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İngilizce'deki Bazı Kiplerin Öğretimi: Dil Bilgisinde
Bilinçlendirme Yöntemi ile Geleneksel
Öğretmen odaklı Dil Bilgisi Derslerinin Karşılaştırılması.

A Study on Comparison of Grammar
Consciousness-Raising Tasks and Traditional
Teacher-Fronted Grammar Instruction on
Teaching Modals in English

Hatice ÖNCÜ
(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)
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Hatice ÖNCÜ

A Thesis

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YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZ ÖZÜ

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İngiliz Dili Eğitimi

Anadolu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü

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Bu çalışma, Türk öğrencilerinin zor bir dil bilgisi yapısını doğru, anlamlı ve uygun bir şekilde kullanabilmeleri için, Geleneksel Öğretmen Odaklı Dil Bilgisi Derslerine (*Traditional Teacher Fronted Grammar Instruction*) alternatif olabilecek diğer bir öğretim şekli olan Dil Bilgisinde Bilinçlendirme Yöntemi'nin (*Grammar Consciousness-Raising Tasks*) etkili mi, etkiliyse ne denli etkili olduğunu araştırmak üzere düzenlenmiştir.

Bu amaç için seçilen dil bilgisi yapısı, İngilizce'deki kiplerden *CAN, MAY, MUST, HAVE TO* ve bu kiplerin olumsuz şekilleridir.

Bu çalışma, Gaziosmanpaşa Üniversitesi Fen Edebiyat fakültesi ikinci sınıf öğrencileriyle yapılmıştır. Öğrencilerden Deney ve Kontrol grupları olmak üzere iki ayrı grup oluşturulmuştur. Deney grubundaki öğrenciler kipleri Dil Bilgisinde Bilinçlendirme Yöntemiyle öğrenirlerken, Kontrol grubundaki öğrenciler aynı dil bilgisi yapısını Geleneksel Öğretmen Odaklı Dil Bilgisi Dersleriyle öğrenmişlerdir. Her iki grup otuz'ar öğrenciden oluşturulmuştur. Her iki grupta toplam 5 haftalık (20 saatlik) uygulama yapılmıştır. Uygulamanın başlangıcında her iki gruba mevcut olan Kip bilgilerini belirlemek için Ön-test, uygulama sonunda da 20 saatlik bir çalışmada ne kadar ilerleme sağlayabildiklerini belirleyebilmek için aynı test son-test olarak verilmiştir.

Uygulama sonuçlarının istatistiksel analizleri, her iki grubun uygulama esnasında doğal olarak önemli derecede ilerleme kaydettiklerini fakat Deney grubunun Kontrol grubundan daha fazla ilerleme kaydettiğini göstermiştir. Bu sonuçlara göre Kiplerin öğretiminde Dil Bilgisinde Bilinçlendirme Yönteminin Geleneksel Öğretmen Odaklı Dil Bilgisi derslerinden daha etkili olduğu söylenebilir.

ABSTRACT

The present study aimed at finding a more effective way of teaching a specific problematic grammar point so that the EFL learners could use that grammar point accurately, meaningfully and appropriately.

For this purpose, this study tried to compare two types of grammar teaching - *Traditional Teacher-fronted Grammar Instruction* and *Grammar Consciousness-raising Tasks* on teaching Modals such as CAN, MAY, MUST, HAVE TO and their negative forms.

This study was conducted at Gaziosmanpaşa University, Faculty of Science and Letters, Departments of Mathematics, Physics, Biology, Chemistry. Totally 60 second year students participated in this study. These students were divided into two groups: an Experimental and a Control Group. There were 30 students in each group. Both groups were required a 20 hour-instruction for five weeks - four hours each week. At the beginning of the treatment, the students were given a pre-test to determine their current knowledge of the *modals*. The same test was given as a post-test so as to determine their proficiency gains after the treatment.

The Experimental Group learners were instructed through Grammar Consciousness-raising Tasks which provide learners with grammar problems they must solve interactively and enable learners to increase their knowledge of a difficult grammar rule.

The Control Group learners were instructed through Traditional Teacher-fronted Grammar lessons which provide learners with practice and production based activities so that the students would be able to practice and produce grammatically correct sentences of the target structure.

The results of the study indicated that both groups naturally improved their proficiency gains significantly. However, there was a significant difference between the proficiency gains of both groups. The Experimental Group subjects performed better than the Control Group subjects. That is, it can be said that Grammar Consciousness-raising Tasks are more effective than Traditional teacher-fronted Grammar instruction in teaching modals such as CAN, MAY, MUST, HAVE TO and their negative forms.

JURİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI**İmza**

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Hatice ÖNCÜ'yü 'A Study on Comparison of Grammar Consciousness-Raising Tasks and Traditional Teacher-Fronted Grammar Instruction on Teaching Modals in English' başlıklı tezi **27 Kasım 1998** tarihinde, yukarıdaki juri tarafından Lisansüstü Eğitim Öğretim ve Sınav Yönetmeliğinin ilgili maddeleri uyarınca, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalında yüksek lisans tezi olarak değerlendirilerek kabul edilmiştir.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Second language learning and use have many different parts by nature. They involve cognitive, linguistic, affective and sociocultural aspects of learning. In order to help learners improve all of these aspects of language, instructors have been encouraged to move toward more communicatively oriented approaches, that is, classrooms are increasingly becoming acquisition-rich, context-rich, fluid, and learner centred (VanPatten, 1993:435). *Grammatical competence* has an important role to get such a classroom because *linguistic accuracy* is a part of communicative competence which enables the learner to communicate in pragmatically and sociolinguistically appropriate manner. Therefore, *teaching grammar* means enabling language students to use linguistic forms accurately, meaningfully and appropriately (Larsen-Freman, 1991:280).

If grammatical competence is an important component of communicative competence which is the goal of foreign or second language (L2) learning, then what do we mean by the term *grammar*? According to Close (1982 c. in Dickens and Woods, 1988:627) *grammar* is a system of syntax that decides the order and patterns in which words are arranged in sentences. Smith and Wilson (1979 c. in Dickens and Woods, 1988:627) note that *linguistic rules* combine with each other to form a grammar which is a system giving an explicit and complete description of every sentence which contributes to produce a language. Ur (1988:4) defines *grammar* as the means by which we organize our messages in any communication. As he states, there is no doubt that a language of grammatical rules is essential for the mastery of a language. No one can use words unless he knows how they should be put together. Learning functions on their own are not sufficient to enable learners to use the language. Those are the grammatical elements that constitute the sentences that perform functions of use. In other words, it is impossible for learners to perform functions without knowing grammatical rules.

1.1 Historical Background

Throughout the history of language teaching many approaches have dealt with *grammar* and *teaching grammar* differently. As Celce-Murcia (1991:460) states, the major methodological approaches to language teaching have differed regarding whether explicit grammar instruction has a role to play in the foreign language classroom.

In the *Grammar Translation Approach*, Grammar is taught deductively by means of long and elaborate explanations. Comprehension and assimilation of grammar are tested via translation. In addition to translating, students are commonly asked to 'state the rule'. While stating rules, students become conscious of the grammatical rules. Learning grammar is achieved by reading and writing exercises. The proponents of the *Audio Lingual Method* consider language learning as a habit formation. Students in audio-lingual classes are to spend their time practicing language patterns. They are to learn grammar by analogy rather than by analysis (Chastain, 1983:86-88). In the *Direct Method* grammar is taught inductively. There may never be an explicit grammar rule given. Vocabulary is emphasized over grammar. In the *Silent Way* there is a focus on the structures of the language although explicit grammar rules may never be supplied. In *Suggestopedia* grammar is dealt with explicitly but minimally. In *Community Language Learning*, particular grammar points, pronunciation patterns, and vocabulary are worked with, based on the language the students have generated. In the *Total Physical Response Method*, grammatical structures and vocabulary are emphasized over other language areas. These are embedded within imperatives since imperatives are a powerful linguistic device through which the teacher can direct student behavior (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 18-109).

In the *Cognitive Code Approach* language learning is viewed as hypothesis formation and rule acquisition, rather than habit formation. Grammar is considered important, and rules are presented either deductively or inductively depending on the preferences of the learners. The focus is largely sentence-oriented (Celce-Murcia, 1991:461). The cognitive definition stresses the role of the mind in processing the

information acquired. The learner is thought to be the central component in the learning process. Language is considered to be creative, rule-governed communication. In the opinion of transformational-generative linguists, teaching all the expressions and sentences that students may need is impossible because language is infinitely varied. Therefore, the only achievable goal is that of teaching the system that makes language production possible. Language users must learn both form and function in the language. Since language users must know the rules before they can produce language, *competence* must precede *performance* (Chastain, 1983:90).

As Krashen and Terrel (1983 c. in Chastain, 1983:99) state, the goals of the *Natural Approach* are communicative. Students' attention should be focused on meaning rather than language forms and structures. They argue that "language is best taught when it is being used to transmit messages, not when it is explicitly taught for conscious learning". One of the principles is that comprehension precedes production so they claim that comprehensible input is the starting point in language learning. Therefore, the primary goal is to ensure that students understand what they hear. In order to realize this, teachers should always speak in the target language and choose talking points to be found interesting by students.

The *Communicative Approach* emphasizes the importance of communication as a goal of second or foreign language instruction and the syllabus of a language course should not be organized around grammar but around subject matter, projects, or semantic notions and pragmatic functions. In other words, language instruction should be content-based, meaningful, contextualized, and discourse-based rather than sentence-based (Widdowson 1978 c. in Murcia, 1991:461-462).

To sum up, it can be said that traditional approaches have focused on linguistic features and ignored language use and its functions. On the contrary, communicative approaches have emphasized language functions over language forms and presentation of new language within situational context. That is, grammar teaching in second language learning has become a controversy throughout the history.

1.2 The Role of Grammar Teaching

† The status of grammar teaching in second language (L2) classroom is still controversial (Mitchel, 1993:13). "Whether students should be taught grammar" is a continuing debate in second language pedagogy (Fotos and Ellis, 1991:605). In order to find an answer to this question, researchers have investigated whether L2 instruction promote L2 acquisition.

On the one hand, there are those who adopt a "zero position". They claim that the teaching of grammar has a minimal effect on the acquisition of linguistic competence in a second language (Fotos and Ellis, 1991:605) and some even finds it counter-productive as Long (1983:359) states. For example, one study by Upshur (1968 c. in Long, 1983:367) compared the relative utility of differing amounts of instruction and exposure with the same total amount of both. The results indicated that there is no effect of more instruction for intermediate and advanced level adults over a seven-week period. Another study by Fathman (1976 c. in Long, 1983:367) has reported the same result for children of various proficiency levels over a year period.

* According to the *acquisition / learning hypothesis*, by Krashen (1982) and Terrel (1983 c. in Chastain, 1983:97) learners may acquire or learn a second language. Learners acquire a second language by picking up the rules of the language subconsciously in communication situations. Learners learn a second language by learning the rules of the language consciously as they study them and listen to their teachers while they are explaining the grammar rules. They practice them in cognitive exercises and drills, and listen to their teachers' corrections of their errors. This means that most teachers and learners focus their attention on language learning, that is, on the conscious knowledge of language rules rather than on acquisition. The problem is that learners can not learn to communicate because communicative language skills can only be acquired, they can not be learned.

In the *monitor hypothesis* Krashen (1982 c. in Chastain, 1983:98) expresses that conscious knowledge of rules has only limited use in normal speaking because it can serve the learner only as a monitor or editor. He claims that monitoring might hinder communication since knowing the rule can not serve as a system to generate utterances in the language. It can serve only to screen beforehand what the speaker plans to say or to edit afterwards what he or she said.

According to Krashen's *Comprehensible Input hypothesis*, language acquisition is achieved by learners understanding input which is slightly beyond their current stage of knowledge by means of context and other extra linguistic cues. This hypothesis emphasizes that comprehensible input is both necessary and sufficient for successful L2 acquisition, implying the insignificance of grammar instruction (White, 1987:95).

On the other hand, some researchers (Smith, 1981; Rutherford, 1988; White, 1987; Ellis and Fotos, 1991; Fotos, 1994; Yip, 1994; Long, 1983, 1991) argue for *grammar teaching*. They claim that focusing on form may be necessary for many learners to achieve accuracy as well as fluency in the acquisition of an L2.

For example, White (1987:95-108) claims that some grammatical forms can not be acquired only on the basis of comprehensible input and formal instruction may be necessary to ensure that learners obtain the data they need to acquire these forms. She notes that *Comprehensible Input* is inadequate because of its shortcomings.

Firstly, by concentrating on meaning and context, It is ignored that certain aspects of grammar development in the learner are largely internally driven, and independent of context or meaning. In his hypothesis, as White states, Krashen suggests that the driving force for change in the current grammar is the learner's understanding of structures that are a little beyond his or her current knowledge. White believes that this causes a paradox: "how can one understand language that contains structures not yet acquired?". She adds that there are a number of L2 learning situations where comprehensible input can not lead to change in a learner's grammar. This arises when the

learner has made incorrect generalizations about the L2, or has wrongly assumed that L2 is like first language (L1) in certain respects.

Secondly, the role and benefits of simplified input is overestimated. In fact when Comprehensible Input is interpreted as simplified input, one is in danger of providing less than adequate input to the acquirer.

Thirdly, *Comprehensible Input Hypothesis* implies that by providing comprehensible input successful L2 acquisition is always possible and that where it is not possible because of affective barriers. The learner's current grammar acts as a filter on the input since the learner rejects input which can not be interpreted in terms of his or her current knowledge.

Similarly, Harley and Swain (1984 c. in Yip, 1994:124) investigated the adequacy of comprehensible input as the source of input to second language acquisition (SLA). Although the students were provided with an ample input by the immersion context, they showed notable grammatical deficiencies, such as the restriction of the verbal system, the lack of knowledge of tense and modality. White (1991 c. in Yip, 1994:124) also found that French learners of English performed better on adverb placement given 'form-focused' instruction. Carroll and Swain (1991 c. in Yip, 1994:124) compared four levels of explicitness of feedback and found that explicit metalinguistic formulation was most effective in Spanish learners' acquisition of dative verbs.

Two studies by Krashen and Seliger (1976) and Harnett (1974) (c. in Long, 1983) investigated the effect of amount of instruction on populations with the same amount of exposure. Long (1983:369) comments that these studies conclude that more instruction predicts higher L2 proficiency, and more instruction can even compensate for less exposure. Krashen (1982 c. in Long, 1983:369) claims that "the greater proficiency in the groups with more instruction is due to the additional opportunity for acquisition (unconscious learning through the creative construction process) in the classroom setting". This is the source of comprehensible input for the L2 learner. In contrast, Long

(1983: 369) believes that “more instruction predicts higher proficiency due to a genuine effect for instruction”.

After examining twelve studies dealing with the effect of instruction and exposure - an effect for more instruction or more exposure, or for more total opportunity for SLA through more total instruction plus exposure - Long (1983:605-624) came to a conclusion that formal instruction in grammar really makes a difference. He concludes that instruction is effective for children as well as adults, for intermediate and advanced students, not just beginners, instruction provides success on integrative as well as discrete-point tests, and in acquisition rich as well as acquisition poor environments.

Similarly, VanPatten & Cadierno (1993:45) claim that explicit instruction is beneficial and necessary and exposure to input is not enough and explicit instruction can facilitate SLA.

As mentioned above, research findings suggest that comprehensible input is necessary but not sufficient to bring about successful acquisition and that instruction is beneficial in SLA, regardless of the learner's proficiency level, of linguistic environment, and of the type of test students are going to perform on. If grammar instruction comes back, then *"what is the best way to teach grammar ?"* This question has been under discussion.

1.3 Recent Views about Grammar Teaching

Apart from the disagreement over the role of grammar teaching, and the different perspectives of traditional and communicative approaches, there is now a broad agreement on that task-based approaches are effective in teaching grammar since recently the emphasis on grammar teaching has certainly changed from *"How do we teach ?"* to *"How do learners learn ?"* and *how can we facilitate this learning?* (Hopkins and Nettle, 1994:160).

Ellis (1993:6) claims that there are different ways in which we might teach grammar that are compatible with what we know about how learners learn grammar.

One way is to use *Focused Communication Task* (FCT). Through these tasks a grammatical focus can be produced in the context of communicative activities. In other words, we devise information gap or opinion-gap activities, but in a way that gives students a grammatical focus which is provided through the way in which the task is performed. In a sense, it is a trick on the learners since they suppose that they are performing an information-gap activity, and indeed they are; but the teacher is deliberately negotiating, requesting clarification when a particular linguistic error is made. If the learner does not understand what the teacher is doing on purpose and treats it as a piece of communication, then you can create a focus in this way. These kinds of FCTs get learners to improve their grammar accuracy under real operating conditions (Ellis, 1993:7). FCTs offer the teacher a means of teaching a specific grammar point communicatively. Such tasks also provide a means of encouraging learners to produce comprehensible output, at the same time, grammatically correct sentences (Nobuyoshi and Ellis, 1993:206).

Another way is to use *Interpretation Task* for grammar teaching. This consists of listening activities as opposed to a production grammar activity which gets learners to produce a particular structure. An interpretation grammar activity provides learners with a very structured input, structured in the sense that the input will be manipulated to contain examples of the particular grammatical structure to be taught. And the task requires learners to listen to this input in order to identify the meaning of the sentences containing this particular structure, therefore, the best suitable structures for interpretation tasks may be the ones the forms of which are known but the meanings realized by the form is not (Ellis, 1995:95). Interpretation tasks require learners to attend to the feature in the input, to construct form-meaning connections, but not to actually produce the grammatical structure themselves. So this is the idea of comprehension or interpretation grammar activities (Ellis, 1993:11).

Another possibility is to use *Grammar Consciousness-raising Task* (GCRT). A communicative grammar-learning environment should facilitate the comprehension of how grammar works in the conveying and interpretation of meaning. That is, consciousness-raising has an important role. The *grammatical consciousness raising* (C-R) is a cognitive approach to grammatical instruction developed by Sharwood-Smith (1981) and Rutherford (1987 c.in Yip, 1994:123). Instead of giving rules and principles directly as in the traditional grammar lesson, GCRT helps learners discover rules for themselves by focusing on aspects of the target structures. C-R also differs from pure communicative approaches by telling learners which structures are ungrammatical and providing the grammatical counterparts (Yip, 1994:124).

GCRTs are recommended as a way to provide communicative opportunities in more structured classrooms, such as those characterizing many EFL situations, because their content is directly related to the formal study of language. Fotos defines GCRTs as in the following:

“Grammar consciousness-raising tasks combine the development of knowledge about problematic L2 grammatical features with the provision for meaning-focused use of the target language. However, for this task type to be pedagogically useful in ESL / EFL classrooms, it must be shown that task performance is as effective as a teacher-fronted grammar lesson in promoting gains in knowledge of the target structure and is comparable to performance of regular communicative tasks in terms of opportunities for communicative language exchange” (Fotos, 1994: 323).

Based on Ellis and Fotos' suggestions, this study aims to investigate GCRT as an alternative way of teaching Turkish EFL learners to use *modals* appropriately and interactively. This kind of grammar teaching is carried out through consciousness-raising rather than practicing. This proposed model suggests that formal instruction needs to be accompanied by instruction that provides learners with opportunities for authentic communication.

As indicated in the studies cited so far, C-R seems an effective approach in teaching adverb placement (Fotos, 1993), indirect object placement (Ellis and Fotos, 1991), word order (Fotos, 1994), relative clause usage at intermediate level (Fotos, 1993), and the use of ergative verbs at advanced level (Yip, 1994). This study aims to investigate whether C-R is also effective in teaching *modals* at pre-intermediate level in EFL situation.

1.4 Statement of the Problem

In this study, *modals* were chosen as a problematic structure because of the following views:

Walter & Cook (1978:5) state that the recognition and proper use of the meanings underlying the English *modal verbs* are a problem for the students of English as a foreign language. They believe that the problem lies not in the surface positioning of the modals nor in their wide range of meanings, but in associating the right modal with the right meaning.

Bowen et al. (1977:283) state that *modals* are problematic since each modal can express more than one meaning, some have more than four or five. Furthermore, each modal not only has a simple form but also a perfect form. But the structural forms and the semantic coverage do not correlate perfectly .

Celce-Murcia and Hills (1988: 55) state that *modals* are very problematic for most students because unlike other verbs in English, modals act almost like sentential operators. That is, they give a quality of probability, obligation, etc. to the entire sentence.

The complexity of *modals* (e.g., can) and *periphrastic modals* (e.g., have to) lies in part in their social-interactive character. Many EFL students find them difficult because they are frequently taught from an artificial semantic perspective rather than a social-interactive one (Celce-Murcia and Hills, 1988: 9).

Similarly, Bowen et al. (1977:283) agree that *modals* constitute a considerable learning burden for learners of English perhaps because of idiosyncratic signification - unique in their structural-semantic distributions.

Since *modals* form a broad subject in English grammar, this study is limited with the following points:

- Can (ability, possibility, permission)
- May (possibility, permission)
- Must (obligation, probability)
- Have to / has to (obligation)
- Can not (impossibility, refusing permission)
- May not (negative possibility, refusing permission)
- Must not (negative obligation)
- Don't / doesn't have to (absence of obligation)

1.5 Aim and Scope

This study will be conducted with the second class students of Science and Letters Faculty at Gaziosmanpaşa University in Tokat. Their native language is Turkish. They study English as a foreign language. 60 students will participate in the study. The subjects constitute two groups. Each group has 30 subjects. The subjects' proficiency level was determined as pre-intermediate on the basis of test scores of the Michigan Placement Test.

Taking into consideration the importance of Consciousness (see part 2.1), C-R in language learning (see part 2.2), Grammatical C-R (see part 2.3), GCRTs (see part 2.3.1), this study attempts to compare production-based traditional teacher-fronted instruction (TTGI) with cognitive understanding based and meaning-focused lessons in which learners are given GCRTs.

TTGI focuses on the manipulation of learner output, therefore, it is production-based. This type of teaching is not as effective as we expect since it can not provide a satisfactory solution to the learnability problem (see part 2.3), perhaps, because of the role of the students and that of the teacher, their expectations and the way of the process (see part 2.4), the lack of noticing and attention which are crucial to convert input into intake. If teaching grammar through TTGI is not effective or if our expectations in grammar teaching do not match the aims of TTGI, we must look for another way of teaching grammar as an alternative to TTGI. This study is conducted on this belief. The purpose of this study is to investigate whether C-R is a better approach in teaching a specific grammar point than TTGI.

So the research question is:

“Is there a significant difference between the proficiency gains produced by the students who performed GCRTs and the proficiency gains produced by the students who were instructed through TTGI in the use of modals - *CAN, MAY, MUST, HAVE TO* and their negative forms at pre-intermediate level ?”

The research question aims to investigate whether GCRTs are more effective in teaching the *modals* than TTGI as measured by test scores on Grammaticality Judgement, Discourse Completion and Fill in Tests.

1.6 Definitions

Proficiency gains: This term refers to students' performance in using the target grammatical structure accurately as measured by proficiency test scores.

A cognitive approach: An approach based on the belief that language learning is a process which involves active mental processes and not simply the forming of habits. It emphasizes learners' active involvement in the process of using and learning language, particularly in the learning of grammatical rules (Richards et al., 1985:44).

Production-based Teaching: It refers to the process of planning and giving learners opportunities to produce specific grammatical structures rather than to comprehend the items within it.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Teaching grammar has been central to teaching foreign languages from the past to the present. Some of the researchers (Smith, 1981; Rutherford, 1988; White, 1987) have agreed with the idea that grammar has an important place in teaching a second language. Some others (Krashen, 1982; Terrel, 1983 c. in Chastain, 1983) have emphasized that it is not necessary to include grammar as an independent subject in the curriculum. Grammar can be learned naturally and automatically in a communication situation. However, as Ellis (1993 :5) states, "the zero position to grammar teaching has increasingly been questioned and grammar is making some kind of come-back". This is because of the fact that theoretical and empirical studies provide considerable evidence to indicate that L2 instruction is beneficial in second language acquisition and comprehensible input is necessary but not sufficient to bring about successful acquisition (discussed in part 1.2).

If we have to teach grammar, *how should we teach it effectively?* Should we teach it through TTGI, which emphasizes the importance of practice and production or should we teach it through GCRT, which emphasizes the importance of consciousness raising activities providing learners to discover rules and functions by communicating?

This chapter will review the basic ideas on teaching of grammar under the following headings: consciousness and principles of language learning, conscious perception versus subliminal influences in learning, explicit versus implicit learning, intentional versus incidental learning, C-R in language learning and the related terms, such as explicit and implicit knowledge, grammatical C-R, GCRTs, GCRT vs TTGI, empirical evidence about GCRTs, a brief review of modality and the meanings of the modals.

2.1 Consciousness and Principles of Language Learning

Before giving detailed information about C-R, It may be useful to state what the word '*consciousness*' refers to and what it means in language learning.

In our ordinary language the words like *conscious*, *consciousness* and *consciously* have been used, but the use of these words is ambiguous. Although theorists in psychology and applied linguistics have used technical terms such as explicit versus implicit, declarative versus procedural, and so on, these terms do not by themselves eliminate the ambiguity. The word '*consciousness*' or having been conscious of something can be defined as *awareness*. Then, what is awareness in language learning? (Schmidt, 1993:23).

When we speak of language learning as being conscious or unconscious, we might be involved with the following questions:

"...Whether a learner is trying to learn something; whether the learner is aware that he or she is learning; whether the target language forms that are learned are consciously noticed and picked up through some kind of subliminal perception; whether learners acquire general rules or principles on the basis of conscious understanding...; whether learners are able to give an accurate account of the rules and principles that seem to underlie the construction of utterances" (Schmidt, 1993:24).

The answers of these questions will be summarized in terms of three principal distinctions - conscious perception vs subliminal influences in learning, explicit vs implicit learning, intentional vs incidental learning - in the following parts.

2.1.1 Conscious Perception vs Subliminal Influences in Learning

In this part we will discuss the effects of conscious -noticed - and subliminal - unnoticed - learning.

Schmidt (1993:25) states that despite the widespread belief that the existence of subliminal learning of some kind has been established for decades, there is no scientific support for claims of behaviour modification through subliminal messages. All demonstrations of subliminal perception so far have involved subtle effects resulting from the unconscious detection and processing of very familiar stimuli. Such effects do not imply the creation of new memory structures, the establishments of new associations, or the learning of new concepts (Ericson and Simon, 1984 c. in Schmidt, 1993:26)

It is impossible to deny the importance of noticing the input for learning. An important question is whether noticing the input in a language is necessary to store that information in memory. Robinson (1995:298) states that "noticing is a consequence of encoding in short-term memory, and is necessary for learning. What is noticed may be subsequently encoded in long-term episodic memory".

Fotos (1993:387) states that "noticing has been suggested to perform an interfacing function between the development of explicit knowledge of a feature through formal instruction and the eventual acquisition of that feature - the development of implicit knowledge".

According to Gass (1988 c. in Braid, 1995), the issue of comprehensibility is the issue of attention. Attention is what allows a learner to notice a mismatch between what he or she produces and what is produced by speakers of the second language. It is believed that for learning to take place noticing is required and the following factors affect availability for noticing: expectations (based on the L1 and L2), frequency, perceptual salience, skill level and task demands.

Schmidt (1990 c. in Schmidt, 1993:26) summarizes his idea about conscious vs subliminal learning as in the following:

"At the present time, the available evidence is compatible with the strong assertion that there is no such thing as subliminal language learning or any other kind of subliminal learning. Second language forms that are not noticed do not affect

learning. This allows the concept of intake in second language learning to be defined in terms of what the learner attends to and notices".

2.1.2 Explicit vs Implicit Learning

Implicit learning refers to nonconscious generalization from examples. It is viewed as a natural product of attending to structured input. Reber (1976 c. in Schmidt, 1993:26) argues that knowledge resulting from implicit learning is encoded in form of unconscious representations.

Explicit learning means conscious problem solving. Explicit learning depends on different mechanisms such as including attempts to form mental representations, searching memory for related knowledge and forming and testing hypotheses (Mathews, Buss and Stanly, 1989 c. in Schmidt, 1993:27). Scott (1990:779) defines these approaches as in the following:

"... An explicit approach to teaching grammar insists upon the value of deliberate study of a grammar rule, either by deductive analysis or inductive analogy, in order to organize linguistic elements efficiently and accurately. An implicit approach, by contrast, is one which suggests that students should be exposed to grammatical structures in a meaningful and comprehensible context in order that they may acquire, as naturally as possible, the grammar of the target language ..."

Winitz (1996) claims that students acquire aspects of a second language more rapidly and achieve a higher level of performance when the method of instruction involves implicit. He believes that thorough, accurate, and comprehensive knowledge of grammatical principles is achieved best through implicit language instruction as a result of his study which indicated that the implicit instruction group achieved significantly higher average scores than the students in the explicit instruction group in the identification of grammatically well-formed sentences.

On the other hand, Scott (1990) claims that explicit instruction is more effective than implicit instruction. In contrast to the Winitz's study, Scott's study demonstrated that although the students in the implicit group heard ten times more examples of the target structure than the students in the explicit group, their mean scores indicated a statistically significant difference, with the students under the explicit teaching condition performing better. Scott believes that students taught through implicit instruction concentrate on the content and not on the form of the message that they hear and have a disadvantage on a test ability to use the targeted grammatical structures.

Perhaps it may be better to accept the idea that both types of learning are necessary as Mathews et al.(1989 c. in Schmidt, 1993:27) state. They note that both explicit and implicit learning have particular strengths. Implicit learning appears to be superior for the learning of fuzzy patterns based on perceptual similarities and the detection of nonsalient covariance between variables, while explicit learning is superior when a domain contains rules that are based on logical relationships.

Since English modals contain rules and functions that are based on logical relationships, this study is based on explicit learning that develops explicit knowledge which may promote implicit knowledge in subsequent communicative input, though the latter part is beyond the scope of this study.

2.1.3 Intentional vs Incidental Learning

Incidental learning refers to consciousness as intent. Intentional learning refers to the deliberate attention to the features in order to notice them. The question to be discussed in this part is "if it is necessary to notice the occurrence of linguistic forms in order to turn them into intake, is intentional learning also necessary in order to notice them?" More generally, is it necessary to want to learn in order to learn?

Schmidt's (1993:27) answer to this question is that it does not matter if a language learner intends to pay attention or not. Since a learner has limited processing abilities, it may be impossible to notice something regardless of an intent to do so. There are other cases in which some task to be performed forces the learner's attention to be focused on what is to be learned. In such cases, what is stored in memory is the information that must be attended to in order to complete the task (Ericsson and Simon, 1984 c. in Schmidt, 1993:27). Anderson (1985 c. in Schmidt, 1993:27) also claims that the learner's intention to learn is irrelevant. Schmidt (1993:36) notes that intentional learning is unnecessary but attention is crucial in language learning, therefore, tasks must be the kind that focuses the learner's attention on forms and functions of the target structure.

2.2 C-R in Language Learning

Consciousness raising means to draw the learner's attention deliberately to the formal properties of the target language. Rutherford (1988:108) states that there are many ways of drawing attention to form, such as underlining or capitalizing a particular surface feature by asking the learner to pay attention to anything that is underlined or capitalized. Another example would be the deliberate exposure of the learner to a large number of instances of some target structure in the language because the very high frequency of the structure in question will attract the learner's attention to the relevant formal regularities.

C-R has many related concepts such as noticing, attention, awareness (discussed in parts 2.1, 2.1.1) and explicit and implicit knowledge to be presented below.

2.2.1 Explicit and Implicit Knowledge

Learners internalize two kinds of knowledge as Bialystock (1981 c. in Fotos and Ellis, 1991:606) hypothesizes. Many researchers examining cognitive processes have

noted the distinction between these two types of human knowledge - explicit or declarative knowledge and implicit or procedural knowledge.

"*Explicit Knowledge* denotes a conscious analytic awareness of the formal properties of the target language" (Sharwood Smith, 1981:51). It is developed through formal instruction since it is knowledge about grammatical rules.

Implicit knowledge means an intuitive feeling for what is correct and acceptable. And this is knowledge of how to communicate in a target language. It is developed through opportunities to receive meaning focused input and to produce meaning focused, comprehensible output (Swain, 1985 c. in Fotos, 1993:386).

As Ellis (1993:95) states, the main point of debate is whether explicit L2 knowledge can convert into implicit L2 knowledge. Krashen (1981 c. in Fotos and Ellis, 1991:606) claims that two types of knowledge are completely distinct (noninterface position). Sharwood Smith (1981:58) claims that one type can change into the other (strong interface position). In this study the position to be adopted lies somewhere in between these. Our position is based on the theoretical information about the role of formal instruction and the studies which have investigated the effects of formal instruction on the acquisition of grammatical knowledge.

Fotos and Ellis (1991) reported the tentative conclusions of four studies investigating the effects of formal instruction on the acquisition of grammatical knowledge as follows:

1. Formal instruction helps to promote more rapid L2 acquisition and also contributes to higher levels of ultimate achievement (Long, 1988).

2. Formal instruction may succeed if the learners have reached a developmental stage that enables them to process the target structure (Pienemann, 1984).

3. Formal instruction directed at difficult grammatical structures has little effect on performance in spontaneous language use (Schumann, 1978; Kadia, 1988).

4. Formal instruction directed at simple grammatical rules (e.g., plurals, copula *be*) will be successful in promoting implicit knowledge since such forms do not require the mastery of complex processing operations (Pica, 1983; Pieneman, 1984).

According to Long (1991:45) there are three advantages of formal instruction (focusing on form): it speeds up the rate of learning, provides long-term accuracy, raises the ultimate level of attainment.

It is not possible to say that explicit knowledge can change into implicit knowledge since “there is no clear evidence to suggest that model of the target structure results in its acquisition as implicit knowledge” (Fotos and Ellis, 1991:607).

The model which constitutes base for this study is based on the following views: Ellis (1990 c. in Fotos and Ellis, 1991:607) suggests that “the main mechanism by which formal instruction works is by developing explicit knowledge of grammatical features which, subsequently, helps learners acquire implicit knowledge.”

Ellis (1993:108) suggests that explicit knowledge facilitates implicit knowledge in two ways. First, explicit knowledge may help learners to notice features in the input and, therefore, to acquire it as implicit knowledge. But implicit knowledge will only be achieved when the learners are ready to integrate the L2 feature into their interlanguage systems. Second, explicit knowledge can be used to construct planned utterances, which then serve as input for the language processing mechanisms..

Fotos and Ellis (1991) state that although the role of explicit knowledge is limited since we do not know how much explicit knowledge the typical learner can learn, explicit knowledge has a positive role such as monitoring in communicative language use since monitoring accelerates the process of acquiring implicit knowledge and even

explicit knowledge may be necessary for the acquisition of certain kinds of grammatical rules that can not be acquired only by means of comprehensible input derived from communicative language use (White, 1987:96). The proposed model has a number of implications for formal instruction.

First, it suggests that the goal of formal instruction should be directed at explicit rather than implicit knowledge since it is not possible to predict the conditions in which formal instruction may succeed in developing implicit knowledge (Fotos and Ellis, 1991:608).

Second, This model suggests that formal instruction should be the kind that ensures learners to know about a target structure and can monitor with it by correcting consciously their own erroneous communication but not enable them to use the structure in free communication. The kind of grammar teaching required by this model aims at consciousness-raising rather than practice. This approach emphasizes the role of cognitive understanding instead of the role of production. Ellis (1993:108) states that formal instruction for explicit knowledge raises learners' consciousness about how the target language grammar works. This aim is realized by drawing the learner's attention to how grammatical forms are formed, developing an understanding of how particular grammatical forms signal particular grammatical meanings, helping learners realize what constitutes appropriate use of forms in context.

Third, this model suggests that formal instruction needs to be accompanied by instruction providing opportunities for natural communication (Spada 1987 c. in Fotos and Ellis, 1991:607).

2.3 Grammatical Consciousness Raising

Grammatical consciousness raising in pedagogy carries one indispensable prerequisite. Rutherford (1988) states that grammatical focus has long been considered a

necessary part of language instruction. Today it has also been considered a sufficient condition for successful language learning.

Several research findings suggest that comprehensible input is certainly necessary, but not sufficient to bring about successful acquisition (discussed in part 1.2). When accuracy is at issue, learners have difficulty in achieving nativelike proficiency. C-R is an attempt to bridge this gap in learners' competence since C-R in SLA also takes into consideration the questions such as whether the individual learner is interested in grammar, concerned about form and accuracy, and willing to pay attention, and the nature of the structure in question (Yip, 1994:125).

Theoretical motivation of C-R is the question of "*learnability*" of a second language. *Learnability* involves the mechanism of progression from one state of knowledge to the next. It is argued that input alone is insufficient and it does not always help the learner learn the appropriate use of a grammatical rule. The learner should also be exposed to the *negative input* besides the *input*. According to White (1988:3 c. in Yip, 1994:125) there are the situations which require *negative input*. We may provide *negative input* by drawing the learner's attention to the fact that certain forms are non-occurring, or ungrammatical in the target language. Such evidence should be required when learners make certain kinds of overgeneralizations or arrive at grammars which are overinclusive.

Negative input also includes error correction. Yip (1994:125) states that the traditional solution to this problem is to use "red-pen" strategy of explicit correction. But this option is unattractive because of its negative psychological effects. C-R is an attempt to achieve the same goal without such side affects by providing learners with incorrect, ungrammatical, inappropriate forms of the target structure to be corrected by the learners (Yip, 1994:125).

As Ellis (1993:109) states, the aim of grammatical consciousness-raising is to help the learner learn about a particular grammatical feature by developing an explicit

representation of how it works in the target language. In many cases, this will involve teaching the learner the metalanguage needed to talk about the grammatical rules. It has been hypothesized that explicit knowledge also aids the process of intake formation by facilitating noticing and noticing the gap. This type of C-R can be achieved by means of traditional grammar explanation of the kind found in the grammar-translation method. Another way is to make use of problem-solving tasks that supply the learners with the data they need to discover the rule for themselves.

Ellis (1990 c. in Fotos, 1993) follows the concept of C-R as a pedagogical device for language study and presents a view of language acquisition based on the position that it is through formal instruction that learners become aware of particular features of the target language and form explicit representations of what they are taught. Fotos (1993) explains Ellis's theory as follows:

"Once consciousness of a particular feature has been raised through formal instruction, learners continue to remain aware of the feature and notice it in subsequent communicative input, events considered to be necessary prerequisites for language processing leading to the eventual acquisition of the feature" (Fotos, 1993: 386).

2.3.1 Grammar Consciousness Raising Task (GCRT)

GCRT has been suggested as an effective task type because it provides learners with opportunities to engage in communication based on an exchange of information. Since these tasks encourage learners to discuss the meaning, they are essential both to ensure that they get sufficient comprehensible input for the acquisition of linguistic competence (Long, 1983:376) and to provide the real operating conditions needed to develop the kind of strategic competence which is necessary for the development of fluency (Brumfit, 1984 c. in Fotos and Ellis, 1991:606).

The activities in the frame of GCRTs encourage learners to try to discover a particular grammar rule, to learn about a grammar point for themselves with the help of the teacher. That is, GCRTs help learners to construct their own explicit grammar.

Fotos and Ellis (1991:605) define GCRT as a type of task which provides learners with grammar problems to solve interactively since GCRT is communicative and has an L2 grammar problem as the task content. GCRT aims at raising the learner's consciousness about the grammatical properties of the L2. Fotos (1994:326) defines the aim of GCRT as in the following:

"GCRT... attempts to call learner attention to grammatical features, raising their consciousness of them, and thereby facilitating subsequent learner noticing of the features in communicative input."

Grammar and communication are inseparable aspects of teaching a language. The question is "how do the forms work together to communicate meaning?" (Higgs, 1985:295). In other words, how is formal instruction integrated with communicative language teaching?

Fotos and Ellis (1991) and Fotos (1994), as a result of empirical findings (see part 2.5), agree that formal instruction and communicative language teaching can be integrated through the use of GCRTs designed to promote communicating about grammar. These tasks have two aims: to develop explicit knowledge of L2 grammatical features and to provide opportunities for interaction focused on an exchange of information. They can be completed in teacher directed lessons or they can be used in pair / group work in order to increase opportunities for negotiating meaning. These tasks do not provide multiple opportunities for producing sentences that contain the target feature. Any production that occurs is incidental. These tasks need to incorporate a multiway information gap which requires the exchange of information in order to reach an agreed solution to a problem.

Fotos and Ellis (1991) claim that such tasks provide serious content, in contrast to the trivial content of many information-gap activities, and they accommodate learners who believe that it is important to learn about grammar. They provide opportunities to communicate in the L2 in groups, or pairs, and they encourage an active, discovery-oriented approach on the part of the learners. Although the learners focus on the form of the grammar structure, they are also engaged in meaning-focused use of the target language as they solve the grammar problem. They develop grammatical knowledge while they are communicating. Since these tasks can be recommended as one way to integrate *formal instruction* within a *communicative framework*, it may be useful to discuss the role of formal instruction (discussed in part 2.2.1) and communicative language learning in the following part.

2.3.1.1 Communicative Language Teaching and L2 Acquisition

Real communication is a shared activity which requires the active involvement of its participants. Communicative language use provides learners to be exposed to meaning-focused use of the target language, as opposed to teacher-fronted explanations of language features. When learners use the target language to communicate with each other, they must ask and answer questions when certain items of discourse are not understood. This has been considered important in promoting improved learner comprehension of the target language (Fotos, 1994:327).

Communicative activities have many advantages: they are usually enjoyable; they give students a chance to use their language; they allow both students and teachers to see how well the students are doing in their language learning; and they give a break from the normal teacher-student arrangement in a classroom (Harmer, 1987:5-6).

If communication and grammar are inseparable aspects of language learning then what is our role as language teachers in this process? We have the responsibility to create an atmosphere in which communication is possible. Making classes 'student-centred' can contribute to creating such an atmosphere. But creating a supportive,

student-centred environment is not enough on its own. True communication can take place if we base our instruction on task-oriented activities in the target language which focus on issues that are relevant and meaningful to students (Tylor, 1983:74-75).

GCRTs in this study were prepared as Closed Tasks which have a definite ending because Closed Tasks produce more negotiation than open tasks which have no clear resolution. GCRTs are Convergent Tasks, where the participants must agree on a solution, since such tasks promote more negotiation than divergent tasks, where different views are permitted (Long, 1989 c. in Fotos & Ellis, 1991:610).

2.4 GCRT vs TTGI

In traditional classes, teachers and students' roles are based on tradition, past experiences and present expectations. The teacher is the controller of all the activities. Students are passively sitting and waiting for teachers to tell them what they are to learn and to do. Teachers give directions and students follow them. Teachers present the course content, and students attempt to memorize it for the examination. Teachers ask, and students answer. Too often teachers are tellers and testers with students taking notes, memorizing, and attempting to recall recorded facts (Chastain, 1983:350).

† In favor of task-oriented teaching through GCRT, the teacher has a function as a facilitator who responds to the students' emerging language needs. Our roles as teachers to provide opportunities to communicate in the L2 in groups. This type of task encourages an active, discovery-oriented approach on the part of the learner (Fotos and Ellis, 1991:623).

TTGI consists of activities such as mechanical pattern-practice drills of the kind found in the audiolingual method or situational grammar exercises in which the target structure is contextualized in terms of some real or imaginary situation. These activities aim at having learners produce the structure correctly and repeatedly and help them learn it. However, this traditional approach faces a number of problems. First, teaching

learners to produce target structure that are not ready to produce may not work. Second, asking learners to produce difficult grammatical structures and then correcting them when they make mistakes may cause them to increase their anxiety and result in a psychoaffective block to learning anything (Krashen, 1982 c. in Ellis, 1995:88).

GCRT downplays the role of production and, instead, emphasizes the role of cognitive understanding which can be achieved by constructing various problem-solving tasks that require learners to consciously analyze data in order to arrive at an explicit representation of the target feature. And this model suggests that formal instruction needs to be accompanied by instruction that provides learners with opportunities for authentic communication (Fotos and Ellis, 1991:609).

To sum up, the essential difference between GCRT and TTGI rests on the role of learner production in grammar activities, that is, the difference between practice and consciousness-raising. By practice we mean the activities that require a learner to produce sentences exemplifying the grammatical feature that is the target of the activity. By C-R we mean the activities that get a learner to understand a particular grammatical feature, how it works, what it consists of, and so on, but not require that learner to actually produce sentences manifesting that particular structure. In other words, the expectancy in C-R is not an immediate mastery in using problematic structures, but, rather, the expectancy is that learners learn what it is that they have ultimately to master (Ellis, 1993:6-7).

2.5 Empirical Evidence about GCRTs

Fotos (1993) investigated the amount of learner noticing produced by two types of grammar consciousness raising treatments designed to develop formal knowledge of problematical grammar structures (adverb placement, indirect object placement, and relative clause usage). The teacher fronted grammar lesson and interactive, grammar problem solving tasks for the two experimental groups were designed. The findings indicated that task performance was as effective as formal instruction in the promotion of

amounts of noticing, as compared with the noticing produced by the control group with no special exposure to the grammatical structures. It was discovered that most of the learners who developed knowledge about grammar structures went on to notice those structures in communicative input after their consciousness had been raised.

In an exploratory study in the college EFL classroom, Fotos and Ellis (1991) investigated whether the GCRT promoted L2 linguistic knowledge of a specific grammar point (the position of indirect object) and whether it produced the interaction which is thought to facilitate L2 acquisition at intermediate level. For this aim they compared the effectiveness of GCRT and TTGI. The results indicated that GCRT encouraged communication about grammar and enabled EFL learners to increase their knowledge of difficult L2 rule. They reported that grammar tasks which emphasize consciousness-raising rather than practice are an effective type of classroom activity.

In another study, Fotos (1994) reports an investigation of three GCRTs dealing with word order. She compared the proficiency gains produced by learners who performed different GCRTs with the gains achieved by learners who were given traditional, teacher-fronted grammar lesson matched to the content of the grammar tasks. She also compared the negotiations produced while performing different GCRTs with the negotiations produced by performance of communicative tasks matched for the task features and format but lacking grammatical content. The results indicated that GCRTs successfully promoted both proficiency gains and L2 negotiated interaction in the participants. The gains achieved through GCRT performance were found to be durable even after two weeks had passed. Thus, Fotos agrees that GCRTs can be recommended as one way to integrate formal instruction within a communicative framework.

Yip (1994) examined the rationale for C-R as an approach to grammatical instruction in terms of empirical findings and theoretical considerations of learnability. The grammar point to be taught was English ergative verbs causing difficulty to learners of various L1 backgrounds. This point is also known to cause a logical problem of acquisition in that positive evidence alone is not sufficient to resolve the difficulty. The

subjects were at advanced level. This study confirms the difficulty caused by ergative verbs and shows that C-R can be effective in such cases. Yip states that the overall results as reflected by post-test scores are suggestive. She also reports that there was an obvious correlation between the degree of interest and participation shown by the students and their performance in the post-test. "The more one is interested and concerned about the form in question, the more easily one can internalize the knowledge" (P.136).

Doughty (1991 c. in Fotos, 1994) investigated whether grammar instruction can be conducted through meaning-focused activities. Doughty compared gains in relative clause usage achieved by learners who read passages which contained the target structure. One group received a presentation of formal grammar rules together with the text, and another group received a meaning-focused treatment in which paraphrases and clarifications of the text content were displayed. The target structures visually highlighted and printed in capital letters. Both treatment groups showed similar significant gains compared with a control group in which the learners just read the sentences. This result provided evidence that formal instruction is as effective as communicative exposure in developing knowledge of grammar features. In addition, the meaning-focused treatment group showed a better recall of the content of the reading text than the group exposed to a formal presentation of grammar rules. According to Doughty, the format of the "meaning-focused treatment" is an example of "focus on form" referring to content-oriented instruction which also draws learners' attention in meaningful ways to the use of target structures in context. Such instruction can lead to improved mastery of language features as well as the provision for meaning-focused use of the target language.

A study by Lightbown and Spada (1990 c. in Fotos, 1994) indicated that the learners in the communicatively organized classrooms where formal teacher-fronted grammar instruction and corrective feedback were given showed greater accuracy in subsequent use of some of the forms than learners from classrooms where there was no focus on form or correction of errors. This study suggests that an instructional focus on

a grammatical feature enhances language input and is consciousness raising (Rutherford, 1987; Sharwood Smith, 1981) in the sense that learners develop knowledge about the feature and become more aware of the feature in communicative input afterwards, a process seen as essential for language acquisition (Rutherford and Sharwood Smith, 1986 c. in Fotos, 1994).

These studies may provide evidence that formal instruction is important in raising learners' conscious awareness of a particular feature, and GCRTs may be superior to TTGI in teaching particular grammar points, however, as Fotos (1994:323) states, they still need to be compared with TTGI in promoting gains in knowledge of different grammatical structures.

2.6 A Brief Review of Modality

Modality can be defined as a term used to express something which is not a fact. That is, *modality* discusses non-factual concepts such as potentiality, possibility, probability, etc.

Lyons (1977 c. in Palmer, 1986:16) states that subjectivity has the greatest importance for the understanding of modality because, as Palmer (1986:16) comments, *modality* in language is concerned with subjective characteristics of an utterance. It is the grammaticalization of the speaker's subjective attitudes and opinions.

It is observed that *modals* are often used when it is not possible to make a clear decision as in the following example:

You must leave at once.

This sentence might indicate either the speaker's insistence or a general necessity for leaving. It is not possible to justify the one interpretation rather than the other. Nevertheless, if modality is concerned with the attitudes and opinions of the speaker,

subjectivity is clearly basic. Only grammatical systems in which a great deal of subjectivity is involved can be considered modal, and that is a characteristic of the English modal verbs. In other words, in English the principle means of expressing modality is through modal verbs and their functional categories.

2.6.1 The Meanings of Modals

Modal verbs can be classified according to their meanings into *epistemic* and *root* modals. *Epistemic modals* modify a sentence and deal with the truth value of that sentence. *Root Modals* relate an agent to an activity and deal with permission, obligation and ability (Walter and Cook, 1978:6; Gibbs and Dorothy, 1990:298).

The meanings of CAN, MAY, MUST, HAVE TO are given in figure 1.

Modal verb	Possibility & Necessity	Permission & obligation	Ability (know how)	Probability
1.CAN	CAN ₁ =be possible	= CAN ₂ =be permitted	CAN ₃ = be able to	
2.MAY	MAY ₁ =be possible	MAY ₂ =be permitted		
3.MUST	MUST ₁ =be necessary	MUST ₂ =be obliged		MUST ₃ =be probable
4.HAVE TO	HAVE TO ₁ =be necessary	HAVE TO ₂ =be obliged		

(Cook, 1978:6)

Figure 1. Epistemic and root modals

To analyze sentences containing *epistemic modals*, we can use the paraphrases such as, it is possible that..., it is necessary that... as in the following examples:

- | | |
|--|----------------------------------|
| 1. Winter sports can be dangerous.
= It is possible that winter sports are dangerous. | CAN ₁ = be possible |
| 2. I may go to Italy for my holiday.
= It is possible that I will go to Italy. | MAY ₁ = be possible |
| 3. You must be careful.
= It is necessary that you will be careful. | MUST ₁ = be necessary |
| 4. He passed his exam. He must be happy.
= It is probable that he is happy. | MUST ₃ = be probable |

To analyze sentences containing *root modals*, we can use paraphrases such as Noun phrase (NP) is permitted to ..., NP is obliged to ..., NP is able to... as in the following examples:

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| 1. You can smoke in the lounge.
= You are permitted to smoke in the lounge. | CAN ₂ = be permitted |
| 2. Students may stay out late.
= Students are permitted to stay out late. | MAY ₂ = be permitted |
| 3. I must go now.
= I'm obliged to go now. | MUST ₂ = be obliged |
| 4. He has to refuse the offer.
= He is obliged to refuse the offer. | HAVE TO ₁ = be obliged |
| 5. He can lift 100 pounds.
= He is able to lift 100 pounds. | CAN ₃ = be able to |

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 4. You don't have to smoke here. | NOT HAVE TO ₂ (external) |
| = You are not obliged to smoke here. | = not obliged |
| 5. He can't lift 100 pounds. | CAN ₃ NOT (external) |
| = He is not able to lift 100 pounds. | = not able to |

As Walter and Cook (1978:14) summarize, *Epistemic modals* may occur with any type of verb, with any type of subject, and with any type of verb inflection. *Root modals* normally occur with action verbs, with agentive subjects, and with verbs in active and nonprogressive form.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Subjects

The subjects chosen for this study were two groups of Turkish students of Physics, Chemistry, Mathematics, and Biology. They study English as a foreign language. They were enrolled in the second class of Science and Letters Faculty at Gaziosmanpaşa University in Tokat. Totally 60 students participated in this study. The students' proficiency level was determined as pre-intermediate on the basis of test scores of the Michigan Placement Test. The mean score of the test for the experimental Group was 53.7 and it was 52.36 for the Control Group. The subjects were between the ages of 19 - 25.

The subjects were divided into two groups - *Experimental group* and *Control group*. Each group consisted of 30 students. The students in the Experimental Group was taught the *modals* through GCRTs. The students in the Control group was taught the same structure through TTGI.

3.2 Materials

1. *Placement Test*: The Michigan Placement test was administered to determine the level of the students since the placement tests provide information about the level of the students (Hughes, 1989).

2. *Pre-test and post-test*: The subjects in both groups were given a test which consisted of three parts since the results were examined with respect to three categories - Form, meaning, form and meaning. This test was administered both as a pre-test and post-test (see Appendix C). The first part consisted of a grammaticality judgement test (GJT). GJT was chosen as a measure of the proficiency gains of the *modals* with respect to *form*

because testing instruments which allow controlled, planned language promote the use of explicit knowledge (Fotos and Ellis, 1991). This part consisted of 20 sentences - 12 incorrect, 8 correct. The second part of the test consisted of a Discourse Completion Test (DCT) since this type of test is effective in measuring formal and meaning-focused use of the target language in situational context. In other words, DCT was chosen as a measure of the proficiency gains of the *modals* with respect to both form and meaning. This part consisted of 10 situations that will be completed by the subjects. The third part consisted of a Fill-in Test which was used for testing the students' ability to produce correct and appropriate forms of the *modals* with respect to meaning since it measures production not just recognition. The subjects were expected to decide on the most appropriate *modals* for the 20 blanks. The test used as a pre-test and post-test was designed by four teachers of English in order to consider it reliable and valid.

3. Materials used for designing tasks were some books and articles given below:

"Blueprint I" by Brain Abbs and Ingrid Freebairn (1989). Longman.

"Blueprint II" by Brain Abbs and Ingrid Freebairn (1989).

Longman.

"Understanding and Using English Grammar" by Betty S. Azar (1981). Prentice-Hall.

"Collins Cobuild - Student's practice material" by Dave Willis (1991). Harper Collins Publishers Ltd.

"Mozaic I" by Patricia K. Werner (1990). McGraw-Hill Publishing Company.

"Oxford Practice Grammar" by John Eastwood (1992). Oxford University Press.

"English Grammar in Use" by Raymond Murphy (1985). Cambridge University Press.

3.3 Tasks Used in the Experimental Group

GCRTs used in this study are communicative tasks with a grammar problem to be solved interactively as the task content. The object of GCRT performance is to raise learners' consciousness of the grammatical features of the *modals* through the development of explicit knowledge. The tasks were designed in such a format that integrates grammar instruction with the provision of opportunities for meaning focused use of the target language by taking into consideration the theoretical motivation (discussed in part 2.3), the theoretical information about GCRTs (discussed in part 2.3.1) and the formats used in empirical studies (discussed in part 2.5), and the role of the teacher (discussed in part 2.4). In order to draw the learners' attention to formal and functional properties of the *modals*, underlining, capitalizing and highlighting techniques were used.

The subjects in the Experimental Group were instructed through the following activities as means of GCRTs (see appendix A).

Preview activity: (Task I) this activity was designed to allow the students to discover the new grammar point for themselves before it was actively learnt and taught. In this task, students were exposed to the new language in sentence level. In order to raise students' consciousness about the target structure, they were asked questions related to the form.

Text study: (Task II) this was also a preview activity. The aim of this task was to have the students discover rules about grammar by concentrating them to the use of the target structure in a text. As Harmer (1987:34) suggests, the text can provide a context which makes it easy for students to see the way language is used. The main principle underlying this technique is to get the learners to think about the language.

Previewing, then, is a way of making students aware of a new piece of language. This will help them when they are studying it in subsequent stages.

Error Correction: (Tasks III, IV, XIII) A very good way of getting students to discover grammatical rules is to present them with examples of incorrect English. We can then encourage them to discover what is wrong and why (Harmer, 1987:38). Since *input* alone is not always sufficient to help the learner learn the appropriate use of a grammatical rule, these tasks require *negative input* besides the *input* by drawing the learner's attention to the fact that certain forms are non-occurring, or ungrammatical in the target language.

Information-gap Activities: (Tasks V, VI, VII, IX, XI, XII, XIV, XV, XVII, XVIII, XIX, XXII, XXIII) People need to speak to explain, and to tell something or to find out about something. So they have a need to communicate. The setting up of an information gap in the classroom creates a real communicative situation (Tyler, 1983:79) because the students have to use interactional adjustments. When one student does not entirely comprehend the meaning, s/he makes clarification requests (e.g., what do you mean by ...?). When the speaker wants to be sure that the listener has understood the meaning, s/he makes confirmation checks (e.g., do you know what I mean?) (Doughty and Pica, 1986:313). When s/he needs repetition of a sentence, s/he makes request for repetition (e.g., read it again please).

In this study four students in each group were given different sentences and choices to create a need for communication. So one student had some information and told it to the other students. In order to understand the sentences completely, the group members were expected to use interactional adjustments.

Problem Solving activities: (Tasks VIII, X, XIII, XVI, XIX, XXI) As the students' level of English moves from beginner to intermediate and beyond, they can be encouraged to talk about grammar and to analyze its properties. More importantly perhaps, they can be expected to look at areas of grammar rather than small details (Ulsever and Armstrong, 1993:67). For example, many functions of modals, rather than just one function, can be studied together. In the problem solving activities used in this study, the students were given some sentences and asked to group them according to their functions. It was

thought that this activity would help students grasp the different meanings of modals. The problem to be solved was that the sentences used the same structure, but they had different meanings. The students performed these activities by discussing with their friends in groups of four members.

Task IV also contained a problem solving activity. The students could discover what was correct or incorrect and why and how the incorrect ones can be corrected. In solving such problems, students become aware of how the grammar of English works (Harmer, 1987:37).

While performing Task XXI, the students were expected to find the facts about the functional properties of the target grammar point. This task aimed at providing the students to find out the missing words to make a summary containing explicit information for themselves and raising their consciousness about the differences between *must* and *have to*.

Translation: (Task XXIV) this activity aimed to raise the learners' consciousness about the differences between **mustn't** and **don't / doesn't have to** through comparing their L1 and L2.

Matching technique: (Task XXV) this technique aimed to get students to work things out for themselves again. They had to make choices about what went with what. This activity was thought to help students discover correct facts about grammar as Harmer (1987:33) suggests. In this activity the students have to match the sentences containing modals with their right functions.

3.4 Tasks Used in the Control Group

The object of TTGI is to have learners produce the structure correctly and repeatedly and help them learn it. In order to achieve this object, TTGI in this study consisted of mechanical pattern-practice drills of the kind found in the audiolingual

method and the presentation stages which consist of explanations of forms and meanings and examples of the target structure and exercises in which the learners were expected to produce the sentences containing the target structure - *modals*. The activities were also designed according to the teachers and students' roles based on tradition (discussed in part 2.4).

The subjects in the Control Group were instructed through TTGI that includes the following techniques and activities (see appendix B).

Modelling technique: This technique was performed in Task I. In order to focus students' attention on the target structure in a natural context, the teacher gave a clear spoken model of the new language. This was done with normal speed, stress and intonation. Then students were asked to repeat the sentences both in chorus and individually. As Harmer (1987:24) claims, "the modelling is particularly important since it gives students a chance to hear what the new sentence should really sound like. Repeating in chorus allows students to have 'a go' at the new language without having to talk individually in front of the class". This is a traditional type of presentation.

Isolation Technique: (Task II). This was also a part of presentation. The teacher isolated the sentences and the parts of them so that a special emphasis could be given. For example, in this study, the teacher isolated the modal part of the sentences and articulated them twice or more. The students were expected to get a lot of grammatical information in this way, although rules had not been stated yet.

A paradigmatic chart: (Task IV) The teacher added this chart to show the form and position of the *modals* within the sentence.

Word Order Task: (Task V) Word order is a problem for most non-native speakers of English (Harmer, 1987 : 53). Therefore, in this study the students were given jumbled sentences which they had to rearrange in the correct order. The aim of this drill was to make the students understand the form well.

Problem Solving Task: (Tasks VI, VII, IX, X, XI, XII, XIV, XV) In these activities, the students were given some sentences and asked to find their functions. This activity aimed to help the students grasp the different meanings of modals. The problem to be solved was that the sentences used the same structure, but they had different meanings. The students solved the problems individually then compared them with their friends' answers and then they discussed the meaning of the sentences with their teacher and corrected their mistakes, if they had any.

Transformation: (Tasks VIII, XIX) In these tasks students had to rewrite sentences so that they could have the same meaning but different grammatical structure. This was a product-based activity which aimed to give an opportunity for the students to produce the target structure.

Fill - in: (Tasks XIII, XVI, XVII) This is a technique for practicing grammar. They are rather mechanical drills. The advantage of this activity is that it helps students produce the target grammar point only when they understand the meaning of the whole sentence (Ulsever and Armstrong, 1993:89).

Text completion: (Task XVIII) This was a cloze passage in which the *modals* were deleted. The aim of this task was to focus on specific points of grammar - *modals*.

Sentence Writing Task: (Task XX) In this activity, students were expected to write their own sentences. This was a product-based activity since the students were expected to produce correct sentences with the right modals.

3.5 Data Collection Procedure

The subjects were given a pre-test at the beginning of the treatment so that we could determine the proficiency level in use of *Modals* before the treatment. The subjects in both groups were familiar to the *Modals*.

In the Experimental Group, GCRTs were performed by groups of four students. In the Control Group classroom, a traditional, teacher fronted grammar lesson was presented in English by the same non-native teacher. The content of the traditional grammar lesson was identical to the information given in GCRTs. The students in the Experimental group were distributed handouts containing C-R activities. In the Control Group the students were given handouts containing traditional practice and production based activities. The students in both groups were not given any assignment. The Turkish equivalences of unknown words were written on the board for both groups. After a five-week instruction, a post-test was administered to determine the proficiency gains of both groups after the treatment.

The data were collected from the results of the pre-test and post-test scores (see part 3.6). This study was conducted in the students' regular grammar lessons for five weeks (four hours a week).

3.6 Data Analysis

The test used as a pre-test and post-test were scored out of hundred.

The results of GJT were scored out of 40. The subjects were asked to perform the following:

1. Determine whether the sentences are grammatically correct or incorrect.
2. Underline the ungrammatical parts and write the correct form instead.

The responses in the GJT were scored as in the following:

1. when the subject was not able to determine whether the sentence was grammatical or ungrammatical (score:0)
2. When the subject found the error but could not able to correct it (score:1)
3. When the subject found the error and corrected it (score:2)
4. when the subject found the grammatical sentence (score:2)

DCT was used to measure the proficiency gains of form and functions of *modals* and was scored out of 40.

The responses in the DCT were scored as in the following:

1. When the subject made no mistakes (score:4)
2. When the subject found only the right 'modal' but not correct form of the verb (score:2)
3. When the subject wrote a wrong modal but grammatically correct sentence (score:0)
4. When the subject wrote a wrong modal and an ungrammatical sentence (score:0)

Fill-in Test was scored out of 20. When the subject filled in a blank with a right modal (score:1), with a wrong modal (score: 0).

The pre-test and post-test of both groups were graded in the same manner. Statistical analyses of differences in pre-test and post-test means were performed using t-tests. Paired t-tests were used to examine the significance of differences between pre-test and post-test scores for each group and unpaired t-tests were used for comparing and determining the significance of differences between the pre-test and post-test scores of both groups.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

As has been previously stated, this study aimed to compare the effectiveness of GCRTs vs TTGI in teaching *modals*. In order to achieve this aim, the subjects in both groups were given a pretest to determine their current knowledge of *modals*, and the same test was given as a post test to determine their increased knowledge of the same structure after the treatment.

The data were analyzed in two ways:

1) The percentages of proficiency gains in *modals* of both groups in the pre-test and the post-test were calculated.

2) T-test was used to measure the significance of differences in proficiency gains between both groups. Paired t-tests were used to examine the significance of differences between the pre-test and the post-test scores for both groups. Unpaired t-tests were used to determine the significance of differences between the pre-test and post-test scores of the Experimental and the Control groups.

Both tests were scored out of hundred (discussed in part 3.6).

These tests have three parts - part A measures formal use of the *modals*, Part B measures meaning and form together, and part C measures only meaning.

4.1 Pre-Test Results

4.1.1 Using Form Correctly

As mentioned earlier, in order to measure the groups' knowledge of the *modals* before the treatment, the students were given the Pre-test. The percentages of the Pre-

test indicated that the subjects in the Experimental Group succeeded 35 % of formal use of the *modals* before the treatment, and those in the Control group succeeded 37 % (Figure 3).

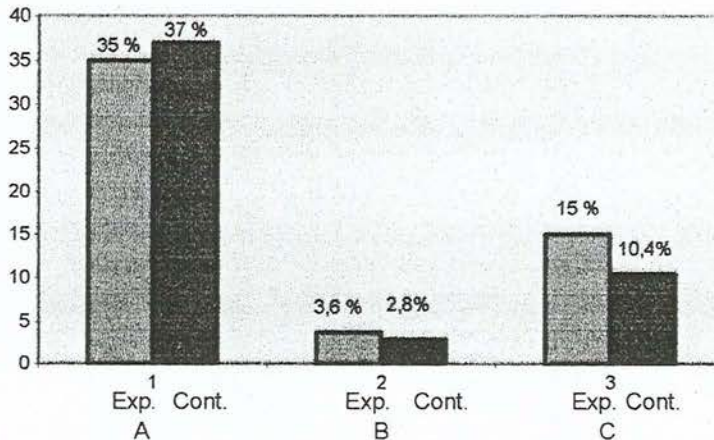


Figure 3. Pre-test results by percentages of proficiency gains

Key: A=Form : B= Form and meaning C=Meaning

The pre-test results of both groups were tested by unpaired t-test for independent samples in order to see if there is a significant difference between the pre-test results of the Experimental Group and the Control Group. Table 1, 2, 3 indicate the calculations:

TABLE 1. Unpaired t-test results for independent samples showing the differences between the Experimental Group and the Control Group in Part A of the pre-test

GROUPS	MEAN	MEAN DIFFERENCE
Experimental	13.90	0.87
Control	14.77	

($t=-0.81$: $P > 0.05$)

The mean score of the test in part A in the pre-test was calculated as 13.90 and as 14.77 for the Experimental and Control Groups, respectively. The mean difference between the groups was 0.87. This means that there was not a significant difference between the mean scores of the subjects in the Control and the Experimental Groups

initially. This is shown in Table 1 that at the 0.05 significance level, there is not a significant difference between the Experimental Group and the Control Group in the pre-test results of Part A before the treatment ($t=-0.81$; $P=0.42 > 0.05$). That is, the groups' performance was equal in the use of formal structure of the *modals* before the treatment.

4.1.2 Using both Form and Meaning Correctly

Figure 3 indicates that before the treatment the subjects in the Experimental Group succeeded 3.6 % and those in the Control Group succeeded 2.8 % of form and meaning focused use of the *modals*

TABLE 2. Unpaired t-test results for independent samples showing the differences between the Experimental Group and the Control Group in Part B of the pre-test

GROUPS	MEAN	MEAN DIFFERENCE
Experimental	1.47	0.34
Control	1.13	

($t = -0.38$: $P > 0.05$)

The mean score of the test in part B in the pre-test was calculated as 1.47 and as 1.13 for the Experimental and Control Groups, respectively. The mean difference between the groups was 0.34. This means that there is not a significant difference between the mean scores of the subjects in both groups since Table 2 shows that at the 0.05 significance level, there is not a significant difference between the Experimental Group and the Control Group in the pre-test results of Part B before the treatment ($t=0.38$; $P=0.71 > 0.05$). That is, initially the groups' performance was equal in form and meaning focused use of the *modals*.

4.1.3 Using Meaning Correctly

Figure 3 indicates that the subjects in the Experimental Group succeeded 15 % in meaning focused use of the modals before the treatment and those in the Control Group succeeded 10.4 %. The mean scores of the test in part C in the pre-test was calculated as 2.90 and as 2.07 for the Experimental and Control Groups, respectively.

TABLE 3. Unpaired t-test results for independent samples showing the differences between the Experimental Group and the Control Group in Part C of the pre-test

GROUPS	MEAN	MEAN DIFFERENCE
Experimental	2.90	0.83
Control	2.07	

($t = - 0.53$; $P > 0.05$)

The mean difference between the groups was 0.83. This means that there is not a significant difference between the Part C mean scores of the subjects in both groups since Table 3 shows that at the 0.05 significance level, there was not a significant difference between the Experimental Group and the Control Group in the pre-test results of Part C before the treatment ($t=1.53$; $P=0.13 > 0.05$). That is the groups' initial performance was equal in meaning focused use of the *modals* as measured by pre-tests.

To sum up, it can be said that there was not a significant difference between the proficiency gains of both groups with respect to formal and meaning focused use of the *modals*.

4.2 Post-Test Results

4.2.1 Using Form Correctly

The percentages of the increase of proficiency gains in using Formal knowledge of the *modals* after the treatment are shown in Figure 4.

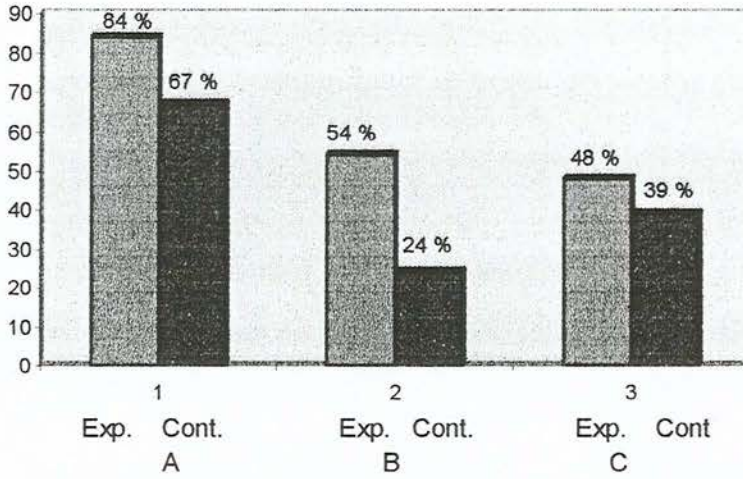


Figure 4. Post-test Results by Percentages of Proficiency Gains
Key : A= Form: B=Form and meaning : C=Meaning

The post-test results of both groups were also tested by unpaired t-test for independent samples in order to see if there is a significant difference between the post-test results of the Experimental Group and the Control Group. Tables 4, 5, 6 indicate the calculations.

The subjects increased their percentage of proficiency gains to 84 % from 35 % in the Experimental Group and to 67 % from 37 % in the Control Group after the treatment as figure 4 shows. The subjects in the Experimental Group showed a 49 % increase while those in the Control Group showed a 30 % increase in the percentage of proficiency gains. The subjects in the Experimental Group showed 19 % more increase in formal use of the *modals* compared to the Control Group.

The results show that during the treatment both groups improved their formal knowledge of the *modals* but the percentage of proficiency gains of the Experimental Group was higher than that of the Control Group.

TABLE 4. Unpaired t-test results for independent samples showing the difference between the Experimental Group and the Control Group in Part A of the post-test

GROUPS	MEAN	MEAN DIFFERENCE
Experimental	33.57	6.6
Control	26.97	

($t = 5.84$: $P < 0.05$)

The mean score of the test in part A in the post-test was calculated as 33.57 and as 26.97 for the Experimental and Control Groups, respectively. The mean difference between the groups was 6.6. The mean score in the Experimental Group was higher than that of the Control Group. This difference seems significant as table 4 indicates. In other words, at the 0.05 significance level, there is a significant difference between the proficiency gains of the Experimental Group and the Control Group in the post-test given after the treatment ($t=5.84$; $P=0.00 < 0.05$). That is, both groups improved their formal knowledge of the *modals* during the treatment but the Experimental Group showed a more significant performance than the Control Group as Table 4 illustrates. That is, GCRTs are more effective in gains of proficiency than TTGI in the use of formal structure of the *modals* as measured by post-tests.

4.2.2 Using both Form and Meaning Correctly

After the treatment, the Experimental Group subjects increased their percentage of proficiency gains from 3.6 % to 54 % and the Control Group subjects increased their proficiency gains from 2.8 to 24 % (Figures 3, 4).

The results show that during the treatment both groups improved their knowledge of the *modals* in meaning and form but the percentage of proficiency gains of the Experimental Group was higher than that of the Control Group.

The subjects in the Experimental Group showed a 33 % increase while those in the Control Group showed a 28.6 % increase in the percentage of proficiency gains . The subjects in the Experimental Group showed 4.4 % more increase in meaning focused use of the *modals* compared to the Control Group.

TABLE 6. Unpaired t-test results for independent samples showing the difference between the Experimental Group and the Control Group in Part C of the post-test

GROUPS	MEAN	MEAN DIFFERENCE
Experimental	9.50	1.63
Control	7.87	

($t = 2.28$: $P < 0.05$)

The mean score of the test in part C in the post-test was calculated as 9.50 and as 7.87 for the Experimental and Control Groups, respectively. The mean difference between the groups was 1.63.

The mean score in the Experimental Group was higher than that of the Control Group as Table 6 indicates. At the 0.05 significance level, there is a significant difference between the proficiency gains of the Experimental Group and the Control Group in the part C of the post-test given after the treatment ($t=2.28$; $P=0.026 < 0.05$). It can be said that the groups' performance was different in meaning focused use of the *modals* at the end of the treatment. That is, the subjects of the Experimental Group showed a more significant performance than those of the Control Group (Table 6).

4 . 3 Paired t-test for Dependent Samples between the Pre-test and the Post-test in the Experimental Group

In order to consider the Experimental Group within itself, the Experimental group's pre-test and post-test results were compared and t-value for dependent samples was calculated so that it could be possible to find out the increase in the proficiency gains

that the Experimental group subjects achieved during the treatment. Tables 7, 8, 9 show these results:

TABLE 7. Paired t-test for dependent samples in the experimental Group for Part A in the pre-test and the post-test

TESTS	MEAN	MEAN DIFFERENCE
PRE-TEST	13.90	19.67
POST-TEST	33.57	

($t = -16.495$; $P < 0.05$)

As it is seen in Table 7, the mean score for Part A was calculated as 13.90 in the pre-test and as 33.57 in the post-test. This means that the Experimental Group subjects increased their scores by 19.67. This is a significant result at the 0.05 significance level ($t=16.495$; $p < 0.05$). Therefore, it can be said that the pre-test and the post-test results indicate that the subjects in the Experimental Group instructed through GCRTs showed a considerable improvement in the use of formal structure of the *modals*.

TABLE 8. Paired t-test for dependent samples in the experimental Group for Part B in the pre-test and the post-test

TESTS	MEAN	MEAN DIFFERENCE
PRE-TEST	1.47	20.03
POST-TEST	21.50	

($t = -14.975$; $P < 0.05$)

Table 8 shows that the mean score for Part B was calculated as 1.47 in the pre-test and as 21.50 in the post-test. This means that the Experimental Group subjects increased their scores by 20.03. This is a significant result at the 0.05 significance level ($t=14.975$; $p < 0.05$). Therefore, as a result of the pre-test and the post-test, it can be said that the subjects in the Experimental Group instructed through GCRTs showed a considerable improvement in both form and meaning focused use of the *modals*.

TABLE 9. Paired t-test for dependent samples in the experimental Group for Part C in the pre-test and the post-test

TESTS	MEAN	MEAN DIFFERENCE
PRE-TEST	2.90	6.6
POST-TEST	9.50	

($t = -9.695$; $P < 0.05$)

Table 9 indicates that the mean score for Part C was calculated as 2.90 in the pre-test and as 9.50 in the post-test. This means that the Experimental Group subjects increased their scores by 6.6. This is a significant result at the 0.05 significance level ($t = -9.695$; $p < 0.05$). Therefore, as a result of the pre-test and the post-test, it is possible to say that the subjects in the Experimental Group instructed through GCRTs showed a considerable improvement in meaning focused use of the *modals*.

4.4 Paired t-test for Dependent Samples between the Pre-test and the Post-test in the Control Group

In order to consider the Control Group within itself, the Control group's pre-test and post-test results were compared and t-value for dependent samples was calculated so that it could be possible to find out the increase of the proficiency gains that the Control Group subjects achieved during the treatment. Tables 10, 11, 12 show these results:

TABLE 10. Paired t-test for dependent samples in the Control Group for Part A in the pre-test and the post-test

TESTS	MEAN	MEAN DIFFERENCE
PRE-TEST	14.77	12.2
POST-TEST	26.97	

($t = -11.100$; $P < 0.05$)

As it is seen in Table 10, the mean score for Part A was calculated as 14.77 in the pre-test and as 26.97 in the post-test. This means that the Control Group subjects increased their scores by 12.2. This result was found significant at the 0.05 significance level ($t=11.100$; $p < 0.05$). It can be said that the subjects in the Control Group taught by TTGI also showed a considerable improvement in the use of formal structure of the *modals*.

TABLE 11. Paired t-test for dependent samples in the Control Group for Part B in the pre-test and the post-test

TESTS	MEAN	MEAN DIFFERENCE
PRE-TEST	1.13	8.37
POST-TEST	9.50	

($t = - 8.167$; $P < 0.05$)

Table 11 shows that the mean score for Part B was calculated as 1.13 in the pre-test and as 9.50 in the post-test. This means that the Control Group subjects increased their scores by 8.37. This result was found significant at the 0.05 significance level ($t=8.167$; $p < 0.05$). It can be said that the subjects in the Control Group instructed through TTGI also showed a considerable improvement in the use of both form and meaning focused use of the *modals*.

TABLE 12. Paired t-test for dependent samples in the Control Group for Part C in the pre-test and the post-test

TESTS	MEAN	MEAN DIFFERENCE
PRE-TEST	2.07	5.8
POST-TEST	7.87	

($t = -12.073$; $P < 0.05$)

Table 12 indicates that the mean score for Part C was calculated as 2.07 in the pre-test and as 7.87 in the post-test. This means that the Control Group subjects

increased their scores by 5.8. This result was found significant at the 0.05 significance level ($t=-12.073$; $p < 0.05$). It can be said that the subjects in the Control Group taught by TTGI also showed a considerable improvement in meaning focused use of the *modals*.

4.5 Comparison of Pre-Test and Post-Test Results for the Experimental Group and the Control Group

There was not a significant difference between the pre-test results of the Experimental and the Control groups since the mean score for the Experimental group subjects was calculated as 18.27 and as 17.93 for the Control Group in the pre-test and the mean difference was 0.34. Table 13 shows that at the 0.05 significance level there is not a significant difference between the pre-test results of both groups before the treatment ($t= 0.18$; $p=0.86 > 0.05$). That is, both groups' knowledge of the *modals* was equal before the treatment.

TABLE 13. The results of t-test for Independent Samples showing the Differences Between the Experimental Group and the Control Group in the Pre-test

GROUPS	MEAN	MEAN DIFFERENCE
Experimental *	18.27	0.34
Control *	17.93	

* $n=30$: ($t = 0.18$: $P > 0.05$)

TABLE 14. The results of t-test for Independent Samples showing the Differences Between the Experimental Group and the Control Group in the Post-test

GROUPS	MEAN	MEAN DIFFERENCE
Experimental *	64.87	20.1
Control *	44.77	

* $n=30$: ($t = 7.86$: $P < 0.05$)

TABLE 15. The results of t-test for dependent Samples showing the Differences Between the Pre-test and the Post-test in the Experimental Group

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	MEAN	MEAN DIFFERENCE
PRE-TEST	18.27	46.6
POST-TEST	64.87	

($t = -22.67$; $P < 0.05$)

TABLE 16. The results of t-test for dependent Samples showing the Differences Between the Pre-test and the Post-test in the Control Group

CONTROL GROUP	MEAN	MEAN DIFFERENCE
PRE-TEST	17.93	26.84
POST-TEST	44.77	

($t = -18.299$; $P < 0.05$)

Both groups increased their knowledge of the *modals* during the treatment. The subjects increased the percentages of their proficiency gains from 18.27 % to 64.87 in the Experimental Group and from 17.93 to 44.77 in the Control group as Figure 5 shows.

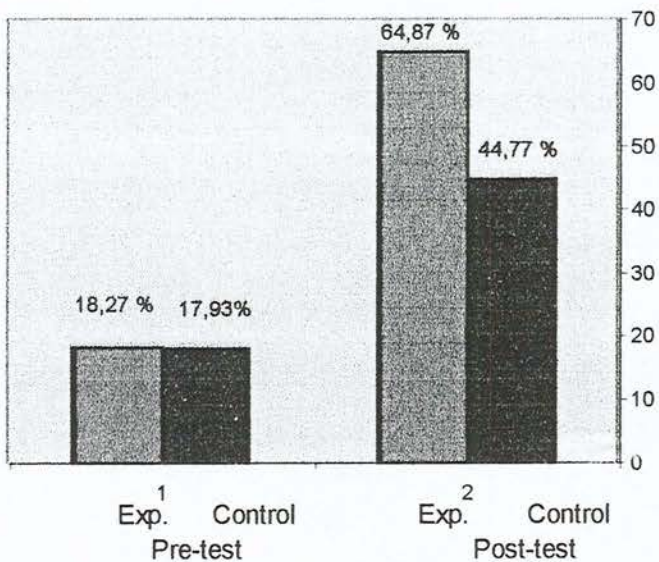


Figure 5 . Pre-test and post-test results by percentages of proficiency gains

According to the mean scores shown in Tables 15, 16, both groups showed a significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test in the use of the *modals*. That is, both groups increased their proficiency gains significantly during the treatment. But the Experimental Group subjects showed a more significant difference than the subjects in the Control group in the post-test. The post-test mean score of the Experimental Group subjects was calculated as 64.87 while that of the Control Group subjects was calculated as 44.77. The mean difference between the post-tests of both groups was 20.1 as Table 14 indicates. This means that at the 0.05 significance level, there is a significant difference between both groups in the results of the post-tests ($t=7.86$; $P < 0.05$). In other words, t-test results indicated that there was a significant difference between GCRTs and TTGI in teaching *modals*.

As a result, it can be said that the subjects in the Experimental Group taught through GCRTs showed a considerable improvement in using *modals*. Similarly, the subjects in the Control Group also showed a considerable improvement but the Experimental Group subjects showed a more significant difference than the Control Group subjects. The overall results show that GCRTs are more effective than TTGI in teaching the *modals* - CAN, MAY, MUST, HAVE TO, CAN NOT, MAY NOT, DON'T HAVE TO, DOESN'T HAVE TO- at pre-intermediate level in EFL situation.

4.6 Discussion

GCRTs versus TTGI

The research question motivating this study was whether GCRTs would consistently produce significant proficiency gains in knowledge of the target grammar structure - *modals* - comparable to the gains produced by TTGI. It should be recalled that no discussion of the grammar point was included in the treatment, so the learner mastery of the grammar structure was gained only from performance of the task activities (appendices A, B).

The percentages of proficiency gains of the *modals* in the pre-test and the post-test (figure 5) showed that the subjects in both groups increased their proficiency gains in knowledge of the *modals* during the 5-week treatment. But the percentages of the Experimental Group proficiency gains in the post-test was higher than those of the Control Group. That is, after the treatment, the Experimental Group subjects instructed through GCRTs produced better proficiency gains than the Control Group subjects instructed through TTGI as figure 5 illustrates.

The results of t-test for independent samples indicated that there was not a significant difference initially between the proficiency levels of the groups (table 13) . The t-test results for independent samples, as measured by post-tests, showed that there was a significant difference between the gains in proficiency levels of the groups after the treatment (table 14). That is, the Experimental group subjects performed better than the Control group subjects.

In summary, it can be suggested that the positive results of GCRT performance may be applicable to the problematic grammar structures such as *modals*.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

The studies on the positive effect of GCRTs (Fotos, 1994; Fotos and Ellis, 1991; Yip, 1994) have shown that learners taught through GCRTs have a better improvement than the learners taught through TTGI. But the effectiveness of these tasks still need to be empirically investigated on different problematic grammar structures as Ellis and Fotos (1991) state. Therefore, this study aimed at finding an answer to the following research question: are GCRTs superior to TTGI in teaching *modals* at pre-intermediate level adult learners in EFL situation at Gaziosmanpaşa University ?

In order to compare the effectiveness of GCRTs versus TTGI in teaching *modals*, the Experimental Group subjects performed GCRTs which provide deliberate attempts to make the learners aware of the target structure and provide opportunities for learners to understand the formal and functional properties of the *modals* by helping them develop a cognitive representation of them by means of communication. The subjects in the Control Group were taught the same grammar point through TTGI which is based on practice supplying the learners with many opportunities for producing the target structure.

The results showed that TTGI is an effective type of teaching grammar in form and function, but GCRTs are more effective. Since we are looking for an alternative to TTGI, we can say that GCRTs can be an alternative.

In other words, The research question of the present study can be answered in a way that we can use GCRTs as one possible method for the development of knowledge

of problematic grammar structures through communicative activities as Fotos (1994), Fotos and Ellis (1991), Yip (1994) suggest.

As a result of this study, As Fotos (1994) suggests, GCRTs can be recommended to the field of language teaching as a useful pedagogical tool when teachers are looking for acceptable ways to teach formal and functional properties on grammar.

As a conclusion, it can be said that this study supports the idea that using GCRTs is beneficial in teaching of a certain grammar point.

5.1 Suggestions for Further Research

This study indicated that there was a significant difference in the effectiveness of GCRTs compared to TTGI in teaching the *modals*. However, since this study was limited to only one grammatical point, we can not generalize the results to all other grammar points. So GCRTs are in need of further study on teaching different grammar points.

Different formats for GCRTs should be developed since different grammar points require different learning or teaching types. The effect of different formats should be examined on gains in explicit knowledge and interaction.

The tasks used for this study were examined only with respect to the proficiency gains. However, they should also be examined on the quality and quantity of interaction.

Two weeks after such a grammar treatment, the test used as a pre-test and post-test can be administered again as a final test to measure longer term learning.

The effect of teacher and learner feed back on the learners' solutions to grammar tasks should be investigated.

The role of metalinguistic knowledge in task performance should be investigated as Fotos and Ellis (1991) suggest.

This study was conducted with the learners at pre-intermediate level. It should be conducted with the learners at different language levels.

This study was conducted with adult learners. It should be conducted with some other learners such as children, adolescents so that it can be determined whether the ages of the learners effect the effectiveness of these tasks.

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Appendix A

Grammar Consciousness-raising Tasks of five weeks for the Experimental Group

TASK I

Instruction: read the following sentences. **Find** the new grammar points. **Underline** them. **Match** them to those of your friends in your group. **Discuss** the grammatical rule of these sentences. **Speak only English.**

1. He may help us.
2. A- I must call my friend but my phone is out of order
B- You can use my phone.
3. It is nice today. We can sit in the garden.
4. You must be careful.
5. You can fly from Heathrow to 215 different destinations, and you can choose from seventy international airlines - there are usually six hundred flights a day.
6. My friend, Sally, is very skillful. She can speak four languages, she can play the guitar and she can sing very well.
7. You mustn't talk about politics.
8. Tom can't run very fast now but he used to run faster than anyone else when he was young.
9. His brother can not play the piano but he can dance well.
10. Mary may not come to the party.

1. What are the new grammar points ?

.....

2. What form of the verb do we use in these structures ?

.....

3. What is the grammatical rule ?

Positive form :

Negative form :

TASK II

What is the next point you will learn ?

Instruction: read the following text and **decide** what the **new point** is. Underline that point in the text.

Charles Gripp, the ex-bank robber, is in prison now. He has to get up early every morning. He has to wear a blue uniform and work hard all day. Then, at ten o'clock every evening, he has to turn off the light in his cell and go to bed. Charles often thinks of his friends outside. They can do what they want. They don't have to get up early. They don't have to wear a blue uniform. They don't have to work hard all day. They don't have to go to bed at ten, either.

Charles talks to himself in his bed : I have to work hard all day, I have to wear a blue uniform. I have to go to bed at ten every evening. My wife has to earn money. She has to look after our children on her own. She has to overcome all difficulties by herself. Fortunately she doesn't have to look for a job because she has a good job and she doesn't have to get up early on Saturdays and Sundays...

1. What is the grammatical rule ?

Positive form :

Negative form :

TASK III

Note: Can, May, Must and Have to are some of English modal verbs.

General rules about modals:

1. The form of modal verbs (except have to) remain the same with each pronoun ?

e.g., I / you / he / she / it / we / you / they may come early.

Have to is different:

I / you / we / they **have to** get up early.

He / she / it **has to** get up early.

I / you / we / they **don't have to** get up early.

He / she / it **doesn't have to** get up early.

2. We always use a modal verb before the main verb.

e.g., You **mustn't talk** loudly in the library.

Instruction: You all have different cards. **Read** the correct and incorrect sentences in turn. **Correct** the incorrect sentences together with your group members. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group. **Speak only English.**

1. I'm afraid Mr Grover is deaf. He can't heard what you say. (incorrect)

2. You can see the sea from our bedroom window. (correct)

3. We must to win this game. (incorrect)

4. I have to work on Sunday mornings. (correct)

1. You can to see the sea from our bedroom window. (incorrect)

2. Fish can not survive out of water. (correct)

3. Tim have to do some washing. (incorrect)

4. You may not bring more than two visitors into the club. (correct)

1. You are can't park here. (incorrect)
2. You may not bringing more than two visitors into the club. (incorrect)
3. You may telephone from here. (correct)
4. We have not to invite the Bells. They didn't invite us last time. (incorrect)

1. I'm must buy a paper. I want to see the racing results. (incorrect)
2. I don't have to make sandwiches. (correct)
3. Sally don't have to take these pills. She isn't ill. (incorrect)
4. He has to got to the airport. She is meeting someone. (correct)

TASK IV

Instruction: You all have different cards. **Read** the sentences for your friends in your group. **Discuss** and **decide** if they are correct or incorrect. **Correct** the incorrect ones together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group. **Speak only English.**

1. I can must drive. (.....)
2. Mrs Lawrence has to wore glasses. She can't see very well. (.....)
3. Mrs Brown is quite happy living alone. She can looking after herself. (.....)
4. This not can be the answer. (.....)

1. Winter sports can be dangerous. (.....)
2. I can't coming and seeing you tomorrow morning. I will be at work. (.....)
3. You must finish this today. (.....)
4. You be can't serious. (.....)

1. I have to finished this today. (.....)
2. You must were quiet. (.....)
3. You has to be quiet. (.....)
4. My mother can't be speak English. (.....)

1. Mr Smith can not your question answer. (.....)
2. We invite must Sally. She is a wonderful friend. (.....)
3. We have not to pay for the food. It is free. (.....)
4. Laura doesn't have to finish her essay today. (.....)

TASK V

MODALS (can, may, must, have to) have the same structural rule (**modal + V1**) but they have different meanings. So we will discuss them one by one.

While performing this task, think of the **meaning** (function) of **CAN**.

Instruction: you all have different cards. **Read** your sentence and three choices for your friends. **Discuss** the meaning of the **underlined sentence** and **choose** the correct choice together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group. **Speak only English.**

1. Winter sports can be dangerous.
 - a. It is certain that winter sports are dangerous.
 - b. It is possible that winter sports are dangerous.
 - c. It is necessary that winter sports are dangerous.

2. We can come to the meeting.
 - a. It is possible that we will come to the meeting.
 - b. It is certain that we will come to the meeting.
 - c. It is unlikely that we will come to the meeting.

3. John can take me to the airport.
 - a. It is certain that John will take me to the airport.
 - b. Perhaps John will take me to the airport.
 - c. I'm sure that John will take me to the airport.

4. I can post the letter today.

- a. It is impossible that I will post the letter today.
- b. It is certain that I will post the letter today.
- c. It is possible that I will post the letter today.

What is the **first function** of CAN ?

- a. Certainty
- b. Possibility
- c. Impossibility

TASK VI

What is the **second function** of CAN ?

Instruction: You all have different cards. **Read** your sentence and three choices for your friends. **Discuss** the meaning of the underlined sentence and **choose** the correct choice together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group. **Speak only English.**

1. He can speak three languages.

- a. Perhaps he speaks three languages.
- b. It is certain that he speaks three languages.
- c. He is able to speak three languages.

2. Fit people can run a mile in fifteen minutes or less.

- a. Perhaps fit people run a mile in fifteen minutes or less.
- b. Fit people are able to run a mile in fifteen minutes or less.
- c. Fit people run a mile in fifteen minutes or less.

3. She can type 60 wpm.

- a. She has the ability to type 60 wpm.
- b. She types 60 wpm.
- c. It is certain that she types 60 wpm.

4. She can sing very well.

- a. It is possible that she sings very well.
- b. It is certain that she sings very well.
- c. She is able to sing very well.

The **second function** of **CAN** is :

- a. Certainty
- b. Obligation
- c. Ability.

TASK VII

What is the **third function** of **CAN** ?

Instruction: You all have different cards. **Read** your sentence and three choices for your friends. **Discuss** the meaning of the underlined sentence and **choose** the correct choice together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group. **Speak only English.**

1. You can smoke here.

- a. It is necessary to smoke here.
- b. It is forbidden to smoke here.
- c. They permit you to smoke here.

2. You can use my typewriter.

- a. I permit you to use my typewriter.
- b. You are able to use my typewriter.
- c. Perhaps you use my typewriter.

3. You can borrow my pen.

- a. You are able to use my pen.
- b. I permit you to use my pen
- c. Perhaps you use my pen.

4. You can use a dictionary in the exam.

- a. Perhaps you use a dictionary.
- b. You are able to use a dictionary.
- c. I permit you to use a dictionary.

The **third function** of CAN is:

- a. Necessity
- b. permission
- c. obligation

TASK VIII

We use CAN to express **Possibility, Ability** and **Permission**.

Instruction: You all have different cards. **Read** your sentences one by one for your friends in your group and **put them into** the right function group together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group.

Possibility

Ability

Permission

- 1. Learning English can be interesting.
- 2. You can come with me.
- 3. My aunt lives alone. She is quite happy because she can look after herself.
- 4. My sister can swim like a fish.

1. You can use my phone.
2. I can play chess.
3. Karen can write computer programs.
4. They can go to that new restaurant.

1. We can play basketball on Sunday.
2. You can use my computer to write your composition.
3. We can go for a picnic this afternoon.
4. I can lift this heavy box by myself.

1. Although our son is two years old, he can count to ten.
2. I can cook well.
3. Each passenger can take one bag onto the plane.
4. He can come here in his car.

TASK IX

Instruction: You all have different cards. **Read** your sentence and three choices for your friends. **Discuss** the meaning of the **underlined sentence** and **choose** the correct choice together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group. **Speak only English.**

1. You can't smoke here.
 - a. You don't need to smoke here.
 - b. it is necessary to smoke here.
 - c. it is forbidden to smoke here.

2. You can't enter the club without a card.

- a. It is not necessary to enter the club without a card.
- b. It is forbidden to enter the club without a card.
- c. It is possible for you to enter the club without a card.

3. I can't come and see you tomorrow morning. I will be at work.

- a. It is impossible for me to come and see you tomorrow morning.
- b. It is forbidden to come and see you tomorrow morning.
- c. It is not necessary for me to come and see you tomorrow morning.

4. Fish can not survive out of water.

- a. Fish are forbidden to live out of water.
- b. It is not necessary for fish to survive out of water.
- c. It is impossible for fish to live out of water.

How many functions of **CAN NOT** have you found ?

.....

What are they ?

TASK X

Note: CAN'T has two functions: **Refusing permission, impossibility**

Instruction: You all have different cards. **Read** your sentences one by one for your friends in your group and **put them into** the right function group together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group.

Refusing permission

Impossibility

1. I'm afraid I can't come to the dance on Friday.
2. I'm sorry but you can't picnic here.
3. You can not leave your bicycle here.
4. Mr Smith can't answer your question.

1. We can't go on holiday until next month.
2. This can not be the answer.
3. You can't speak loudly in the library.
4. She is blind. She can't see anything.

1. You can't be serious. You are joking.
2. Members can not bring more than two visitors into the club.
3. Birds can't speak.
4. It can't be 7 o'clock already.

1. He can't be in town.
2. You can't leave now.
3. I'm sorry, you are in my light. I can't see what I'm doing.
4. You can't take photographs in museums.

TASK XI

While performing this task, think of the **meaning** (function) of **MAY**.

Instruction: You all have different cards. **Read** your sentence and three choices for your friends. **Discuss** the meaning of the **underlined sentence** and **choose** the correct choice together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group. **Speak only English.**

choice together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group.

Speak only English.

1. You may go out.

- a. go out please.
- b. I give you permission to go out.
- c. You will go out.

2. When you finish the test you may leave.

- a. You will leave.
- b. perhaps you will leave.
- c. You can leave.

3. You may borrow my bicycle.

- a. I permit you to borrow my bicycle.
- b. borrow my bicycle please.
- c. Why don't you borrow my bicycle ?

4. You may drive for a year in Britain with an international licence.

- a. You will drive.
- b. The British law permits you to drive.
- c. Perhaps you will drive.

What is the **second function** of **MAY** ?

- a. ability
- b. possibility
- c. permission

Are there any similarities between **MAY** and **CAN** ?

.....

TASK XIII

NOTE: There is no important difference between **MAY** and **CAN** when they express possibility and permission. **MAY: formal, CAN: informal.**

Instruction: You all have different cards. **Read** your sentences one by one for your friends in your group and **put them into** the right function group together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group.

Possibility

permission

Ability

1. You may come in.
2. You can stay a little longer.
3. I may give you a ring next week.
4. We may go for a picnic tomorrow.

1. You can use my pen.
2. You may take notes.
3. She can dance well.
4. I'm not sure where to go for my holiday but I may go to Italy.

1. We can come to the meeting.
2. Tom can ride a bike.
3. Meeting new people can be interesting.
4. The middle latitudes of the world may become warmer and drier in the future.

1. I can drive but I haven't got a car.
2. He can lift 100 pounds.
3. Students may stay out late.
4. Tropical storms may become stronger and more frequent in the future.

Do we use **MAY** to express **ability** ?

.....

Instruction: Are the following sentences **appropriate** or **inappropriate**. Write the appropriate forms of the inappropriate ones. **Discuss** them with your group members.

1. A bird may fly. (.....)
2. My grandfather may not run very fast. (.....)
3. You may borrow my pen. (.....)
4. I may swim like a fish. (.....)
5. My father may lift this refrigerator by himself.(.....)
6. I can play chess. (.....)
7. His sister may dance quite well. (.....)
8. My father can cook very well. (.....)

TASK XIV

Note : **MAY** expresses **possibility, permission**

CAN expresses **possibility, permission, ability**

While performing this task, think of the **meaning** of **MAY NOT**.

Instruction: You all have different cards. **Read** your sentence and three choices for your friends. **Discuss** the meaning of the **underlined sentence** and **choose** the correct choice together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group.

Speak only English.

1. She may not visit us today.
 - a. It is impossible for her to visit us today.
 - b. It is possible that she won't visit us today.
 - c. She can't visit us today.

2. John may not be at home.

- a. It is not possible that John is at home
- b. It is possible that John is not at home.
- c. John can't be at home.

3. It may not rain this afternoon.

- a. It is possible that it will rain this afternoon.
- b. It can't rain this afternoon.
- c. It is possible that it won't rain this afternoon.

4. My father may not meet me at the airport.

- a. Perhaps, he won't meet me at the airport.
- b. He can't meet me at the airport.
- c. It is not possible that he will meet me at the airport.

What is the **first function** of **MAY NOT** ?

- a. possibility
- b. negative possibility
- c. permission

TASK XV

Instruction: You all have different cards. **Read** your sentence and three choices for your friends. **Discuss** the meaning of the **underlined sentence** and **choose** the correct choice together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group **Speak only English.**

1. You may not park your car here.

- a. It is possible that you will not park your car here.
- a. You won't park your car here.
- c. You can't park your car here.

2. You may not go out before you give your exam paper.

- a. It is possible that you won't go out.
- b. You can't go out.
- c. You won't go out.

3. You may not smoke here.

- a. You can't smoke here.
- b. It is possible that you won't smoke here.
- c. You won't smoke here.

4. You may not come in.

- a. It is possible that you will not come in.
- b. You can't come in.
- c. It is not possible that you will not come in.

What is the **second function** of **MAY NOT** ?

- a. obligation
- b. refusing permission
- c. possibility

Which function of **MAY NOT** is also the function of **CAN NOT** ?

.....

TASK XVI

MAY NOT: negative possibility, refusing permission. (but **not** impossibility)

CAN NOT: refusing permission, impossibility. (but **not** negative possibility)

Instruction: You all have different cards. **Read** your sentences one by one for your friends in your group and **put them into** the right function group together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group.

Negative possibility

refusing permission

impossibility

1. You may not borrow my pen.
2. I can't speak French.
3. You may not bring more than two visitors into the club.

1. I may not go to Cyprus for my holiday.
2. You can't picnic here.
3. My mother can't run well.

1. I'm sorry but you can't use my umbrella.
2. My brother can not play basketball because he is very short.
3. She may not come to the meeting.

1. I'm very busy. I may not write the composition tonight.
2. He may not repair it today.
3. You may not picnic here.

TASK XVII

While performing this task, think of the **meaning** (function) of **MUST**.

Instruction: You all have different cards. **Read** your sentence and three choices for your friends. **Discuss** the meaning of the **underlined sentence** and **choose** the correct choice together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group
Speak only English.

1. You must be careful.

- a. It is necessary for you to be careful.
- b. It is possible for you to be careful.
- c. You can be careful.

2. You must finish this today.

- a. You may finish this today.
- b. It is necessary for you to finish this today.
- c. You don't need to finish this today.

3. I must buy a paper. I want to see the racing results.

- a. It is necessary for me to buy a paper.
- b. I can buy a paper.
- c. I may buy a paper.

4. I must write to Ann. I haven't written to her for ages.

- a. I personally feel that it is necessary to write to Ann.
- b. It is not necessary but I want to write to Ann.
- c. It is possible that I will write to Ann.

What is the **first function** of **Must** ?

- a. possibility
- b. obligaton
- c. ability

TASK XVIII

Instruction: You all have different cards. **Read** your sentence and three choices for your friends. **Discuss** the meaning of the underlined sentence and **choose** the correct choice together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group. **Speak only English.**

1. He has passed his exam. He must be happy.

- a. It is possible that he is happy.
- b. It is necessary for her to be happy.
- c. It is probable that he is happy.

2. He has a big house with thirteen bedrooms. He must have a big family.

- a. It is probable that he has a big family.
- b. It is possible that he has a big family.
- c. It may be possible that he has a big family.

3. She has her own plane. She must be rich.

- a. She is rich.
- b. She may be rich.
- c. It is probable that she is rich.

4. Her father is always angry with her. He must be bad-tempered.

- a. He is bad-tempered.
- b. It is possible that he is bad-tempered.
- c. It is very possible that he is bad-tempered.

What is the **second function** of **MUST** ?

- a. probability
- b. impossibility
- c. ability

TASK XIX

MUST has **two** functions: **obligation, probability**

Instruction: read your sentences and **put** them **into** the right function group.

Obligation

Probability

1. You must be quite.
2. You must make your bed every day.
3. Your son won a scholarship. You must be very proud of him.
4. You must make less noise. I'm trying to concentrate.
5. You must get plenty of sleep.
6. I must ask for permission to go out.
7. They have been travelling all night. They must be tired.
8. I must put the heating on. I feel really cold.
9. You must come home on time.
10. You haven't eaten for a whole day. You must be very hungry.

Instruction: read the sentences 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9 again and **decide** who says these sentences.

Who forces people to do something in these sentences ?

- a. the hearer b. the listener c. the speaker d. someone else

TASK XX

While performing this task, think of the **function** of **HAVE TO**.

Instruction: You all have different cards. **Read** your sentence and three choices for your friends. **Discuss** the meaning of the underlined sentence and **choose** the correct choice together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group.

Speak only English.

1. I have to work on Sunday mornings.
 - a. I have an obligation to work on Sunday mornings.
 - b. I want to work on Sunday mornings.
 - c. I will work on Sunday mornings.

2. I have to buy a paper. My boss wants to read today's news.

- a. I want to buy a paper.
- b. I have an obligation to buy a paper.
- c. I will buy a paper.

3. Vera has a bad leg. She has to go to hospital.

- a. Vera is in need of going to hospital.
- b. Vera can go to hospital.
- c. Vera may go to hospital.

4. We have to apply for a visa.

- a. It is possible to apply for a visa.
- b. It is probable to apply for a visa.
- c. It is an obligation for us to apply for a visa.

What is the **function** of **HAVE TO** ?

- a. possibility
- b. permission
- c. obligation

Instruction: read the underlined sentences again in turn and **decide** who or what forces people to do these things. You can choose more than one choice.

- a. the speaker
- b. the hearer
- c. the situation
- d. someone else

TASK XXI

Instruction: Use the following cues and **complete** the following expressions.

internal	the speaker's	external
someone else's	general	

The differences between **MUST** and **HAVE TO** are:

a. **MUST** expresses obligation.

Doctor: You must stop smoking.

Father: You must finish your homework.

b. **HAVE TO** expresses **obligation**.

Students have to wear uniforms at schools.

We have to brush our teeth every morning.

c. We use **HAVE TO** when we are talking about **obligation**.

He has to visit his aunt.

They have to study hard.

d. **MUST** expresses **obligation**.

I must buy a paper. I want to read today's news.

e. **HAVE TO** expresses **obligation**.

I have to buy a paper. My boss wants to read today's news.

TASK XXII

NOTE: the **main difference** between **MUST** and **HAVE TO** lies in their **negative usage**.

Instruction: You all have different cards. **Read** your sentence and three choices for your friends. **Discuss** the meaning of the underlined sentence and **choose** the correct choice together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group. **Speak only English.**

1. You mustn't drive fast. It is dangerous.
 - a. It is an obligation for you not to drive fast.
 - b. It is not forbidden to drive fast.
 - c. You do not need to drive fast.

2. You mustn't walk on the grass.
 - a. You don't need to walk on the grass.
 - b. It is an obligation for you not to walk on the grass.
 - c. You may not walk on the grass.

3. You mustn't cross the street when the light is red.
 - a. It is necessary to cross the street.
 - b. You do not need to cross the street.
 - c. It is an obligation for you not to cross the street.

4. You mustn't be late.
 - a. You have an obligation not to be late.
 - b. It is not necessary for you not to be late.
 - c. You can be late.

What is the **function** of **MUSTN'T** ?

- a. absence of prohibition b. negative obligation c. absence of obligation

TASK XXIII

Instruction: You all have different cards. **Read** your sentence and three choices for your friends. **Discuss** the meaning of the underlined sentence and **choose** the correct choice together with your friends. **Do not show** your card to anybody in your group. **Speak only English.**

1. He doesn't have to get up early every day.
 - a. He has an obligation not to get up early every morning.
 - b. He doesn't need to get up early every morning.
 - c. It is necessary for him not to get up early every morning.

2. You don't have to drive fast. We have plenty of time.
 - a. It is forbidden to drive fast.
 - b. It is not forbidden to drive fast.
 - c. You do not need to drive fast.

3. She doesn't have to work hard all day.
 - a. She doesn't need to work hard all day.
 - b. She has an obligation not to work hard all day.
 - c. It is forbidden for her not to work hard all day.
4. All the food is free. We don't have to pay for it.
 - a. It is necessary to pay for it.
 - b. It is an obligation for us to pay for it.
 - c. It is not necessary for us to pay for it.

What is the **function** of **DON'T / DOESN'T HAVE TO** ?

- a. negative obligation b. obligation c. absence of obligation

TASK XXIV

Note : **MUSTN'T** : negative obligation
DON'T / DOESN'T HAVE TO : absence of obligation

Instruction: translate the following sentences into **Turkish**. Match them to those of your friends.

1. Sylvia doesn't have to finish her essay today. She has got until Friday to hand it in.
2. I don't have to look for a new job because I have a good job.
3. You work all the time. You mustn't work so hard.
4. The windows aren't dirty. You don't have to clean them.
5. You mustn't walk on the grass.
6. You don't have to go to the supermarket because we have plenty of food.
7. You mustn't talk loudly in the library.
8. Sally doesn't have to take these pills. She isn't ill.
9. You mustn't cross the street when the light is red.
10. We don't have to invite the Bells. They didn't invite us last time.

TASK XXV

Instruction: match the following sentences in column **A** with their **functions** in column **B**. Then match them to those of your friends in your group.

A

B

1. They can buy a house by a lake.
2. Susan can play the organ.

obligation
 absence of obligation

- | | |
|---|--|
| 3. You mustn't talk during the exam. | ability |
| 4. You mustn't smoke. It is harmful
for your health. | possibility
Permission |
| 5. Yavuz has to leave home at 7:30
every morning. | impossibility
negative possibility |
| 6. He bought a very luxurious holiday
house. He must be very rich. | refusing permission
negative obligation |
| 7. Marry may not meet you at the airport. | probability |
| 8. University students don't have to
stand up when the teacher comes in. | |
| 9. All the drivers have to obey the traffic rules. | |
| 10. It is dark. You have to turn the lights on. | |
| 11. I can't swim across the river. | |

Appendix B

Traditional Teacher-fronted Grammar Lesson Tasks of five Weeks For the Control Group

TASK I (presentation)

T- Today we are going to study a new structure. The new structure is English modal verbs - CAN, MAY, MUST, HAVE TO / HAS TO.

Instruction: Listen to me carefully.

1. He may help us.
2. It is nice today. We can sit in the garden.
3. I have to get up early every morning.
4. You must be careful.
5. She has to look for a new job.
6. My friend, Sally, is very skillful. She can speak four languages, she can play the guitar and she can sing very well.
7. Mary may not come to the party.
8. His brother can not play the piano but he can dance well.
9. Tom can't run very fast now but he used to run faster than anyone else when he was young.
10. You mustn't talk about politics.
11. Sylvia doesn't have to finish her essay today.
12. You don't have to go to the supermarket.

(the teacher repeats the sentences above and the students repeat them after her)

The rule of negative HAVE TO: S + DON'T HAVE TO + V1

I

we

you

they

he + DOESN'T HAVE TO + V1

she

it

TASK IV (presentation)

Instruction: pay attention to the usage of modals in sentences.

(the teacher writes on the board)

I

You

He can

She may come to the meeting.

It must

We can't

You may not

They mustn't

I

You

We have to come to the meeting.

They

He

She has to come to the meeting.

It

I

You

We don't have to come to the meeting.

They

He

She doesn't have to come to the meeting.

It

TASK V (practice and production)

Instruction: put the words into the correct order. Compare your sentences with those of your friend.

1. from / can / our bedroom / you / window / see / the sea.
2. win / we / this / game / must.
3. work / I / on / have / Sunday mornings / to.
4. not / Fish / survive / can / out of water.
5. some washing / Tim / do / has to.
6. may / you / from here / telephone.
7. may / bring /not /two visitors /into the club /you /more than.
8. here / you / park / can't.
9. sandwiches / I / to / make / don't / have.
- 10.to / doesn't / take / have / Sally / these pills.

TASK VI (presentation and practice)

T- Modals have the same grammatical rule but they have different meanings (functions).

Today we are going to study the meaning of CAN

Note: (teacher writes on the board)

CAN has three functions

1. possibility.

Ali can come tomorrow. (We are not sure that Ali will come. Perhaps he will come)

I can clean the room today. (Perhaps I will clean it)

2. permission.

You can borrow my bicycle. (I permit you to borrow my bicycle)

You can sit on this seat. (I permit you to sit on this seat)

3. ability.

He can play the piano although he is only three. (He is able to play the piano....)

My grandmother can see very well although she is 90. (she is able to see)

Instruction: read the following sentences and write their functions. Compare them with those of your friend.

1. Learning English can be interesting.(.....)
2. You can come with me.(.....)
3. He can visit his uncle in hospital this afternoon. (.....)
4. My sister can swim like a fish.(.....)
5. You can use my phone.(.....)
6. I can play chess.(.....)
7. Karen can write computer programs.(.....)
8. They can go to that new restaurant.(.....)

9. Mrs Brown lives alone. She is quite happy because she can look after herself. (.....)

10. Although our son is two years old, he can count to ten. (.....)

TASK VII (presentation and practice)

T- Now you are going to study the functions of CAN NOT.

(teacher gives the following part orally and writes on the board)

CAN'T has two functions: 1. refusing permission

2. impossibility

She can't be fifty. She seems very young. (impossibility)

You can't enter the building. (refusing permission)

Instruction: Read the following sentences and write their functions. Compare them with those of your friend.

1. I'm afraid I can't come to the dance on Friday. (.....)

2. I'm sorry but you can't picnic here. (.....)

3. You can not leave your bicycle here. (.....)

4. Mr Smith can't answer your question. (.....)

5. We can't go on holiday until next month. (.....)

6. This can not be the answer. (.....)

7. You can't speak loudly in the library. (.....)

8. She is blind. She can't see anything. (.....)

9. You can't be serious. You are joking. (.....)

10. Members can not bring more than two visitors into the club. (.....)

TASK VIII (production)

Instruction: rewrite the following sentences by using CAN or CAN'T

1. I am able to cook.
2. It is impossible for birds to speak.
3. It is possible for him to come in his car
4. They do not permit you to leave now.
5. It is impossible that it is 7 o'clock already.
6. It is possible for us to play basketball on Sunday.
7. They permit each passanger to take only one bag onto the plane.
8. It is not possible for him to be in town.
9. I give you permission to borrow my pen.
10. I'm sorry, you are in my light. It is impossible for me to see what I'm doing.
11. It is forbidden to take photographs in museums.
12. Mary is able to drive a car but Bill isn't able to drive a car.

TASK IX (presentation and practice)

T- Today we are going to study the functions of MAY

(teacher writes on the board)

MAY has two functions: 1. possibility
2. permission.

e.g., We may invite the Browns to our party. (possibility)

My friend may call me. (possibility)

You may use my pen. (permission)

You can sit here. (permission)

Instruction: Read the following sentences and write their functions. Compare them with those of your friend.

1. We may go for a picnic tomorrow. (.....)
2. You may stay a little longer. (.....)
3. I'm not sure where to go for my holiday but I may go to Italy. (.....)
4. You may go out. (.....)
5. When you finish the test you may leave. (.....)
6. You may come in. (.....)
7. They may go to Spain by plane. (.....)
8. I may give you a ring next week. (.....)
9. She may lose her way. She doesn't know her way round town very well. (.....)
10. Scientists agree that something very serious is happening to the world weather. They now think that in the future: The globe may get warmer (.....); Dry tropical regions may become drier (.....); Wet tropical regions may become wetter (.....); The polar ice may begin to melt (.....).

TASK X (presentation and practice)

(the teacher writes on the board)

NOTE: There is no important difference between MAY and CAN when they express possibility and permission. MAY: formal

CAN: informal.

The main difference is that CAN also expresses ability but MAY does not have the function of ability. e.g., I can sing well (not I may sing well)

Instruction: Read the following sentences and write their functions. Compare them with those of your friends.

1. You may come in. (.....)
2. You can come in. (.....)
3. We may have a picnic. (.....)
4. We can have a picnic. (.....)
5. You can use my pen. (.....)
6. You may take notes. (.....)
7. She can dance well. (.....)
8. We can come to the meeting. (.....)
9. We may come to the meeting. (.....)
10. Tom can ride a bike. (.....)
11. Meeting new people can be interesting. (.....)
12. Meeting new people may be interesting. (.....)
13. I can drive but I haven't got a car. (.....)
14. He can lift 100 pounds. (.....)

Can you see any sentences that contain MAY in the function group of ability ?

TASK XI (presentation and practice)

T- Today you are going to study the functions of MAY NOT.

(teacher writes on the board)

MAY NOT has two functions: 1. negative possibility
2. refusing permission.

She may not visit us this weekend. (negative possibility)

You may not use these computers. (refusing permission)

Instruction: Read the following sentences and write their functions. Compare them with those of your friend.

1. She may not visit us today. (.....)
2. you may not picnic here.(.....)
3. You may not smoke here.(.....)
4. John may not be at home.(.....)
5. You may not bring more than two visitors into the club. (.....)
6. Tom may not pass his final exams.(.....)
7. I may not go to Antalya for my holiday.(.....)
8. You may not take photographs in museums.(.....)
9. You may not come in.(.....)

TASK XII

(the teacher writes on the board)

MAY NOT: negative possibility, refusing permission (but not impossibility)

CAN NOT : refusing permission, impossibility (but not negative possibility)

Instruction: Read the following sentences and write their functions. Compare them with those of your friend.

1. She can't visit us today. (.....)
2. She may not visit us today. (.....)
3. John can't be at home. (.....)
4. John may not be at home.(.....)
5. You can't smoke here. (.....)
6. You may not smoke here. (.....)
7. You can't come in. (.....)
8. You may not come in. (.....)
9. You can not bring more than two visitors into the club. (.....)
10. You may not bring more than two visitors into the club. (.....)

11. Tom can not pass his final exams.(.....)
12. Tom may not pass his final exams.(.....)
13. You can't take photographs in museums.(.....)
14. You may not take photographs in museums.(.....)
15. You can't picnic here.(.....)
16. You may not picnic here.(.....)
17. I can not go to Antalya for my holiday.(.....)
18. I may not go to Antalya for my holiday.(.....)

Is negative possibility also the function of CAN NOT ?

Is impossibility also the function of MAY NOT ?

TASK XIII (production)

Instruction: Fill in the blanks with MAY, MAY NOT, CAN, CAN NOT.

1. Students stay out late.
2. A bird fly.
3. My grandfather run very fast.
4. You borrow my pen.
5. You come in.
6. I swim like a fish.
7. My father lift this refrigerator by himself.
8. I play chess.
9. You bring more than two visitors into the club.
10. I'm afraid Mr Grover is deaf. He hear what you say.
11. A- I call my friend because my phone is out of order.
B- You use my phone.
12. You fly from Heathrow to 215 different destinations, and you....choose from seventy international airlines - there are usually six hundred flights a day.

TASK XIV (presentation and practice)

T - Today we are going to study the function of MUST.

(the teacher talks about the functions of MUST, then writes on the board)

MUST has two functions:

1. obligation

a. the speaker's obligation

Boss : You must finish your work in two hours.

Mother : You must be quiet.

Doctor : You must stop smoking.

Father : You must finish your homework.

b. internal obligation

I must go and see my friend Marry.

I must buy a paper. I want to read today's news.

2. probability

He went bankrupt. He must be in despair.

He passed all his exams. He must be very hard working.

Instruction: Read the sentences and write their functions.

1. You must be quite. (.....)

2. You must make your bed every day. (.....)

3. Your son won a scholarship. You must be very proud of him. (.....)
4. You must make less noise. I'm trying to concentrate. (.....)
5. You must get plenty of sleep. (.....),
6. I must ask for permission to go out. (.....)
7. They have been travelling all night. They must be tired. (.....)
8. I must put the heating on. I feel really cold. (.....)
9. You must come home on time. (.....)
10. You haven't eaten for a whole day. You must be very hungry. (.....)
11. I must buy a paper. I want to see the racing results.(.....)
12. A : Does the room belong to a man or a woman ?
 B : It must belong to a man. (.....)
 A : Why ?
 B : Because there is a pipe on the table.

TASK XV (presentation)

T - Today we are going to study the function of **HAVE TO / HAS TO**

(teacher writes on the board)

T- **HAVE TO / HAS TO** also expresses obligation.

a. General obligation

Students have to wear uniforms at schools.

We have to brush our teeth every morning.

b. External obligation

I have to do washing up before my mother comes back.

I have to buy a paper. My boss wants to read today's news.

c. Another person's obligation

He has to visit his aunt.

They have to study hard.

Instruction: What sort of obligations are these ?

1. I have to work on Sunday mornings. (.....)
2. I have to buy a paper. My father wants to read today's news. (.....)
3. Vera has a bad leg. She has to go to hospital. (.....)
4. We have to apply for a visa. (.....)
5. There is no bus, so we have to walk home.(.....)
6. Students have to obey school rules. (.....)
7. He has to get to the airport. She is meeting someone. (.....)
8. Men have to join military service when they are 20 in Turkey. (.....)
9. Jill won't be here this afternoon. She has to go to the doctor. (.....)
10. Prisoners have to wear blue uniforms in some countries. (.....)

TASK XVI (Practice and production)

Instruction: fill in the blanks with MUST, HAVE TO, HAS TO.

1. A teacher be patient.
2. Writersbe creative.
3. You write a book about your trip.
4. You get up early every morning.
5. Youcalculate exactly how much water you need in the desert.
6. Everybody carry an ID card all the time.
7. I call Ayşe. I have missed her very much.
8. I call Ali. He has an exam tomorrow but he doesn't know this.

TASK XVII (presentation and practice)

(the teacher writes on the board)

NOTE: the main difference between **MUST** and **HAVE TO** lies in their negative usage.

The function of **MUSTN'T** : negative obligation

You mustn't go to bed late.

You mustn't smoke so much.

You mustn't make noise.

The function of **DON'T / DOESN'T HAVE TO** : absence of obligation.

You don't have to wear your jacket. It is hot today.

He doesn't have to go to hospital. He isn't ill.

Instruction: Complete the following sentences with **MUSTN'T** or **DON'T / DOESN'T HAVE TO**.

1. You drive fast. It is dangerous.
2. You drive fast. We have plenty of time.
3. You cross the street when the light is red.
4. All the food is free. We pay for it.
5. It isn't raining. You take your umbrella.
6. You walk on the grass.
7. You work all the time. You work so hard.
8. The windows aren't dirty. You clean them.
9. Sylvia finish her essay today. She has got until Friday to hand it in.
10. You go to the supermarket because we have plenty of food.

11. We invite the Bells. They didn't invite us last time.

12. Sally take these pills. She isn't ill.

TASK XVIII (practice and production)

Instruction: Complete the following text with suitable modals or their negative forms.

Charles Gripp, the ex-bank robber, is in prison now. He get up early every morning. He wear a blue uniform and work hard all day. Then, at ten o'clock every evening, he turn off the light in his cell and go to bed. Charles often thinks of his friends outside. They can do what they want. They get up early. They wear a blue uniform. They work hard all day. They go to bed at ten, either.

Charles talks to himself in his bed : I work hard all day, I wear a blue uniform. I go to bed at ten every evening. My wife earn money. She look after our children on her own. She overcome all difficulties by herself. Fortunately she look for a job because she has a good job and she get up early on Saturdays and Sundays.

One day his wife visits him and says: You be patient. You be worried about us. You plan your future life.

TASK XIX (production and summary)

Instruction: Rewrite the following sentences by using modals - CAN, MAY, MUST, HAVE TO.

1. Perhaps they will buy a house by a lake.
2. Susan is able to play the organ.

3. It is necessary for you not to talk during the exam.
4. It is necessary for you not to smoke. It is harmful for your health.
5. It is an obligation for Yavuz to leave home at 7:30 every morning.
6. It is impossible for me to swim across the river.
7. It is possible for Marry not to meet you at the airport.
8. It is not necessary for university students to stand up when the teacher comes in.
9. It is compulsory for all the drivers to obey the traffic rules.
10. It is dark. It is necessary for me to turn the lights on.

TASK XX (Production and summary)

Instruction: make your own sentences by using modals - CAN, MAY, MUST, HAVE TO / HAS TO - and their negative forms. Compare your sentences with those of your friends.

Appendix C

Pre-test and post-test

A. Read the following sentences and decide if they are correct or incorrect. Correct the incorrect sentences.

1. He have to arrive by the time we get there. (.....)
2. They have to work on Sundays. (.....)
3. The exam must taking only a few minutes. (.....)
4. You must to spend more time practicing. (.....)
5. I has to study my lessons. (.....)
6. Be careful! Your head may hurt terribly. (.....)
7. He must is in a lot of pain because he had a terrible accident. (.....)
8. You mustn't did it wrong. (.....)
9. He can't understand what you said because he is deaf. (.....)
10. Candidates not may bring reference books into the examination room. (.....)
11. Ann maying know Tom's address. (.....)
12. He may not believing your story. (.....)
13. You can't eat food in the library. (.....)
14. Your wife is in hospital. You be must worried. (.....)
15. I'm thinking of learning Italian. I may go to evening classes. (.....)
16. Dave isn't answering the phone. He must be out. (.....)
17. A: I need a rest.

B: But we haven't been working long. You can be not tired yet. (.....)

18. Life can't be easy when you are permanently in a wheelchair. (.....)
19. Sarah is very musical. She can play three instruments. (.....)
20. You may keep the book for a month. After that you must returned it to us or send us a cheque for 5 pounds. (.....)

B. Comment on the following situations by using modal verbs - CAN, MAY, MUST, HAVE TO and their negative forms.

1. The picnickers leave litter everywhere. (leave)
2. When we get to the restaurant there may be no free tables. We..... one.
(reserve)
3. We are going for a walk. While we are walking, we can get hungry, so we
something with us to eat. (take)
4. The phone is ringing but Ayşe doesn't hear it. She asleep. (be)
5. That dress is very good quality. It expensive. (be)
6. A: I wonder where my umbrella is.
B: I'm not sure but itin the office. (be)
7. Tom wants to pass the examination. He very much for it (study). It may be
very difficult.
8. Jeremy doesn't lock his door when he goes out. He..... it. (lock)
9. The swimming pool is closed all day today! You in the swimming pool
today! (swim)
10. Some drivers in front stop suddenly without warning. They suddenly.
(stop)

C. Fill in the blanks with suitable modal verbs - CAN, MAY, MUST, HAVE TO / HAS TO or their negative forms.

1. Mother: You take an umbrella. It isn't going to rain.
Son : Well, it do.
Mother: Well, look after it, please. You lose it.
2. A: How old is Steve?
B: I'm not sure. Hebe older than we are. But he be more than 25.
3. Mervyn: Come on. We hurry. We be late.
Isabel: It is only ten past. We hurry. We have lots of time.

4. Secretary : I forget to type this letter.

Boss : It go in the post today because it is urgent. But the report isn't so important. You type the report today.

5. They look alike. They be twins.

6. That door doesn't close properly. You slam it every time. Don't you think that you fix it ?

7. Alice: Have you done this puzzle?

Paul : Yes, and I have got the same answer as you. It be correct.

Alice: Well, the answer in the book is different. So we be right.

8. A : My brother is a milkman. He starts work at half past four.

B : What time does he get up ?

A : At half past three.

B : He be quiet because every one else is asleep.

9. Angela: Are you going to the disco, Kate?

Kate : I'm not sure. I go.

Laura : It be difficult to get a ticket.

10. My brother play the trumpet.

Appendix D

Pre-Test scores of the Experimental Group

Subject -----	GJT -----	DCT -----	Fill-in -----	Pre-Test -----
1	7	0	1	8
2	22	4	3	29
3	6	0	1	7
4	13	0	0	13
5	18	0	4	22
6	13	4	5	22
7	17	0	2	19
8	14	0	1	15
9	16	0	5	21
10	8	0	2	10
11	17	0	0	17
12	13	0	6	19
13	17	0	6	23
14	16	8	1	25
15	18	8	3	29
16	11	0	2	13
17	9	0	3	12
18	18	0	2	20
19	12	0	5	17
20	11	0	1	12
21	23	0	1	24
22	15	0	3	18
23	10	0	1	11
24	16	4	2	22
25	7	0	3	10
26	16	0	5	21
27	19	8	11	38
28	11	8	2	21
29	14	0	2	16
30	10	0	4	14

Post-Test scores of the Experimental Group

Subject	GJT	DCT	Fill-in	Pre-Test
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
1	38	16	5	60
2	30	28	9	67
3	38	20	10	68
4	39	16	7	62
5	36	20	8	64
6	35	36	14	85
7	36	32	14	81
8	28	4	8	42
9	36	24	11	71
10	34	32	14	80
11	28	23	9	60
12	34	20	8	62
13	33	8	10	51
14	31	36	14	81
15	38	30	13	81
16	30	16	9	55
17	37	16	8	61
18	30	18	11	59
19	30	10	5	45
20	36	16	7	59
21	34	32	14	80
22	39	20	8	67
23	26	28	5	59
24	38	24	10	73
25	28	20	7	55
26	27	20	6	53
27	37	20	11	68
28	36	28	13	73
29	38	24	11	73
30	37	8	6	51

Pre-Test scores of the Control Group

Subject	GJT	DCT	Fill-in	Pre-Test
1	18	0	6	24
2	5	0	1	6
3	19	20	6	45
4	12	0	3	15
5	16	0	0	16
6	16	0	2	18
7	16	0	5	21
8	15	0	4	18
9	20	4	3	27
10	17	0	3	20
11	15	0	0	15
12	12	0	0	12
13	21	0	1	22
14	16	0	3	19
15	14	0	0	14
16	18	0	2	20
17	20	0	0	20
18	15	0	0	15
19	9	0	2	11
20	12	0	0	12
21	11	0	5	16
22	20	8	1	29
23	17	0	1	18
24	8	0	2	10
25	10	0	2	12
26	15	0	2	17
27	18	2	2	22
28	14	0	0	14
29	14	0	5	19
30	10	0	1	11

Post-Test scores of the Control Group

Subject	GJT	DCT	Fill-in	Pre-Test
1	24	12	12	48
2	23	12	4	39
3	33	20	10	63
4	22	8	6	36
5	28	8	6	42
6	24	8	7	39
7	26	8	7	41
8	30	4	5	39
9	30	4	6	40
10	40	4	5	49
11	22	8	6	34
12	27	4	8	39
13	19	12	12	43
14	27	16	9	52
15	25	16	5	51
16	28	18	6	52
17	20	20	8	48
18	29	8	8	45
19	32	4	6	42
20	26	8	11	45
21	33	15	14	62
22	25	8	8	41
23	29	8	11	48
24	31	14	6	51
25	26	0	10	36
26	27	8	6	41
27	31	16	9	56
28	23	4	7	34
29	29	16	12	57
30	20	4	6	30