus on form and it aims to enable the learner to get better intake from the input.

2.3.2.2.2 Research into PI

Since the input-processing model was first suggested, numerous studies have been conducted on processing instruction. In one of the earliest of these studies, VanPatten and Cadierno (1993) investigated the effectiveness of processing instruction comparing it to the traditional instruction. They sought the answer to the question whether the second-year university-level L2 learners would be able to comprehend and produce sentences containing Spanish clitic object pronouns when received processing instruction. The participants were divided into three groups: the processing instruction group, the traditional instruction group and the control group. Learners in the processing instruction group were provided with explanations about the important points regarding the target structures and supplied with explicit information on the strategies of English learners of Spanish which cause them to misinterpret the target structure. Finally, this group practiced by listening to sentences with the target structure and identifying the appropriate picture and by responding to sentences by indicating whether they agreed or disagreed with the given statements and they never produced the target structure. On the other hand, the group which received the traditional instruction was given explanations concerning the form and position of the pronouns. Then they had practice starting from mechanical through meaningful and open-ended communicative format. The findings of this study showed that the processing instruction group did better than the traditional instruction group on the comprehension test and, despite never producing the target form, did equally well on the production test.

Cadierno (1995) carried out a study to investigate the effects of processing instruction on the acquisition of the preterit tense in Spanish. In her study, processing instruction was based on the principle stating that learners process lexical items before grammatical forms if both contain the same semantic information. She had three groups of learners like VanPatten and Cadierno's (1993) study: a control group that received no instruction, a group that received traditional instruction concentrating on production only, and a group that received processing instruction including explanation and structured input activities. The results of this study

indicated that the processing instruction group performed significantly better than the other two groups on both comprehension and production tests although never producing the target form.

In addition, VanPatten and Oikennon (1996) also looked into the effects of processing instruction using a group of secondary school students studying Spanish at the intermediate level. The researchers divided the students into three groups: one group receiving only explicit explanations of rules on the target form, one group only structured input activities designed within the principles of processing instruction and one group which received both explicit explanations and structured input activities. This study revealed that the group which received only explicit explanations hardly retained the grammatical rules and showed no significant improvement whereas the other two groups significantly outperformed the explicit-explanation-only group on posttests.

Farley (2004) also examined the importance of explicit information in the acquisition process of the subjunctive mood. The results of his study indicated that explicit information influenced the rate of acquisition of the target form. Although the group which received structured input only exhibited significant gains, the group that received explicit information along with structured input performed better than the structured-input-only group on both production and interpretation tests.

In order to compare the effects of processing instruction, which is an input-based instruction, with output-based instruction, Benati (2001) conducted a study focusing on the Italian future tense. He formed three groups as in the previously mentioned researches: the control group with no instruction, the processing instruction group, and the output instruction group. The processing instruction group received both grammatical explanation and comprehension practice which had the aim of changing the way learners processed input with Italian future tense and helping them make correct form-meaning connections. On the other hand, the output instruction group had explanations of grammar rules and then practiced the target form in written mode and orally. Some part of the practice was meaning oriented. Benati found that,

on the whole, the processing instruction group performed better than the learners in the output-based instruction and no instruction group, and the output-based instruction group outperformed the control group statistically significantly. It was also found that the performance of output-based group on the interpretation task significantly improved and this improvement is attributed to the meaning-oriented output practice. Therefore, although Benati's study provides evidence that processing instruction has positive effects on the acquisition of the Italian future tense and proved to work better than the output-based instruction, it also started a new perspective since the previous studies did not compare processing instruction with meaningful output-based instruction.

Nevertheless, in some studies, processing instruction was found to be ineffective in comparison with the traditional instruction; that is, there were no significant differences between the groups of learners who received instruction on input processing and those who received traditional instruction (having output-based practice). One of these studies was carried out by Allen (2000). In her study, having three groups of learners, she used the same research design mentioned above in order to investigate the acquisition of the French causative. However, the results revealed that on the interpretation test the processing and traditional groups performed equally and on the production test, the traditional group performed better than the processing instruction group.

In addition, Cantürk (2001) also found that processing instruction was not more effective than the traditional instruction on neither the interpretation test nor production test. This result was obtained on an immediate posttest. In a considerably late posttest, she also searched for the effects of the two instructional treatments on the retention of noun clauses and found that both treatments led to the retention of the target structure on the production test. However, the scores of the processing instruction group were greater than the traditional instruction group.

Moreover, Farley (2001), who compared processing instruction with meaningful output-based instruction in his study, found that processing instruction did not help

learners to comprehend and produce Subjunctive significantly better than the learner who received traditional instruction. This finding points to the role of the structure which is being taught in the effectiveness of processing instruction.

Erlam (2003) investigated the effectiveness of the two types of instruction on the acquisition of direct object pronouns in second language French. She compared the scores of learners who were provided with structured input activities (processing instruction) and those who received meaningful output-based instruction on listening comprehension, reading comprehension, written production and oral production tasks. The results indicated that both types of instruction proved to be effective on the acquisition of the French direct object pronouns. However, structured input instruction did not enable L2 learners to comprehend and produce this form more effectively than the meaningful output-based instruction group. Indeed, the output-based instruction group performed better than the processing instruction group.

In a more recent study, the effects of the same instruction types (processing instruction and output-based instruction) were investigated by Morgan-Short and Bowden (2006), who selected Spanish preverbal direct object pronouns as the target structure of their study. The results revealed that both types of instruction led to a statistically significant increase in the scores of the learners on both the interpretation and production tests, but there were no significant differences between the experimental groups. However, on the delayed posttest, there was a significant difference between these groups on the production test since only the meaningful output-based instruction group had significantly greater scores than the control group; that is, the gains of the processing instruction group were not maintained on the production test.

In short, the research into the processing instruction indicates that when combined with explicit explanation of rules, processing instruction can have a strong effect on acquisition of forms. The comparisons of the processing instruction with the traditional instruction, where mechanical practice activities are abundantly used, underscore the fact that processing instruction is more effective than the traditional

instruction regarding the learners' comprehension of the L2 forms and can be equally effective in terms of production of these forms. However, the recent research has shown that processing instruction may not be superior to the meaningful output-based instruction regarding both comprehension and production, but the analyses of the effects of these two types of instruction (i.e. processing instruction and meaningful output-based instruction) are not certain. There is an ongoing interest in investigating the long term effects of the two types of instruction. The last point that needs to be mentioned is that the effects of processing instruction are also considered to be influenced by the complexity of the structure which is studied.

2.3.2.2.3 Rationale for PI

According to Nassaji and Fotos (2004), processing instruction has been equated with focus-on-forms approach by some researchers (e.g. Sheen, 2002), since it involved a combination of “initial exposure to explicit instruction” with “a series of input processing activities, consisting mainly of tasks that encourage the comprehension of the target structure rather than its production” (p.132). However, as it is argued by VanPatten (2002a), the aim of processing instruction is to enable the learner to recognize and internalize the form-meaning connections, not to make them explain or metalinguistic aspects of the target form. In other words, the purpose of processing instruction is to contribute to the implicit (procedural) knowledge of the learner while focus on forms and other types of instruction emphasizing metalinguistic descriptions of the forms contribute to explicit (declarative) knowledge of learners.

The idea behind processing instruction is related with the types of knowledge. According to Lyster (2004b), speaking of language, declarative knowledge is concerned with the knowledge of the language system, such as word definitions and representations based on rules, but procedural knowledge has to do with knowledge associated with knowing how to carry on cognitive activities like language comprehension and production. Lyster (2004b) suggests that the development of skills relies on the transformation of the declarative representations to production

rules representing procedural knowledge, via practice. “This development”, as he states, “is described as a transition from controlled processing, which requires a great deal of attention and use of short-term memory, to automatic processing, which operates on routinized procedures available in long-term memory” (p.401). At this point, it is obvious that if learners build wrong form-meaning connections because of their default input processing strategies and intake of low quality, it will be difficult for them to reach automaticity in using certain forms, and they will not be able to communicate effectively. Therefore, processing instruction has the important function of increasing the quality of intake and lead to appropriate mental representations of form-meaning connections. As a consequence, processing instruction deals with the linguistic gains of learners which they can use automatically.

Having seen the rationale of processing instruction, now it is crucial to analyze how the theory relates to the classroom practice. According to Wong and VanPatten (2003), processing instruction has the following features as a basis:

- 1) Learners are given information about a linguistic structure or form.
- 2) Learners are informed about a particular input processing strategy that may negatively affect their picking up the form/structure during comprehension.
- 3) Learners are pushed to process the form/structure during activities with structured input – input that is manipulated in particular ways so that learners become dependent on form and structure to get meaning, and/or to privilege the form/structure in the input so that learners have a better chance of attending to it. Learners do not produce the structure or form during structured input activities.

(Wong & VanPatten, 2003, p.410)

As can be obviously seen from these features, processing instruction involves the provision of explicit linguistic information, either deductively or inductively, information about the ineffective processing strategies, and practice in using helpful strategies to process input.

2.3.2.2.4 Structured Input

As mentioned above, processing instruction necessitates the informing of learners about some important points regarding the linguistic feature (some explicit explanation of the form) and how to better process it and providing structured input activities. According to Erlam (2003), structured input, which is a characteristic aspect of processing instruction, can be defined as "input that is manipulated in particular ways so that learners become dependent on form and structure to get meaning and/or to privilege the form or structure in the input so that learners have a better chance of attending to it" (p. 561). The interpretation strategies of the learner are crucial in structured input activities, and learners are forced to pay attention to the forms and to search for meaning. As a result, learners are obliged to notice and process these forms, constructing form-meaning associations (VanPatten, 1996).

As Collentine (1998) maintains, structured input tasks consist of mainly listening and reading activities which encourage learners to make form-meaning connections by means of increasing the communicative value of the structure, or its role in the sentence's overall meaning. He also states that the communicative value rises if the meaning of the form in question, to a great extent, controls the interpretation of the whole sentence. As a result, structured input activities are designed in a way that takes into account how learners process input.

In line with the principles of the processing instruction, or input processing model of second language acquisition, structured input activities include two major types: referential activities and affective activities (VanPatten, 1993). In referential activities, learners pay attention to form so as to deduce meaning and are given the task of indicating their answers quickly according to this meaning. Hence, it is relatively easy for the teachers to understand whether their learners are really making form-meaning associations. In other words, the success of the learners in this type of activities depends on the extent to which learners make proper associations between the form and its meaning.

After a few referential activities, learners engage in affective activities, which aim at reinforcing the initial form-meaning associations by providing a meaningful context. These activities do not have a right or wrong answer. These activities require learners to indicate their opinion, belief, or some other affective response while they are processing information related with the real world (Wong & VanPatten, 2003). Since they allow the learner to personalize the information, these activities are considered to be very motivating.

VanPatten (1996) provided a list of guidelines for designing effective structured input activities summarized in Table 2.3:

Table 2.3 Guidelines for structured input activities

Guideline	Rationale
1. <i>“Teach only one thing at a time.”</i>	Paradigms and rules need to be broken down in order to avoid burdening the learner cognitively.
2. <i>“Keep meaning in focus.”</i>	Learners should pay attention to meaning to do the activity successfully. Thus, they will be pushed to make form-meaning connections.
3. <i>“Learners must do something with the input.”</i>	Learners demonstrate that they are actively processing the input sentences by responding (e.g. Agree/Disagree; Yes, that applies to me/ No, that doesn't apply to me)
4. <i>“Use both oral and written input.”</i>	Individual differences need to be taken into consideration. Learners benefit from different modes of input in varying degrees.
5. <i>“Move from sentences to connected discourse.”</i>	Learners should learn the form-meaning connections at sentence-level first, and then at discourse-level because discourse level activities do not allow them sufficient time to process the forms.
6. <i>“Keep the psycholinguistic processing strategies in mind.”</i>	The natural processing strategies used by the learners for a particular activity need to be kept in mind and the input should be structured in a way which makes the learner rely on the strategy.

(Source: Adapted from VanPatten, 1996, pp.67-69)

Table 2.3 suggests that structured input activities should not be too complicated since the learner needs to be able to process the target form. Also, the learner should depend on the form to understand the sentence or utterance, which can be provided in written or spoken mode. The input should not be too long because the target form should not be missed among others.

To sum up, structured input activities are prepared according to the input processing principles and aim at developing L2 learners' ability to create appropriate connections between the target linguistic feature and its meaning. They typically involve activities that can be responded to quickly, such as checking boxes and completing surveys. No mechanical or non-communicative activities are used in a sequence of structured activities.

Structured input activities are very similar to the interpretation activities suggested by Ellis (1997). Ellis describes the general principles of these activities as follows:

- 1 Learners should be required to process the target structure, not to produce it.
- 2 An interpretation activity consists of a stimulus to which learners must make some kind of response.
- 3 The stimulus can take the form of spoken or written input.
- 4 The response can take various forms (e.g. true/false, check a box, select the correct picture, draw a diagram, perform an action) but in each case, the response will be either completely non-verbal or minimally verbal.
- 5 The activities in the task can be helpfully sequenced to require first attention to meaning, then noticing the form and function of the grammatical structure, and finally error identification.
- 6 As a result of completing the task, the learners should have arrived at an understanding of how the target form is used to perform a particular function or functions in communication (i.e. they must have undertaken a form-function mapping).
- 7 Learners can benefit from the opportunity to negotiate the input they hear or read.
- 8 Interpretation tasks should require learners to make a personal response (i.e. relate the input to their own lives, as well as a referential response).
- 9 As a result of completing the task, learners should have been made aware of common learner errors involving the target structure as well as correct usage.

(Ellis 1997: 155–9)

The comparison of structured input activities and interpretation activities shows that they share a number of similar characteristics. Both take into account the priority of meaning, the need for short learner response, integration of activities in spoken and written mode, learner's construction of form and meaning/function relationships, and the role of affectively-oriented activities. However, Ellis (1997) suggests that error identification can also be incorporated into interpretation activities. In fact, as can be seen in the list of features of processing instruction offered by Wong and VanPatten (2003), the feature stating that "learners are informed about a particular input processing strategy that may negatively affect their picking up the form/structure

during comprehension” (p.410) can be related to the need to focus on how learners wrongly process input by means of error identification activities. The use of such kind of activities will definitely make the instruction more explicit and may require metalingual elaborations. Therefore, the use of this type of activities is mostly up to the teacher in that she is the person to decide how explicit the instruction will be.

To conclude, explicit input-based instruction is based on two major components: the provision of explicit information about the linguistic forms in question and the practice of form-meaning connections via structured input. The first component can be achieved in ways such as deductive or inductive explanations of the prominent aspects of the forms activities which can help learners recognize how the L2 forms operate or error identification / correction whereas the second component can be achieved by informing learners about the ways how L2 learners wrongly process the a specific form and by providing learners with referential and affectively-oriented activities, that is structured input activities.

2.4 Output-Based Focus on Form

The output-based focus on form is based on the understanding that L2 learners utilize their own linguistic production in order to modify their language. By means of this modification, they have a chance to both comprehend and use L2 better, and thus, acquire the linguistic forms eventually.

Swain (1985) claimed that output is an essential component of the process of second language acquisition as well as input and proposed her “comprehensible output hypothesis” (p.249), which states that the linguistic repertoire of the L2 learners is extended by the means of their attempts to generate the meaning they wish. Swain (1985) accepts the essential role of input in SLA, but she claims that it is not enough to ensure a native-like language use. Therefore, her hypothesis is an addition to Krashen’s (1985) comprehensible input hypothesis that does not assign a particular function for output except for representing the acquired forms. On the other hand, Swain (1995) suggests that output has several functions in learners’ L2 acquisition.

One of the functions proposed by Swain (1995) is fluency function. This refers to the fact that since output serves as a way of practicing the learned forms, the learner can start to produce better output in time and become more fluent using these forms.

In addition to this, output has the noticing function. This function is explained by Swain (1995) as follows:

In producing the target language (vocally or subvocally), learners may notice a gap between what they want to say and what they can say, leading them to recognize what they do not know, or know partially....This may trigger them cognitive processes which might generate linguistic knowledge that is new for learners, or which consolidates their existing knowledge. (p.126)

Therefore, the noticing function of output is related to how output enables the learner to notice that there is a gap between their limited knowledge of L2 forms and the real usages of these forms. This function of output received support from some studies. (Iwashita, 2001; Izumi, 2002; Izumi, Bigelow, Fujiwara, Fearnow, 1999; Shehadeh, 1999, 2001). When learners notice a gap in their interlanguage by the help of external or internal feedback, they are pushed to process their performance again and modify their output. As a result, mental processes are triggered, and this paves the way for language learning.

Another function of output is the hypothesis testing function, which concerns the fact that, after learners notice a gap between what they say and what they want to say, they try to fill this gap by developing their hypotheses and testing the validity of them. More specifically, learners use language forms in various ways to try them and see whether or not they are acceptable or not and this goes on until they reach a satisfactory version of the forms.

Finally, the last function of output is its metalinguistic function. Swain (1995) claims that unless learners are pushed to produce language, they are engaged in only the processing of meaning and this does not mean there will be further processing of linguistic form, which is essential for acquisition. Producing output makes learners

reflect upon a certain linguistic form. When learners reflect on their use of L2 forms, they access metalinguistic information about the target forms, which helps them to “control and internalize linguistic knowledge” (Swain, 1995, p.126). Several studies (e.g. Kowal & Swain, 1994, 1997; Swain, 1995; Swain & Lapkin, 1998) found that language production and its reflection affects L2 learning positively.

Based on these functions of output, it is widely accepted that producing language enhances the acquisition of L2. However, the types of situations provided for the learner to produce language is a very important issue because whether learners produce language for communicative or meaningful purposes may affect their internalization of the L2 forms. According to the traditional views of language teaching, output is as a kind of means to practice what has been previously learned, not as a tool to create new knowledge (Gass & Selinker, 2001). For example, in a presentation-practice-production (PPP), after the teacher presents the forms, usually in context, to clarify the meaning, in the practice stage learners have repetition, pattern drills, or matching exercises. After this stage, they produce the forms they have just learned in a freer context (Harmer, 2001). However, it was argued that a PPP lesson may not facilitate acquisition because of some reasons. To begin with, in the production stage, the target forms may not be incorporated. In addition, even these forms are incorporated, it is very likely that this will be in a controlled way since there will be an extra focus on forms. Finally, the fact that learners can produce target forms successfully in the classroom does not ensure that they will be able to do so when they get out of the classroom (Willis, 1996). Therefore, these lessons do not give a true sense of L2 acquisition.

On the other hand, in communicative language teaching, where meaning has the primary importance, the learner is asked to produce language in meaningful contexts. However, communicative language teaching approach has been criticized in that the lack of instruction on formal aspects of language leads to fossilization of learner errors. For example, if learners’ errors are not corrected, having tested their hypothesis, learners may think that what they have produced is valid in L2. Thus, at this point, learners need to focus on form in some way.

Meaning-oriented output-based focus on form can be accomplished in several ways and in different modes, namely, oral or written. Interactions taking place in the classroom are a major source for learner output. When learners are expressing themselves during an activity, they can have problems with using some language forms accurately and appropriately. In this case, the teacher or the other learners in the classroom give some kind of response (e.g. clarification request, repetition, etc.) indicating that what has been uttered is not understood and the learner who has made an error modifies his or her output. This type of focus on form is known as spontaneous focus on form. In addition, the teacher may plan to focus on form during communicative tasks, which can be considered as planned focus on form. The teacher can decide to focus on only certain forms.

Output-based focus on form has been compared with input-based instructional options. Some of the studies of output-based instruction investigated the effectiveness of mechanical output in comparison with other options and some of them compared the effects of communicative or meaningful output-based instruction. For example, Toth (2006) investigated the role of output in second language by comparing processing instruction to communicative output tasks. The target structure he selected was Spanish *anticausative clitic 'se'*. He provided a seven-day treatment for eighty English-speaking adults taking Spanish courses at several universities. At the end of the study, he found that the group which received processing instruction and the group which did communicative output tasks displayed similar progresses on the grammaticality judgment. However, the communicative output group used the target structure more frequently when they were engaged in guided production. As a result, Toth concluded that output had a role in L2 acquisition since it involved certain attention to L2 structure and some kind of metalinguistic analyses of target structure.

Lyster (2004b) argues that, in a wide range of pedagogical contexts, practice activities help learners to proceduralise their declarative knowledge of newly learned target language forms. These contexts can be meaningful collaborative tasks, linguistic games or role plays, and they can range between the most communicative

practice activities and the least communicative activities. Lyster (2004b), however, claims that if the linguistic difficulty causes persistent errors, controlled practice can be more effective than communicative practice that involves abundant negotiation of meaning.

In conclusion, in this chapter, the literature regarding form-focused instruction was reviewed with special consideration of the approaches to L2 teaching and the types of focus on form. It was mentioned that focus on form, which functions as a mediation between the traditional language teaching and the communicative language teaching, is also associated with information-processing theory, more specifically the Noticing Hypothesis, and the interactional approaches. The two major ways of achieving focus on form, namely the input-based and output-based instruction, were dealt with. The input-based instruction, which includes implicit and explicit types, was discussed in detail. It was pointed out that processing instruction and consciousness-raising were powerful types of instruction, which can be considered as explicit input-based instruction. The fact that output-based instruction was also important for L2 acquisition was emphasized. However, if VanPatten's (1993) SLA model is reconsidered, it is clear that the first step in L2 acquisition is noticing the forms in the input and sending intake to the short-term memory for further processing.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the methodology followed throughout the present study is discussed. To begin with, the design of the study is explained. Then, participants of the study are described. After this, the reasons for the choice of the target feature “noun clauses” and the framework for teaching of this feature are explained. This is followed by the description of the instructional intervention and the instructional materials. Finally, all the procedures involved in the collection of data are provided.

3.1 Design of the Study

The data collection of the present study investigating the effects of explicit input-based instruction was carried out in the spring semester of the academic year 2008-2009 at Atılım University. In order to investigate whether learners who were exposed to explicit input-based instruction would have increased explicit knowledge of noun clauses and whether their ability to comprehend and produce noun clauses could be enhanced, two classes were chosen, and one of them was given explicit input-based instruction for four weeks, while the other was exposed to only the activities suggested by the ENG 104 course syllabus. These two groups were compared by the means of pretests and posttests. This methodology was chosen since our research questions necessitated the inclusion of two instructional conditions: one with FonF condition (externally manipulated) and one with no external manipulation. However, these groups were not randomly assigned; they were intact classes. Therefore, the present study can be considered as a quasi-experimental study, rather than an experimental study, since the compared groups were not randomly assigned, but were actually intact classes (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000).

One of these groups, Group 1, received instruction on noun clauses which was planned according to processing instruction principles and consciousness-raising tasks suggested by Ellis (1997). The length of the instructional period was limited to 4 weeks only and no more time was spent on activities on noun clauses because the researcher, also an instructor in the setting of the present study, needed to follow the course syllabus and not to diverge from it. Thus, intervening in only a small part of the lesson for four weeks, the researcher aimed to both create a condition that would make a difference and stick to the course syllabus.

The other group, Group 2, did not receive this kind of instruction, but followed their schedule as indicated in the ENG 104 course syllabus. Before the instructional intervention, in Week 10 (April 20-24, 2009), a pretest (Appendix A-B) was given both groups to determine whether they had similar knowledge of noun clauses and their comprehension and production ability of both groups regarding this feature were not different. After the instructional intervention, in Week 15 (May 25-29, 2009), a posttest was given in order to evaluate the statistical differences between the two groups in terms of knowledge, comprehension and production of noun clauses. All the raw data were entered and analyzed in the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) program (Version 15.0).

3.2 Participants

The participants of the present study were students from two classes at Atılım University, studying in their departments. All of the participants were taking the ENG 104 course, which aims to improve reading and essay writing skills of the students who take departmental courses and has four contact lesson hours a week. The ages of the participants ranged between 18 and 22. In the pretest, 45 students (26 females and 19 males) from the two classes took part in the study.

The groups were not formed particularly for the purposes of the present study; both of them were sections opened by DELSU at the beginning of the spring semester. These two groups consisted of students of mixed levels as mentioned in Chapter 1.

The students who were the participants of the current study, along with all others taking ENG 104, came from either the course ENG 111 (focusing on reading, writing and use of language) or ENG 113 (focusing on academic listening and note-taking). The majority of them were coming from ENG 111, which meant that most of the students had a score between 60 and 66 in the proficiency exam while some having taken ENG 113 received a score between 67 and 79. This clearly implies that most of the students taking ENG 104 had problems with the basic uses of language. On the other hand, the students coming from these two courses were not the only groups of students in ENG 104; there were also a few students who were repeating ENG 104 and those who were exempted from both ENG 111 and ENG 113 since they received a score of 80 in the proficiency exam either after studying at the preparatory school

One of the groups was randomly selected as Group 1 (N=24, 16 females and 8 males), which was to receive explicit input-based instruction on noun clauses, and the other group, Group 2 (N=21, 10 females and 11 males), did not receive any instructional intervention. None of the groups had been exposed to such kind of instruction. Therefore, they can be considered as unfamiliar with the method used during the intervention and The researcher of the present study, who was also an instructor at Atılım University, taught both classes. After a 4-week instructional intervention, the posttest was given. However, the number of the students who took the posttest was less than those who took the pretest since 33 students took it (Group 1: N=15, Group 2: N=18). The scores of the participants who did not take the posttest were left out of the analyses of the pretest.

3.3 Target Structure

Since the researchers of SLA agree upon the need to take into account learners' errors while selecting forms for instruction (Ellis, 2006), the target structure "noun clauses" was chosen arbitrarily from a number of structures which were considered to be problematic for students of Atılım University. Instructors working in the Departmental English Language Studies Unit (DELSU), including the researcher of

the present study, have always observed that students either avoid using noun clauses or use it with a considerable number of deviations from the acceptable usage of this structure. These problems are evident both in their exam papers and portfolios in which students put their essays and other class work. The fact that the participants of the current study had problems with noun clauses was also indicated by the grammaticality judgment test (see Appendix A), since the mean score of both groups was 7.31 out of 25. The frequencies of the scores on pretest GJT can be seen in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Frequencies and percentages of the scores on GJT (pretest)

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	2,00	2	4,4	4,4
	3,00	3	6,7	11,1
	4,00	7	15,6	26,7
	5,00	7	15,6	42,2
	6,00	3	6,7	48,9
	7,00	2	4,4	53,3
	8,00	4	8,9	62,2
	9,00	5	11,1	73,3
	10,00	5	11,1	84,4
	11,00	1	2,2	86,7
	12,00	1	2,2	88,9
	13,00	2	4,4	93,3
	14,00	1	2,2	95,6
	15,00	1	2,2	97,8
	16,00	1	2,2	100,0
	Total	45	100,0	

As it is indicated in Table 3.1, approximately 60% of the students received a score lower than 8.00 out of 25, which implied that the number of the students who did not have a sufficient knowledge of noun clauses was considerably high.

On the other hand, according to some researchers, the choice of forms to be taught should also depend on the complexity of the forms (DeKeyser & Sokalski, 2001; Housen, Pierrard, & Van Daele, 2005). This view is based on the study of markedness in Chomsky's UG theory. According to this theory, markedness of a

structure refers to the fact that some features of a language are more basic or natural than others. If a feature is unmarked, it is universal and innate; therefore, it is more likely to be acquired by learners (Ellis, 1997).

However, the marked features of language are peripheral, not core, and thus, it is difficult for the learners to acquire these features by themselves (Shortall, 1996). As a result, they need explicit instruction on these features. Shortall (1996) also maintains that the article system, the auxiliary system, language-specific lexical patterns including collocations, and whether the sentence structure is subject + predicate or topic + comment are among the marked features of languages.

Noun clauses derived from wh- questions and yes-no questions in English can be considered language-specific because they are associated with the sentence structure and the auxiliary system. As a result, finding support from the practical pedagogical concerns and what theory suggests, “noun clauses” were selected as the target structure of the present study. However, in the present study, only noun clauses that were derived from questions were studied. Some examples for these noun clauses are as follows:

- a. What decision the government will make is a mystery.
- b. She asked me when I could finish my work.
- c. Whether the player have fouled (or not) is not known.
- d. They don't know whether they will receive a punishment for their fault.

As the examples above indicate, noun clauses derived from both wh- questions and yes-no questions were in the scope of the present study. In other words, indirect questions were studied. Also, noun clauses not only in subject position but also in object position were considered. Since the participants' knowledge of noun clauses were analyzed in relation with questions, they were expected to reflect on the transformations needed in direct questions to make them indirect. They were expected to pay attention to changes in tense, pronoun and words order. An example for these types of changes can be found below.

e.g. Direct question:

(A man to a woman): “What are you doing this afternoon?”

Indirect question

He asked what she was doing that afternoon.

In this example, it is seen that the pronouns ‘you’ and ‘this’ changed into ‘she’ and ‘that’ respectively. The present progressive tense became past progressive and the order of words rearranged. The participants were expected to realize such kind of transformations while listening or reading and make them while writing.

3.4 Instructional Intervention and Materials

The participants in Group 1 were exposed to an instructional intervention based on the framework of processing instruction and Ellis’s consciousness-raising tasks. Starting one week after the pretest, the instructional intervention lasted four weeks, and each week, some part of one lesson hour (50 minutes) was particularly allocated for instruction on noun clauses. The activities carried out in both Group 1 and Group 2 can be seen in Table 3.2 below:

Table 3.2 Summary timeline of the research

Week	Group 1	Group 2
10	Pretest	Pretest
11	<u>Lesson 1</u> - Scheduled reading activities - <i>Instructional Intervention Session A</i> a. Inductive explicit information b. Structured input (Affective)	<u>Lesson 1</u> - Scheduled reading activities - Schedules post-reading activities
12	<u>Lesson 2</u> - Scheduled reading activities - <i>Instructional Intervention Session B</i> a. Structured input (Referential) b. Inductive explicit information c. Structured input (Affective)	<u>Lesson 2</u> - Scheduled reading activities - Scheduled post-reading activities
13	<u>Lesson 3</u> - Scheduled reading activities - <i>Instructional Intervention Session C</i> a. Inductive C-R task b. Structured input (Affective)	<u>Lesson 3</u> - Scheduled reading activities - Scheduled post-reading activities
15	<u>Lesson 4</u> - Scheduled reading activities - <i>Instructional Intervention Session D</i> a. Structured input (Referential) b. Structured input (Affective) c. Inductive C-R task Posttest	<u>Lesson 4</u> - Scheduled reading activities - Scheduled post-reading activities Posttest

The materials used in the instructional intervention sessions were partly based on the scheduled reading activities. Therefore, the materials used in Group 1 and Group 2 should be considered. These materials can be found in Appendices C-F. The scheduled reading activities in Lesson 1 and 2 were based on the activities in the students' regular coursebook while those in Lesson 3 and 4 were prepared as additional reading practice, which is acceptable in DELSU context.

The aim of the *Instructional Intervention Session A*, which was conducted within Lesson 1 (see Appendix C), was to raise students' awareness of why noun clauses are used and enable them to recognize the functions (subject or object position) of noun clauses in sentences. The session consisted of explicit information discussed in an inductive way and an affectively-oriented structured input activity. The explicit

information was shared by means of drawing participants' attention to some sentences in the text read at the beginning of the lesson. Students at no time produced a noun clause.

As part of Lesson 2 (see Appendix D), *Instructional Intervention Session B* aimed at raising participants' awareness of the difference between noun clauses for statements and noun clauses for questions and enable them to differentiate between noun clauses for wh- questions and yes-no questions. For this purpose, participants were first asked to do a referential structured input activity, in which they ordered several sentences in the way they were reported in the original text. Here, basically the participants were supposed to process sentences that contained noun clauses and try to connect the form and meaning. Next, the attention of the participants was drawn to the sentences in the text inductively and they were asked to compare how the reporting of wh- questions and yes-no questions was done. Finally, the participants were given another affectively-oriented structured input activity. They were asked to respond to written statements by indicating whether they were true for them or not.

As for the *Instructional Intervention Session C* held within Lesson 3 (see Appendix E), the aim was to enable participants to comprehend how meaning is altered along with the tense changes, pronoun changes and pronoun changes. They were provided with an inductive C-R task, which required them to decide whether the (direct) questions they heard were correctly corresponding to the sentences which contained these questions indirectly, namely noun clauses. In addition to this activity, the participants were also given an affectively-oriented structured activity, but this time they were asked to respond to the statements they heard.

Finally, the aim of the *Instructional Intervention Session D* was to provide students with additional opportunity to make form-meaning connections and to enable them to make comparisons between correct and incorrect forms of noun clauses. To this end, they did a referential activity based on the text they read, an affectively-oriented activity and an editing activity.

To sum up, during the instructional intervention sessions, participants were exposed to only input-based focus on form and they were never asked to produce noun clauses orally or in written mode. However, the input they received was not limited to only one type of instruction: processing instruction or explicit explanations (generally inductive) or consciousness-raising tasks. This combined approach is to a large extent parallel to processing instruction. Although consciousness-raising tasks seem to be unsuitable for it, they can be considered as related to the feature “learners are given information about a linguistic structure or form,” one of basic features of processing instruction (Wong & VanPatten, 2003, p.410) because the way in which this information will be given is not clear.

3.4 Data Collection Procedures

In this section, first, the instruments used to collect data from the Group 1 and Group 2 are described. Then, the reliability of these instruments is discussed. Following this, how the data for the items in the instruments are scored is explained and finally, which statistical methods are employed in order to analyze the data is reported.

3.4.1 Instruments

A pretest-posttest design was used in order to measure the effects of explicit input-based instruction on noun clauses). Three different test were given in both pretest and posttest phases. These tests were the *Interpretation Test*, the *Production Test*, and the *Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT)* (see Appendix A-B), which were originally developed by Cantürk (2001). As Hulstijn (1997) maintains, the use of various types of tasks for the assessment of language learning gains is important because, if the language performance of the participants is measured via only one type of task, the validity of the instrument in question will decrease.

3.4.1.1 The Grammaticality Judgment Test

Grammaticality judgment tests are regarded as valuable in that they both give SLA researchers clues about a language learner's grammatical knowledge and inform the researcher about how language knowledge is organized and how L2 development occurs (Gass, 1983). The use of a grammaticality judgment test in the present study served two purposes. First, it aimed at verifying the fact that the participants of the present study did not have sufficient knowledge of noun clauses and need to be instructed on this form. As mentioned above, the call for *FonF* is often triggered by learner problems or difficulties (Williams, 2005). Also, the GJT was used as an instrument to investigate whether learners' ability to recognize the correct and incorrect uses of noun clauses could be developed after an explicit input-based instruction on this grammatical feature.

The GJT contained twenty-five items in total. Only fifteen of these items were related with noun clauses. The rest of the items functioned as distracters. Of the fifteen items, five did not have a problem, and thus, there were accurate, whereas ten items were deviations from the target usages of noun clauses (i.e. they were grammatically incorrect). The distribution of various aspects of noun clauses was as follows:

- four items concerned noun clauses with a wh- question word in subject position (items 2, 8, 17, 19)
- one item concerned noun clauses with an auxiliary in subject position (item 4)
- six items concerned noun clauses with a wh- question in object position (items 3, 11, 14, 16, 22, 25)
- four items concerned noun clauses with an auxiliary in object position (items 6, 10, 13, 18)

The participants were asked to make three decisions successively. First, they were asked to identify whether an item is grammatically correct or not. Next, they were required to write the correct form of a grammatically incorrect item. Finally, the

grammatical rule which was violated in the incorrect item in question was to be supplied by the participants. The same GJT was applied as pretest and posttest both in Group 1, which received explicit input-based instruction on noun clauses, and Group 2, which received no instruction on noun clauses.

3.4.1.2 The Interpretation and Production Tests

The interpretation test and the production test were given together with the accompaniment of a distraction test (see Appendix B). The aim of the interpretation test was to evaluate to what extent participants were able to comprehend or interpret noun clauses. To this end, students were asked to listen to ten sentences read by the teacher/researcher and circle one of the three options which correctly corresponded to the sentence read by the teacher. All the sentences they heard contained a noun clause in the form of an indirect wh-question or yes-no question. The students were expected to process these indirect questions so that they could reach their direct versions. Then, it was assumed that if the students could identify the direct version of the questions, this meant that they could comprehend or interpret the target structure accurately. Five out of ten sentences contained a noun clause with a wh-question word and the other five included a noun clause with an auxiliary. Overall, five sentences had a noun clause in the subject position and five in the object position. Three items (items 2, 7, 9) required both a tense and pronoun change, six items (1, 3, 4, 6, 8, 10) required word order change only, and one item (item 5) required students to change only the pronoun. An example for the items in the interpretation test is presented in Table 3.3:

Table 3.3 An example item from the interpretation test

Instruction: “Listen to the sentences including indirect questions read by the teacher and circle the alternative (**a**, **b** or **c**) indicating the direct question.”

Example:

The sentence read by the teacher: “*Why dinosaurs became extinct is well worth searching.*”

Alternatives:

- a) Why had dinosaurs become extinct?
- b) Why dinosaurs became extinct?
- c) Why did dinosaurs become extinct?

Correct answer: c

(Source: Cantürk, 2001)

Before students were engaged in listening to the sentences, it was ensured that they were familiar with all the words in the sentences. Also, the teacher read the sentences twice.

Following the interpretation test, there was a distraction part (see Appendix B), in which the students were given a short passage with five blanks to be filled with the passive form of the verbs provided in parentheses. The aim of this part was to prevent the students from doing the production part immediately after the interpretation part because it was thought that they would be influenced and try to use the structures they heard although they did not know them. Therefore, this part was designed to take students’ attention from noun clauses to a structure that was not related to the study.

As far the production test (see Appendix B) is concerned, it required the students to complete some sentences according to the clues provided for them. There were ten incomplete sentences which were accompanied with pictures, single direct questions, or direct questions presented in mini-dialogues. Cantürk (2001) states that the visual clues would make it easier for the students to understand what kind of change they were expected to make. Five sentences in the production part required the production of noun clauses in the subject position and the other five in the object position, as in the interpretation test. Again five of the sentences were supposed to include noun clauses with a wh- question word and five an auxiliary. In addition, in five of the

items, the students were expected to report questions, and in the other five, they were supposed to form “pure noun clauses without any reporting” (Cantürk, 2001, p. 54). Three items (items 1, 4, 7) necessitated a tense and a pronoun change, while six items (items 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 10) required the students to change only the word order and only one item (item 9) entailed only a pronoun change. Table 3.4 provides some examples of the items in the production test:

Table 3.4 Example items from the production test

<p>Instruction: “By looking at the pictures complete the sentences according to the questions given”</p> <p>Example 1: Question: Does she enjoy reading the newspaper? (accompanied with a picture indicating that a woman is smiling as she reads a newspaper) is obvious in the picture. Answer: Whether she enjoys reading the newspaper (or not) is obvious in the picture.</p> <p>Example 2: Kate: Do you like the food in this cafeteria? Sally: Yes, I do. (This dialogue is accompanied with a picture depicting two women as they are holding trays on which there are food and drinks)</p> <p>Question: Kate asked Sally</p> <p>Answer: Kate asked Sally whether she liked the food in that cafeteria (or not).</p>
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(Source: Cantürk, 2001)

Example 1 in Table 3.4 illustrates an item which requires the production of a noun clause which is in subject position and does not involve any reporting. This noun clause does not contain a wh- question, either.

3.4.2 Reliability of the Instruments

The interpretation and production tests were previously used by Cantürk (2001) to obtain quantitative data, which were to be used for statistical analysis. In order to test the reliability of these tests, she conducted a pilot testing on 37 students from Anadolu University, and she used the *Split-half* method. As a result of the calculations via Pearson product-moment correlation formula and Spearman-Brown

prophecy formula, the internal reliability coefficient of the test was found to be 0.82 (Cantürk, 2001). Therefore, the interpretation and production tests are considered as a reliable instrument.

The GJT was also developed by Cantürk (2001); however, she did not use this test for purposes of statistical analysis, but just to confirm that the target structure she was investigating was a problematic one. Nevertheless, in the present study the GJT is used to see if there are any significant differences in the explicit knowledge of noun clauses between Group 1 and Group 2. For this reason, it was essential to test the reliability of the GJT.

In order to assess the reliability of the GJT, a pilot testing was carried out. The piloting was applied on 31 students from two classes at Atılım University. The method which was used to get the internal reliability coefficient of the test was the same as the one adopted in Cantürk's (2001) study (i.e. the *Split-half* method). The results of the analysis conducted on the SPSS indicated that Spearman-Brown Coefficient for unequal length (this is important since the number of the items was fifteen, which was an odd number and equal splitting could not be performed) was .80. This value is high enough to regard the GJT as a reliable instrument to test the students' knowledge of noun clauses.

3.4.3 Scoring of the Instruments

The interpretation test, which consisted of ten items, required the participants to interpret the information they listened to and choose one of the three alternatives supplied for them. The scoring details of this test are provided in Table 3.5:

Table 3.5 Scoring of the interpretation test

Item	Noun Clause Feature	Changes Required			Possible Scores	
		Word Order Change Only	Tense & Pronoun Change	Pronoun Change Only	Incorrect Answer	Correct Answer
1	Wh- / Subject	X			0	1
2	Aux / Object		X		0	1
3	Wh- / Subject	X			0	1
4	Aux / Subject	X			0	1
5	Aux / Object			X	0	1
6	Wh- / Object	X			0	1
7	Aux / Object		X		0	1
8	Wh- / Subject	X			0	1
9	Aux / Object		X		0	1
10	Wh- / Subject	X			0	1
Total Score: 10						

Table 3.5 suggests that a participant who could respond to all items correctly he or she could receive maximum 10 points. 6 points of this maximum score are allocated for the items which required only word order change, 3 points for the items which entailed both a tense change and a pronoun change, and finally 1 point for the item requiring a pronoun change only. Considering the positions of the noun clauses, 5 points were allocated for the items which included noun clauses in subject position and 5 points for those in object position.

The data obtained from the distraction part, where the students were to write the passive form of the given verbs in a short text, was not used in the statistical analyses since this part was designed merely to prevent the students from responding the interpretation and production tests consecutively. The rationale for this precaution was to reduce the influence of the input in the interpretation test on the students' production, which could have interfered with the reliability of the test. The responses of the students for this part were not scored at all and were used on no occasion.

In the production test, the participants were asked to complete the sentence provided for them in each item according to the pictures and mini-dialogues given. If the student could not use the target structure, noun clauses, accurately, he or she

received “0” for the item. Also, although the student had written a grammatically and semantically correct sentence, if he/she had no attempt to use a noun clause, the score was considered as a “0”. If the student could write a sentence which fitted the context and included a well-written noun clause, his or her score was “1”. However, the scoring of this part was quite difficult as some of the student sentences were not fully correct and the researcher had to decide whether to consider the response as accurate or not. Actually, for this type of cases, some researchers preferred to give partial scores for the partially accurate responses. For example, Yan-Ping (1991) reported that a ternary scale (ranging from 0 to 4) was used for the scoring of an error correction data set.

Although giving a partial score for responses which are not fully accurate can seem quite reasonable, in the present study, such a scoring is not adopted because we are concerned with the production of the target feature in a way which is suitable for academic expectations; that is, fully or mostly accurate sentences were acceptable and received the score “1”. If the sentence was partially correct, it was given a “0”. Table 3.6 introduces the details of the scoring procedure for the production test.

Table 3.6 Scoring details of the production test

Item	Noun Clause Feature	Changes Required			Possible Scores	
		Word Order Change Only	Tense & Pronoun Change	Pronoun Change Only	Incorrect Answer	Correct Answer
1	Wh- /Object		X		0	1
2	Aux / Object	X			0	1
3	Wh- /Subject	X			0	1
4	Wh- /Object		X		0	1
5	Aux /Subject	X			0	1
6	Wh- / Subject	X			0	1
7	Aux / Object		X		0	1
8	Aux / Subject	X			0	1
9	Aux / Object			X	0	1
10	Wh- / Subject	X			0	1
					Total Score: 10	

As Table 3.6 suggests, if a participant was able to respond to all items correctly he or she could receive 10 points maximum. Again, similar to the interpretation test, 6 points of this maximum score are allocated for the items which necessitated a change in the word order only, 3 points for the items which required both a tense change and a pronoun change, and finally 1 point for the item requiring a pronoun change only. Regarding the positions of the noun clauses, again, 5 points were allocated for the items which included noun clauses in the subject position and 5 points for those in the object position.

As for the scoring of the GJT, five criteria were used to determine which score was to be given for each of the fifteen items.

1. If the student could not find the mistake in an item and reported that it was correct, he/she received a score of “0”.
2. If the student reported that an item was incorrect and this was the right answer, but if he/she could not provide the correct version, he/she received a score of “0”.
3. If the student did not provide any information as to whether the item is correct or not, he/she received a score of “0” because this indicated that he/she did not have any knowledge of noun clauses.
4. If the student could find the mistake and write the correct version but could not provide the rule which was violated, he/she received a score of “1”
5. If the student could find the mistake, write the correct version and provided the rule violated with this mistake, he/she received a score of “2”.
6. Finally, if the student could find that an item was correct, and this was the right answer, he/she received a score of “1”.

Table 3.7 Scoring details of the GJT

Item	Noun Clause Feature	Grammatical Accuracy	Possible Scores	
			Incorrect Answer	Correct Answer
2	Wh- / Subject	Correct	0	1
3	Wh- / Object	Incorrect	0	2
4	Aux / Subject	Incorrect	0	2
6	Aux / Object	Correct	0	1
8	Wh- / Subject	Incorrect	0	2
10	Aux / Object	Incorrect	0	2
11	Wh- / Object	Incorrect	0	2
13	Aux / Object	Incorrect	0	2
14	Wh- / Object	Correct	0	1
16	Wh- / Object	Incorrect	0	2
17	Wh- / Subject	Correct	0	1
18	Aux / Object	Incorrect	0	2
19	Wh- / Subject	Incorrect	0	2
22	Wh- / Object	Correct	0	1
25	Wh- / Object	Incorrect	0	2
Total Score: 25				

In Table 3.6 it is seen that if a participant was able to respond to all items as expected, he or she could receive a maximum score of 25. If a student could identify all noun clauses which were inaccurately used, correct them properly and provide which grammatical rule was violated, he or she could receive 20 points, and if he or she could identify the correct noun clauses as expected, he or she could receive 5 points maximum. However, if the student could identify that a noun clause was inaccurately used and he or she corrected it properly, but failed to provide which grammatical rule was violated, the student received 1 point for each item. If we assume that a student could not provide any grammatical rule, but identified incorrect noun clauses and corrected them, the total score he or she would get is 10 points out of 20. If that student could recognize the correct noun clauses, he or she would get 5 more points and his or her ultimate score on the GJT would be 15 out of 25.

3.4.4 Statistical Analysis

The raw data obtained in the pretests and posttests were entered the SPSS program on the basis of the scoring criteria discussed above. The total scores for each test (i.e. the interpretation, production and grammaticality judgment tests) were calculated. Then, these total scores were analyzed by the use of inferential statistical methods in SPSS 15.0. Therefore, six tests were conducted for comparisons between the pretest and posttest total scores Group 1, which was exposed to explicit input-based instruction, and Group 2, which was not exposed any additional instruction. The comparisons conducted are as follows:

1. Pretest Scores of Group 1 and Group 2 on the Interpretation Test
2. Posttest Scores of Group 1 and Group 2 on the Interpretation Test
3. Pretest Scores of Group 1 and Group 2 on the Production Test
4. Posttest Scores of Group 1 and Group 2 on the Production Test
5. Pretest Scores of Group 1 and Group 2 on the GJT
6. Posttest Scores of Group 1 and Group 2 on the GJT

In order to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between Group 1 and Group 2 on each of the comparisons, the use of an independent samples t-test was suitable. However, being a parametric test, the normality assumption had to be met (Green, Salkind & Akey, 2000). For this reason, before using a t-test, the normality of the distributions was checked by means of Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests. As a result, except for the first two comparisons, the normality assumption could not be met, and an independent samples t-test was used for the first two comparisons while the last four comparisons were made by the help of Mann-Whitney U test, which is a nonparametric test.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the analyses of data obtained from the pretest and posttest are provided. First, the analysis of the results of the interpretation test is presented. Next, the analysis of the production test is introduced, and finally, the analysis of the grammaticality judgment test is tackled.

4.1 Data Analysis of the Interpretation Test

The first research question asked whether explicit input-based instruction enabled L2 learners (Group 1) to comprehend noun clauses more effectively than those who not receive this type did of instruction (Group 2). In order to search for the answer to this question, it was essential to decide which type of test (parametric or nonparametric) had to be used, so a test of normality was conducted to decide whether a parametric test or a non-parametric test would be more appropriate to compare the scores of Group 1 and Group 2. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests for normality indicated the distribution of the scores in each group ($D(15) = 0.16, p > .05$ for Group 1 and $D(18) = 0.16, p > .05$ for Group 2) was normal, which allowed for the use of t-test for data analysis.

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the pretest scores of Group 1, which received an instructional intervention, and Group 2, which was exposed to no instruction other than what was scheduled in the course syllabus, on the interpretation test. There was no significant difference in the scores of Group 1 ($M = 5.4667, SD = 1.922$) and Group 2 ($M = 4.2222, SD = 2.073$); $t(31) = 1.774, p = .086$. The “Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances” indicated a p value of .89, which is larger than .05 and implied that the variances of the scores in the two groups were

not significantly different. These results suggest that Group 1 and Group 2 exhibited similar abilities in comprehending noun clauses. Table 4.1 depicts the descriptive statistics and the results of the independent samples t-test for the interpretation part on the pretest.

Table 4.1 Results of the t-test for independent samples for interpretation pretest scores

	N	Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t	df	Sig.
Group 1	15	5.4667	1.922	.496	1.774	31	.086
Group 2	18	4.2222	2.073	.488			

Ensuring that both groups had similar levels of ability to comprehend noun clauses, Group 1 was exposed to a four-week instructional intervention on these structures. In order to understand whether this intervention had a significant effect on the students' comprehension, another independent samples t-test was conducted by ascertaining the normality of the score distributions in each group ($D(15) = 0.168, p > .05$ for Group 1 and $D(18) = 0.143, p > .05$ for Group 2). The comparison of the posttest scores of the two groups on the interpretation test indicated that there was a significant difference between them. The descriptive statistics for Group 1 were $M = 6.4667, SD = 1.552$ and for Group 2, they were $M = 4.8889, SD = 1.843$. The t-test generated the results $t(31) = 2.627, p = .013$, which suggest that the interpretation scores of Group 1 and Group 2 differed statistically significantly. Table 4.2 displays the descriptive statistics and the results of the independent samples t-test for the interpretation part on the pretest.

Table 4.2 Results of the t-test for independent samples for interpretation posttest scores

	N	Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t	df	Sig.
Group 1	15	6.4667	1.552	.400	2.627	31	.013
Group 2	18	4.8889	1.843	.434			

However, the significance testing does not provide the strength of this effect on the instructional intervention provided for Group 1. For this reason, the effect size was calculated so as to see to what extent the posttest interpretation scores of the two groups differed. As a result of this calculation, it was found that, on average, the participants in Group 1 exhibited significantly better comprehension of noun clauses than those in Group 2, but this difference had a medium sized effect $r = 0.43$, since it is between .3, “threshold for a medium effect” (Field, 2005, p.302) and .5 “the threshold for a large effect” (Field, 2005, p.294).

The differences between the pretest and posttest scores of the experimental and the control groups on the interpretation test can be clearly seen in Figure 4.1 below:

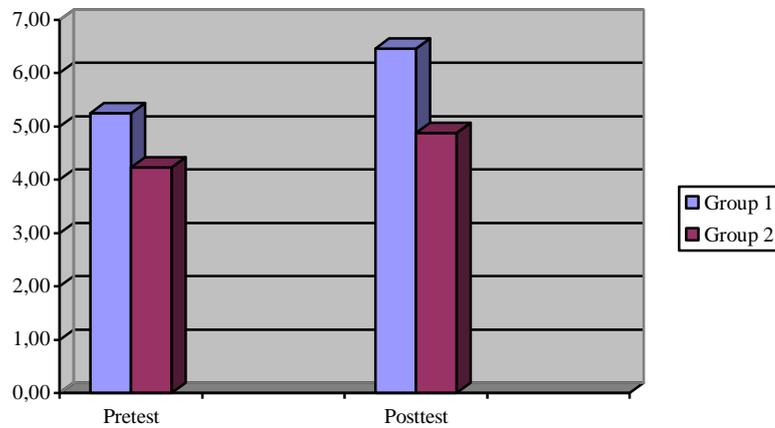


Figure 4.1 The changes in the interpretation test scores from pretest to posttest

As a result, Group 1 and Group 2, which had similar scores on the comprehension test before the instructional intervention, significantly differed on their posttest scores for the comprehension test. This difference was not a minor one, but was a medium sized effect.

4.2 Data Analysis of the Production Test

The second research question asked whether explicit input-based instruction enabled L2 learners to produce noun clauses more effectively than those who did not receive this type of instruction. Since the normality test revealed that Group 1 did not have a normal distribution ($D(18) = 0.250, p < .05$), this time there was a need to use a nonparametric test, namely the Mann-Whitney U test, which has the same function as the independent samples t-test. The pretest data of the production test were submitted to the Mann-Whitney U test to look for a significant difference between the groups at the start of the instructional intervention. As Table 4.3 depicts, the Mann-Whitney U test revealed that there was no significant difference between the performance of the two groups ($U = -1.086, p = .278$) on the production test prior to the instructional intervention.

Table 4.3 Results of the Mann-Whitney U test for the production pretest scores

	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	U	Sig. (2-tailed)
Group 1	15	18,97	284,50	4	-1.086	.278
Group 2	18	15,36	276,50	1		

The results of this Mann-Whitney U test indicated that, as in the results of the interpretation part for pretest, both groups had a similar level of ability in the production of noun clauses, and any significant difference in the posttest results could be attributed to the instructional intervention Group 1 received.

After the analysis of the pretest scores on the production part, results of the posttest on the same part were analysed by using another Mann-Whitney U test in order to determine whether the instructional intervention led to any significant difference between the groups on the production test. The results of this test are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Results of the Mann-Whitney U test for the production posttest scores

	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	U	Sig. (2-tailed)
Group 1	15	20,30	304,50	5	-1.806	.071
Group 2	18	14,25	256,50	1		

According to the results of the Mann-Whitney U test, which can be seen in Table 4.4, there was not a significant difference between the production performance of Group 1 ($Mdn = 5$) and the Group 2 ($Mdn = 1$) after the instructional intervention, $U = -1.806$, $p = .071$. Figure 4.2 below clearly displays the changes in the production scores of both groups.

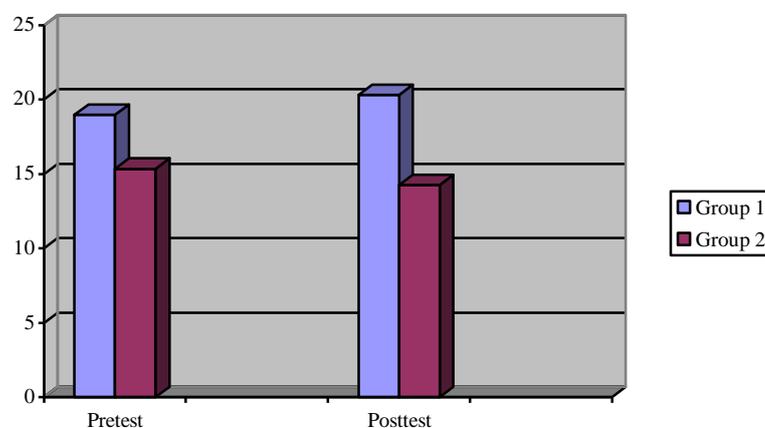


Figure 4.2 The changes in the production test scores from pretest to posttest

Figure 4.1 indicates the changes in the production scores of Group 1 and Group 2 both on the pretest and posttest. The performance levels of Group 1 and Group 2 on the production pretest and posttest were compared with regard to their mean ranks, which can be found in Tables 4.3 and 4.4. As this figure suggests, although there was some increase in the scores of Group 1, which was also observed by the instructor in the regular in-class-written essays of the participants, it was not a statistically significant difference and Group 1 and Group 2 exhibited similar ability in producing noun clauses.

4.3 Data Analysis of the Grammaticality Judgment Test

The third research question of the present study asked whether explicit input-based instruction positively affects L2 learners' explicit knowledge of noun clauses. In order to see if there was a statistical difference between the pretest results of the two groups on the GJT, a Mann-Whitney U test was used since the normality assumption for a t-test was not met. As can be seen in Table 4.5, the results of the Mann-Whitney U test between the pretests for Group 1, which was exposed to explicit input-based instruction) and Group 2, which received no instructional intervention, revealed that there was not a significant difference between the two groups ($U = -.728$, $p = .466$) regarding their knowledge of noun clauses.

Table 4.5 Results of the Mann-Whitney U test for the GJT pretest scores

	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	U	Sig. (2-tailed)
Group 1	15	18,33	275,00	8	-,728	.466
Group 2	18	15,89	286,00	6.5		

The results in Table 4.5 suggest that both groups exhibited similar levels of knowledge on noun clauses, and any possible difference at the end of the instructional intervention cannot be attributed to the difference in the prior knowledge of one of the groups because both groups performed equally on the grammaticality judgments regarding noun clauses.

After the analysis of the GJT pretest scores, in order to determine whether the instructional intervention led to any significant difference between Group 1 and Group 2 in terms of their grammaticality judgments, the results of the GJT posttests were analysed. For this reason, another Mann-Whitney U test was conducted. The results of this test are available in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Results of the Mann-Whitney U test for the GJT posttest scores

	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	U	Sig. (2-tailed)
Group 1	15	21,03	315,50	12	-2.203	.028
Group 2	18	13,64	245,50	6		

According to the results of the Mann-Whitney U test in Table 4.6, there was a significant difference between the GJT posttest scores of the two groups ($U = -2.203$, $p = .028$). Since a statistically significant difference was found, an effect size was also calculated in order to evaluate the magnitude of this difference. The results of this calculation suggested that the effect size of the difference between the two groups on the GJT posttest was at a medium level ($r = -0.38$). The changes in the production scores of both groups from pretest to posttest are illustrated in Figure 4.2.

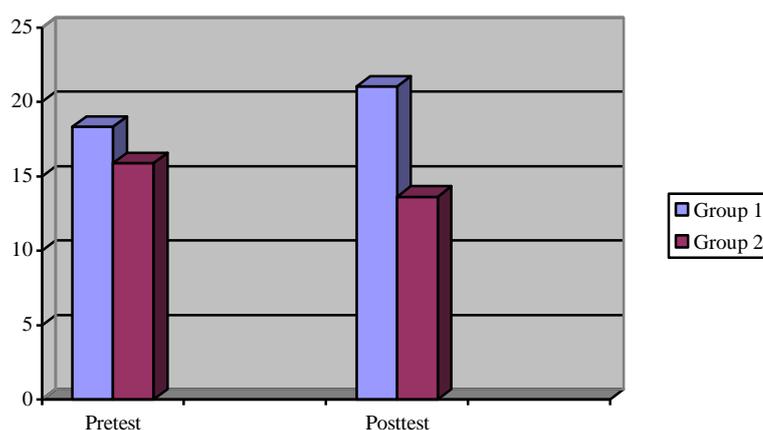


Figure 4.3 The changes in the GJT scores from pretest to posttest

Figure 4.3 reveals the changes in the GJT scores of Group 1 and Group 2 both on the pretest and posttest. The performances of both groups regarding their grammaticality judgments on the GJT pretest and posttest, which were compared with regard to their mean ranks (see Tables 4.5 and 4.6). This figure suggests that the levels of the two groups on the pretests, which were close to each other, turned out to be significantly different on the posttest, having a medium effect size.

In this chapter, the analyses of the data obtained from the pretests and posttests on the interpretation, production, grammaticality judgments of noun clauses were presented. According to the results of the interpretation test which was conducted in Group 1 and Group 2 before and after the explicit input-based instruction, there was a significant difference between the two groups after this instructional intervention with a medium effect size. As far as the results of the production test were concerned, no statistically significant difference was found between Group 1 and Group 2. Finally, the analysis of the data obtained from the pretest GJTs and posttest GJTs revealed a significant difference between the grammaticality judgments of the two groups after the instructional intervention. A detailed discussion of these results is provided in Chapter V.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the results presented in Chapter IV are discussed with reference to the researcher questions. Then, the theoretical and pedagogical implications of the findings the study are dealt with. Finally, the limitations of the current study are tackled, followed by suggestions for future research on form-focused instruction.

5.1 Discussion of the Results

The present study examined the effects of explicit input-based focus on form, a type of form-focused instruction, on the acquisition of an L2 form. In particular, the study concentrated on how the students' explicit knowledge about and how their comprehension and production of noun clauses are affected by structured input activities in combination with explicit explanation and consciousness-raising activities. In order to search for answers to the three research questions asked at the beginning of the study, an interpretation test, a production test, and a grammaticality judgment test were administered as a pretest and a posttest. The interpretation test served as an instrument to test the students' ability of understanding noun clauses at sentence-level. The function of the production test was to evaluate the students' ability to produce noun clauses at sentence-level. The purpose of the grammaticality judgment test was to verify any difference in the students' explicit knowledge of noun clauses. The posttest results were used to determine the extent to which the instructional intervention induced changes in comparison with no-intervention condition.

The first research question was concerned with whether explicit input-based instruction would enable students to comprehend noun clauses more effectively than those who did not receive such kind of instruction. The results of the data coming from the pretest and posttest regarding the interpretation test revealed that the group exposed to explicit input-based instruction performed significantly better ($p = .013$) than the group which did not receive any instruction. This finding is in line with what has been reported in many studies (Benati, 2005). It seems that the students in the instructional intervention group could improve their ability to comprehend noun clauses without going off what the syllabus required. The affectively-oriented and referential structured input activities, as VanPatten (1996) suggested, seem to have pushed learners to stop using their unhelpful strategies for more efficient ones and make better form-meaning connections. However, this improvement has a medium-sized effect ($r = 0.43$). That is, although explicit input-based instruction induced some significant change in the students' comprehension of noun clauses, it was not a very large effect.

As for the second research question pertaining to whether the intervention group's ability to produce could improve from pretest to posttest, the results indicated that there was no significant improvement ($p = .071$) in the students' ability to produce noun clauses at sentence-level. The results obtained from the production test suggest that although explicit input-based instruction seems to have influenced the production of noun clauses to some extent, it could not induce statistically significant changes in the students' ability to produce this structure.

This finding does not seem to be in parallel to that of most studies investigating processing instruction/input-based instruction. The earlier studies (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993; Cadierno, 1995) on the comparison of processing instruction indicated that it led to significant gains for learners in terms of both comprehension and production of structures in question and learners exposed to input processing instruction performed significantly better than the groups of learners who had not received any interventional instruction (i.e. control groups). Besides, when compared with the effects of the traditional instruction (generally based on

mechanical output-based instruction), it was observed that processing instruction induced significantly greater improvements in comprehension and similar or greater improvements in production.

On the other hand, recent research into the differential effects of processing instruction in comparison to output-based instruction has taken into account the meaning orientation in the output practice. In other words, recent studies have shown that meaningful output-based instruction can also be as effective as processing instruction in improving the comprehension and production of target structures (Erlam, 2003; Morgan-Short & Bowden, 2006). Also, it has been seen that meaningful output-based instruction has led to significant gains on a delayed posttest (Morgan-Short & Bowden, 2006) while processing instruction has not produced such a long-term effect. This is interesting in that, in an earlier study, Cantürk (2001) found the opposite in her study; that is, she found that the students who were exposed to input-based instruction maintained their proficiency gains over a period of eight months. This difference can be attributed to the fact that in Cantürk's (2001) study, the students in the output-based instruction group received not only meaningful, but also mechanical output-based practice on the target structures; thus, the instruction they received was not based on purely meaningful production practice.

In relation to these findings from previous research, the present study points to the fact that processing instruction may not lead to improvements in production as significantly as in comprehension.

The last research question of the present study sought to investigate the effects of the explicit input-based instruction on the students' explicit knowledge of noun clauses. The posttest results of the grammaticality judgment test revealed that there was a significant difference ($p = .028$) between the pretest and posttest results of the intervention group, which was a medium-sized effect ($r = -0.38$). The students in this group realized deviations from the acceptable usages of noun clauses, corrected them and verbalized the rule which was violated with these incorrect usages. Although the

students in the input-based instruction group did not receive much intensive or elaborate explanations about the target structure, the students were able to notice the problem with noun clauses, and furthermore, they could write the correct version of the deviations and determine the rule violated. This is noteworthy in that although, in some of the activities in the instructional intervention, learners were aware of that they were learning (inductive explicit explanation and inductive C-R), on the whole, they completed the structured input activities without realizing that they were learning a grammatical feature.

Overall, the results of the current study revealed that explicit input-based instruction proved to be helpful in enhancing the learners' comprehension of the target L2 feature, which is also consistent with what has been found in previous research. In addition, the results of the grammaticality judgment test indicated that this type of instruction promoted the explicit knowledge of L2. However, the effects of explicit input-based instruction on the production of target features could not be verified in the current study. However, the findings of the recent studies reveal that processing instruction can be effective in the production of the L2 forms as well (Morgan-Short & Bowden, 2006). As Benati (2005) states, processing instruction has a potential to change the way learners process input and affect their developing system, and as a result, this facilitates the access to this system for production. Therefore, it would be a premature statement to say that explicit input-based instruction is a not an effective method of inducing changes in how learners produce certain L2 structures.

5.2 Theoretical Implications

The classroom research reported in this study lends support to the efficacy of form-focused instruction, and explicit input-based instruction in particular. This study attempted to address the general question how the grammatical weaknesses of university-level learners studying in their departments can be ameliorated without interfering with the ongoing the curriculum activities. The results of the present study point to the role of language activities that allow students to make form-meaning connections. The students were asked to do activities which required them

to process the target language form to complete the activity successfully. These activities, accompanied with explanations, brought about significant gains for the students receiving explicit input-based instruction in terms of comprehending the target form. As a result, the argument that processing instruction facilitates the interpretation of the input was confirmed in this current study, too.

On the other hand, it was seen that input-based instruction geared to the input-processing principles of learners did not prove to be effective in terms of improving the students' production of noun clauses, unlike their interpretation of this structure. However, this result is not sufficient to conclude that processing instruction is not as effective for promoting productive ability of learners as improving their comprehension of certain structures. Although the findings from research pertaining to the effectiveness of input-based/processing instruction are varied, some recent studies provide verification for the influence of processing instruction in helping learners have productive gains. Indeed, although not significant, an increase in the students' scores on the production test was observed, which can be considered encouraging. Therefore, there is still a need for further investigation of the role of input-based instruction in the output of the learners. Also, it is essential to compare the effects of input-based instruction with those of both mechanical output-based and meaningful output-based instruction in order to draw more sensible conclusions.

The development of L2 learners' interlanguage does not stop and, indeed, it is U-shaped. No matter in what level the learners are studying, there can be benefits to drawing learners' attention to the formal features of language. As has been mentioned previously in this study, language learners are continuously developing hypotheses and they are testing their hypotheses through their spoken or written production. However, as language is a huge system, learners may not have opportunity to test all of their linguistic hypotheses, and thus, they need to be shown that some of their processing strategies inherent in these hypotheses do not correspond to those needed to process L2 input effectively (VanPatten, 1996).

5.3 Pedagogical Implications

This study is based on a real classroom practice and provides a description of what effects form-focused instruction has generated in an EFL classroom at the level of higher education. Therefore, there are some implications which have a direct relation to the teaching practices of researcher of the present study, who is also teaching in the context where the research has been conducted. At the start of the research process, observing that the students taking courses from DELSU at Atılım University were in need of immediate help in some structural aspects of English served as an impetus for the researcher to decide to investigate the effectiveness of the form-focused instruction, more specifically the input-based instruction. The results confirmed the researcher's personal hypotheses to some extent. That is, this target profile of EFL learners would benefit from input-based form-focused instruction, and teachers need to strive for creating opportunities for learners to work out how certain problematic target language features operate.

One of the major pedagogical implications of input-based instruction is the way it is reported in this study. Nevertheless, the present study has also revealed that input-based instruction may not produce significant improvements in the production of noun clauses in short term. This may have some pedagogical implication in that in order for learners to become fluent users of certain structures, they may need to produce these structures. That is, exposing them to meaningful input, although it contains opportunities to connect form and meaning may not be enough to enable them to use these structures successfully.

However, when considered from the learners' perspective, form-focused instruction in the way it was conducted in the present study, that is, by using inductive techniques and consciousness-raising, can be beneficial for developing autonomy. Ellis (2002) claims that this kind of grammar leaning "can lead to powerful insights about the grammar of a language that cannot be found in any published descriptions" (p.165). Similarly, it is stated that learners can develop responsibility for their

learning. This is likely to result in more conscious effort and progress and influence the motivation of the learners (Suzuki, 2007).

In the same vein, the results of the grammaticality judgment test in the present study revealed that the students could significantly increase their ability to identify and correct non-targetlike usages of noun clauses and verbalize the rule violated. This finding points to the fact that input-based instruction may be of great help in making students realize their own errors particularly in writing and adopt useful self-editing skills.

Given the fact that the learners are in need of developing a linguistic repertoire, which they can use to express themselves effectively, teacher education programs should equip prospective teachers with the ability to utilize a variety of focus-on-form options in order to cater for the formal deficiencies of their learners in a specific context. The consciousness of student teachers can be raised in terms of in what ways grammar teaching can be done with reference to the findings of recent research findings. In order to accomplish this, however, they need to understand what stages a L2 learner goes through. Flowerdew (1998) suggested a method which was considered to be effective in having future teachers recognize the L2 learning processes.

According to this method, in order to help teacher trainees understand how language is learned and how it should be taught, foreign language courses were offered to them. In these courses, they both learned a foreign language and reflected on how they learned this language. Flowerdew (1998) reported on the language learning reflections of students enrolled in part of the preservice BATESL program at City University of Hong Kong. In these reflections, which were a part of the requirements of this program, student teachers wrote what kind of difficulties they had while learning German, French, or Spanish. In some cases, after they were exposed to a variety of grammar teaching techniques, they were asked to reflect on different methods of grammar instruction. In this way, they gained some insight into how they could organize grammar teaching activities in a L2 classroom.

In addition, the teachers who already have some experience in language teaching should also be given opportunities (via in-service teacher development programs) for sharing their own classroom experiences of grammar teaching. This is invaluable in that they can see what techniques are especially effective in their particular context. Also, teachers should be encouraged to reflect on what they do and what factors need to be considered while teaching grammar because they are those who can only know the most necessary option in their situation. In relation to this, Ellis (1999) stated the following:

In language instruction, as in other educational domains, too much practice has been on a naïve operationalization of theory. The classroom is a long way from the laboratory. It is even further from the academic journal. Instructional practices, however well informed by theory, need to be evaluated, assessed, and refined in everyday practice. (p.36)

Another point is that materials writers may be expected to be more sensitive to the findings from SLA research and try to generate materials in which how learners process input is taken into account. As Ellis (2002) states, the instructional options that are viewed as effective in promoting L2 acquisition within the SLA theory and research have been neglected by the materials writers. However, this does not mean that all materials should contain input-processing tasks or grammar discovery activities, but they can allow for experimentation of these options by the teachers to see the effects themselves.

5.4 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

In the current study, the linguistic gains of university learners of English as a foreign language who received explicit input-based instruction was examined by comparing their pretest and posttest scores on a grammaticality judgment test, interpretation test and a production test with those of a group of learners who did not receive any instructional intervention.

Needless to say, the size of sample population was small. Therefore, the findings obtained in this study cannot be generalized with full confidence. In addition, the researcher, who was also an instructor in the institution, had no chance of having one more class at the same level due to the institutional reasons. However, in order to have a better insight the differences between different options of form-focused instruction, there is a need to have more groups of learners exposed to different instructional intervention. If such an opportunity had been available, a comparison between implicit input-based and explicit input-based instruction or between input-based instruction and output-based instruction could have been made. As well comparing more instructional methods, the acquisition of more target structures could also have been compared so as to see the effects of form-focused instruction on the teaching of different structures, preferably in varying complexity. Such kind of research designs would produce more findings to ponder upon.

One limitation was the possibility of the practice effect. As DeKeyser and Sokalski (1996) maintain, since the same tests were used for the pretests and posttests, the students had some familiarity of the items in each test and this could influence some of the students' responses.

Another limitation of the present study can be that it did not examine the long-term effects of explicit input-based instruction. The significant short-term effects on the interpretation ability of the students could have decreased if a delayed posttest was carried out. Therefore, our discussion is, unfortunately, limited to short-term effects. According to Sharwood-Smith, "thirty years of research has not produced any really hard evidence that making people aware of formal features of the second language has any significant long-term effect on their grammatical development" (2008, p.1). Therefore, the research designs need to be improved by the inclusion of delayed posttest so as to reach reasonable conclusions.

In the present study, the effects of form-focused instruction on only the explicit knowledge of learners could be observed. However, in order to get an understanding of the effects of explicit input-based instruction and processing instruction on the

implicit knowledge of the learners, special measures designed to test the changes in their implicit knowledge should be used. One way of testing this can be analyzing their essays in order to see the frequency and accuracy of the uses of target structure.

In the light of the results and the limitations discussed above, the present study points to some directions for further investigation of form-focused instruction. Possible research questions may include the following:

- Does explicit input-based instruction lead to retention of target structures in long term?
- Does explicit input-based instruction enable learners to produce target structures more effectively than learners who do not receive such kind of instruction? If so, can learners maintain their retention in long term?
- Do meaningful output-based instruction and explicit input-based instruction lead to similar amount of improvement in the comprehension and production of target structures?
- Does input-based instruction lead to the development of the learners' implicit knowledge of L2 forms?

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: THE GRAMMATICALITY JUDGMENT TEST

Aşağıda 25 cümle görmektesiniz. Bu cümlelerin bazılarında bir dilbilgisi hatası bulunmaktadır. Her bir cümleyi dikkatli bir şekilde okuyup;

- cümlenin doğru olup olmadığını yazın,
- cümle hatalı ise doğrusunu yazın ve
- hatalı olduğunu düşündüğünüz cümlede uyulmamış olan İngilizce dilbilgisi kuralını yazın.

Lütfen tüm cevaplarınızı Türkçe yazın. Okuduğunuz cümlelerin hatasız olduğunu düşünüyorsanız b ve c şıklarını boş bırakın.

1. I didn't go to dinner with them because I had already been eaten.
 - a)
 - b)
 - c)
2. What he does is a secret.
 - a)
 - b)
 - c)
3. Husbands cannot understand how can a woman be superior.
 - a)
 - b)
 - c)
4. Whether Harry is happy in his new job not known.
 - a)
 - b)
 - c)
5. Mr. Adams insists that we be careful in our writing.
 - a)
 - b)
 - c)
6. Sam wants to know whether the sound travels faster than light.
 - a)
 - b)
 - c)
7. It is essential that you don't be late.
 - a)
 - b)
 - c)

8. Why do people dislike their jobs is often predictable.
 - a)
 - b)
 - c)
9. Ann was handed a menu at the restaurant.
 - a)
 - b)
 - c)
10. The little boy wants to know whether or not is there a Santa Claus.
 - a)
 - b)
 - c)
11. I will ask them how are their lives going on.
 - a)
 - b)
 - c)

12. She demanded that I had to tell her the truth.
a)
b)
c)
13. I wonder will people be able to communicate with dolphins some day.
a)
b)
c)
14. I am not sure how many people there are at the meeting.
a)
b)
c)
15. I am frustrated by my inability to understand spoken English.
a)
b)
c)
16. Tell the taxi driver where do you want to go.
a)
b)
c)
17. Which of the candidates will get the job will be announced at 3 o'clock.
a)
b)
c)
18. Ms. Adams wants to know if will you be in class tomorrow.
a)
b)
c)
19. What does a patient tell a doctor is confidential.
a)
b)
c)
20. I would like to write about several problems I faced since I came here.
a)
b)
c)
21. It is vital that no one else must know about the secret government opinion.
a)
b)
c)
22. He asked her who had given the nickname Maya.
a)
b)
c)

23. I recommended that she not go to the concert.
a)
b)
c)
24. The city where we spent our vacation was beautiful.
a)
b)
c)
25. I need to find out how old does a person have to be to get a driver's licence.
a)
b)
c)

(Source: Cantürk, 2001)

APPENDIX B: THE INTERPRETATION AND PRODUCTION TESTS

(Interpretation Test)

PART A

Instruction: Listen to the sentences including indirect questions read by the teacher and circle the alternative (**a**, **b** or **c**) indicating the direct question.

1. a) How much time Joe spends on his homework?
b) How much time Joe did spend on his homework?
c) How much time does Joe spend on his homework?
2. a) Can you meet me at the airport?
b) Could you meet me at the airport?
c) Can I meet him at the airport?

3. a) Why had dinosaurs become extinct?
b) Why dinosaurs became extinct?
c) Why did dinosaurs become extinct?
4. a) Do they cancel the last flight?
b) Will they cancel the last flight?
c) Will the last flight be canceled?
5. a) Will you ever quit smoking?
b) Would you ever quit smoking?
c) Will I ever quit smoking?
6. a) Where have they intended to meet?
b) Where do they intend to meet?
c) Where they intend to meet?
7. a) Did I leave my previous job?
b) Did you leave your previous job?
c) Had I left my previous job?
8. a) How can we get there?
b) How we can get there?
c) How could we get there?
9. a) Do you hand your homework?
b) Did she hand her homework?
c) Did you hand your homework?
10. a) How he gets the money?
b) How did he get the money?
c) How does he get the money?

Sentences to Be Heard

1. How much time Joe spends on his homework doe not concern me.
2. He wanted to learn whether I could meet him at the airport.
3. Why dinosaurs became extinct is well worth searching.
4. Whether they will cancel the last flight will be announced soon.
5. My mother wonders if I will ever quit smoking.
6. I haven't the slightest idea where they intend to meet.
7. She wanted to know if I had left my previous job.
8. How we can get there is really a mystery.
9. Joe asked Mary whether or not she had handed her homework.
10. How he gets the money is his own affair.

(Distraction Part)

PART B

Instruction: Complete this text with each of the verbs given in parenthesis in the correct tense and the passive form.

Have you ever thought about the fact that your home could **(1. break into)**? If you live in an inner city for five years, your house is likely **(2. burgle)** at least once, according to the statistics recently released. What should you do in case of break-in? First, you have any suspicions that burglars are still inside your home, don't go in; phone the police from a neighbor's house immediately. If you open the door to the living room and realize that you **(3. burgle)**, phone the police first and then make a list of everything that **(4. take)**. Try not to disturb anything – the police will ensure that a check **(5. make)** for fingerprints as soon as they arrive. **

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

(Production Test)

PART C

Instruction: By looking at the pictures complete the sentences according to the questions given.

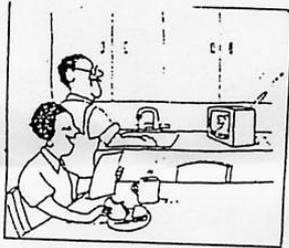
(1)



- She wanted to know -----

(2)

Larry: Will they be traveling to Italy soon?
Sally: Yes, next weekend.



- Larry asks Sally -----

(3)

Whom is this man writing the letter to?
Obviously, we can not know that!



- ----- is not known.

(4)



- The boy on the phone asked

(5)

Does she enjoy reading the newspaper?



- is obvious in the picture.

(6)

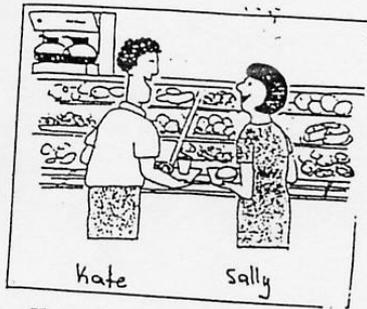
Where are these people looking at?



- is very difficult to guess.

(7)

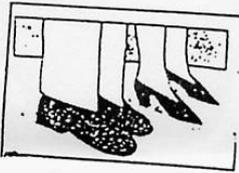
Kate: Do you like the food in this cafeteria?
Sally: Yes, I do.



- Kate asked Sally -----

(8)

Are those expensive shoes?



- ----- can not be understood by looking at the picture.

(9)



- The boy asks the girl -----

(10)

Don: How much money does she make per month?

Carol: Nobody knows that; it is a mystery.



• ----- is a mystery.

(Source: Cantürk, 2001)

APPENDIX C: LESSON 1

Pre-reading

Students are asked to look at a picture in their coursebooks.

1. Look at the photograph. Where was this photograph taken? Who are the four women? Why are they there? Who are the two people sitting down? Who is the woman pointing to? Why?
2. What kinds of evidence are used to convict criminals? In small groups, use the chart below to make a list of the kinds of evidence used to convict criminals for the crimes listed.
3. In your country, what kinds of evidence are used to convict criminals for these crimes?
4. In your country, is eye witness's testimony important in convicting criminals?
5. In your opinion, what kinds of people make reliable eyewitnesses? Why?

Crime	Murder	Bank Robbery	Mugging
Types of Evidence			

While-Reading

Read the passage below and answer the following questions.

The Reliability of Eyewitnesses

Bernard Jackson is a free man today, but he has many bitter memories. Jackson spent five years in prison after a jury wrongly convicted him of raping two women. At Jackson's trial, although two witnesses testified that Jackson was with them in another location at the times of the crimes, he was convicted anyway. Why? The jury believed the testimony of the two victims, who positively identified Jackson as the man who had attacked them. The court eventually freed Jackson after the police found the man who really committed the crimes. Jackson was similar in appearance to the guilty man. The two women had made a mistake in identity. As a result, Jackson has lost five years of his life.

The two women in this case were eyewitnesses. They clearly saw the man who attacked them, yet they mistakenly identified an innocent person. Similar incidents have occurred before. Eyewitnesses to other crimes have identified the wrong person in a police lineup or in photographs.

Many factors influence the accuracy of eyewitness testimony. For instance, witnesses sometimes see photographs of several suspects before they try to identify the person they saw in a lineup of people. They can become confused by seeing many photographs or similar faces. The number of people in the lineup, and whether it is a live lineup or a photograph, may also affect a witness's decision. People sometimes have difficulty identifying people of other races. The questions the police ask witnesses also have an effect on them.

Are some witnesses more reliable than others? Many people believe that police officers are more reliable than ordinary people. Psychologists decided to test this idea, and they discovered that it is not true. Two psychologists showed a film of crimes to both police officers and civilians. The psychologists found no difference between the police and civilians in correctly remembering the details of crimes.

Despite all the possibilities for inaccuracy, courts cannot exclude eyewitness testimony from a trial. American courts depend almost completely on eyewitness testimony to resolve court cases. Sometimes it is the only evidence to a crime, such as rape. Furthermore, eyewitness testimony is often correct. Although people do sometimes make mistakes, many times they really do identify individuals correctly.

American courts depend on the ability of 12 jurors, and not the judges, to determine the accuracy of the witness's testimony. It is their responsibility to decide if a certain witness could actually see, hear, and remember what occurred.

In a few cases, the testimony of eyewitnesses has convicted innocent people. More importantly, it has rightly convicted a larger number of guilty people; consequently, it continues to be of great value in the American judicial system.

A. Fact-Finding

Read the following statements. Check whether they are True or False. If a statement is false, rewrite the statement so that it is true. Then go back to the passage and find the line that supports your answer.

- | | |
|-------------------------|--|
| 1. ____ True ____ False | Bernard Jackson went to jail for five years because he was guilty. |
| 2. ____ True ____ False | Bernard Jackson looked like the guilty man, but he was innocent. |
| 3. ____ True ____ False | The eyewitnesses in Jackson's trial were wrong. |
| 4. ____ True ____ False | Some witnesses become confused when they see too many photographs of similar people. |
| 5. ____ True ____ False | Police officers are better witnesses than ordinary people. |
| 6. ____ True ____ False | American courts depend a lot on eyewitness testimony. |
| 7. ____ True ____ False | The judge must decide if a witness's story is accurate. |

B. Information Recall

Answer the following questions according to the text.

1. Why did Bernard Jackson go to prison? Was he guilty?
2. At Jackson's trial, what did the two witnesses testify? Did the jury believe the two witnesses?
3. Why did the victims identify Jackson as the man who had attacked them?
4. What are some factors that affect eyewitness testimony?
5.
 - a. Are the police officers better witnesses than ordinary people?
 - b. How did psychologists test this idea?
6. Why is eyewitness testimony important in an American court?
7. In an American court, who decides if the eyewitness testify testimony is correct or not? Why is eyewitness testimony a valuable part of the American judicial system?

Post-Reading

C. Summary Writing

Work in pairs or alone. Write a brief summary of the reading, and put it on the blackboard. Compare your summary with your classmates'. Which one best describes the main idea of the reading?

D. Vocabulary in Context

bitter	guilty	similar
civilian	innocent	testimony
despite	mistake	victims
evidence		

Read the following sentences. Complete each blank space with correct word from the list above. Use each word only once.

1. John was in the army for two years. At the end of his military service, he was happy to become a _____ again.
2. Last week, an armed robber shot two men when he robbed the City Bank. Afterwards, an ambulance took the two _____ to the hospital.
3. Tommy stole a car, but the police caught and arrested him. Because Tommy was _____, he went to prison for six months.
4. Kathy saw the two men who robbed City Bank. As a result of her _____ in court, the two men were convicted and put into prison.
5. When the police investigate a crime, they look for _____, such as fingerprints, footprints, hair, and clothing.
6. Mr. Michaels worked for the same company for 25 years. Six months before retiring, he lost his job, and he couldn't find another one. He has become very _____ towards his old company.
7. Many people believed that Ronald had murdered his wife, but he was _____.
8. _____ the cold weather, Kay went to work without her coat.
9. Chris and his brother look very _____. They are both tall and thin, and both have light hair and blue eyes.
10. The waitress made a _____. She gave me coffee, but I had ordered tea.

* **Smith, L.C. & Mare, N.N. (2004). *Issues for Today* (3rd ed.). Boston, Massachusetts: Thomson & Heinle. (Chapter 8)**

NOTE: This is students' course book and all these activities are already available in this book.

- **Instead of the post-reading activities above, the experimental group received the following activities.**

Instructional Intervention Session A

AIM : To raise students' awareness of why noun clauses are used and enable them to recognize the functions of noun clauses in sentences.

(a) Inductive Explicit Information

- Finding evidence in the text

The teacher asks the following questions orally and tells the students to underline the sentences which contain the answers to these questions.

1. What did the two witnesses testify?
2. What are the factors that affect the eyewitness testimony?
3. What do many people think about the reliability of some witnesses?
4. What did psychologists test? What did they discover?
5. What is the responsibility of 12 jurors at American courts?

*** Prepared by the researcher**

- Noticing Noun Clauses

The students underline the sentences which include the answers to these questions. Then the teacher shows these sentences through OHP and asks several questions to elicit information about the functions of noun clauses from the students.

The functions of noun clauses to be elicited are as in the following:

- a. Noun clauses as subject of the sentence (in sentence 2)
- b. Noun clauses as the object of the verb (in sentences 1, 3, 4, 5)

The sentences to be underlined are:

1. At Jackson's trial, although two witnesses testified that Jackson was with them in another location at the times of the crimes, he was convicted anyway.
2. The number of people in the lineup, and whether it is a live lineup or a photograph, may also affect a witness's decision.
3. Many people believe that police officers are more reliable than ordinary people.
4. Psychologists decided to test this idea, and they discovered that it is not true.
5. It is their responsibility to decide if a certain witness could actually see, hear, and remember what occurred.

(b) Affectively-oriented structured input

Then the teacher distributes another handout. She asks the students to read the following statements on the handout and decide which ones apply to them.

Each sentence below is about something that you might do to your parents. Check which ones apply to you. Then compare your responses with a classmate.

- 1. I tell my parents what time I will be back home when I go out.
- 2. Whether I have problems or not is always known by my parents.
- 3. I hardly ever explain them what I like or dislike.
- 4. I always ask them what kind of plans they have about my future.
- 5. I never tell my parents if I am broke when I am away from home.

*** Cantürk, 2001, p.119**

APPENDIX D: LESSON 2

Pre-Reading

1. What kind of work do archeologists perform?
2. What do archeologists study in order to learn about the past?
3. What can archeological discoveries tell us about the past?
4. Where would you find ancient air?
5. How can ancient air help us learn about the past? About the future?

While-Reading

Read the passage below and answer the following questions.

Ancient Artifacts and Ancient Air

Archeologists made an exciting discovery in Egypt in 1954. During an excavation near the base of the Great Pyramid, they uncovered an ancient crypt. Although they believed that this discovery would help us understand Egypt's past, they also hoped that it would give us important information about the future.

This crypt was a tomb, or burial place, for a dead Egyptian pharaoh, or king. Historians believed that the Egyptians buried their pharaohs with two boats: one to carry the body and the other to carry the soul. This was one of their religious customs about death. The archeologists expected to find two boats inside the crypt. As they broke the crypt open, they smelled the scent of wood. The ancient Egyptians had sealed the room so effectively that the aroma of the cedar wood was still preserved. Inside the crypt, archeologists found a 4,600-year-old boat that was in almost perfect condition. In addition, they found another closed room next to the crypt. Archeologists and historians believed that this chamber contained the second boat. If so, archeologists would have better information about the past. They would be sure about the religious custom of burying pharaohs with two boats.

However, this was not the only information they hoped to find. They wondered if the air in the two rooms contained something special that helped to preserve the wood. This information could help in the preservation of ancient artifacts in museums throughout the world. Researchers also hoped to find some answers about the future by carefully examining the air in the second chamber. When the archeologists opened the first chamber, all the old air escaped. Scientists wanted to recover the air in the second chamber, compare it with the air of the present, and then examine the differences, especially differences in the level of carbon dioxide (CO₂). This information might help them predict changes in the air in the future. They also did not want outside air to get inside the chamber. Careful planning would be necessary in order to open the second room and save the air. In fact, it took years to plan the excavation and to design and make the equipment necessary to open the chamber and collect the air inside.

Finally, in October 1986 an international team of scientists, using special equipment, drilled through the roof of the chamber. The hole they made was kept carefully sealed. As they broke into the ancient room, they realized that the chamber

was not sealed. They took an air sample. The air inside was the same as the air outside. The scientists were very disappointed. However, they continued working to see what was inside the chamber. The team lowered a light and a camera into the small hole, and looked at the interior of the room on a television monitor. The second boat was really there!

After the scientists took samples of the air inside the chamber and photographed it completely, they sealed up the hole in the roof and left the room as they had found it. Although they did not get samples of 4,600-year-old air, they did confirm the Egyptian custom of burying pharaohs with two boats. More importantly, they practiced a new, nondestructive approach to archeology: investigate an ancient location, photograph it, and leave it untouched. When archeologists opened the first chamber, they removed the boat. The Egyptian government built a museum on the site for the first boat. During the construction of the museum, the vibrations from the heavy machinery disturbed the second room and probably destroyed the seal. Water leaked in, too, so the second boat as not well persevered as the first boat.

The investigation of the second chamber taught archeologists a valuable lesson. New excavations will not use modern technology, but they will also follow the idea of preserving the entire location for future studies.

A. Fact-Finding

Read the following statements. Check whether they are True or False. If a statement is false, rewrite the statement so that it is true. Then go back to the passage and find the line that supports your answer.

1. ____ True ____ False

Archeological discoveries give us information about the past.

2. ____ True ____ False

Archeologists recently discovered a body in a crypt in Egypt.

3. ____ True ____ False

Archeologists found a boat in the second crypt near the Great Pyramids.

4. ____ True ____ False

Archeologists have not opened the second room yet.

5. ____ True ____ False

There is no old air left in the second chamber.

6. ____ True ____ False

The investigation team went inside the second chamber.

7. ____ True ____ False

The Egyptian government is going to put the second boat in a museum.

B. Information Recall

Answer the following questions according to the text.

1. Where and when did archeologists discover the crypt?

2. What was the purpose of the crypt?
3. What is an ancient Egyptian religious custom about death?
4. Why was the second chamber so important to historians?
5. How did researchers hope to find answers about the future in the second chamber?
6. a. Why did it take such a long time before the team opened the second chamber?
 b. How was the excavation of the second chamber different from the excavation of the first chamber?
7. How did the air in the second chamber escape?
8. What did the team do after they opened and photographed the second chamber?

Post-Reading

C. Summary Writing

Work in pairs or alone. Write a brief summary of the reading. Then compare your summary with your classmates'. Which one best describes the main idea of the reading?

D. Vocabulary in Context

although	excavation	in fact	recover
custom	if so	predict	sealed
discovered	in addition	recover	

Read the following sentences. Complete each blank space with correct word from the list above. Use each word only once.

1. _____ I am sick, I can't stay home. I have to go to work anyway.
2. Debbie is doing very well in college. _____, she got 100% on her last five tests and an A+ on her research paper.

3. In the United States, it is a _____ for people to shake hands when they first meet.
4. Today, bottles and cans in stores are carefully _____ to prevent air and germs from getting inside.
5. The supermarket may be open late tonight. _____, I will go shopping after work instead of early tomorrow morning.
6. During the _____ of an old building, construction workers found some ancient artifacts.
7. English students must study grammar. _____, they must study reading, writing, and listening comprehension.
8. Tommy left his sweater in the cafeteria. Fortunately, he was able to _____ it at the Lost and Found Office.
9. Some people go to fortune tellers, who use cards in order to _____ what the future will be.
10. Christopher Columbus _____ America in 1492. Before Columbus found America, most people did not know about its existence.

* **Smith, L.C. & Mare, N.N. (2004). *Issues for Today* (3rd ed.). Boston, Massachusetts: Thomson & Heinle. (Chapter 10)**

- **Instead of the post-reading activities above, the experimental group received the following activities.**

Instructional Intervention Session C

AIM: To raise students' awareness of the difference between noun clauses for statements and noun clauses for questions and enable them to differentiate between noun clauses for wh- questions and yes-no questions.

(a) Structured Input (Referential Activity)

The teacher gives a handout to the students in the treatment group. In this handout students are given a list of sentences which belong to the scientists (archeologists and historians). However, the sentences are not given in the correct order, so students are asked to put the sentences in the order which appears in the text. They are also asked to underline the sentence they have found the answer. The handout reads as in the following:

These sentences belong to scientists (archeologists and historians) (they are the direct sentences of these people). However, they are not in the correct order. Read the text again and put the sentences in the correct order according to the text. Please underline the part you have found your answer.**

- _____ a. Does the air in the two rooms contain something special?
- _____ b. The chamber is not sealed.
- _____ c. This discovery will help us understand Egypt's past, but it will give us important information about the future.
- _____ d. This chamber contains something special.
- _____ e. What is inside the chamber?
- _____ f. The Egyptians buried their pharaohs with two boats.

*** Prepared by the researcher**

When the students finish, the teacher reflects the text on the wall by OHP and elicits the answers from them and underlines the places where students think the answers are. The underlined sentences are (in the correct order):

1. Although they believed that this discovery would help us understand Egypt's past, they also hoped that it would give us important information about the future.
2. Historians believed that the Egyptians buried their pharaohs with two boats: one to carry the body and the other to carry the soul.
3. Archeologists and historians believed that this chamber contained the second boat.
4. They wondered if the air in the two rooms contained something special that helped to preserve the wood.
5. As they broke into the ancient room, they realized that the chamber was not sealed.
6. However, they continued working to see what was inside the chamber.

The teacher asks students to tell the subjects and objects of the sentences (This is to revise and reinforce the previously studied topic).

(b) Inductive Explicit Information

Then the teacher asks students the difference between the noun clauses in these sentences and asks several questions to elicit information about how noun clauses are used for expressing statements and questions (the connecting words- i.e. that, who, which, what, how, where, whether, if, etc- are discussed). She also makes students tell the difference between noun clauses used for wh- questions and yes-no questions (whether / if). At this point, the direct questions and their noun clause

expressions in the text are compared. Also the students' attention is drawn to the change in the word order.

(c) Affectively-oriented Structured Input Activity

After this inductive consciousness-raising, students are given a handout which requires them to respond to given statements personally. So they indicate whether the given statement is true for them or not. The handout is like the following:

Read the following statements and indicate whether or not each statement applies to you by checking "true" or "not true".

1. Whether or not I am having financial problems in a foreign city where I study should be known by all my relatives.
2. I don't mind telling everybody if I attempt to cheat during exams.
3. Whether I will get married before I graduate or not is my, not my parents', decision.
4. Faculty administration should ask students whether they want to take role in faculty related decisions.
5. It is important for me to know if the people around me have good income.

***Cantürk, 2001, p.103**

APPENDIX E: LESSON 3

Pre-Reading

1. Have you ever applied for a job and had an interview for it?
2. If you had one, how did you feel?
3. What type of questions were you asked?
4. What questions can be asked in job interviews and what cannot be asked?

*** Prepared by the researcher**

While-Reading

Read the passage below and answer the following questions.

Stress Interview

A few weeks ago, Melissa Morrow had an unusual job interview. First, the interviewer asked Melissa why she couldn't work under pressure. Before she could answer, he asked if she had cleaned out her car recently. Then he wanted to know who had written her application letter for her. Melissa was shocked, but she handled herself well. She asked the interviewer whether he was going to ask her serious questions. Then she politely ended the interview.

Melissa had had a stress interview, a type of job interview that features tough, tricky questions, long silences, and negative evaluations of the candidate. To the candidate, this strategy may seem like unnecessary nastiness on the part of the interviewer. However, some positions require an ability to handle just this kind of pressure. If there is an accident in a nuclear power plant, for example, the plant's public relations officer must remain poised when unfriendly reporters ask how the accident could have occurred.

The hostile atmosphere of a stress interview gives the employer a chance to watch a candidate react to pressure. In one case, the interviewer ended each interview by telling the candidate, "We're really not sure that you're the right person for this job." One very promising candidate asked the interviewer angrily if he was sure he knew how to conduct an interview. She clearly could not handle the pressure she would encounter as a television news anchor – the job she was interviewing for.

Stress questioning has its limitations, however. It's an appropriate technique only for positions which feature extreme on-the-job pressure. Accountants, secretaries, and computer programmers all experience job pressures, but not enough to merit a stress interview. Even when the job warrants it, this strategy can backfire and alienate good candidates. Melissa Morrow came through her interview with flying colors but later asked herself if she really wanted to work for that company. Her answer was no.

A word of warning to job candidates: Not all tough questioning constitutes a legitimate stress interview. Some questions are just illegal unless the answers are directly related to the job. If your interviewer asks how old you are, whether you are married, or how much you owe, you can refuse to answer. If you think a question is improper, you should ask the interviewer how the answer specifically relates to that job. If you don't get a satisfactory explanation, you don't have to answer the question.

When an interviewer introduces pressure to create a reaction, it's easy to lose your composure. Remember that all interviews create stress. If you expect it and learn to control your response, you can remain poised, even in a stress interview.

* Fuchs, M. & Bonner, M. (1995). *Focus on Grammar*. London: Longman.

A. Information Recall

Answer the following questions according to the text.

1. Why was Melissa shocked in the job interview?
2. How did Melissa manage to handle the interview?
3. What is a stress interview?
4. Why do companies prefer to make stress interviews?
5. For which jobs is a stress interview used?
6. Are interviewers free to ask any kind of questions? Why? Why not?
7. How can a person deal with stress in interviews?

* Prepared by the researcher

B. Guessing meaning from context

The following are the definitions of some words from the text. Find the words in the text which match the given definitions. Search for the words in the given paragraph.

- a. behaving or speaking extremely unkindly, and unpleasantly (**para.2**): _____ (noun)
- b. behaving in a calm, confident way, and able to control your feelings and reactions (**para.2**): _____ (adjective)
- c. to carry out a particular process, especially in order to get information or prove facts (**para.3**): _____
- d. to do something that makes someone unfriendly or unwilling to support you (**para.4**): _____
- e. correct and allowable according to law (**para.5**): _____
- f. unacceptable according to the normal standards of moral, social, or professional behavior (**para.5**): _____
- g. calm feeling which you have when you feel confident about dealing with a situation (**para.6**): _____ (noun)

*Prepared by the researcher

Post-reading

C. Summary Writing

Work in pairs or alone. Write a brief summary of the reading. Then compare your summary with your classmates'. Which one best describes the main idea of the reading?

In addition to these activities, the control group keeps following the schedule.

- Instead of the post-reading activities above, the experimental group received the following activities.

Instructional Intervention Session C

AIM: To raise students' awareness of changes in indirect questions such as tense changes, pronoun changes and word order changes

(a) Inductive C-R Task

Instruction: The following sentences are taken from the text you have read. As you see, they contain noun clauses; actually they are all indirect questions. Your teacher is going to read their direct forms. However, some of these direct questions are not grammatically correct. So decide whether the question your teacher reads is correct or incorrect, and for each question, check the relevant box below.

Indirect and Direct Questions	Correct	Incorrect
1. The interviewer asked Melissa why she couldn't work under pressure. Direct Question:?		
2. He asked if she had cleaned out her car recently. Direct Question:?		
3. He wanted to know who had written her application		

letter for her. Direct Question:		
4. She asked the interviewer whether he was going to ask her serious questions. Direct Question:		
5. Unfriendly reporters ask how the accident could have occurred. Direct Question:		
6. One very promising candidate asked the interviewer angrily if he was sure he knew how to conduct an interview. Direct Question:		
7. Melissa asked herself if she really wanted to work for that company. Direct Question:		
8. Your interviewer asks how old you are. Direct Question:		
9. Your interviewer asks whether you are married. Direct Question:		
10. Your interviewer asks how much money you owe. Direct Question:		
11. You should ask the interviewer how the answer specifically relates to that job. Direct question:		

*** Prepared by the researcher**

Students will hear the following questions.

1. Why can't she work under pressure?
2. Have you cleaned your car recently?
3. Who has written her application letter for her?
4. Are you going to ask me serious questions?
5. How the accident could have occurred?
6. Are you sure you know how to conduct an interview?
7. Did I really want work for that company?
8. How old are you?
9. Are you married?
10. How much money you owe?
11. How does the answer specifically relate to that job?

The teacher reflects these questions through OHP, written just below the indirect questions. She elicits the answers from the students. While doing this, she asks them to justify their answers and explain the rule behind their answers. In the end students see the correct versions of the questions.

The answer key for the activity:

1. Incorrect → Why can't you work under pressure? (pronoun mistake)
2. Correct
3. Incorrect → Who has written your application letter for you? (pronoun mistake)
4. Correct
5. Incorrect → How could the accident have occurred? (word order mistake)
6. Correct
7. Incorrect → Do I really want to work for this company? (Tense and pronoun mistake)
8. Correct
9. Correct
10. Incorrect → How much money do you owe? (Word order mistake)
11. Correct

(b) Affectively-oriented Structured Input

Listen to your teacher and respond by checking “true for me” or “not true for me.”

1. An interviewer should not ask whether I have cleaned my car recently.
2. Who had written my application letter is not the interviewer's business.
3. How much money I owe can be related with the job I apply.
4. I always ask myself what I want from a job.

*** Prepared by the researcher**

APPENDIX F: LESSON 4

Pre-reading

Since this lesson is connected with the previous lesson to a great extent, the content of the Treatment Lesson 3 is reviewed. The teacher asks the students what happened to Melissa Morrow and what type of questions were asked her. Then the teacher announces that the students are going to read a similar text but it is a dialogue between an interviewer and an interviewee.

While-reading

Read this dialogue and answer the following questions according to it.

Zarakoff's Interview

Interviewer: Your resume is very impressive Ms. Sarakoff.

Ms. Zarakoff: That's "Zarakoff."

Interviewer: So, tell me Ms. Zarakoff. Why did you leave your job at Q & L Enterprises?

Ms. Zarakoff: Well, I have worked there for more than 15 years. Two years ago I went back to school, and got my degree in accounting. I want a position that uses my new skills and there is nothing available at Q & L.

Interviewer: 15 years! Hmmm! That's a pretty long time. How old are you?

Ms. Zarakoff: Let's just say that I'm old enough to have a lot of valuable experience, and still young enough to bring a lot of energy to the job.

Interviewer: I'm sure you are. Are you married?

Ms. Zarakoff: Yes I'm married and I have 2 grandchildren.

Interviewer: I see. What do you know about this company? I mean, why do you want to work for us?

Ms. Zarakoff: I know you are one of the three leading producers of household appliances and that your products have a reputation of excellence. I would like to be part of your company. And I know I could make a significant contribution.

Interviewer: Zarakoff! That's an unusual name. What nationality are you?

Ms. Zarakoff: Well, I took my husband's last name.

Interviewer: Oh, yes! What does your husband do Mrs. Sarakoff?

Ms. Zarakoff: "Zarakoff"! He is a data processor.

Interviewer: Do you owe anyone any money?

Ms. Zarakoff: Hmm! We owe some money on our credit cards.

Interviewer: OK! Tell me what computer programs are you familiar with?

Ms. Zarakoff: I have used Lotus 1, 2, 3, Excel and Word Perfect.

Interviewer: Have you ever been arrested?

Ms. Zarakoff: No, why do you ask?

Interviewer: Just checking. We have to be very careful who we hire these days. Why don't you tell me a little more about yourself? Do you consider yourself successful?

Ms. Zarakoff: Yes, I was very successful at my last job as I'm sure my employer will tell you.

Interviewer: Good. How tall are you Mrs. Zarakoff?

Ms. Zarakoff: How tall am I? I'm sorry but before that question can you tell me how it specifically relates to that job?

Interviewer: (Telephone rings) Hmm! Would you excuse me a moment: I have to take this call!

* Fuchs, M. & Bonner, M. (1995). *Focus on Grammar*. London: Longman. (Unit 24)

A. Information Recall

Answer the following questions according to the dialogue you have read.

1. Why did Ms. Zarakoff decide to stop working for Q & L?
2. How long did she work for Q & L Enterprises?
3. Why does she want to work for this company now?
4. What is her husband's job?
5. Does she have any debt?
6. Which computer programs can she use?
7. Why does the interviewer ask her whether she have ever been arrested?

Post-reading

B. Discussion

1. Why do you think the interviewer asks Ms. Zarakoff whether she owes anyone any money?
2. Why do you think the interviewer asks whether she thinks she is successful?
3. Why do you think the interviewer asks how tall she is?
4. Do you think Ms. Zarakoff was successful in this interview?

*Prepared by the researcher

- Instead of the post-reading activities above, the experimental group received the following activities.

Instructional Intervention Session D

AIM: To provide students with additional exposure to noun clauses for questions by allowing them to make form-meaning connections and to enable them to make

comparisons between correct and incorrect forms of noun clauses (by means of the editing practice)

(a) Referential Structured Input Activity

Read the dialogue and decide whether the statements your teacher will read are True or False. Listen to your teacher carefully.

1. What computer programs she uses should not be a concern for him.
2. It is illegal to ask if she owes anyone any money.
3. How tall she is and whether she is married or not are directly related to the job.
4. The interviewer didn't ask her if she had been arrested.
5. What her husband does has been mentioned in the dialogue.
6. Whether she considers he successful should have been asked.
7. We know why she wants to work for that company.

* Cantürk, 2001, p.109

(b) Affectively-oriented Structured Input Activity

Listen to your teacher and respond by checking “true for me” or “not true for me.” Most of the sentences I will read are about your future concerns.

1. I have never asked myself if I'm a “good enough” student.
2. I don't care when I will graduate from the faculty.
3. I have been thinking about whether I will be a good engineer or not.
4. Whether or not I will be able to find a good job immediately after graduation worries me a lot.
- 5.
6. Which part of Turkey I will work is an important concern for me.
7. I am not worried about how much money I will earn in my future job.
8. I really don't care what kind of people I will work with. What is important to me is doing my job in the best way.
9. Whether I will pass the upcoming visa exams is the most important concern for me at the moment. I don't want to think what is waiting for me in the future.

* Cantürk, 2001, p.112

(c) Inductive C-R Task (Editing)

Read part of a memo an interviewer wrote. Find and correct the mistakes in the use of noun clauses. There are eight mistakes. Check punctuation, too!

Inter-Office Memo

I did some stress questioning in my interview with Carl Treng this morning. I asked Mr. Treng why couldn't he work under pressure. I also asked him why did his supervisor dislike him. Finally, I inquired when he would quit the job with our company? Mr. Treng answered my questions calmly, and he had some excellent questions of his own. He asked "if we expected changes on the job." He also wanted to know how often do we evaluate employees. I was impressed when he asked why did I decide to join this company. I think we should hire him.

*** Fuchs, M. & Bonner, M. (2001). *Grammar Express: For self-study and classroom use*. White Plains, N.Y.: Addison Wesley Longman. (page 329)**