AÇIKLAMALI DİLBİLGİSİ ÖĞRETİMİ: YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE EĞİTİMİNDE ANLAMA VE ÜRETMEYE DAYALI YAKLAŞIMLARIN KARŞILAŞTIRILMASI

EXPLICIT GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION: A COMPARISON OF COMPREHENSION-BASED AND PRODUCTION-BASED INSTRUCTION FOR EFL LEARNERS

Bahar CANTÜRK

(Doktora Tezi)

Eskişehir, 1998

EXPLICIT GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION: A COMPARISON OF COMPREHENSION-BASED AND PRODUCTION-BASED INSTRUCTION FOR EFL LEARNERS

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DOKTORA TEZ ÖZÜ

AÇIKLAMALI DİLBİLGİSİ ÖĞRETİMİ: YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE EĞİTİMİNDE ANLAMA VE ÜRETMEYE DAYALI YAKLAŞIMLARIN KARŞILAŞTIRILMASI

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İkinci dil ediniminde açıklamalı dilbilgisi öğretimi, araştırmacıların her zaman dikkatini çekmiştir. Bunların içinde en çok tartışılan ise dilbilgisinin nasıl öğretileceğidir.

Bu çalışmanın amacı İngilizce dilbilgisinin nasıl öğretileceğine ilişkin iki temel soruya yanıt aramaktır. Bunlardan birincisi "iki farklı dilbilgisi öğretimi, 'geleneksel, üretmeye dayalı öğretim' ve 'anlamaya dayalı öğretim', öğrencilerin problemli olduğu hedef dilbilgisi yapılarının edinimini nasıl etkiler?"; diğeri ise "bu farklı iki yaklaşımdan hangisinde öğrenme daha kalıcı olur?" sorularıdır. Çalışmanın başında oluşturulan denenceler, anlamaya dayalı öğretimin üretmeye dayalı öğretim kadar yararlı olacağı; ancak anlamaya dayalı öğretimin anlama ve üretmedeki edinimler açısından diğerine göre daha kalıcı olacağıdır.

Bu denenceleri sınamak amacıyla toplam 80 kişilik iki grup öğrenciye öncelikle bir "Dilbilgisel Doğruluk Saptama Testi" verilmiş, ve problemli dilbilgisi yapıları belirlenmiştir. Daha sonra bu yapıların öğretimine yönelik yukarıda belirtilen iki farklı uygulama verilmiştir. Bu iki farklı öğretimin etkilerini görebilmek amacıyla, 4 haftalık uygulamanın öncesinde ve sonrasında deneklere ön test/son test verilmiştir. Uygulamalarda kazanılan edinimlerin kalıcılığı ile ilgili soruyu yanıtlayabilmek içinse, deneklere uygulamadan 8 ay sonra aynı test, izleme testi olarak verilmiştir.

Verilerin istatistiksel çözümlemesi sonucunda hem anlamaya hem de üretmeye dayalı öğretimin hedef yapıların ediniminde yararlı yaklaşımlar olduğu görülmüştür. Diğer taraftan, izleme testi sonuçlarına göre, anlamaya dayalı öğretim grubundaki deneklerin "anlama" açısından diğer gruptaki deneklerden farklılaşmadığı, ancak "üretme" açısından edinimlerinin daha kalıcı göründüğü saptanmıştır.

ABSTRACT

The role of explicit grammar instruction in second language acquisition has always been an important concern for the researchers in the field. One issue that has been debatable is "how" grammar should be taught.

This study aims at probing the answers to two main questions about "how" grammar should be taught: "How do two different types of instruction; namely, -traditional, production-based versus comprehension-based instruction- affect the acquisition of the target problem structures?", and "To what extent are the proficiency gains obtained from these two different types of instruction maintained over time?" It was hypothesized that comprehension-based instruction, in which grammar interpretation tasks are given, enables the learners to acquire the selected problem grammar structures as well as production-based instruction does; yet, the proficiency gains obtained from comprehension-based instruction are maintained over time to a greater extent when compared to production-based instruction.

In order to test the hypotheses of the study, two groups of subjects were given two different types of treatment for the target structures identified by the grammaticality judgment test given. Before and after the four-week treatment, the subjects were given a test as pre/post test to see the effects of two different types of instruction. In order to test the hypothesis regarding the maintenance of the acquired knowledge over time, about 8 months later the same test was given as the follow up test. The findings of the study suggested that comprehension-based instruction in which grammar interpretation tasks have been used helps L2 learners with their comprehension and production as well as traditional instruction does. As for the durability of the proficiency gains obtained from two different types of instruction, it was found that the production scores of the subjects in the comprehension-based, grammar interpretation group seemed to be maintained over time to a greater extent when compared to the ones in the traditional instruction group.

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

The question "how does second language (L2) learning take place in a classroom?" attracted the attention of many researchers in the field of second language acquisition (SLA, throughout the study, has been used as an umbrella term to cover both "second language acquisition" and "foreign language acquisition"). That is not an easy question to answer because as Sharwood Smith (1993) notes, in exposing learners to the second language, we are engaging a whole battery of different processing mechanisms. One of those mechanisms is the acquisition of grammar which has been the subject of controversy within the recent history of language teaching. "Should grammar be taught?" has been a major concern in the second language pedagogy. Some -like Krashen (in Ellis,1993) and Prabhu (1987) - adopted a "zero position" for grammar and maintained that grammar has only a minimal effect on the acquisition of second language. They believe while providing learners with opportunities for meaningful communication in the classroom grammar will be learned naturally and automatically. In contrast to those, some others -like Rutherford and Sharwood Smith, 1988; Ellis, 1990- claim that some focus on form may well be necessary for many learners to achieve accuracy as well as fluency in their acquisition of a second language. Today, though, there is an agreement in existing second language research about the role of grammar instruction: It is needed to promote advanced levels of target language attainment (Long, 1983; Pica, 1983, 1985 in Ellis, 1994, and Long, 1991).

1.1. Statement of the Topic and the Problem

Together with the approval of formal grammar instruction, the people in the field of SLA are confronted with another concern; the nature of the relationship between the knowledge of grammatical forms and the ability to use these forms accurately is not clear. This study was prompted by that concern: Many thousands of EFL learners enroll in Turkish schools to learn English, they get plenty of exposure to English but it is observed that most of them have problems with "grammar" in particular. One specific example of such learners could be the ones at Anadolu University, Education Faculty,

ELT Department. Most of these students have a one-year preparatory program with regular grammar lessons in it. In the following four years, the students have either compulsory or elective grammar classes. These students are trained to be English language teachers. Despite this, one can still detect frequent grammar mistakes, even when they are fourth year students. One of the reasons for this difficulty in learning English grammar might be the fact that English participle and clause structures are organized very differently from their Turkish equivalents, and this may cause a learning problem (Thompson, I. in Swan and Smith, 1987). Turkish learners are commonly taught these explicit rules of grammar but often fail to apply them in written or spoken language. That is, they keep making grammatical mistakes in the structures they have already been taught. To have a better understanding of that relationship how input -the language data the learner is exposed to (Sharwood Smith, 1993)- turns into intake -that part of input that has been processed by the learner and turned into some kind of knowledge (Corder, 1982)- should be known (see part 2.3). For language teachers and language learning researchers, it is important to recognize that language proficiency either develops as a response to input or fails to grow despite that input. The main question is "what kind of grammar teaching will work best for transforming input into intake?"

Ellis (1993), Van Patten and Cadierno (1993) have made a case for supplementing activities designed to focus learners' attention on message conveyance with activities that also require a focus on form. They point out that traditional grammar has been taught by means of activities that give learners opportunities to produce sentences containing the targeted structure through pattern-practice drills or situational grammar exercises in which the target structure is contextualized (Ellis, 1995). Ellis believes that this approach is problematic because asking learners to produce difficult grammatical structures and then correcting them when they make mistakes may increase their anxiety and be discouraging. As opposed to that approach he proposes an alternative one to grammar teaching (see part 2.7.). He explains his approach as:

> ".....designing activities that focus learners' attention on a targeted structure in the input and that enable them to identify and comprehend the

> meaning(s) of that structure. This approach emphasizes input processing for comprehension rather than output processing for production, and requires the use of what I have termed *interpretation tasks* (see part 2.7.3) to replace traditional production tasks" (p. 88).

In this approach, particular emphasis is given to "input processing" which is concerned with the inversion of input into intake. The notion of form-meaning connection is involved in that processing; i.e. the strategies and mechanisms that promote form-meaning connections during comprehension. Van Patten and Cadierno (1993) suggest that if acquisition is to take place, the internal processor(s) must attend to "how the propositional content is encoded linguistically" (p. 227). Intake, then, is that subset of the input that a learner comprehends and from which grammatical information can be made available to the developing system. This point brings us to the significance of comprehension. Terrell (1991) suggests that comprehension strategies are the processing principles used by the learner to make sense of the stream of target language forms in the input. Comprehension involves assigning an "interpretation" to an utterance. Terrell uses the term "binding" to refer to psycholinguistic linking of meaning to a new form in the target language. The learners' task in the acquisition process is to use the input to posit and store correct meaning-form relationships.

The idea behind that -and also behind Ellis' alternative approach- is emphasizing the role of comprehension in the acquisition process, thereby exposing the students to more comprehension-based tasks rather than encouraging them to produce the explicitly taught grammatical forms, which is mostly the case in traditional grammar lessons. Comprehension-based instruction is suggested to facilitate the acquisition of grammar structures in terms of both comprehension and production of those structures (Van Patten and Cadierno, 1993). Van Patten and Cadierno suggest that rather than manipulating learner output to effect change in the developing system, instruction might seek to change the way that input is perceived and processed by the learner. This relationship is made obvious in Figure 1.1.

input → intake → developing system → output

↑

processing mechanisms

↑

focused practice

Figure 1.1. Processing Instruction in Foreign Language Teaching (Van Patten and Cadierno, 1993 p. 227)

Considering the fact that the students who are exposed to traditional, production-based grammar instruction fail to use certain grammatical structures in different tasks later on, another point presets a significance: retention. One of the questions this study considers is: What type of explicit grammar instruction is more beneficial for long term accuracy; the comprehension-based or the production-based one?

To conclude, based on the alternative approach to grammar teaching proposed by Ellis, this study intends to compare traditional, production-based grammar lessons to comprehension-based lessons (processing instruction) in which the learners are given grammar interpretation tasks. That is , there were two groups involved in the study: 1) traditional instruction group, 2) interpretation task group. To see the difference between these two groups, the subjects were given pre/post tests concerning the target structures explicitly taught (see part 3.1). They were also given the follow-up test to answer the question about "retention" above.

The following questions were asked at the outset of the study:

1. How do proficiency gains -in comprehension and production- produced by intermediate level EFL learners who perform sentence level grammar interpretation tasks compare with the gains achieved by intermediate level EFL learners who are given traditional, teacher-fronted grammar lessons -with production tasks?

2. To what extent are the proficiency gains obtained from these two different types of treatment maintained over time?

Following these two main questions, specific research questions that follow were also asked in order to see the progression or regression (if any) within the groups as well as the differences between the two groups:

1. Is there a difference between the pre-test, post-test and follow-up test scores obtained from the subjects in the interpretation task group?
2. Is there a difference between the pre-test, post-test and follow-up test scores obtained from the subjects in the traditional instruction group?
3. Is there a difference between traditional instruction group and interpretation task groups in terms of comprehension post-test scores?
4. Is there a difference between traditional instruction group and interpretation task groups in terms of production post-test scores?
5. Is there a difference between traditional instruction group and interpretation task groups in terms of comprehension follow-up test scores?
6. Is there a difference between traditional instruction group and interpretation task groups in terms of production follow-up test scores?

1.2. Definitions

Production-based instruction: In this study, production-based instruction is used to refer to the type of instruction in which a grammatical structure is explained and then followed up by many practice and production activities, i.e. the learners are provided with opportunities to produce sentences containing that targeted structure. It refers to what is called "traditional" -teacher fronted- grammar teaching that focuses on the manipulation of learner output (Ellis, 1995).

Comprehension-based instruction: In this type of instruction, the goal is to enable learners to comprehend rather than to produce the items within the input. That instruction provides activities that enable learners to (a) hear/read sentences containing

the structures being taught and (b) identify the specific functions performed by the features (i.e., to establish form-meaning relationships) (Ellis,1993) (see part 2.6.2.2).

Problematic grammar structures: In this study, the problematic grammar structures have been selected by examining the samples of the learners' output, and by giving the students a Grammaticality Judgment Test including the observed problem structures. A structure has been labeled as "problematic" if the form is being used, but it is being used incorrectly (ungrammatically). That is, they are the structures with which the students are familiar, but which still lead to errors in production.

Grammar Interpretation Tasks: Throughout the study, these types of grammar tasks have been used to refer to the activities that were used in comprehension-based instruction. Such tasks, basically, require interpretative comprehension of input containing the correct usage of the target form. The aim of these tasks is "to manipulate the meaningful context to draw the learner's attention to problematic grammatical features" (Fotos, 1994 p. 325). In short, grammar interpretation tasks consist of a series of mainly "listening" activities (see part 2.7.3).

Proficiency gains: In this study, proficiency is defined as gain in grammatical knowledge at the sentence level. It has been used to refer to the learners' use of the selected grammatical structures accurately in the production and comprehension tasks given. The learners were expected to acquire those structures by making form-meaning connections.

In brief, the students' increased accuracy of the problematic structures at the sentence level (i.e., sentence comprehension and sentence production) was taken into consideration.

1.3. Variables of the Problem

Dependent Variable: Increasing comprehension and accurate production of the selected problematic grammar structures.

Independent Variable: The type of grammar instruction; comprehension based vs production based instructions.

Control Variables: Age and the L2 proficiency level of the subjects.

1.4. Statement of the Hypotheses

There are two directional hypotheses tested in this study:

1. Comprehension-based instruction for the problematic grammar structures enables EFL learners to acquire those specified structures as well as production-based instruction does (assuming a positive effect for the latter).
    a) The subjects who are exposed to comprehension-based instruction are as successful as the subjects who are given production-based instruction in terms of comprehension of the target grammar structures.
    b) The subjects who are exposed to comprehension-based instruction are as successful as the subjects who are given production-based instruction in terms of production of the target grammar structures.
2. The proficiency gains obtained from comprehension-based instruction are maintained over time to a greater extent when compared to production-based instruction.
    a) The proficiency gains for comprehension obtained from comprehension-based instruction are maintained over time to a greater extent when compared to production-based instruction.
    b) The proficiency gains for production obtained from comprehension-based instruction are maintained over time to a greater extent when compared to production-based instruction.

1.5. The Purpose of the Study

Grammar instruction in Turkey is mostly production-based. That is, the students are expected to produce the accurate forms of the structures -written or oral- which they have been explicitly presented. It is observed that most of the students are unable to use the explicitly taught grammatical structures correctly; the language they produce is full of grammar mistakes. This is one of the main problems with the students in Anadolu University, Education Faculty, ELT Department students. Many of the writing teachers in this faculty, for example, observe that -putting the contents of the papers aside- what is noticeable in most, if not all, of these papers is the "inaccurate" use of grammatical structures. Therefore, the question to ask is: if grammar is back, if there is an agreement about the value of explicit grammar instruction in the professional literature, why are such students unable to master the grammar of their target language despite an intensive exposure? Broadly speaking, the purpose of the present study is to examine the relationship between the nature of explicit instruction and its effects on SLA. Specifically, it aims at examining the possible effects of two different types of grammar instruction -based on Ellis' (1995) model (see part 2.7)- on the developing knowledge system of the L2 learners in Turkey; instruction as the manipulation of output (production-based), and instruction as the alteration of input processing (comprehension-based). The study attempts to make comprehension-based interpretation tasks pedagogically acceptable in the communicative classroom as supplementary and remedial activities, particularly for the grammar points that posit problems for most of the students. To do so, it must be shown that interpretation tasks are as effective in promoting gains in knowledge of the grammar structure as traditional, teacher-fronted grammar lessons. After all, there is no point in recommending interpretation tasks as alternatives to formal grammar lessons if they fail to produce equally favorable learning outcomes.

It should be highlighted that this study, by no means, claims that the alternative approach to grammar teaching under investigation is the one that should replace all other existing grammar instruction.

In conclusion, this study intends to shed light upon "grammar instruction" in an EFL setting. Ellis' grammar acquisition theory this study is based on, and most of the related studies cited (see chapter 2) are ESL oriented. This study, in this sense, is expected to make a significant contribution by considering some implications for grammar instruction in an EFL setting.

1.6. Statement of Limitations

The following are the limitations of the study:

a) Learning styles and individual differences of the subjects are not taken into consideration in the discussion of the findings.

b) In this study, L1factors -such as interference- are not considered.

c) The study also does not take into consideration how much conscious awareness of the formal properties of language, and hence instruction-based on inducing this awareness, actually helps the development of "spontaneous" language use. It only considers subjects' performance at sentence level on controlled tasks.

d) "Interaction" between the learners and between the learners and the teacher is also thought to contribute to the acquisition of a foreign language. This study, by no means, considers the effects of interaction in that sense.

e) The Grammaticality Judgment Test used in this study consists of isolated sentences; therefore, it might not be regarded as naturalistic as a judgment test which is contextualized.

f) The teacher who instructed the subjects of the study is, at the same time, the researcher of the study. Therefore, there might be a "teacher/researcher effect" on the outcomes of the study.

g) There was about an 8-month period -which was a random period of time- between the post-test and the follow-up tests given to the subjects of the study. During this period the subjects were not in experimental conditions. Therefore, their possible extra exposure to the target structures of the study (in or outside the classroom) was not taken into account in the discussion of the findings about retention.

1.7. Organization of the Study

The first chapter is an introduction to the study. It includes the statement of the problem, hypotheses, purpose, limitations, as well as the organization of the study.

The second chapter is a review of the related professional literature.

The third chapter explains the methodology used for collecting and analyzing the data.

The fourth chapter includes the results of the analysis of the data.

The fifth chapter consists of conclusions drawn from the study, as well as some implications and suggestions for further research.

Bibliography and relevant appendices follow the five chapters.

CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The role of formal instruction in second language acquisition (SLA) is an important issue which has been intensively investigated and discussed in SLA literature. Within that global term "formal instruction", the role of grammar teaching has also been one of the major concerns. There are so many opposing views about the way grammar should be taught. One of the latest issues concerning the question "How should grammar be taught?" is the role of comprehension versus production-based instructions in the acquisition of SL grammar. This study deals with that particular matter. What is comprehension-based instruction? How does it apply to grammar teaching in EFL classrooms? How is it different from production-based traditional grammar teaching? These are the questions which this study seeks to answer. To find out the answers to these questions, a review of the professional literature is crucial. This chapter, in that sense, aims at reviewing the literature under the following headings: formal instruction and SLA, grammar teaching, input processing in SLA, the role of consciousness in language learning, the role of comprehension in second language pedagogy, and the comprehension-based approach to grammar teaching.

2.1. Formal Instruction and SLA

Ellis (1990) notes that in order to build a theory of L2 classroom learning it is essential to consider what learning (if any) results from formal instruction. However, it is not easy to identify the results of formal instruction since it is a broad thing with so many learner and instructional variables. This is also agreed by Felix (1981) who claims that "relatively little is known about the processes and mechanisms by which students learn a second language when they are exposed to the L2 data only during classroom hours" (p.89).

As noted in Ellis (1994), the term "formal instruction" is -and has been- understood to refer to grammar teaching. This signifies the centrality of grammar in SLA research, but it is useful to take a broader look at the role of formal instruction. Ellis (1994) identifies a number of general areas of language pedagogy. He distinguishes

between formal instruction directed at cognitive goals, where the focus is on developing linguistic or communicative competence; and metacognitive goals, where the focus is on the use of effective learning strategies (see Figure 2.1).

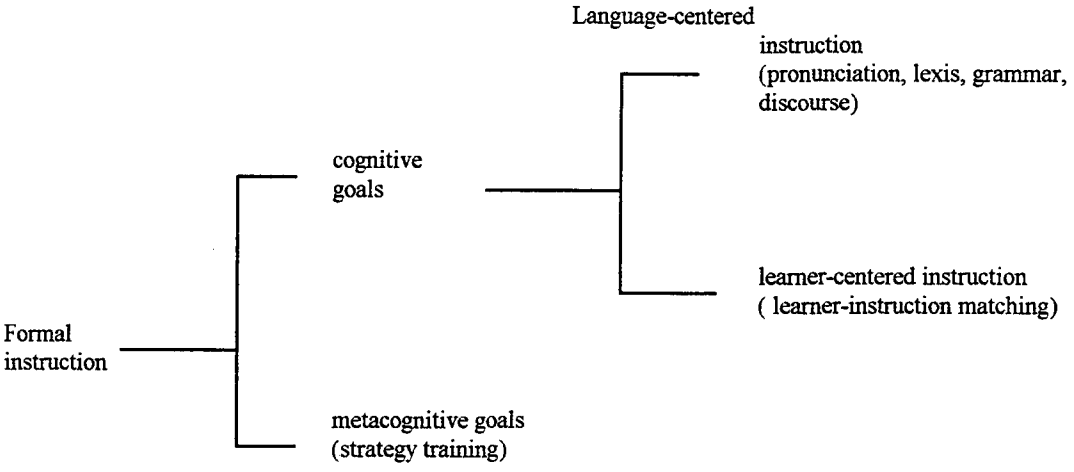


Figure 2.1. Types of Formal Instruction (Ellis, 1994 p.612)

As seen in the figure above, cognitive goals are divided into two types, depending on whether the instruction is language-centered or learner-centered. In language-centered instruction, the goal is some aspect of phonology, lexis, grammar, or discourse, where all learners receive the same instruction. In learner-centered instruction, on the other hand, different learners are taught in different ways. The first type, i.e., formal instruction directed at cognitive goals, is the basis of the present study.

The main concern in this study is "the direct pedagogic intervention, i.e., attempts to influence the way interlanguage develops through formal instruction which (1) focuses on some specific property of the target language, and (2) tries to make the learners aware of what the correct grammatical use of the form is" (Ellis,1990 p.130). "The felt need for a linguistic focus" in language learning -as Long (1991) puts it forward- has always been one of the major issues because it is a potentially important design feature for distinguishing instructional methodologies and settings. In brief, the central question is whether formal instruction facilitates acquisition and, if it does, in what way.

Effects of instruction have been examined in the literature on both the rate/success of acquisition and on the process/sequence of acquisition. In one of the first reviews of literature on formal instruction, Long (1983 in Ellis,1994) considered a total

of eleven studies that had investigated whether learners who receive formal instruction achieve higher levels of proficiency than those who do not. He concluded that five of the studies -Carroll, 1967, Chihara & Oller, 1978; Briene, 1978; Krashen, Seliger & Hartnett, 1974; Krashen, Jones, Zelinski & Usprich, 1978- lent support to formal instruction. Three studies -Upshur, 1968; Mason, 1971; and Fathman, 1975- indicated that instruction did not help, while one study -Martin, 1980- showed that exposure without formal instruction was beneficial.

White (1991 in Yip, 1994) found that French learners of English performed dramatically better on adverb placement tests given "form-focused" instruction; Carroll and Swain (1991 in Yip, 1994) compared four levels of explicitness of feedback and found that explicit metalinguistic formulation was most effective in Spanish learners' acquisition of dative verbs.

Similarly Pica (1983,1985 in Ellis,1994) produced evidence to suggest that "some grammatical features are performed more accurately if learners have access to formal instruction" (p.617). She compared the accuracy with which three groups of learners (a natural group, a mixed group, and an instructed group) performed a number of grammatical morphemes in unplanned speech.

Long (1991) concludes that instruction appears to offer three main advantages over either naturalistic SLA or classroom instruction with no focus on form: (1) It speeds up the rate of learning (Long,1983), (2) it affects acquisition processes in ways possibly beneficial to long-term accuracy (Lightbown 1983; Pica 1983), and most crucially, (3) it appears to raise the ultimate level of attainment. To put it another way, learners who receive formal instruction outperform those who do not; they learn more rapidly and they reach higher levels of ultimate achievement.

After emphasizing the significance of "formal instruction" agreed upon, more specific issues such as what exactly are "grammar" and "grammar teaching" could be explored.

2.2. Teaching Grammar

In foreign language pedagogy, one term that everyone uses is "grammar". As Yip (1994) says, one of the questions most often raised by language teaching

professionals is whether students should be taught grammar and if it really helps language acquisition. That is, when and to what extent one should teach grammar to language learners have always been controversial issues (Celce-Murcia, 1991). In fact, as Rutherford (1987) points out, for 2500 years the teaching of grammar had often been synonymous with foreign language teaching. This indicates that the role of grammar in language learning is -definitely- important. Radilova (1997) emphasizes its significance by noting that ".... knowledge of grammar is the central area of the language system around which the other areas resolve; however important the other components of language may be in themselves, they are connected to each other through grammar" (p.1).

During the past 25 years we have seen grammar move from a position of central importance in language teaching to pariah status, and back to a position of renewed importance (Celce-Murcia, 1991). These changes in the status of grammar are caused by two extreme positions in ESL concerning its teaching. At one extreme, the proponents of Audiolingualism (Lado) (in Celce-Murcia, 1991), and methodologists such as Gattegno (in Celce-Murcia, 1991) argue that grammar must be the core of language instruction and that all student errors must be corrected. At the other extreme, methodologists such as Krashen and Terrell tell us not to teach grammar explicitly and not to correct any learner errors (Celce-Murcia, 1985).

Celce-Murcia (1985) argues that teachers need to know the rules of English grammar to carry out the following responsibilities adequately:

1) Integrate form, meaning and content in syllabus design and lesson planning;
2) Selectively identify student production errors in need of correction;
3) Prepare appropriate activities for getting students to focus on form when needed;
4) Develop effective strategies that raise students' awareness of their own errors and enhance their ability to self-correct;
5) Answer student questions about English grammar (p. 300).

2.2.1.What is Grammar?

Discussions about grammar in SLA raise the obvious question of what grammar is. Krashen (in Higgs, 1985) says that grammar is a synonym for conscious learning; Higgs (1985) believes that grammar can be defined as a system for converting meaning into language. Such definitions are either too broad or rather vague. To have a better

understanding of grammar, Tonkyn (1994 in Tschirner, 1996) distinguishes between a descriptive grammar, as represented in the work of many linguists, a pedagogical grammar as represented in FL textbooks, and a psycholinguistic grammar, as represented in the mind of the language user. Descriptive grammar has an important impact on language teaching since it is the basis of the other two types. In this part, though, the other two; i.e., pedagogical and psycholinguistic grammar should be explained further since they are more related to the focus of the present study.

2.2.1.1. Pedagogical Grammar

An essential question for the language teacher (or anyone) considering the effectiveness of language teaching materials is concerned with the value and function of language rules that are formally taught (Seliger, 1979). These rules are sometimes referred to as "pedagogical grammar rules" to distinguish them from "linguistic grammar rules". Seliger points out that "the goal of pedagogical grammar rules is to cause someone to produce a language form, that is, getting a learner to perform consistently with regard to some aspect of language behavior" (p.360). Related to those rules, there have been commonly held assumptions regarding "pedagogical grammar" in the history of language teaching. Those assumptions, for the first time, have been formulated as hypotheses. No better example of this exists than the Pedagogical Grammar Hypothesis (PGH) as stated in Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1988):

> Instructional strategies which draw the attention of learner to specifically structural regularities of the language, as distinct from the message content, will under certain specified conditions significantly increase the rate of acquisition over and above the rate expected from learners acquiring that language under natural circumstances where attention to form may be minimal or sporadic (p.4).

Pedagogical grammars have largely been influenced by descriptive grammar focusing on the "product" of language use.

2.2.1.2. Psycholinguistic Grammar

Garret (1986 in Tschirner, 1996) argues that language learners would profit more from a psychological processing approach to the teaching and learning of grammar than a grammar instruction focusing on the production of language. In other words, "process"

rather than "product" appears to be more important. Rutherford (1987) has suggested that the acquisition process be seen as one of increased grammaticization rather than agglutination of discrete linguistic structures. By grammaticization Rutherford has in mind a process whereby learners' interlanguage from an earlier phase, "in which the form-meaning relationship was maximally direct" (p.45) becomes more indirect, but more closely approximates the target language.

Van Patten and Cadierno (1993) present a model of what such a psychological processing approach might look like. They compared traditional production-oriented practice with input processing practice and found that students who were trained solely to perceive and process grammatical structures contained in the input not only outperformed the production group on sentence interpretation tasks but did as well as the production group in production tasks (for the details of input processing see part 2.3).

"Psycholinguistic grammar" has been the main grammar teaching approach throughout that study. This study views grammar competence as being brought about by the mastery of processes as opposed to accumulation of language structures or products. The idea behind that view is exactly what Larsen-Freeman (1989) notes: "The view of grammar as process should ideally be incorporated into our pedagogical grammar, not replace the view of grammar as product" (p.191).

When the importance of "grammar instruction" is being discussed it is inevitable to consider its role within an influential approach: The Communicative Approach.

2.2.2. The Role of Grammar Instruction in the Communicative Approach

One of the main aims of communicative language teaching is to provide opportunities for learners to participate in interaction where the primary goal is to exchange meaning and thereby learning L2 (Fotos and Ellis, 1991). As noted in Larsen-Freeman (1989), a more moderate position regarding the role of grammar teaching today has been adopted by those advocating a communicative approach to language teaching. Most language educators acknowledge that the development of communicative skills should include not only language and study skill areas but also the improvement of grammatical competence (Dickins and Woods, 1988; Nunan, 1989). Henry Widdowson

(1988 in Larsen-Freeman, 1989) comments that "a communicative approach, properly conceived, does not involve the rejection of grammar; on the contrary, it involves a recognition of its central mediating role in the use and learning of language" (p.187). Higgs (1985) has stronger feelings for the grammar in the communicative approach. He proposes that communication without correction is necessarily flawed. Meaning, to him, is most economically and clearly communicated when the grammar is nativelike. He says "the more non-native deviate from the native norm, the less certainty we have of successful communication, and the more likely miscommunication becomes" (p.293). Similarly, Higgs and Clifford (1982 in Celce-Murcia, 1991) claim that a grammarless approach can lead to the development of a broken, ungrammatical, pidginized form of the target language beyond which students rarely progress.

This understanding is also the gist of this study. This thesis, by no means, ignores the communicative approach and the significance of "fluency", which is one of its main principles. Rather, it attempts to offer some implications for an ideal communicative grammar-learning environment, by approving the importance of "accuracy" as well as "fluency".

2.3. Input Processing in SLA

So far in this chapter, the agreed-upon importance of formal instruction in the broader sense and different types of grammar, as well as the role of grammar teaching in the communicative approach, have been explained. According to the working definition of "psycholinguistic grammar", as it has been accepted in this study, a "psychological processing approach" has been adopted. In order to explore this particular approach further one must talk about a closely related notion: "input processing". For a better understanding of input processing, there are three terms which should be examined carefully: input, intake and output.

The role of input is, without doubt, of critical importance in understanding the what and why of SLA. The most common meaning of input, as it is used in SLA, refers to the language data the learner is exposed to (Sharwood Smith, 1993; Liceras, 1985). That is, it refers to the learner's experience of the target language in all its various manifestations. Sharwood Smith (1993) believes that input -when taken literally- is a

misleading term; because it is not possible to know from observation alone what is processed by the learner at a given moment in time. To clarify the meaning of input, the term can be used in the sense Sharwood Smith (1993) defined it: it is the "potentially processible language data which are made available, by chance or by design, to the language learner" (p.167). That part of the input that has actually been processed by the learner and turned into knowledge of some kind has been called "intake" (Corder, 1982). "Output", then, is the end product. The distinction between input and intake was first noted by Corder (1967 in Chaudron, 1985). This is an important distinction because it avoids simplistic explanations such as "what goes in comes out" (Larsen-Freeman, 1985) referring to the direct conversion of input into output.

As Long (1990 in Van Patten and Cadierno, 1993) points out, any theory of SLA must acknowledge the role of comprehensible input in the development of the learner's internal grammar. Given the important role of comprehensible input in SLA, SLA can be conceived of as three distinguishable sets of processes, as can be seen in Figure 2.2.

	I		II		III	
input	→	intake	→	developing system	→	output

Figure 2.2 Processes in SLA (Van Patten and Cadierno, 1993 p. 226)

As seen in Figure 2.2, the first set of processes (I) converts input into intake. From intake, the learner must still develop an acquired system; i.e., not all intake is automatically fed into the acquired system. The second set of processes (II) then includes those that promote the accommodation of intake and the restructuring of the developing linguistic system (McLaughlin, 1990; White, 1989 in Van Patten and Cadierno, 1993). Finally, it is not clear from output studies that learner language is a direct reflection of acquired competence. Thus, a third set of processes (III) must be posited to account for certain aspects of language production.

Input processing is concerned with those processes involved in set (I), the conversion of input into intake. More crudely, input processing involves those strategies and mechanisms that promote form-meaning connections during comprehension. This particular issue has been explained in Van Patten and Cadierno (1993) as follows:

> As the learner processes an incoming input string, it must be tagged and coded in particular ways. If acquisition is to happen, the internal processor(s) must eventually

> attend to how the propositional content is encoded linguistically. For us, then, intake is that subset of the input that a learner comprehends and from which grammatical information can be made available to the developing system (p. 227).

Sharwood Smith (1986) agrees with them by suggesting that for acquisition to occur the learner must attend to linguistic features in the input rather than only the message. The notions of "input processing" and intake -as they are used in that study- are consistent with this view (For a more detailed discussion of form-meaning connections see part 2.6.2.2).

2.4. The Role of "Consciousness" in Language Learning

Almost all of the studies about grammar acquisition, in the last decade, attribute a significant role to "consciousness" in language acquisition. The relationship between unconscious and conscious grammar and how it can be exploited in language teaching has been one of the major dilemmas (Radilova, 1997).

What is "consciousness"? Although the term has been tackled by many different scholars -like Krashen, McLaughlin, Reber (in McLaughlin, 1990)- and has spawned many controversial definitions, Richard Schmidt is definitely the person to consult for an excellent discussion of the role of consciousness in SL learning. Schmidt (1990) took the position that the notion consciousness is respectable because an impressive body of research deals with its role in cognition and learning. Besides, it ties together many related concepts such as explicit/declarative vs implicit/procedural knowledge, subliminal learning, intentional vs incidental learning, attention and noticing and awareness. To have a better understanding of "consciousness" it would be useful to review these key terms.

2.4.1. Explicit vs Implicit Knowledge and Explicit vs Implicit Learning

Many researchers examining cognitive processes have noted the distinction between two types of human knowledge: explicit and implicit. Bialystok began using this distinction in the late 70s (Ellis, 1994). This distinction between two types of knowledge did not originate with her, although she was one of the first to apply it to SLA. According to Ellis (1994), to sort out some problems, it is useful to distinguish between explicit/implicit knowledge and explicit/implicit learning. He believes that the

former is much less controversial than the latter because it does not require any reference to "conscious" and "subconscious" learning processes; the distinction between explicit and implicit knowledge, rather crudely, can be operationalized in terms of "whether the learner is aware of what s/he knows and can verbalize it" (Ellis, 1994 p.167).

More specifically, as for the explicit/implicit "knowledge", Bialystok, the most influential scholar of that distinction can be cited. According to Bialystok "explicit" refers to knowledge that is abstract. It is available to learners as a conscious representation, so that, if called upon, learners are able to say what it is that they know. Explicit knowledge is not the same as metalinguistic knowledge (i.e., knowledge of grammatical terms), although this may help in its articulation. "Implicit" knowledge refers to knowledge that is intuitive. It is not consciously available to learners. Learners operate, upon this intuitive information, in order to produce responses (comprehension or production) in the target language (Bialystok, 1981 in Fotos and Ellis, 1991; Bialystok, 1980 in Odlin, 1986 and Brown, 1994). The same distinction has also been referred to as declarative versus procedural knowledge by Anderson, 1982; Ellis, 1989; Fearch and Kasper, 1984; and O'Malley, Chamot and Walker, 1987 (in Schmidt, 1993). According to that distinction "declarative" knowledge is the knowledge about something, for example, grammatical rules, and is the type of knowledge which is developed through formal instruction just like explicit knowledge. "Procedural" is the knowledge of how to do something; for example, how to communicate in a target language (like implicit knowledge). It has been suggested that such communicative linguistic knowledge is developed through opportunities to receive meaning-focused L2 input (Fotos, 1993). Anderson (1980 in Hulstijn, 1990) said that

> It is not always the case that the procedural representation of the knowledge replaces the declarative. Sometimes the two forms of knowledge can coexist side by side, as when we can speak a foreign language fluently and still remember many rules of grammar. However, it is the procedural, not the declarative knowledge that governs the skilled performance (p.226).

Bialystok, in her later work (1982, 1985, 1990 in Schmidt, 1992), refined her explicit/implicit distinction by proposing a model that rests upon a two-dimensional framework; analysis/control. According to that framework

> ...analysis has to do with the ways in which linguistic knowledge is represented cognitively and the ways in which representations change in the course of linguistic

> development. Analysis component involves the progressive development of a knowledge system that is initially important in the mind of the learner but that gradually becomes both more explicit and more organized formally, a crucial development for advanced language skills, ... control, concerns the use of linguistic knowledge and is assigned the task of accounting for access to linguistic knowledge (whether analyzed or unanalyzed) and describe the cognitive demands that language takes place upon learners (in Schmidt, 1993 pp.365-66).

Analysis/control model is also explored in Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1988) and Gass (1983).

Ellis (1994), rather simplistically, characterizes implicit knowledge as knowledge that is intuitive and unanalyzed, and explicit knowledge as knowledge of which the holder is aware and which, as a consequence, is analyzed. Krashen (1982; 1979 in Odlin, 1986) uses different terms for the two kinds of knowledge, but he makes a very similar distinction between acquisition and learning: "Acquisition is subconscious and is similar to the way children acquire 1st and 2nd languages; learning is formal knowledge of the language" (in Odlin, 1986 p.123). According to Krashen and Terrell (1983 in Cantürk, 1991), "acquisition" uses the language for real communication without being aware that one is communicating. In other words, as Klein (1986) notes, "the learner is oriented not to the form but to the content and effect of his utterances, remaining unaware of the linguistic rules and structures used in the process" (p.28). They define "learning", on the other hand, as knowing about a language. In that sense language learning is a conscious process and refers to "explicit" knowledge of rules. This is unlike acquisition which refers to "implicit" knowledge. Felix (1981) says learning a second language in a naturalistic environment obviously favors unconscious learning, i.e., acquisition in Krashen's terminology, while formal language instruction emphasizes conscious learning processes.

Related to those two types of knowledge; "explicit" and "implicit" approaches in grammar teaching are defined in Scott (1990) as follows:

> An explicit approach to teaching grammar insists upon the value of deliberate study of grammar rule, either by declarative analysis or inductive analogy, in order to recognize 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 (p.779).

As for explicit and implicit "learning", there are several studies in the SLA literature. Bialystok (1979), for example, examined the differential use of formal explicit knowledge and intuitive implicit knowledge in a second language grammaticality judgment test. The subjects in her study were 317 English speaking high school students and adults learning French as a SL. French sentences were presented on tape and decisions about the grammaticality of each were recorded by subjects on coding sheets. The results indicated that explicit knowledge intervenes for incorrect sentences requiring detailed responses.

In his study, Robinson (1996) examined the generalizabilty of claims by Reber (1989, 1993 in Robinson, 1996) about the implicit learning of grammar to the context of adult SLA. Krashen (1978, 1981, 1982, 1993) has made claims similar to Reber's: a) implicit learning is more effective than explicit learning when the stimulus domain is complex, and b) explicit learning of simple and complex stimulus domains is possible if the underlying rules are made salient. 104 adult learners of English were randomly assigned to implicit, incidental, rule-search, or instructed computerized training conditions. Speed and accuracy of judgments of easy and hard rule sentence types were presented during training. Results did not support the first claim, but did support the second one. It was observed that implicit learners did not outperform other learners on complex rules, but instructed learners outperformed all others in learning simple rules.

Winitz's (1996) study investigated whether the methodologies of explicit and implicit language instruction account for differences in the identification of grammatically well-formed sentences in Spanish for college students. It was found that students in the implicit classes achieved significantly higher scores than students in the explicit classes. These results suggest that language instructional procedures result in the use of different language processes to judge the grammaticality of sentences.

Reber et al (1980) (in Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith, 1988) report the results of several experiments designed to study the interaction between two learning modes; implicit (in which organizational patterns and their underlying rules are to be discovered by the learner)- and explicit (where the patterns to be observed are made salient). They, in their studies, concluded that "optimum learning occurs where the two modes are

synthesized such that the imparting of explicit information precedes the display of implicit patterns represented in the examplars" (p.10).

As can be seen in the findings of these studies, both explicit and implicit approaches have particular strengths. Some studies seem to favor the explicit approach over the implicit; yet, some others have more favorable outcomes for the implicit approach. For the sake of the present study, the distinction between explicit and implicit approaches is particularly important, since it attempts to recommend an alternative grammar teaching approach which acts like a compromise between explicit and implicit processes. Basically, this study is based on explicit learning that develops explicit knowledge which may promote implicit knowledge in subsequent communicative input.

2.4.2. The Subliminal Learning Issue

To emphasize the importance of "consciousness", it is equally important to understand what is meant by "unconscious". According to Schmidt (1990, 1993, also cited in McLaughlin, 1990) when we speak of language learning as being conscious or unconscious, we might be thinking of several distinct aspects of the problem of consciousness in learning. One of those aspects is "whether the target language forms that are learnt are consciously noticed or picked up through some kind of subliminal perception" (Schmidt, 1993 p.24). "Subliminal learning", in that sense, refers to a kind of "unconscious" learning.

Schmidt (1993) states that despite the widespread belief that the existence of subliminal learning of some kind has been established for decades, there seems to be no scientific support for claims of behavior 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 establishment of new associations, or the learning of new concepts. In conclusion Schmidt (1990, 1993) believes that subliminal language learning is impossible. He also discusses the possibilities of intentional and incidental learning.

2.4.3. Intentional vs Incidental Learning

Another contrast that Schmidt (1990, 1993) discusses is whether it is necessary to deliberately pay attention to the linguistic features in order to notice them. More generally, is it necessary to want to learn in order to learn? This question is related to intention, at one level whether the learner intends to notice or pays attention ("unconscious", then, means that this is not the case), and at a more global level, whether there is a deliberate plan involving study and other intentional learning strategies ("unconscious" here means that there is no such planning) (McLaughlin, 1990).

As noted in Hulstijn (1990), "incidental" learning requires some degree of controlled processing. If there was no controlled processing (i.e., attention allocation), no learning would be taking place. McLaughlin, Rossman and McLeod (in Hulstijn, 1990) have suggested that "incidental" learning may be characterized as requiring peripheral rather than focal attention on the part of the information processor, whereas "intentional" learning requires focal attention. Schmidt (1993) accepts the possibility of incidental learning -i.e. learning without consciously trying to learn- especially when task demands focus attention on relevant features of the input. However, he rejects the possibility for adults of incidental learning in the sense of picking up target language forms from the input when they do not carry information critical to the task at hand. For Schmidt, paying attention to language form is hypothesized to be facilitative in all cases and may be necessary for adult acquisition of redundant grammatical features.

Two more confusing terms that Schmidt further discusses are "consciousness" and "awareness".

2.4.4. Consciousness as Awareness

Schmidt (1993) says, about the confusion between consciousness and awareness, that "....when we speak of having been conscious of something we most often mean that we were aware of it, ...when we speak of having done something consciously, we may mean either that we did it with awareness of what we were doing or that we did it deliberately; this is one of the ambiguities involved in most discussion of consciousness" (p.24).

As noted in Tomlin and Villa (1994), consciousness has many senses associated with it, including perception, awareness and understanding, intention, or specific knowledge. "Awareness" is often treated as a synonym, but the term awareness seems to be confined to the subjective experience of some stimulus (and not, e.g., to such things as the state of being conscious). Thus, it can be suggested that it is best to leave the word consciousness as rich with multiple associated meanings (Schmidt, 1990) but to limit the term awareness to the subjective experience of any cognitive content or external stimulus.

Seeing the meaning confusion between two terms, many writers on the subject have recognized that there are degrees or levels of awareness. Three crucial levels are cited in Schmidt (1990):

> Level 1- Perception: It is generally believed that all perception implies mental organization and the ability to create internal representations of external events. However, perceptions are not necessarily conscious, and subliminal perception is possible.
>
> Level 2- Noticing (focal awareness): There is a distinction between the information that is perceived and information that is noticed (see also 2.4.4.1).
>
> Level 3- Understanding: Noticing is the basic sense in which we commonly say that we are aware of something, but does not exhaust the possibilities. Having noticed some aspect of the environment, we can analyze it and compare it to what we have noticed on other occasions. We can reflect on the objects of consciousness and attempt to comprehend their significance, and we can experience insight and understanding. All of this mental activity- what we commonly think of as thinking- goes on within consciousness (pp. 131-132).

For Schmidt (in Skehan, 1996), consciousness has considerable importance in language learning. He suggests that there is accumulating evidence that explicit learning of structured material is generally superior to implicit learning, awareness of the learning itself and of what is to be learned confers advantages. He maintains that there is insufficient evidence to conclude that SL learning occurs without awareness. Nor does he agree that understanding is epiphenomenal to learning or that most SL learning is unconscious. Instead, he argues that understanding and learning, in most cases, are tightly linked -most of the time when we want to learn something we make ourselves conscious of it, and the more there is to learn, the greater the need for sustained conscious involvement (Schmidt, 1990 in McLughlin, 1990). Gass (1983) agrees with

him about the significance of awareness in language learning. She points out that "awareness allows learners to reflect upon the language and to make hypotheses about the target language and subsequently modify those hypotheses" (p. 287).

2.4.4.1. Attention and Noticing

When the term "awareness" is being discussed, it is inevitable to explore the terms "attention" and "noticing" since they are woven into the term "awareness".

Related to the term "awareness", Schmidt's personal choice of a label for the key concept is "noticing", although there are a variety of technical terms for this including "focal awareness" (Atkinson ans Shiffrin, 1968), "conscious perception" (Dixon, 1971), and "apperceived input" (Gass, 1988) (all in Schmidt, 1993). Each of these constructs presupposes "the allocation of attentional resources to some stimulus and identifies the level at which perceived events are subjectively experienced and are reportable by the person who experiences them" (Schmidt, 1993 p. 24). Schmidt (1988 in Leow, 1997) believes that nothing in the target language is available for intake into a language learner's existing system unless it is consciously noticed. To him, the learners must first consciously "notice" -that is, "demonstrate a conscious apprehension and awareness of some particular form in the input"- (Leow, 1997 p. 469). In his "noticing hypothesis", therefore, Schmidt (1990) proposes that consciousness, in the sense of awareness of specific forms in the input at the level of noticing (conscious attention), is necessary for language learning to take place. The information that is noticed by the learner results in intake. In other words, "noticing" is the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input into intake. Learners select specific parts of the input they are exposed to which then become available for further processing. Indeed, Schmidt (in Leow, 1997) argues strongly against any intake of input that the learner has not noticed.

Fotos (1993) agrees with Schmidt by noting that " noticing has been suggested to perform an interfacing function between the development of an explicit knowledge of a feature through formal instruction and the eventual acquisition of that feature- the development of implicit knowledge" (p.387). This relationship can be illustrated as follows:

Explicit input → intake = noticing → acquisition =implicit knowledge

Considering the role ascribed to "noticing" as a trigger for language processing, several researchers have suggested that noticing a feature in input is a critical first step. (Sharwood Smith, 1981; Rutherford, 1987, and McLaughlin, 1987 in Fotos, 1993). Robinson (1995), also, defines noticing as detection with awareness and rehearsal in short-term memory. Apparently, he also agrees with the "noticing hypothesis".

As can be understood from the notes above explicit instruction has a major role in input processing, i.e., input-intake relationship, since it facilitates student awareness of target language forms and meanings. It aids a learner by focusing a learner's attention. In other words, it acts out as a selective attention device (Gass, 1991). Van Patten (1989, 1990 in Tomlin and Villa, 1994) also argues that attention plays a role both in the processing of the informational content of input and in the processing of linguistic form.

Schmidt and Frota (1986 in Swain and Lapkin, 1995) offer a "notice the gap" principle. It suggests that awareness enables more efficient solutions to the "matching" problem., i.e. noticing the gap between one's current language system and the language one encounters. Schmidt (1994 in Skehan, 1996) proposes that awareness may enable learners to appreciate better the instruction that they are receiving, especially the correction that is being given. Related to that principle Gass (1991) points out that "attention is what allows a learner to notice a mismatch between what s/he produces/knows and what is produced by the speakers of the target language. Readjustments of one's grammar are thereby triggered by the perceptibility of such a mismatch" (p.135). This is because second language learners , especially in cases where second language is not guided by the teacher or textbook, may come to a point at which they are unable to identify the nature of the mismatch between their own variety and the target variety (Klein, 1986 in Hulstijn, 1990). At this point second language acquisition comes to a halt.

Based on this agreed-upon significance of "noticing", some researchers conducted studies related to Schmidt's "noticing hypothesis" in order to see its effectiveness in SLA. Leow (1997), for example, in his study, qualitatively and quantitatively addressed the role of awareness in relation to Schmidt's hypothesis. The study analyzed both the think-aloud protocols produced by 28 beginner adult L2 learners of Spanish completing a problem-solving task and their immediate performances on two

post-exposure assessment tasks, a recognition (e.g., multiple choice questions), and written production tasks (fill-in the blank exercises). It was found that different levels of awareness lead to differences in processing. More awareness contributes to more recognition and accurate written production of noticed forms by enhancing further processing of these forms in the L2 data. This increased allocation of attention appears to permit learners to take in and retrieve the grammatical information immediately in a more efficient manner when compared to less awareness at this level. Therefore, the findings of this study appear to provide empirical support for the facilitative effects of awareness in foreign language behavior (Robinson, 1995; Schmidt, 1990,1993, 1994, 1995).

Another empirical support comes from Fotos' (1993) study in which she investigated the amount of learner noticing produced by two types of grammar consciousness raising (see part 2.5) treatments designed to develop formal knowledge of problematic grammar structures (relative clauses in this case): teacher-fronted grammar lessons and interactive, grammar problem-solving tasks. In the latter group the students were given noticing exercises some examples of which are:

Example noticing exercise (1): Students listened to a paragraph containing the target structures and then they read it. Later, the following instruction was given:

"Do you notice any special use of English? Underline any special use of English which you notice".

Example noticing exercise (2): Another paragraph containing the target structures was dictated to the students, and then they were given the same instruction above.

The frequencies of noticing the target structure in communicative input after one and two weeks following the treatments were compared with the noticing frequencies of a control group which was not exposed to such tasks. The results indicated that task performance was as effective as formal instruction in the promotion of subsequent significant amounts of noticing, as compared with the noticing produced by the control group. In this study it was seen that the attentional mechanisms involved in language learning are important.

2.5. Consciousness-Raising (C-R) in Language Learning

Consciousness-raising (C-R) has been one of the buzzwords in recent SLA literature. This term has occurred as a reaction to the assumption in 1980's: formal grammar has a minimal or even non-existent role to play in language pedagogy. After the significance of the role of consciousness has been approved among the scholars in the field, a more frequent use of the term has been observed. In general, it is defined -by Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985, 1988)- as "the deliberate attempt to draw the learner's attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language" (p.274). They say that there are many ways of drawing attention to form. A simple example would be the use of typographical conventions such as underlining or capitalizing a particular grammatical surface feature, where the learner is asked to pay attention to anything that is underlined or capitalized. Another example would be the deliberate exposure of the learner to an artificially large number of instances of some target structure. The assumption here is that the very high frequency of the structure in question will attract the learner's attention to the relevant formal regularities. It is also noted in Sharwood Smith (1981) that the discovery of regularities in the target language, whether blindly intuitive or conscious, or coming between these two extremes, will always be self-discovery. The question is to what extent is discovery guided by the teacher. The guidance, where C-R is involved, can take more or less time or space or it can be more or less direct and explicit.

In Krashen's (in Tschirner, 1996) view, what is called "consciousness-raising" would be a luxury of highly dubious value since he holds that:

1) Learners can only profit from learned knowledge after a certain age, that is roughly puberty (Krashen, 1979 p.153).
2) Learned knowledge is normally only accessible given time and focus on form.
3) Some learners hardly ever (and some never) use learned knowledge (in Sharwood Smith, 1981 p. 164).

Although Krashen does not seem to approve the value of C-R, many researchers (James and Garett, 1991; Schmidt, 1992; Rutherford and Sharwood Smith, 1988 and Sharwood Smith, 1993) (in Tschirner, 1996) all agree that it is advantageous for language learning. However, an important point that is noted by Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) and Rutherford (1987) is that they are not saying C-R will

automatically ensure the acquisition of some structure; i.e., C-R is a sufficient condition for acquisition to take place. The role of C-R is not to teach the entities but rather to facilitate language learning. How this is accomplished through grammar consciousness-raising tasks is what follows.

2.5.1. Two Types of Consciousness-Raising

For the sake of the present study an important distinction should be made between the two types of consciousness-raising identified by Ellis (1993):

(1) C-R for explicit knowledge: The aim 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.

(2) C-R for comprehension: The aim is to focus the learner's attention on the meaning(s) performed by specific grammatical properties. This type of C-R will be achieved by means of activities that induce a learner to notice and understand the feature in the input (i.e., activities that require reception rather than production in the L2) (For the details see part 2.7.3.2).

What follows is the description of grammatical consciousness-raising; i.e., C-R for explicit knowledge. This type of C-R should be understood thoroughly to make a clearer distinction between the two types. This distinction is important since the present study was conducted on the second type: C-R for comprehension (see part 2.6).

2.5.1.1. Grammatical Consciousness-Raising

Whether ultimately a description of a pedagogical grammar is product-oriented or process-oriented, or a combination of the two, it is important to remember that pedagogical grammar descriptions are "aids to learning, not the object of learning"

(Corder, 1988 in Larsen-Freeman, 1989). As Corder has pointed out, the term "teaching grammar" is ambiguous. Teaching grammar need not mean teaching target language rules using metalinguistic terms as the opponents of explicit grammar instruction portray it. What one wishes to bring about in learners is a skill in applying the rules, not a conscious knowledge of the rules.

Because of the ambiguity of the term teaching grammar, Sharwood Smith (1981) and later Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1988) prefer the term Consciousness-Raising (C-R) to explain what is exactly meant by "grammar teaching. They say that

> C-R is intended to embrace the continuum ranging from intensive promotion of conscious awareness through pedagogical rule articulation on the one end to the mere exposure of the learner to the specific grammatical phenomena on the other (Sharwood Smith, 1988 p.3). Thus, C-R is seen to be a means of attainment of grammatical competence in another language....not an attempt to instill that competence directly (Rutherford, 1987 p.24).

Here, Rutherford means C-R is something of a compromise. It focuses on aspects of grammar without necessarily using explicit rules or technological jargon. Instead of trying to impart rules and principles directly as in the traditional grammar lesson, it seeks to help students discover them for themselves by focusing on the aspects of the target structures. On the other hand, it differs from pure communicative approaches by telling learners which structures are ungrammatical and providing the grammatical counterparts; i.e., providing them with "negative evidence" as White (1988 in Yip, 1994) puts it forward. It means drawing the learner's attention to the fact that certain forms are nonoccuring, or ungrammatical in the target language. Some form of C-R directing the learner's attention to the "ill-formedness of a structure may trigger the expunging of these forms; instead of leaving it up to chance for the learner to notice the nonoccurence of the deviant forms; C-R can alert the learner" (Yip, 1994 p.132) (see "noticing the gap" principle on part 2.4.4.1.)

If this is the goal of C-R, then how does it achieve that goal? The answer is through "Grammar Consciousness-Raising Tasks" (GCRT). To put it rather crudely, the grammar consciousness-raising task is a communicative task with a problem to be solved interactively as the task content (Fotos, 1994; Fotos and Ellis, 1991). Such tasks encourage the learner, with the help of the teacher, to try to discover a particular grammar rule, to learn about a grammar point for themselves; i.e., they are meant to help

learners to construct their own explicit grammar (Ellis, 1993). Another aim of GCRTs is to provide opportunities for interaction focused on an exchange of information. These tasks can be completed in teacher-directed lessons or they can be used in pair/group work in order to increase opportunities for negotiating meaning. They need to incorporate a multi-way information gap which requires the exchange of information in order to reach an agreed solution to a problem (Fotos and Ellis, 1991; Fotos, 1994).

Fotos and Ellis (1991) claim that such tasks provide serious content, in contrast to the trivial content of many information-gap activities, and they accomodate 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. Another point that must be made about the nature of GCRT is that "it is not aimed at developing immediate ability to use the target structure but rather 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" (Fotos, 1994 p.326).

Fotos and Ellis conducted a series of studies on the effectiveness of GCRTs. In Fotos' (1993) research, for example, two groups of subjects, one given a teacher-fronted grammar lesson, and the other given interactive problem-solving tasks (GCRTs), were compared. It was demonstrated that a number of learners who developed knowledge about grammar structures went on to notice those structures in communicative input after their consciousness had been raised. In another study, again the content of the grammar consciousness-raising task was the target structure itself, with grammar being the task content (Fotos, 1994). The target structures were adverb placement, indirect object placement and relative clause usage. Fotos compared the proficiency gains produced by learners who performed different GCRTs with the gains achieved by learners who were given traditional teacher-fronted grammar lessons matching to the content of the grammar tasks. The results indicated that the tasks successfully promoted both proficiency gains and L2 negotiated interaction in the participants. Thus, Fotos

agrees that GCRTs can be recommended as one way to integrate formal instruction within a communicative framework.

Fotos and Ellis' study (1991) was an exploratory study of the use of a communicative, grammar-based task in the college EFL classroom. The two research questions addressed were whether the GCRT successfully promoted L2 linguistic knowledge of a specific grammar point -dative alternation-, and whether it produced the kind of negotiated interaction which has been assumed to facilitate L2 acquisition. The term "negotiated input" has been suggested by Long (1983 in Fotos, 1994) who claims that when learners use the target language to communicate with native speakers or each other, they must often ask and answer questions when certain items of discourse are not understood. This has also been investigated in their study. The limited results of this investigation suggested that the grammar task encouraged communication about grammar and enabled EFL learners to increase their knowledge of a difficult L2 rule. An example GCRT direction which was given to the subjects of Fotos' (1994) can be given:
Direction: Today's task is about making sentences with **who, whom, which** and **that**. You will also study questions using **who** or **whom**. Taking turns, read your task cards. Each task card gives one rule, and correct and incorrect sentences showing the rule. The student who reads the rule and sentences must then make his/her own sentence. The sentence should show the rule. The students should write down all of the rules, and then take turns making sentences for each rule (p.351).

2.5.2. Input Enhancement

Sharwood Smith (1993) has proposed that the term "consciousness-raising" be replaced by "input enhancement". Theoretically, it is based on two kinds of evidence available to learners as they make hypotheses about correct and incorrect language forms: 1) positive evidence, and 2) negative evidence (Bowerman, 1987 in Gass, 1991). Positive evidence comes from the speech they hear/read and is thus comprised of a limited set of well-formed utterances. Originating from this, White, Spada, Lightbown and Ranta (1991) suggest a number of ways in which input enhancement may supplement naturalistic positive evidence:

> 1) It is quite possible that the L2 learner, even though exposed to certain structures, will fail to perceive them in a naturalistic input. ..... Input enhancement can be

> used to draw the learner's attention to the properties of input that may otherwise be missed.
>
> 2) Input enhancement may be used to help learners 'unlearn' incorrect analyses of the L2 by supplying "negative" evidence, that is, information about forms which are not possible in the target language (p.147).

According to Sharwood Smith (1993), "Input enhancement" implies that we can manipulate aspects of the input but make no further assumptions about the consequences of that input on the learner. He says that input enhancement can come in many different forms, "learners would be confronted with their own production, which would then be marked as incorrect; the tactic adopted assumes a hypothesis-testing model of learning that crucially requires the learner to know what is not possible as well as what is possible" (p. 176).

A number of researchers (all in Tomlin and Villa, 1994) have articulated how input enhancement can increase the accessibility of L2 grammar. Investigations of the effectiveness of input enhancement have targeted question formation (White et al, 1991), relative clauses (Doughty, 1991), determiners (Tomasello and Herron, 1989), and tense (Harley,1989). Techniques used to enhance input include "the explicit discussion of linguistic form, metalinguistic description; negative evidence through overt correction and input flooding, in which the learner is exposed to a great number of exemplars" (Tomlin and Villa, 1994 p. 186).

In a notable study conducted by White, Spada, Lightbown and Ranta (1991), three experimental classes of beginner level ESL learners were exposed to a variety of input enhancement activities on question formation over a two-week period. Their performance on paper-and-pencil tasks and on oral communication tasks was assessed on a pre-post test basis and compared with an uninstructed control group. The results indicated that instruction contributed to syntactic accuracy and that learners who were exposed to input enhancement activities significantly outperformed the uninstructed learners. The results are interpreted as evidence that input enhancement can bring about genuine changes in learners' interlanguage systems.

The main idea behind "input enhancement" is put forward very well by Terrell (1991) who claims that "monitoring can apparently interact with acquisition, resulting in learners' acquiring their own output; since incorrect output is as easily acquired as

correct output the approaches relying heavily on monitored output activities instead of "input for acquisition" will probably have to resort to strict error correction to avoid wholesale acquisition of incorrect forms and structures" (p. 61).

As can be understood from the explanations and the studies cited above, input enhancement can be considered as one specific form of C-R. This is why it has been included in that part of the literature review.

2.6. The Role of Comprehension in Second Language Acquisition

Having got a better understanding of consciousness and consciousness-raising, we can now turn to the specific focus of this study. As noted in part 2.5.1.1., the present study -which is about grammar acquisition on global terms- has been conducted on a particular type of C-R: C-R for comprehension. Depending on that, a particular model -developed by Rod Ellis- for grammar acquisition was based in the teaching of target problem structures to EFL learners. Before going into the Ellis' model one should grasp the role of "comprehension" in language learning. Notes about general comprehension theory and comprehension-based second language instruction would provide a justification for explaining why a comprehension-based grammar instruction approach has been attempted in this study.

2.6.1. Comprehension Theory

The notion "comprehension", very broadly, is said to involve "the decoding of particular messages which have been encoded in linguistic form" (Sharwood Smith, 1986, p.239). Nagle and Sanders (1986) point out that the process of language comprehension furnishes new information to be assimilated by a language learner. The question, in the theoretical literature, is " What exactly takes place during the language comprehension process?". It is difficult to answer that question. First of all there is a distinction -noted by Brown (1994)- to be made. Not to be confused with the competence/performance distinction, comprehension and production can be the aspects of both performance and competence. One of the myths in some FL teaching materials is that comprehension (listening and reading) can be equated with competence, and production (speaking and writing) with performance. Brown believes that it is important

to recognize that this is not the case; production is of course more directly observable, but comprehension is as much performance as production is.

An interesting point noted in Brown (1994) is that in child language most observational and research evidence points to the general superiority of comprehension over production; children seem to understand "more" than they actually produce. We know that adults also understand more vocabulary than they ever use in speech and also perceive more syntactic variation than they actually produce.

How are we to explain this difference, this apparent "lag" between comprehension and production? Brown raises important questions related to this question:

> Could it be that the same competence accounts for both comprehension and production? Or can we speak of comprehension competence as something that is somewhat separately identified from production competence? Because comprehension for the most part runs ahead of production, is it more completely indicative of our overall competence? Is production indicative of a smaller portion of competence? (p.34).

He believes that it is not, so it is necessary to make distinction between "production competence" and "comprehension competence". It has been demonstrated that the processes involved in producing language can be quite different from those involved in comprehending language (Swain and Lapkin, 1995). Skehan (1996), for example, claims that processing language to extract meaning (i.e., comprehension) involves different comprehension strategies. It does not guarantee automatic sensitivity to form. Similarly, Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983 in Swain and Lapkin, 1995) have shown with native speakers that comprehension will rely on comprehension strategies rather than on a closed, logical system of rules required to produce a grammatical utterance. They say, for example, in comprehending an utterance, a native speaker may make probable guesses about the probable structure of what they are hearing or reading based on syntactic and semantic clues.

In brief, comprehension and production are different processes and comprehension competence is given a particular significance because

> ...comprehension becomes more efficient as knowledge increases, processes become automatic, and experience confirms the reliability of learner's decoding, inferring and predicting. Successful language processing may influence the learner's affective

> disposition toward continued activity in the target language. Thus, a theory of comprehension contributes to and draws upon a theory of learning, a theory of affect, and an overall theory of cognition....It suggests that comprehension facilitates the natural development of linguistic knowledge in a setting which is effectively conducive to language acquisition. (Nagle and Sanders, 1986 p. 22).

2.6.2. Comprehension-based Second Language Instruction

Rather broadly, "comprehension-based instruction" is a general term to describe a variety of second language programs in which the focus of instruction is on comprehension rather than production (Lightbown and Spada, 1993). The comprehension approach (Winitz, 1981 in Celce-Murcia, 1991) represents attempts by many language methodologists working in the U.S. during the 1970s and 1980s to recreate the L1 acquisition experience for the second/foreign language learner. The notion that "comprehension is primary and that it should thus precede any production epitomizes this approach; a pedagogical offshoot is the view that comprehension can best be taught initially by delaying production in the target language while encouraging the learner to use meaningful nonverbal responses to demonstrate comprehension" (p.461). A good example of this approach is Asher's Total Physical Response (TPR) approach (Asher, 1977 in Nagle and Sanders, 1986), in which active listening gives students an opportunity to separate a stream of sounds into meaningful units. Supporters of comprehension training, providing an initial silent period for the learner, argue that "a solid foundation in listening comprehension appears to lay the foundation for language learning so successfully that speaking, writing, and reading skills are acquired relatively quickly in its wake" (Nagle and Sanders, 1986 p.21).

While the investigation of listening comprehension as a skill has recently come into its own, concern with the role of listening in teaching languages is not new. Nida (1957), Asher, Kusudo, and de la Torre (1983), Postovsky (1974), Winitz (1981), Belasco (1981), Stevick (1976, 1980), and Krashen and Terrell (1983) (all in Nagle and Sanders, 1986) are among those who have advocated a listening comprehension approach to language instruction and whose work reflect a heightened interest in giving listening comprehension a significant role in language instruction.

2.6.2.1. Comprehensible Input

It is important for a comprehension approach to language teaching to be based on comprehensible input. Given the important role of "comprehension", the most notable scholar in this field is Krashen. It is impossible to explain the specific role of comprehension in language teaching without mentioning Krashen's Input Hypothesis, which assigns a crucial role to comprehension.

Krashen (1981) has argued that learners acquire structures by understanding messages and not focusing on the form of input, by going for meaning. According to Krashen, comprehensible input is characterized as the only 'causative variable' in SLA (Fearch and Kasper, 1986).

The learning process is assumed to be triggered when there is a gap between a structure or form in the input and the learner's current level of competence (Krashen, 1983 in Fearch and Kasper, 1986). This input, which Krashen refers to as 'i+1', becomes a candidate for acquisition and will survive if it turns up in input again with some minimum frequency. Krashen (1982 in Swain and Lapkin, 1995) has pointed out that in many cases we do not utilize syntax understanding. We often get the message with a combination of vocabulary or lexical information plus extralinguistic information. Swain (in Gass, Madden, 1985) agrees with him by saying the language directed to the learner that contains some new element in it will nevertheless be understood by the learner because of linguistic, paralinguistic, or situational cues, or world knowledge backup. This could explain the phenomenon of individuals who can understand a language yet can only produce limited utterances in it. They have just never achieved to a syntactic analysis of the language because there has been no demand on them to produce the language. The claim, then, is that producing the target language may be the trigger that forces the learner to pay attention to the meanings of expression needed in order to successfully convey his or her intended meaning.

Similarly Gary and Gary (1981 in Swain and Lapkin, 1995) state, in speaking of comprehension-based approach to language teaching, that

> ...speech requires linguistically more complex tasks than comprehension. Comprehension..... allows many linguistic signals to be ignored: redundant grammatical and semantic functions such as definite/indefinite distinctions,

> singular/plural distinctions, etc., can very often be ignored without seriously distorting the message being comprehended (p.374).

The discussion so far exhibits that "form" might be ignored during the process of comprehension since the primary aim is to understand "meaning" of input. Some other scholars, on the other hand, believe that comprehension is a vital condition in the acquisition of grammatical forms. Chaudron (in Gass and Madden, 1985), for example, believes that for learners to acquire a new form by means of comprehensible input, they must first perceive the form and encode it before trying to employ it. Therefore, the measures that determine learners' immediate perception of the input are more important than their developed grammars, as seen in measures of free production. Similarly, Lightbown and Pienemann's (1993) hypothesis is that

> ...while comprehensible input is an essential part of the learning environment, it will not always be sufficient to bring about developmental change or increased accuracy,..... (They have seen in their research that) form-focused instruction can bring about changes in interlanguage and, furthermore, that there may be situations in which learners not only benefit from but require focused instruction to further their language acquisition (p. 178).

Ying (1995) also argues that comprehension could very well lead to grammar formation. In English, if the learner understands the function of a grammatical unit (third person -s for instance), such knowledge would lead to grammar formation.

In summary, since comprehension makes material available for learning, it is reasonable to assume that comprehension is an optimal starting point of instruction in the target language, and further, that comprehension activities should be incorporated at all instructional levels.

2.6.2.2. Form-Meaning Connection

Some general information about how comprehension-based instruction was born; and the debates about comprehensible input concerning the issue whether meaning is prior to form during comprehension bring us to another dimension in the discussion of comprehension: strategies and mechanisms that promote form-meaning connections during comprehension. This is what Van Patten and Cadierno (1993) call "input processing" (see part 2.3).

To explore those strategies and mechanisms further, a basic distinction should be made between meaning and form-focused instruction. As defined by Ellis (1990), meaning-focused instruction supplies the learner with input for processing. In meaning-focused instruction the learner is engaged in communication where the primary effort involves the exchange of meaning and where there is no conscious effort to achieve grammatical correctness. In the form-focused instruction the learner is engaged in activities that have been specially designed to teach specific grammatical features. The input, Ellis claims, that derives from these two kinds of instruction differs with regard to its communicative properties; for example, meaning-focused instruction is likely to afford the learner an opportunity to listen to and to perform a greater range of language functions than will form-focused instruction: Form-focused instruction encourages the learner to reflect on formal features of the language while meaning-focused instruction encourages semantic processing.

An interesting study that could be cited here, about form versus meaning-focused instruction is that of Hulstijn (1989 in Larsen-Freeman, 1991). Hulstijn conducted an experiment to investigate the differential effects of instruction when student attention is directed towards form or meaning or both. Eighty high school students who were native speakers of Dutch were engaged in learning sentences containing Dutch content words (to control for prior knowledge) but were also marked by artificial formal features (morphemes, function words, subclause word order). The subjects were divided into four groups depending on the orientation of their instruction: form only, meaning only, both form and meaning and a control group which was given the pre/post tests, but who worked on an unrelated task during the learning time alloted to the other groups. The other three groups were each given a different task depending upon its focus. For example, the form-focused group worked on an anagram task, while the meaning-focused group registered their opinion about the issues raised in the sentences. The subjects were given cued recall tests and a sentence copying test which was administered both before and after the experimental treatment.

From the results, Hulstijn was able to determine that attention to form was sufficient for implicit learning of the structural features to take place. However, he only

obtained modes evidence to support the claim that focus on meaning inhibits the acquisition of the formal features.

The instructional input in many lessons will be mixed, affording the learner the opportunity to attend to both form and meaning. It may also be possible, however, to distinguish whole lessons and even whole courses of instruction according to whether the emphasis is primarily on meaning or form (Spada, 1987 in Ellis, 1990).

The concern of this study is attending to both form and meaning during comprehension. The question to be answered is "How?" Simply exposing the learners to comprehensible input would not be sufficient alone because as Lightbown and Halter (1993 in Swain and Lapkin, 1995) conclude in their research about a comprehension based ESL program

> ...it is hardly surprising that students left on their own to acquire language purely from exposure to comprehensible input seem to need help with certain aspects of the language. (for example,) focused instruction and corrective feedback can help to fill these gaps and enhance their performance..... The findings of that study also lend support to the view expressed by Swain (1985, 1988), Sharwood Smith (1986) and others that the kind of processing which is necessary for comprehension is different from the kind of processing which is required for production....(p. 374).

Ying (1995), agreeing with Lightbown and Halter, -and parallel to the gist of that study- argues that for intake to take place, the learner needs to process and understand the input, and this process calls for the activation of the learner factors (e.g., attention); and the learners need to be empowered , i.e., they need the guidance of external factors (e.g., input processing instruction and input enhancement) to build up the necessary skills and knowledge of L2 for effective comprehension.

What is the significance of explicit grammar instruction in providing such an "empowerment" for establishing form-meaning connections? Terrell (1991) suggests that comprehension strategies are the processing principles used by the learner to make sense of the stream of target language forms in the input. Terrell uses the term "binding" to refer to the psycholinguistic linking of meaning to a new form in the target language. To him, the acquisition of a form in the target language is defined as establishing a connection between concept and form. The learner's task in the acquisition process , then, is to use the input to posit and store correct meaning-form relationships (also noted in part 1.1). Explicit grammar instruction, in that sense, is seen as an aid to the learner in

the acquisition process by making certain grammatical forms more salient and thereby aiding the learner in establishing correct meaning-form connections. Terrell (1991) further proposes that explicit grammar instruction can affect the acquisition process as an "advance organizer" to aid the comprehension of the input. The idea of an advance organizer is "to give learners information about target language forms and structures that will aid in processing the input. An advance organizer for grammar can provide comprehension strategies that highlight key grammatical elements learners should attend to (or conversely ignore)" (p.58).

Essentially, the idea is to provide meaningful input that contains many instances of the same grammatical meaning-form relationship. Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) describe this idea as follows:

> ..... (to provide) deliberate exposure of the learner to an artificially large number of instances of some target structure in the language on the assumption that the very high frequency of the structure in question will attract the learner's attention to the relevant formal regularities (p.275).

Grammatical information, in this case, is used by the instructor as a sort of "input organizer". The instructor, in other words, helps the learners through input processing instruction or C-R (input enhancement) activities.

After having a background about comprehension-based instruction, particularly in grammar acquisition, a model for grammar teaching, proposed by Ellis (1990, 1993, 1995), incorporating all the titles discussed so far - psycholinguistic grammar, input processing, comprehension vs production, noticing, and C-R for comprehension- can be put forward.

2.7. Ellis' Model for Comprehension-Based Grammar Teaching

Ellis proposes an alternative approach to grammar teaching based on designing activities that focus learners' attention on a targeted structure in the input and that enable them to identify and comprehend the meaning(s) of that structure. This approach emphasizes input processing for comprehension rather then output processing for production. Here, at that point, a psycholinguistic rationale should be given for a comprehension-based approach to grammar teaching.

2.7.1. The Interface Model

The model, which Ellis (1990, 1993, 1995) designed to address the role of formal instruction in acquisition, is based on a distinction between implicit and explicit L2 knowledge (see part 2.4.1); and, more significantly, the issue of "interface" between these two types of knowledge.

As noted in Fotos (1993), one of the controversies surrounding the work of researchers such as Krashen, who advocate purely communicative pedagogy, is that grammar instruction has no interface with SLA. Hence, the view is that grammar instruction is not necessary for the acquisition of competence. However, the growing body of empirical evidence in favor of the positive effects of formal instruction (see part 2.4) on language acquisition suggests that an interface must exist. An important question, then, is the nature of the interface.

According to Krashen's Monitor Hypothesis, acquisition and learning are technical terms representing separate phenomena (Nagle and Sanders, 1986). Since learning never becomes acquisition, according to that hypothesis, grammar should not be taught explicitly (in Cantürk, 1991). So, it is seen that Krashen (1981) argues strongly in favor of a "noninterface" position. That is, explicit knowledge may assist learners in certain kinds of language performance in the form of monitoring but it does not help them to acquire implicit knowledge; it is impossible, then, to lead learners from explicit to implicit knowledge through practice. They are separate entities and one can never convert into the other (Cantürk, 1991, Ellis, 1993). However, as Seliger (1979) points out the monitor model itself is concerned only with output but it does not suggest how input is to be handled; it is not equipped with input processing.

The noninterface position favored by Krashen has been criticized by many scholars because of the rigid separation of acquisition and learning and "it was claimed that the notion that learned forms can never be transferred to acquisition is difficult if not impossible to verify, and Krashen and his co-theorists provide little objective support" (Nagle and Sanders, 1986 p.12).

As opposed to Krashen, some other scholars (e.g., Gregg, 1984; McLaughlin, 1978; Sharwood Smith, 1981) (in Ellis, 1993) have opted for a "strong interface"

position, according to which explicit knowledge can be converted into implicit knowledge through practice and there are no constraints on this taking place.

Ellis' (1993, 1994, 1995) is a "weak interface" model, that is, explicit knowledge "may" -not always- convert into implicit knowledge by providing learners with formal practices as well as natural communicative situations. Ellis believes that the evidence available from research into the effects of grammar instruction on L2 learning is compatible only with a weak interface position. This research suggests the following conclusions (Ellis, 1993):

1) Grammar instruction results in faster learning and in higher levels of L2 grammatical accuracy (Long, 1983; Pica, 1983).
2) Grammar instruction directed at a grammatical feature that learners are not ready to acquire as implicit knowledge does not succeed (Felix, 1981; Pienemann, 1984, 1989).
3) Grammar instruction directed at a grammatical feature that learners are ready to acquire as implicit knowledge is successful (Harley, 1989; Pienemann, 1984, 1989) (see also part 2.7.2 for Pienemann's teachability hypothesis).

The first conclusion cannot be explained by a noninterface theory. The second conclusion contradicts with the strong interface theory. All three conclusions are compatible with a weak interface theory. Ellis illustrates his model of L2 acquisition incorporating a weak interface position in Figure 2.3.

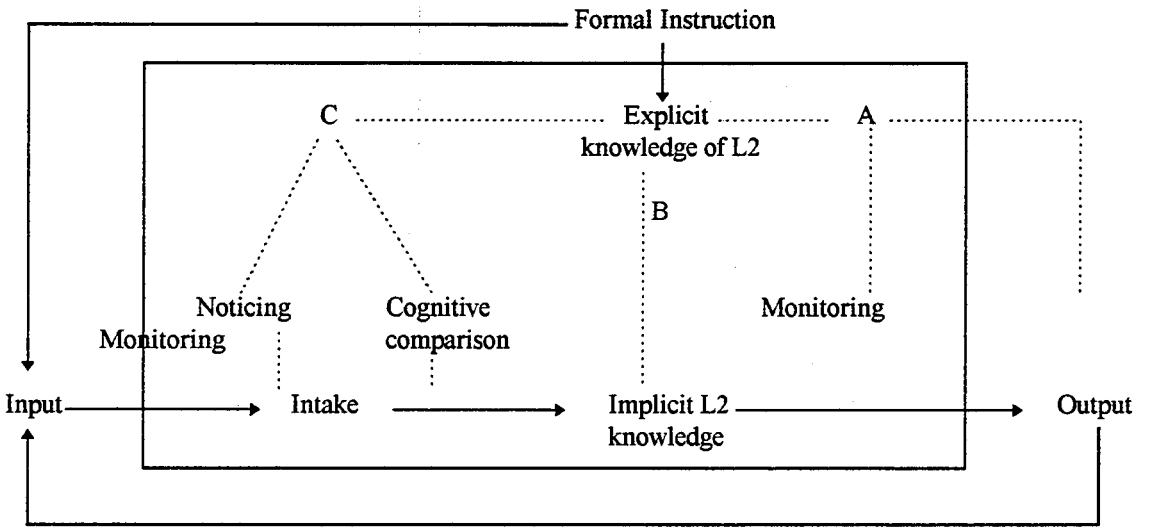


Figure 2.3. A Model of L2 Acquisition Incorporating a Weak Interface Position (Ellis, 1995, p.89)

Key:
——— = primary processes
.....= secondary processes

In this model, Ellis (1990, 1993, 1995) hypothesizes an "indirect" relationship between explicit and implicit L2 knowledge besides the direct one, and he suggests that the indirect one is the most important one. He explains this indirect relationship as follows:

> The model proposes that explicit L2 knowledge facilitates implicit L2 knowledge in two principal ways. First, it helps learners notice linguistic properties of the input they otherwise might not notice..... Thus, explicit knowledge helps learners obtain intake.... Second, input is also enhanced when learners are carry out a second operation -comparing what they have noticed in the input with what they currently produce in their own output. This kind of cognitive comparison is hypothesized to help learners "notice the gap" (Schmidt and Frota, 1986) between the input and their own output, and it can give the learner evidence that an existing hypothesis regarding a target structure is the correct one (Ellis, 1995 p.89-90).

As seen in the above quotation, Ellis posits a number of uses of explicit knowledge:

1) Explicit knowledge is also available for use in monitoring output, which, in turn, serves as a source of input.

2) Explicit knowledge can help learners to notice features in the input and also to notice the meanings that they realize. For example, if learners know that plural nouns have an -s, they are more likely to notice the -s on the ends of nouns they hear or read in input and also more likely to associate the -s morpheme with the meanings more than one. In a sense, then, as Terrell (1991) suggests, explicit knowledge can function as a kind of "advance organizer" that helps the learner to comprehend and segment the input and also as a "meaning-form focuser" that enables the learner to establish meaning-form relationships.
3) Explicit knowledge may help learners to incorporate features that have become intake into their developing interlanguage grammars by facilitating the process by which they compare their existing representation of a grammatical feature with that actually observed in the input. For example, if learners know that plural nouns have an -s, they are better equipped to notice the difference between this feature in the input and its omission in their own output.

Monitoring, noticing and noticing the gap are all mental processes. Because the availability of relevant explicit knowledge does not guarantee their operation, all three processes are represented in the figure by dotted lines.

A key aspect of this model is the role that explicit knowledge is hypothesized to play in noticing and noticing the gap (see part 2.4.4.1). Learners may notice a feature but not bother to notice the gap. This particular issue is closely related to the idea of consciousness raising. Yet, it should be noted that "neither noticing nor noticing the gap guarantees that the new feature will be incorporated into the learner's interlanguage system, as in many cases this will be constrained by the learner's stage of development" (Ellis, 1993 p.99).

This model allows for explicit knowledge to have an indirect effect on acquisition by helping to facilitate the processes of noticing and noticing the gap. It is hypothesized that learners who know about a grammatical feature because they have learned about it through grammar instruction are in a better position to heed this feature when it subsequently occurs in the input and are also better able to notice the difference between the input and their own production (Ellis, 1990, 1993, 1995).

That particular approach can be better understood by highlighting the difference between traditional, teacher-fronted grammar instruction and grammatical consciousness-raising for comprehension.

2.7.2. Grammatical Consciousness-Raising Tasks vs Traditional Grammar Instruction

Terrell (1991) points out that the dominant model for SL instruction in the 70s and early 80s has been described as a "cognitive" approach. The theoretical model that underlies the approach is that a language consists of a "set of rules" with an associated lexicon. It follows logically from the model that foreign language students must learn rules of grammar. The suggested sequence is to study a rule, usually with instructor explanation, practice a rule (in grammar exercises), and then apply the rule in meaningful interactions in the target language. Traditional grammar lessons are usually composed of these three phases: presentation, practice and production. As noted in Chastain (1983), 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. What is noticeable in this approach is its focus on the manipulation of learner output. In most foreign language classrooms, instruction occurs by explaining a grammatical concept and then having learners practice producing a given structure or form (see Figure 2.4).

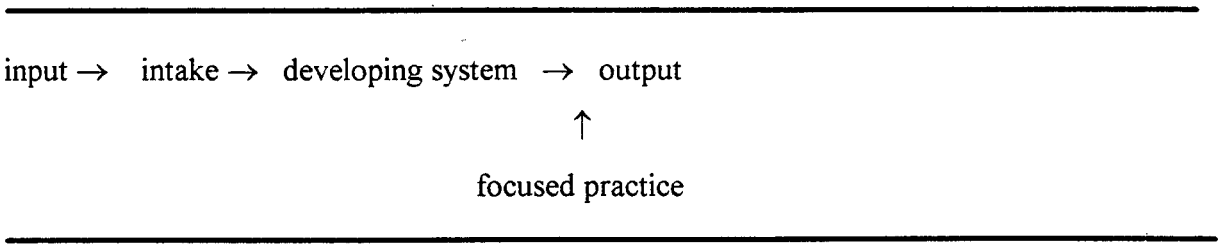


Figure 2.4. Traditional Instruction in Foreign Language Teaching (Van Patten and Cadierno, 1993)

To put it another way, grammar teaching is conducted by means of activities that give learners opportunities to produce sentences containing the targeted structure. These activities can consist of 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. The underlying assumption of both types of activity is that having learners produce the structure correctly and repeatedly helps them learn it (Ellis, 1995).

Grammar C-R tasks, on the other hand, downplay the role of production and, instead, emphasize 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 (Fotos and Ellis, 1991). Ellis (1993, 1994) makes a distinction between the teaching of grammar through "practice" and the teaching of grammar through "consciousness-raising". He says

> To me, the essential difference really rests on the role of learner production in grammar activities. What I mean is that we can envisage grammar activities that will require a learner to produce sentences exemplifying the grammatical feature that is the target of the activity. And that is what I mean by practice. Or we can envisage activities that will seek to 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. And that's what I mean by consciousness-raising (Ellis, 1993 pp. 5-6).

Ellis (1994) also identifies a number of features of language practice from the teacher's perspective: 1) there is some attempt to isolate specific grammatical features, 2) learners are required to produce sentences with the targeted structures, 3) they must do so repetitively, 4) they are expected to do so correctly, and 5) they receive corrective feedback. Then, he suggests that the instruction in the form of consciousness-raising differs from practice primarily with regard to 2, 3 and 4. That is to say, specific grammatical features are isolated and the students are given corrective feedback, but the students are never encouraged to produce the target forms.

Ellis (1995) believes that traditional grammar instruction faces a number of problems. First, he claims, asking learners to produce grammatical structures they find difficult and then correcting them when they make mistakes may increase their anxiety and results in a psychoaffective block to learning anything. A second problem relates to

Pienemann's (1989 and in Rutherford and Sharwood Smith, 1988) teachability hypothesis. According to that hypothesis

> ...teaching is ineffectual (i.e. impossible) since L2 acquisition can only be promoted when the learner is 'ready' to acquire the given items in the natural context. Consequently, one might conclude that it is not really necessary to concern oneself with teaching, since it will neither promote nor hinder acquisition (Pienemann, 1989 p. 61).

He also believes that Teachability Hypothesis should hold just as well for purely formal contexts as it does for natural ones. In other words, learners (both in formal and natural contexts) pass through a number of stages en route to acquiring the ability to produce a target language structure and that grammar teaching often does not alter this sequence. This being the case, Ellis (1995) believes that teaching learners to produce a target structure that they are not ready to produce may not work. He proposes that attempts can be made to ensure that the teaching syllabus matches the learners' built-in syllabus. He recognizes that this will involve diagnosing the stage of development reached by individual learners and tailoring instruction to their level (Ellis, 1996).

Within the scope of Pienemann's Teachability Hypothesis, "C-R for comprehension" has an important role to play, while in traditional grammar instruction, that particular hypothesis is mostly ignored. Pienemann (1985 in Ellis, 1993) makes a distinction between "input for comprehension" and "input for production". He argues that the developmental sequence through which learners pass reflects the gradual mastery of a series of processing operations responsible for language production. However, that idea meets a number of objections. It is not clear how teachers are supposed to identify the developmental stages which individual learners have reached or whether this can be practically achieved, and it requires teachers to construct teaching programs tailored to the psycholinguistic needs of individual learners, which, as Lightbown (1985 in Ellis, 1993, 1996) has pointed out, may be unrealistic in many teaching situations. Such objections all arise because Pienemann views the primary goal of a grammar syllabus as that of providing input for "production". They do not appear to apply if the syllabus is directed at providing input for comprehension. Pienemann suggests that such input can be allowed to arise naturally in the course of communication, but he does not consider the possibility that it might be contrived through formal instruction. It is exactly the very

point that Ellis' model originates from. As opposed to Pienemann, Ellis (1993) believes that "it is possible .... to envisage an approach where input for comprehension is carefully planned and structured to ensure that the learner is systematically exposed to specific grammatical features" (p. 104). This proposal is a modest one in the sense that the goal is no longer the development of full implicit knowledge of the L2 but only the facilitation of intake. One way for investigating precisely which factors influence intake is to study how formal instruction affects learners' ability to notice and comprehend specific grammatical items. To that aim, Ellis suggests the use of "interpretation tasks" to replace traditional production tasks.

2.7.3. Grammar Interpretation Tasks

One alternative approach to grammar teaching suggested by Ellis (1993, 1995) requires the use of what he calls "grammar interpretation tasks". This is a different form of C-R for explicit knowledge in which "grammar" itself is the task content. In this particular approach the expectation is that instruction is apparently more beneficial when it is directed at how learners perceive and process input rather than when it is focused on practice via output. Grammar interpretation tasks, basically, require interpretative comprehension of input containing the correct usage of the target form. As pointed out in Fotos (1994), these types of tasks are C-R because the learners' attention is focused on the nature of the required target structure. Their aim is "to manipulate the meaningful context to draw learner's attention to problematic grammatical features" (Fotos, 1994 p. 325).

2.7.3.1. Interpretation

What is meant by "interpretation" ? It is defined in Ellis (1995) as follows:

> This is the process by which learners endeavor to comprehend input and in doing so pay attention to specific linguistic features and their meanings. It involves noticing and cognitive comparison and results in intake (p. 90).

The term "cognitive comparison" in the definition above replaces the term "noticing the gap" used in earlier versions of the Ellis model (1993). This is because this term better captures the fact that learners need to notice when their own output is the same as the input as well as when it is different.

According to Ellis (1994), interpretation involves (1) noticing the presence of a specific feature in the input, and (2) comprehending the meaning of the feature. He says "one of the formal assumptions of formal instruction directed at interpretation is that it is psycholinguistically easier to manipulate the process of intake than it is to ensure that learners accommodate intake by undertaking the necessary restructuring of their interlanguage systems" (p. 645).

Pienemann (1985 in Ellis, 1993) notes that developmental constraints only apply where the learner production in communicative language use is involved. He comments: "the input to the comprehension system does not need to be adjusted to the level of complexity of the production learning task since there are different types of processing procedures in the two systems" (p. 53). Interpretation tasks, then, can be said to serve as devices for avoiding the instructional problems associated with the teachability hypothesis (see part 2.7.2).

As noted earlier, interpretation teaching involves a comprehension-based approach to language teaching, since it typically requires learners to display their comprehension of input that has been carefully structured to contain examples of target structures. This is where interpretation differs from "practice", which requires the production of selected grammar structures.

In short, one implication of Ellis' model for pedagogy is that grammar teaching might usefully focus on "interpretation". As Van Patten (in Ellis, 1995) puts it:

> Given the important role of input and input processing in second language acquisition, it is reasonable to wonder whether or not explicit instruction in grammar that involves a focus on input is more appropriate than traditional approaches to grammar instruction where learners are engaged in production (p. 91).

2.7.3.2. Designing Interpretation Tasks

To put it rather crudely, an interpretation grammar activity is a listening activity as opposed to a production grammar activity. Such activities require learners to listen to the structured (contrived) input in order to identify the meanings of the sentences containing a particular structure. There are a variety of activities that require learners to attend to the feature in the input, to construct form-meaning connections, but not to actually produce the grammatical structure themselves.

3 main goals of interpretation tasks are explained by Ellis (1995) as follows:

> 1) To enable learners to identify the meaning(s) realized by a specific grammatical feature (i.e. to help them carry out a form-function mapping). In this case, the goal is grammar comprehension, to be distinguished from what might be termed message comprehension, which can take place without the learner having to attend to the grammatical form.
>
> 2) To enhance input (Sharwood Smith, 1993) in such a way that learners are induced to notice a grammatical feature that otherwise they might ignore. In other words, interpretation tasks are designed to facilitate noticing.
>
> 3) To enable learners to carry out the kind of cognitive comparison that has been hypothesized to be important for interlanguage development. Learners need to be encouraged to notice the gap between the way a particular form works to convey meaning in the input, and how they are using the same form, or, alternatively, how they convey the meaning realized by the form when they communicate. One way of fostering this is to draw learners' attention to the kinds of errors that learners typically make (p. 94).

Interpretation tasks can be devised as sequences of activities that reflect these three operations. That is, in the first instance, learners are required to comprehend the specially contrived input, followed by a task that induces learners to pay careful attention to the important properties of the target feature, and finally by a task that encourages the kind of cognitive comparison learners will have to perform.

There are a number of general principles (listed in Ellis, 1995) for the design of interpretation tasks in general. These are:

1) Learners should be required to process the target structure, not to produce it.
2) An interpretation activity consists of a stimulus to which learners must make some kind of response.
3) The stimulus can take the form of spoken or written input.
4) The response can take various forms (e.g., indicate true-false, check a box, select the correct picture, draw a diagram, perform an action) but in each case the response will be either completely nonverbal or minimally verbal.
5) The activities in the task can be sequenced to require first attention to meaning, then noticing the form and function of the grammatical structure, and finally error identification.

6) As a result of completing the task, the learners should have arrived at an understanding of how the target form is used to perform a particular function or functions in communication.
7) Learners can benefit from the opportunity to negotiate the input they hear or read (e.g., they can ask the teacher to repeat a particular sentence).
8) Interpretation tasks should require learners to make a personal response (i.e., relate the input to their own lives) as well as a referential response.
9) As a result of completing the task, learners should have been made aware of common learner errors involving the target structure as well as correct usage.
10) Interpretation grammar teaching requires the provision of immediate and explicit feedback on the correctness of the students' responses (i.e., input enhancement).

All these principles have been incorporated in the interpretation tasks designed to teach the target problem structures (NCs) of this study as far as possible. Another point that should be made here in this part is that the interpretation, in such tasks, is mostly at the sentence level rather than at the discourse level. This is done to structure the input and to be able to lead the learners to make form-meaning connections more easily.

Before considering how interpretation grammar tasks were used in this study, it would be useful to briefly examine what empirical evidence there is in favor of interpretation-based grammar teaching:

The first example of such studies is Doughty's. Doughty (1991) (cited in Ellis, 1995) investigated the effects of instruction on adult learners' acquisition of relative clauses. The data came from a computer-assisted reading lesson, which included examples of the target structure. She had three groups: one received help in understanding the text by means of expansions or clarifications of sentences containing relative clauses; the second one received explicit instruction; and the third control group just read the sentences. Doughty found that the meaning-focused instruction directed at making sentences containing the target structure "comprehensible" seemed to work best, because it led to both acquisition of the target structure and to better overall comprehension.

Another noteworthy example is that of Cadierno's (1992) (cited in Van Patten and Cadierno, 1993) study, for her doctoral dissertation. She compared processing and

traditional instruction using past tense verb morphology as the linguistic item. Her results reveal that processing instruction has a significant effect on how learners perceive and produce past tense forms in Spanish. Traditional instruction has an effect only on production of past tense forms.

One year later, Van Patten and Cadierno (1993) conducted a parallel study in which they compared traditional production-based practice with listening practice that required learners to process the input. Target structures were object-verb-subject word order and clitic object pronouns in Spanish. They found that processing instruction including the use of interpretation tasks was superior to the traditional one in terms of both comprehension and accurate production of the structures. They concluded that whereas the production-based instruction only contributed to explicit knowledge, comprehension-based instruction created intake which the learners were able to integrate into their interlanguage systems (i.e., it led to implicit knowledge).

Another similar study was carried out by Tuz (1992) (cited in Ellis,1995). In this study, the target structure was word order with psychological verbs in English. The subjects in one group were required to produce that structure while the ones in the other were just asked to comprehend the materials given. The results of this study indicate that the subjects receiving the comprehension-based instruction outperformed the subjects receiving production-based instruction on a comprehension test of the structure. They also outperformed them on a production test.

Winitz (1996), in his study, compared two types of instruction: The explicit instruction where the students were instructed in grammar translation approach, and the implicit instruction where the students were instructed in the comprehension of sentences including the target structures and words through the use of pictures and TPR activities. He found that students in the implicit grammatical instruction classes achieved significantly higher scores than the students in the explicit grammatical instruction classes.

Ellis (1995) concludes that the research to date suggests that comprehension-based instruction not only results in greater overall proficiency but is also more effective in enabling learners to "acquire" specific grammatical structures. The only missing point in these studies is to find out to what extent this advantage is maintained over time. This

study intends to search for that particular point by considering the retention of the proficiency gains obtained from comprehension-based versus production-based instructions.

To conclude, it can be said that there are strong theoretical reasons to give support to an interpretation-based approach to grammar teaching. However, as Ellis (1994) claims, the empirical evidence is limited and there is need for much more research before the more traditional approaches to formal instruction (those based on production) can be replaced by modern approaches.

2.8. Conclusion

The theory proposed in this chapter hypothesizes that explicit knowledge functions as a facilitator of implicit knowledge by making the learner conscious of linguistic features in the input which otherwise might be ignored. Instruction frequently fails to result in the direct acquisition of new linguistic structures, yet, instruction results in faster learning and higher levels of achievement. The main point, indeed, is that it is the learner who is in charge of both what can be learnt and when it can be learnt, not the teacher. As Corder (1980 in Ellis, 1990) concludes "teaching should be coordinated with learning and not learning with teaching" (p. 198). However, this does not mean that no grammar teaching should take place. It means that the learner must be left to make use of grammar teaching in his/her own way. This is the position adopted in this study. As for the teacher, s/he has a definite role to play both by ensuring that there are adequate opportunities for meaning-focused communication to foster the acquisition of implicit knowledge and also by helping the learner to develop explicit knowledge.

CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

Prompted by the significance of explicit grammar instruction, present study intends to examine the possible effects of two different types of grammar instruction: instruction as the manipulation of the output, which can also be called "production based instruction", and instruction as the alteration of input processing -with particular reference to a certain type of C-R- (see part 2.5.1.1), which is labeled as "comprehension-based instruction". The primary aim of the study is to make comprehension-based interpretation tasks pedagogically acceptable in the communicative classroom as supplementary and remedial activities. To this aim, the study compared traditional-production based grammar lessons with comprehension-based grammar lessons in which grammar interpretation tasks (see part 2.7.3.2) have been used. The study hypothesized that comprehension-based instruction for the selected problematic grammar structures would enable EFL learners to acquire those structures as well as production-based instruction does; and that the proficiency gains obtained from comprehension-based instruction would be maintained over time to a greater extent when compared to production-based instruction. It is seen that the study, by its nature, is a hypothesis-testing classroom research, which has proved to have brought about significant findings with reference to both theory and practical classroom applications recently. The study used an experimental design, employed quantitative data and offered statistical analysis.

3.1. Definitions of the Structures Used in the Study

With regard to the choice of grammar structures used in the research, a distinction should be made between the two meanings of grammar acquisition: 1) acquisition as the internalization of the new forms, and 2) acquisition as the increase in control over the forms that the learners have already been exposed to but have not internalized completely. The second sense of acquisition has been taken as the basis for selecting the structures used in the study.

The previous experience of the researcher in the writing lessons she had taught for about 6 years at Anadolu University, Education Faculty has shown that English Noun Clause structures pose an acquisition problem for EFL learners. It was noticeable that the students were unable to use this particular structure correctly because they had not "acquired" it, although they had been exposed to it many times before. This problem was particularly salient in the construction of Noun Clauses with questions. The students could be observed to produce ill-formed NC sentences as in the following:

*I don't know where are we going to go?

*He asked Mary if you go to bed early.

*We want to learn how can we learn to use a computer.

*Joe asks Tim why didn't you finish your homework etc.

As can be seen in these examples, the learners are unable to apply the required transformations like word order, tense and pronoun changes. In order to confirm that intuition about that "problem" area, a "Grammaticality Judgment (G-J) test" was designed and given to the subjects. The results of this test indicated that these particular structures were really a problem for the students (for the details of the G-J test see 3.3.2).

As a result, "Noun Clauses" have been selected as the target structures in the study. Since "Noun Clauses" is a rather broad subject in English grammar only the Noun Clauses derived from questions (not the ones derived from statements) were taken into consideration throughout the study:

1) Noun Clauses (NC) with Question Words

a) NC in subject position

e.g. What he is planning to do is not known.

b) NC in object position

e.g. I will ask him what he is planning to do.

2) Noun Clauses with If/Whether

a) NC in subject position

e.g. Whether she will tell the truth is not known.

b) NC in object position

e.g. Nobody knows if/whether she will tell the truth.

In brief, "indirect questions" have been the focus in the research. Since "indirect" questions were tackled, various transformations like tense changes and pronoun changes, together with word order changes, were presented and particularly emphasized for "reported" questions.

Example:

1) Direct Question: "How many words per minute do you type?"

Indirect (Reported) Question: -The interviewer want**ed** to know how many words per minute **I typed**.

NC

- The interviewer want**s** to know how many words per minute **I type**.

NC

2) Direct Question: "Have you ever used a word processor?"

Indirect (Reported) Question: -The interviewer ask**ed** Sheila if/whether **she had ever used** a word processor.

NC

- The interviewer ask**s** Sheila if/whether **she has** ever used a word processor.

NC

3.2. Setting and Subjects

The study was conducted in Eskişehir Anadolu University, Education Faculty, Department of English Language Teaching in the spring term of the academic year 1996-1997. Four first year classes were selected for inclusion (103 females-47 males). That is, the treatment and the tests were given to 150 subjects (n=150). These four groups of first year classes were randomly assigned to each one of two treatment groups: The students in two of the classes formed the "interpretation task" group (50 females-27 males; total 77 students); and the other two formed the "traditional instruction" group (53 females- 20 males; total 73 students). The age range of all the subjects in both groups was 18-24.

Among the 150 students, there were 42 repeating students (19 students in the interpretation task group, and 23 students in the traditional group). That is, they were actually second year students when the study was conducted; and they were repeating

their grammar course which they had failed when they were first year students. These students -as second year students- had different types of classes and a possible further amount of exposure to the target structures in the study. Therefore, they were eliminated from the study. The remaining number of subjects was 108 (n=108).

As for the "learner absenteeism"; the subjects were supposed to attend 12 class hours (3 concurrent hours a week, during 4 weeks). 28 subjects who missed more than 2 hours were also eliminated from the study. This was decided upon by the researcher. It was thought that up to 2 hours of nonattendance was acceptable and would not change the overall performance of the subjects.

The attendance profiles in both groups were as follows (Figure 3.1):

Interpretation Task Group

8 subjects ⇒ 10 hours

7 subjects ⇒ 11 hours **Total 40 subjects**

25 subjects ⇒ 12 hours

Absenteeism more than 2 hours ⇒ 18 subjects

Traditional Instruction Group

12 subjects ⇒ 10 hours

5 subjects ⇒ 11 hours **Total 40 subjects**

23 subjects ⇒ 12 hours

Absenteeism more than 2 hours ⇒ 10 subjects

Figure 3.1. Attendance Profiles in Both Groups

It should be noted that none of the two-hour absenteeism (for the 20 subjects who attended 10 hours) was recurrent.

As a result, the number of remaining subjects was 80 (n=80, n=40 in the interpretation task group -27 females, 13 males; n=40 in the traditional instruction group -32 females, 8 males). The scores of the pre/post/follow-up test obtained from 80 subjects only were taken into consideration in the analysis of the data.

The subjects in the study were all enrolled in a program with a communicative methodology in which equal emphasis was given to four basic language skills; speaking,

reading, writing and listening. Two treatment groups had their own regular grammar lessons (3 hours a week) ; the teacher in these classes was the researcher herself.

3.3. Materials

3.3.1. Placement Test

'Level' in this study was not an independent variable. Therefore, the subjects in the study were supposed to be at the same or similar language level. In order to control that variable, a standard placement test -Michigan Placement- was given to the subjects at the beginning of the study. The test was administered to total 150 first year students at the beginning of the spring term in the academic year 1996-1997. The evaluation scale for the test was not the original one. Instead, the evaluation scale suggested by Anadolu University, Education Faculty, ELT Department Administration was used. The reason for this is that the original scale does not reflect the actual level of Turkish students. The altered scale has been used successfully for past 9 years in the English preparatory program. The evaluation scale in consideration was as follows (Figure 3.2):

76-100	Advanced
61-75	Upper intermediate
46-60	Intermediate
31-45	Lower intermediate
16-30	Elementary
0-15	Beginner

Figure 3.2. The Evaluation Scale for the Placement Test

The distribution of the scores (out of 100) obtained by the subjects of the study was as follows (Figure 3.3):

Score	No of the subjects
95-100	0
90-95	3
85-90	3
80-85	14
75-80	56
80-75	28
65-70	32
60-65	14
55-60	0

Figure 3.3. The Distribution of the Scores Obtained from the Placement Test

The distribution indicates that the subjects in the study can be said to be at the upper intermediate level (range 61-75) according to the scale used in the Education Faculty.

For that study, the "listening" level of the subjects was also particularly important, since one part of the pre/post/follow-up test was based on listening. As in the overall placement test results, the subjects were also supposed to be at the similar "listening" level. To see that, the first 20 questions of the standard Michigan Placement Test were used, because these were listening questions. For each of the listening test items, the subjects were supposed to choose the appropriate alternative according to what they heard from the instructor who was administering the test. Each of the 20 items in that part was either an isolated statement or a question. This part of the test was separately calculated for all the subjects. The distribution of the scores (out of 20) was as follows (Figure 3.4):

Score	No of the subjects
15-20	20
10-15	112
5-10	13
0-5	5

Figure 3.4 The Distribution of Listening Scores in the Placement Test

Therefore, it can also be said that most of the subjects included in the study had a similar level in listening.

3.3.2. Grammaticality Judgment Test

A learner's interlanguage representations cannot be accessed directly; only through his/her intuition of grammaticality. The assumption is that a sentence which is judged to be grammatical is in agreement with the learner's interlanguage grammar and that the evolution of the learner's intuition largely reflects the development of interlanguage knowledge (Sorace, 1985). Keeping these assumptions in mind, a grammaticality judgment test (G-J) was developed based on the errors the researcher encountered in her previous writing classes. This test aimed at confirming the observations about the selected "problem" structures. The test consisted of 25 sentences; 10 of them contained an error of the selected Noun Clause structures (items 3, 4, 8, 10, 11, 13, 16, 18, 19, 25); 5 of them contained no error on the same structures (items 2, 6, 14, 17, 22). The remaining 10 items (1, 5, 7, 9, 12, 15, 20, 21, 23, 24) served as distraction; They were passive, relative and subjunctive types of sentence which were unrelated to the study. Those items were not taken into consideration in the evaluation of the test. All the items in the test were presented to the subjects in mixed order (For the original G-J test see Appendix A). In order to confirm whether or not the 15 items as Noun Clauses is a reliable sample, three native speakers were consulted; and they all agreed that it was a reliable sample of the target structures.

As for the 15 target questions (ones with NC structure), the distribution was as follows (Figure 3.5):

- NC with a question word in subject position -4 items (no 2,8,17,19)
- NC with a question word in object position -6 items (no 3,11,14,16,22,25)
- NC with an auxiliary in subject position -1 item (no 4)
- NC with an auxiliary in object position - 4 items (no 6,10,13,18)

Total 15 items

Figure 3.5. The Distribution of the NC items in the G-J Test

The distribution was a random one decided upon by the researcher. The subjects in the study (n=150) were required to

a) write, for each sentence, whether or not they considered it to be correct,

b) make any necessary corrections, and

c) state the grammatical rule broken in each of the sentences.

Responses in the judgment test were distributed in three categories and scored according to the scoring system Sorace (1985) used in his study:

a) the subject was not able to identify the error (score=0)

b) the subject was able to identify and correct the error, but could not provide the rule (score=1)

c) the subject was able to identify and correct the error, and also state the grammatical rule (score=2)

If a subject could identify the error correctly but was unable to correct it and state the grammatical rule, s/he was given a score of '0' again, because identifying the error alone does not indicate s/he knows the structure. Besides, it should be borne in mind that in such a test there is always a chance of 50% of finding the correct choice. Another point that should be noted about scoring is that; when an item was considered incorrect by the subject, but actually correct in terms of the target grammar, s/he was given a score of '0', since that shows that the subject does not know the structure.

The items for which the subjects scored other than '2' indicated that the selected structures were really problematic for the subjects in this study.

3.3.2.1.Results of the G-J Test

As for the evaluation of the scores in the test, the number of each score (0,1 or 2) was simply counted for each of the target items using the evaluation chart developed by the researcher (see Appendix B).

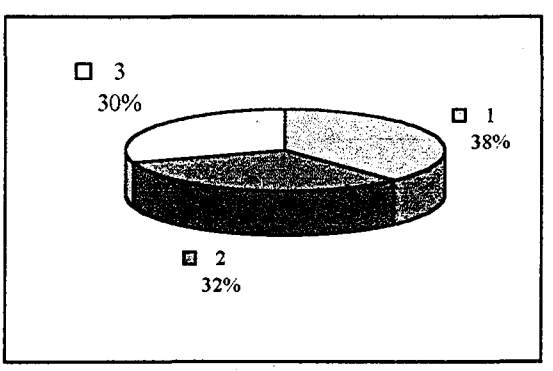
Responses of the subjects in G-J test are seen in Figure 3.6:

Score	No. of Responses	Percentage of Responses
0	405	38
1	341	32
2	316	30
TOTAL	**1062**	**100%**

Figure 3.6. Responses of the Subjects in the G-J Test

As seen in the table above, the cumulation of the scores 0 and 1 is far more intense than the cumulation of the score 2. According to the results of the G-J test, 70% of the responses are between 0 and 1. This suggests that the structures selected were really problematic for the subjects of the study.

The distribution of the percentages can be seen more clearly in the following graph (Figure 3.7):



1= Score 0 **2**= Score 1 **3**= Score 2

Figure 3.7. The Distribution of Percentages in the G-J Test Responses

3.3.3. Instructional Packets and Instructional Procedures

Two packets were constructed for use during instructional treatment. These packets reflected two different approaches to the teaching of the target structures. The

first approach consisted of traditional grammar teaching and output practice while the second, grammar interpretation approach, involved teaching the subjects to process input sentences without letting them produce them.

3.3.3.1. Traditional Instruction

It was a teacher-fronted grammar instruction. It basically involved presenting the subjects with explanations concerning the form and meaning (examples and rules) of Noun Clause structures with question words and with "whether/if"; and then giving them practice in how to make sentences with those structures.

In the presentation stage, the students were given detailed grammatical explanations and example sentences about the nature of target NC structures.

In terms of practice, the traditional group subjects were exposed to different types of (from mechanical to communicative) written and oral practice activities. At all times the traditional instruction focused the learners on producing the targeted items.

- An example of written practice follows:

Instructions: Change to indirect speech. Observe the sequence of tenses and make the necessary changes in pronouns.

Example: He asked me, "Does the train always arrive late?"

He asked me whether (or if) the train always arrived late.

1. He asked me, "Will the report be ready soon?"

.....

2. He asked me, "Has anyone found the missing dog?"

.....

3. He asked me, "What is your name?" etc.

- An example of oral practice activity follows:

Instructions: You will have interviews with each other. One of you will be the interviewer and the other will be the candidate for Ms./Mr. World. The interview is just before the contest. The interviewer will ask 5 Yes/No questions using the expressions on the board, and the other will answer.

USEFUL EXPRESSIONS

I would like to know ----------

Would you mind telling me ----------?

Can I ask you ----------?

Do you mind if I ask you ----------? etc.

Answers could also include Noun Clauses,

e.g ., A: Do you mind if I ask you whether you have boyfriend?

B: Whether or not I have a boyfriend should not be your concern.

3.3.3.2. Interpretation Instruction

The presentation stages of the lessons in the interpretation task group were the same as the ones in the traditional instruction group, i.e., the students were given detailed grammar explanations of important points to keep in mind about the selected NC structures as well as the learner difficulties of those features. The students just listened to their instructor as she presented.

The practice part, on the other hand, was rather different. For "practice", the students were given various grammar interpretation tasks suggested by Ellis, 1995. As noted in Chapter 2 (see part 2.7.3), the primary objective of so-called "interpretation tasks" is to increase students' consciousness for comprehension. In the interpretation task group, the students were given the tasks which had the following three main goals:

1. To enable learners to identify the meaning(s) realized by the specific grammatical feature.
2. To enhance input in such a way that learners are induced to notice a grammatical feature that otherwise they might ignore. These activities have C-R function, they are analytic and are designed to facilitate noticing.
3. To enable learners to focus their attention on the difference between the correct way of using the target problem structures and the incorrect way. That is, they are encouraged to notice the gap between correct and incorrect forms through a cognitive comparison. This is mostly fostered by drawing students' attention to the kinds of errors that learners typically make (Ellis, 1995).

Interpretation tasks, in this study, were devised as sequences of activities that reflect these three operations. First, the students were required to comprehend input that had been specially contrived to enable them to attend to the meaning of the structures. That was followed by a task that made students pay careful attention to the important properties of the target feature, and finally, by a task which encouraged a kind of cognitive comparison between the input and the students' output. Between the second and the third tasks, the students were given another task that encouraged them to give a personal response. That task required attention to both the target form and the meaning of the sentences. At no point did the interpretation task lesson involve the production of target structures by the students.

The following are the examples of the interpretation task instructions given in that study:

Example 1 (COMPREHENDING)- Instructions: There is a murder. Lord Chomley was shot last night. The "Perfect detective" Piers is investigating that murder. Below you see the answers of several suspects, which they gave to the detective. Listen to the detective's questions carefully and try to match the questions with the answers.

Sentences to be listened to:

1) Detective asked whether he had heard anything unusual at the time of murder.

Answer: Yes, I heard three shots as soon as I left the house.

2) Detective wanted to learn if he had been at home when the murder happened.

Answer: No, I wasn't. The murder happened after I left the house. etc.

Example 2 (PAYING ATTENTION))- Instructions: Read the following passage and underline all the Noun Clauses with "whether/if". Then for each sentence you have underlined;

a) indicate the inversion using arrows,

b) indicate the tense change by putting a tick to the changed part,

c) circle the pronouns that have changed.

Example 3 (RESPONDING PERSONALLY))- Instructions: Indicate whether or not each statement that you will listen to applies to you by checking "true" or "not true".

Sentences to be listened to:

1) I don't mind telling everybody if I attempt to cheat during exams.

2) Whether I will get married before I graduate or not is my, not my parents', decision.
etc.

This activity requires attention to both the target form and the meaning of a set of sentences. This is a learner-centered activity in which the students are asked to reveal something about their personal responses.

Example 4 (NOTICING THE GAP))- Instructions: You are going to read an extract from a court case. The speakers are a policeman and a prosecutor. They are talking about Mrs. Jones, the accused. Identify the errors in the policeman's sentences and correct them.

In summary, both groups received explanation about the form and meaning of the target NC structures. It could be said that both groups received the same amount of practice and both utilized similar vocabulary. The instruction mainly differed in the following way: the traditional group did not practice interpreting sentences, and the interpretation task group did not practice producing sentences. In short, the fundamental difference between the two treatments involved the "type of practice" the students received.

(For all the instructional packets used in both Traditional and in Interpretation Task groups see Appendix C).

Another point which should be made is that the instructor used the target NC structures as frequently as possible in the interpretation task group during class hours. That was a kind of "positive evidence" (Yipp, 1994) exemplifying the NC constructions with questions. Put differently, use of the target NC structures was rather intensive in the teacher's input. That was thought to enable the learners to hear the correct uses of the target structures.

3.3.4. Pre/Post/Follow-Up Test

The pre/post/follow-up test used in the study was developed by the researcher. The test consisted of both interpretation and production tasks. Interpretation tasks were presented first, and then production tasks followed. In order to distract the students' attention from the target grammar structures, a distraction task consisting of writing answers to questions unrelated to and not containing the grammatical items under study

was given between the interpretation and production tasks. The same procedure (interpretation - distraction- production) was used in Van Patten and Cadierno's study (1993). In brief, the test had three parts: interpretation, distraction, and production. In order to prevent students from answering the interpretation and production parts one after another, and answering the distraction part at the end, each part of the test was distributed and completed separately.

3.3.4.1. Interpretation Part

For the interpretation task part of the test, subjects were required to select the correct alternative depending on what they heard. This was done in order to check their comprehension of the target Noun Clause structures. It was thought that if a subject was able to identify the direct (original) question after hearing its indirect form with the target structures, that would mean s/he could comprehend the structure. That is to say, that part of the test was mainly a "listening" test. The following instructions were given to the subjects at the beginning of this part of the test:

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

The explanation was also given in Turkish to make sure that all the subjects understood how they should respond to the items.

There were ten questions in the interpretation task, and the distribution of the Noun Clause structures in questions was as follows (Figure 3.8):

NC as subject of the sentence ⇒ 5 sentences

NC as object of the sentence ⇒ 5 sentences

NC with Question word ⇒ 5 sentences

NC with Auxiliary ⇒ 5 sentences

Tense and Pronoun change → (items 2,7,9)

Word order change only → (items 1,3,4,6,8,10)

Pronoun change only → (item 5)

Figure 3.8. The Distribution of NC Structures in the Comprehension Part of the Test

An example test item in this part of the test follows:

The sentence to be heard: "How much time Joe spends on his homework does not concern me."

Alternatives:

a) How much time Joe spends on his homework?

b) How much time Joe did spend on his homework?

c) How much time does Joe spend on his homework?

Correct Answer: c

Each sentence in the interpretation part was read twice by the researcher, and it was ascertained that there was no new word for the subjects. They were told that if they did not know the meaning of any word they were welcome to ask the meaning. However, no student asked the meaning of any word in the test. It seemed that all the words contained in the test were familiar to the subjects as was thought to be the case beforehand.

3.3.4.2. Distraction Part

In this part of the test, the subjects were given 5 questions about the passive structure. The subjects were all supposed to do this part after the interpretation part of the test (Part A) had been completed. In the instruction part (Part B) the instruction given was:

"Complete this text with each of the verbs given in parentheses in the correct tense and the passive form."

This part of the test was not taken into consideration later in evaluation.

3.3.4.3. Production Part

The production section of the test was a simple sentence-level written task based on activities used in traditional instruction. It included 10 items, each of which consisted of an incomplete sentence. The subjects' task was to complete the sentence according to the visual clues (drawings of people and things) as well as the direct questions presented either as single items or within a very short dialog between two people. That is, each item in this part was accompanied by a drawing that depicted the content of the sentence.

That was thought to give more visual input to the students so that they could understand what transformation they needed to perform.

The following instructions were given to the subjects:

"By looking at the pictures, complete the sentences according to the questions given."

The subjects were also told -in Turkish- that they were supposed to concentrate on the direct question in each item, and complete the sentence transforming that sentence into indirect speech applying all the changes needed.

For some of the items, students were required to change the tense, word order and the pronouns as in:

Question (A women to a man): Why didn't you call me earlier? (item1 in Part C)

She wanted to know .....

In this case the correct answer was:

She wanted to know WHY SHE HADN'T CALLED HER earlier.

For some other items no such tense and pronoun changes were necessary but the word order needed adjustment, as in:

Larry: Will they be traveling to Italy soon?

Sally: Yes, next weekend. (item 2 in Part C)

Larry asks Sally .....

In this case the correct answer was:

Larry asks Sally IF/WHETHER THEY WILL be traveling to Italy soon.

There were 5 questions of this type (i.e., reported questions). The other 5 questions in this section were pure NC sentences without any reporting. The following are examples:

Example 1: Question: Where are these people looking at?

..... is very difficult to guess.

Answer: WHERE THESE PEOPLE ARE LOOKING AT is very difficult to guess.

Example 2: Question: Are those expensive shoes?

..... cannot be understood by looking at the picture.

Answer: WHETHER THOSE ARE EXPENSIVE SHOES cannot be understood by looking at the picture.

The distribution of the NC structures in questions in this part was as follows (Figure 3.9):

NC as subject of the sentence ⇒ 5 sentences

NC as object of the sentence ⇒ 5 sentences

NC with Question word ⇒ 5 sentences

NC with Auxiliary ⇒ 5 sentences

Tense and Pronoun change → (items 1,4,7)

Word order change only → (items 2,3,5,6,8,10)

Pronoun change only → (item 9)

Figure 3.9. The Distribution of NC Structures in the Production Part of the Test (For the original test see Appendix D).

3.4. Pilot Test

The pre/post test designed for that study was given to a similar group as a "pilot test" prior to the study. The test's reliability and validity were determined by carrying out appropriate procedures.

3.4.1. Setting and Subjects

The test was given to 37 students (25 females-12 males) in the ELT Department of the Education Faculty. They were at the upper-intermediate level of proficiency which was determined by administering the standard Michigan Placement test which was also used in the original study. That is, the scores of the students in this group ranged between 61 and 75. For that range, the evaluation scale suggested by Anadolu University, Education Faculty, ELT Department was again used. Their age range was between 18 and 23. Therefore, it is possible to say that the subjects to whom the test was given were similar to the actual subjects in the study.

3.4.2. Validity

The term "validity" can simply be described as the extent to which one has really observed what one set out to observe (Nunan,1992). Test validity, then, is defined as the degree to which a test measures what it claims to be measuring.

To demonstrate the content validity, the question "Is the test a representative sample of the content of whatever the test is claiming to test?" should be answered. To establish the content validity of the test given in this study, a panel of experts (5 instructors who have taught grammar before in the department of ELT in the Education Faculty) were convened to judge the degree to which the items on the test actually represented the elements in question. Each expert was given a copy of the test and their comments were taken into consideration. It was seen that 5 of the experts agreed that the items in the test represented comprehension (Questions in Part A) as well as the production (Questions in Part C) of the selected Noun Clause structures. Therefore, the test was considered content valid for the purposes of testing comprehension and production of the target structures. Only content validity was inquired for the test, because it was thought that this would be enough to give a clear idea about the test together with its "reliability".

3.4.3. Reliability

The reliability of a test is defined as "the extent to which the results can be considered consistent and stable" (Brown, 1988 p.98). The degree to which a test is reliable can be estimated with a "reliability coefficient" (r_{xx}). In order to estimate the internal consistency reliability of the pre/post/follow-up test given in the present study the "split-half method" was used. This method is a very common one. In this method, after the test was administered, the even-numbered and odd-numbered items in the test were scored separately (as X and Y), and then the correlation between these two subsets was calculated by running the Pearson product-moment correlation formula:

$$r = \frac{\Sigma XY - \frac{(\Sigma X)(\Sigma Y)}{N}}{\sqrt{\left[\Sigma X^2 - \frac{(\Sigma X)^2}{N}\right]\left[\Sigma Y^2 - \frac{(\Sigma Y)^2}{N}\right]}}$$

(in Tekin, 1987 p.61)

The results were as follows:

n= 37

SD= 2.20

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient

r= 0.70137

This value (r= 0.70) signifies the reliability of the split subtest; i.e, half of the test. Therefore, the resulting coefficient is adjusted for full-test reliability using a formula called the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula:

$$r_{xx} = \frac{2r_{oe}}{1 + r_{oe}}$$

(in Tekin, 1987 p.61)

r_{xx}= reliability coefficient of the overall scores available

r_{oe}= reliability coefficient of the split test

$$r = \frac{2.\ (0.70)}{1 + (0.70)} = \frac{1.4}{1.7} = 0.82$$

As a result, the internal reliability coefficient of the test given was calculated as **0.82**. This value can be considered as sufficiently high to be used in this study.

In conclusion, the results of the pilot test suggested that the pre/post/follow-up test designed by the researcher to be used in the study was a valid as well as a reliable one, and therefore, it could be used in the actual study.

3.5. Data Collection Procedures

As noted in part 3.2. there were two treatment groups in this study:

(1) the traditional instruction group

(2) the interpretation task group

The subjects in these two instructional treatments received instruction during class time in their regular program. For both groups, explicit grammar instruction consisted of one day a week -3 consecutive class hours, 45 minutes each- with no homework.

The order for data collection was as follows:

1) All the students in the first year grammar classes were given the placement test followed by the Grammaticality Judgment test. At this stage, the students were told that these tests were given to them in order to find out the proficiency level of all first year students, and to identify some of the "problem areas" in English grammar. These tests took about 3 class hours.

2) After the groups were established, and after the pilot test results were obtained, the subjects were given the "pre-test". Before the pre-test was administered, they were told that this was a test of how well they comprehended and produced several grammar structures. They were also told that this test was being given to them to check their current knowledge of certain structures; and the results of this test would be compared and contrasted with the results of the same test which would be given some time later. They were never told that this test was aimed at testing their comprehension and production of Noun Clause structures.

In order to control for familiarity of vocabulary, Turkish equivalencies of the new words (if any) were provided prior to testing. As well as this, instructions in each part of the test were repeated in Turkish, and clarified when the problems (about what to do in each section) arose. The test took about 20-25 minutes. Students did not have any time limitation.

3) Instruction was given to two groups- following the instructional procedures noted in part 3.3.3- during 4 weeks.

4) At the end of the fourth week, the subjects were given the post-test; i.e., the pre-test was given as the post-test which again took 20-25 minutes.

5) In order to test the second hypothesis of the study regarding the maintenance of the acquired knowledge over time, about 8 months later -(subjects had had a summer holiday, and most of them were second year students)- the same pre/post test was given to the subjects as the follow-up test.

Treatment schedule of the study was as follows:

24.2.1997- A pilot test was given to a similar group

Traditional Group

3.3.1997-Subjects took the placement and the G-J tests

Week 1-10.3.1997 (Pretest was given in the first 15 minutes of the first lesson)

Week 2-17.3.1997

Week 3-24.3.1997

Week 4-31.3.1997

Interpretation Task Group

5.3.1997- Subjects took the placement and the G-J tests

Week 1-12.3.1997 (Pretest was given in the first 15 minutes of the first lesson)

Week 2-19.3.1997

Week 3-26.3.1997

Week 4-2.4.1997

6.3.1997- Subjects took the placement and the G-J tests

Week 1-13.3.1997 (Pretest was given in the first 15 minutes of the first lesson)

Week 2-20.3.1997

Week 3-27.3.1997

Week 4-3.4.1997

Post Test

Traditional Group-31.3.1997 (last 15 minutes)

Interpretation Task Group-2/3.4.1997

Follow-up Test-3-7.11.1997 (8 months later)

3.6. Scoring Procedures

Raw scores for each subject were calculated for both the interpretation task and the production task. With respect to the interpretation task, each correct response to 10 items was given a score of 1 with a possible maximum total of 10. Correct responses consisted of choosing the correct alternative depending on what they heard. Incorrect responses received a score of 0.

For the production task, again, each correct response was given a score of 1 point. Correct responses consisted of appropriate word order, tense and pronoun changes in Noun Clause sentences. If a subject had failed to change any/all of the word

order, tense and pronoun -where necessary- s/he got the score of 0. Only the answers without any mistakes of that nature were considered correct.

In the end, there were two sets of data: interpretation and production. For each subject in the study, there were 6 types of data:

1) interpretation scores obtained in the pre-test
2) production scores obtained in the pre-test
3) interpretation scores obtained in the post-test
4) production scores obtained in the post-test
5) interpretation scores obtained in the follow-up test
6) production scores obtained in the follow-up test

CHAPTER IV
DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

In this study, the relationship between the traditional, production-based grammar lessons and the comprehension-based grammar lessons (processing instruction) in which the learners are given grammar interpretation tasks was examined. How these two different treatments affected the comprehension and production of the selected target structures was also investigated. It was hypothesized that:

1) Comprehension-based instruction for the problematic grammar structures enables EFL learners to acquire those specified structures as well as production based instruction does.
2) The proficiency gains obtained from comprehension-based instruction are maintained over time to a greater extent when compared to production-based instruction.

The research questions of the study were:

1. Is there a difference between pre-test, post-test and follow-up test scores obtained from the subjects in the interpretation task group?
2. Is there a difference between pre-test, post-test and follow-up test scores obtained from the subjects in the traditional instruction group?
3. Is there a difference between the traditional instruction group and the interpretation task group in terms of comprehension post-test scores?
4. Is there a difference between the traditional instruction group and the interpretation task group in terms of production post-test scores?
5. Is there a difference between the traditional instruction group and the interpretation task group in terms of comprehension follow-up test scores?
6. Is there a difference between the traditional instruction group and the interpretation task group in terms of production follow-up test scores?

Noun clauses with question words and noun clauses with auxiliaries were selected as problematic target grammar structures by giving the subjects a G-J test. A pre-test was given to the subjects, and that was followed by a one-month long treatment both to the traditional instructional group and to the interpretation task group. At the

end of the treatment, the subjects took the post-test. 8 months later, the subjects were given the same pre/post test as the follow-up test.

4.1. Scoring

The pre/post and follow-up test consisted of a total of 20 questions (questions in the distraction part were not considered in evaluation). 10 of the questions were the items about the comprehension of the target structures, and 10 of them were the items about production of the target structures. Each correct response was given a score of "1", and each incorrect response got a score of "0" for both comprehension and production parts. Therefore, the maximum score for each part of the test was 10 out of 10.

Maximum 10 points
Minimum 0 points] for comprehension part

Maximum 10 points
Minimum 0 points] for production part

4.2. Presentation and Analysis of Data

In order to find out the changes in production and comprehension scores of the subjects during treatment it is important to make sure that the subjects in both groups were similar with respect to their current knowledge of (comprehension and production) the target structures at the beginning of the treatment. Independent t-tests conducted on the comprehension and production pre-tests alone revealed no differences between the two groups before treatment ($p=.28$ for comprehension and $p=.17$ for production). The results of the test can be seen in the Tables 4.1 and 4.2. These results indicate that any comparative effects due to treatment are not related to prior knowledge or ability of any one group.

Table 4.1
Results of t-test for Independent Samples for Comprehension Pre-test Scores

Variable	*Number of cases*	*Mean*	*SD*	*SE of Mean*
Comprehension				
Traditional Inst.	40	5,7250	2,219	,351
Interpretation Task	40	4,7750	2,506	,396

Mean Difference=,9500

F=1,157

P=,285

Table 4.2
Results of t-test for Independent Samples for Production Pre-test Scores

Variable	*Number of cases*	*Mean*	*SD*	*SE of Mean*
Production				
Traditional Inst.	40	5,7750	2,465	,390
Interpretation Task	40	5,4000	2,772	,438

Mean Difference=,3750

F=1,846

P=,178

In order to compare the difference between the means for comprehension and production within each group a "one-way analysis of variance" was used. The ANOVA results are reported in the following tables.

Table 4.3 shows the ANOVA results for the Interpretation Task group comprehension scores obtained from the pre-test, post-test and follow-up tests. The results reveal a statistically significant difference (df= 2, F=49,109, p= .0000).

Table 4.3

Results of One-way ANOVA for Interpretation Task Group Comprehension Scores

Source	*D.F*	*Sum of Squares*	*Mean Squares*	*F Ratio*	*F Prob.*
Between Groups	2	345,3167	172,6583	49,1091	,0000
Within Groups	117	411,3500	3,5158		
Total	119	756,6667			

p<0001

After finding a significant difference among the means for comprehension, a post hoc Scheffee Test was administered to determine which test caused the difference. Table 4.4 reveals the results of the Scheffee Test. According to these results, it is seen that post-test and follow-up test are significantly different from the pre-test. This suggests that students in the Interpretation Task Group exhibited a significant improvement in their comprehension of the target structures.

Table 4.4

Results of the Scheffee Test for Interpretation Task Group Comprehension Scores

Comprehension	**Mean**
Pre-test	4,7750
Post-test	8,5250*
Follow-up test	8,2000*

(*) indicates significant difference

The ANOVA results for Interpretation Task group production scores are seen in Table 4.5. A statistically significant difference is observed in pre-test, post-test and follow-up test mean scores (df=2, F=25,626, p= .0000).

Table 4.5

Results of One-way ANOVA for Interpretation Task Group Production Scores

Source	*D.F*	*Sum of Squares*	*Mean Squares*	*F Ratio*	*F Prob.*
Between Groups	2	234,5167	117,2583	25,6266	,0000
Within Groups	117	535,3500	4,5756		
Total	119	769,8667			

p<0001

The post hoc Scheffee Test reveals that post-test and follow-up tests are significantly different from the pre-test in terms of production. That suggests a significant improvement in the production of target structures after treatment in the Interpretation Task Group. The results of the Scheffee test can be seen in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6
Results of the Scheffee Test for Interpretation Task Group Production Scores

Production	**Mean**
Pre-test	5,4000
Post-test	8,5250*
Follow-up test	8,1750*

The same statistical procedures were applied to the Traditional Instruction Group. The ANOVA applied for comprehension in this group also revealed a significant difference in pre-test, post-test and follow-up tests suggesting a positive effect for treatment (df=2, F=15,161, p=.0000). Table 4.7 illustrates the results of ANOVA.

Table 4.7
Results of One-way ANOVA for Traditional Instruction Group Comprehension Scores

Source	*D.F*	*Sum of Squares*	*Mean Squares*	*F Ratio*	*F Prob.*
Between Groups	2	82,7167	41,3583	15,1619	,0000
Within Groups	117	319,1506	2,7278		
Total	119	401,8667			

p<0001

Table 4.8 illustrates the results of the post hoc Scheffee test for comprehension in the Traditional Instruction Group. As in the Interpretation Task Group, the subjects are seen to improve during treatment in their comprehension of target structures, because the mean scores of post-test and follow-up tests are significantly different from the pre-test mean score.

Table 4.8
Results of the Scheffee Test for Traditional Instruction Group Comprehension Scores

Comprehension	**Mean**
Pre-test	5,7250
Post-test	7,6750*
Follow-up test	7,2000*

The last ANOVA conducted for the Traditional Instruction Group production mean scores also revealed a statistically significant difference between pre-test, post-test and follow-up tests (df=2, F=25,401, p=.0000). It is seen that the students improved in their production of the target structures after treatment. The results are seen in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9
Results of One-way ANOVA for Traditional Instruction Group Production Scores

Source	*D.F*	*Sum of Squares*	*Mean Squares*	*F Ratio*	*F Prob.*
Between Groups	2	156,8167	78,4083	25,4016	,0000
Within Groups	117	361,1500	3,0868		
Total	119	517,9667			

p<0001

Table 4.10 shows the results of the post hoc Scheffee test for production mean scores in the Traditional Instruction Group. It is seen in this table that the post-test and follow-up mean scores are significantly different from the pre-test mean score, which means the subjects in this group exhibited an improvement in their production of target structures after treatment. Besides, as can be seen in the table, the post-test mean score is also significantly different from the follow-up test mean score. This suggests that the subjects in this group were not at the same ratio of accuracy after an 8-month period - without instruction- which took place between the post-test and follow-up test. It is

seen that the mean score for the follow-up test is lower (m=7,2000) when compared to the post-test mean score (m=8,5750).

Table 4.10
Results of the Scheffee Test for Traditional Instruction Group Production Scores

Production	**Mean**
Pre-test	5,7750
Post-test	8,5750**
Follow-up test	7,2000*

(*) indicates that the follow-up test is significantly different from the pre-test
(**) indicates that the post-test is significantly different from both the pre-test and the follow-up test

All the ANOVA and the post hoc Scheffee tests conducted served to reveal the progression within each of the Interpretation Task Group and the Traditional Instruction Group. As for the comparison of comprehension and production scores between these two groups, independent t-tests were used.

Tables 4.11 and 4.12 present the independent t-test results for the comparison of two groups in terms of comprehension and production post-test scores. It is seen that there is not a significant difference between the two groups immediately after treatment (p=.65 for comprehension and p=.09 for production).

Table 4.11
Results of t-test for Independent Samples for Comprehension Post-test Scores

Variable	*Number of cases*	*Mean*	*SD*	*SE of Mean*
Comprehension				
Traditional Inst.	40	7,6750	1,248	,197
Interpretation Task	40	8,5250	1,467	,232

Mean Difference = -,8500

F=,208

P=,650

Table 4.12
Results of t-test for Independent Samples for Production Post-test Scores

Variable	*Number of cases*	*Mean*	*SD*	*SE of Mean*
Production				
Traditional Inst.	40	8,5750	1,217	,192
Interpretation Task	40	8,5250	1,710	,270

Mean Difference = ,0500

F=2,871

P=,094

The results of the t-test for comprehension and production follow-up test scores are shown in Tables 4.13 and 4.14. No significant difference is observed between the two groups regarding the comprehension and production follow-up test scores (p=.69 for comprehension and p=.67 for production).

Table 4.13
Results of t-test for Independent Samples for Comprehension Follow-up Test Scores

Variable	*Number of cases*	*Mean*	*SD*	*SE of Mean*
Comprehension				
Traditional Inst.	40	7,2000	1,305	,206
Interpretation Task	40	8,2000	1,454	,230

Mean Difference = -1,0000

F=,161

P=,690

Table 4.14

Results of t-test for Independent Samples for Production Follow-up Test Scores

Variable	*Number of cases*	*Mean*	*SD*	*SE of Mean*
Production				
Traditional Inst.	40	7,3500	1,929	,305
Interpretation Task	40	8,1750	1,767	,279

Mean Difference = -,8250

F=,177

P=,675

4.3. Data Discussion

4.3.1. Proficiency Gains in Comprehension and Production in Groups

According to the data analyses, the answer to the first and the second research questions (1. Is there a difference between the pre/post and follow-up test scores obtained from the subjects in the Interpretation Task Group?, and 2. Is there a difference between the pre/post and follow-up test scores obtained from the subjects in the Traditional Instruction Group?) is *yes*, that is, there is a statistically significant difference between pre, post and follow-up test scores obtained from the subjects in the Interpretation Task Group as well as the ones in the Traditional Instruction Group, as can be seen in the Tables 4.3, 4.5, 4.7 and 4.9. These tables signify that the subjects in both groups increased their proficiency gains in comprehension and production of the selected NC structures. The post hoc Scheffee tests (see Tables 4.4, 4.6, 4.8 and 4.10) revealed that the post and follow-up test scores were significantly different from the pre-tests in both groups for both comprehension and production.

The results of the analyses made for the first and the second questions related to the differences between pre/post/follow-up tests in the groups concern the improvement within each group. To continue answering the research questions -regarding the differences across groups- the answer to the third question (3. Is there a difference between Traditional Instruction Group and Interpretation Task Group in terms of comprehension post-test scores?) is *no*, that is, there is no significant difference between the two groups in terms of comprehension post-test results as suggested by the

independent t-test results in Table 4.11. In short, processing instruction was not superior to traditional instruction on the comprehension task and vice versa.

The answer to the fourth question (4. Is there a difference between Traditional Instruction Group and Interpretation Task Group in terms of production post-test scores?) is also *no*, because no significant difference was found between the two groups in terms of production post-test scores (see Table 4.12). Again, neither group was superior over the other group for the increased proficiency gains in production. The comparison of the Traditional Instruction Group and the Interpretation Task Group post-test scores in terms of comprehension and the production of the selected NC structures indicate that both processing instruction and traditional instruction given in two different groups were effective in increasing the subjects' proficiency gains in comprehension and production of the target structures.

As for the comparison of the follow-up test results in two groups, the answer to the 5th and 6th research questions (5. Is there a difference between Traditional Instruction Group and Interpretation Task Group in terms of comprehension follow-up test scores?, and 6. Is there a difference between Traditional Instruction Group and Interpretation Task Group in terms production follow-up test scores?) is *no*. The follow-up test was given to the subjects in two groups after an 8-month period following the treatment. The independent t-test results, which appear in Tables 4.13 and 4.14, show that the subjects' performance had not changed dramatically in terms of both interpretation and production of the NC sentences. In other words, after an 8-month period there was, again, no significant difference between the two groups in the study.

Depending on the analyses above, the first main question of the study can be answered by considering the first hypothesis and its sub-hypotheses. The question was: how do proficiency gains -in comprehension and production- produced by intermediate level EFL learners who perform sentence level grammar interpretation tasks compare with the gains achieved by intermediate level EFL learners who are given traditional, teacher-fronted grammar lessons with production tasks? In the statement of the first hypothesis-relating to that question- there was an assumed positive effect for the production-based instruction, and it was hypothesized that comprehension-based instruction was not superior over production-based instruction. The data analysis justifies

that particular hypothesis and the related sub-hypotheses (a. The subjects who are exposed to comprehension-based instruction are as successful as the subjects who are given production-based instruction in terms of comprehension of the target problem structures, b. The subjects who are exposed to comprehension-based instruction are as successful as the subjects who are given production-based instruction in terms of production of the target problem structures). It was found that comprehension-based instruction for the problematic grammar structures enabled EFL learners to acquire those specified structures as well as the production-based instruction did. More specifically, it was observed that the subjects who were exposed to comprehension-based instruction were as successful as the subjects who were given production-based instruction in terms of comprehension of the target grammar structures (see Hypothesis 1a on part 1.4). They were also as successful as the subjects in the Traditional Instruction Group in terms of production of the target grammar structures (see Hypothesis 1b on part 1.4).

4.3.2. Retention

The second main research question of the study was about retention: To what extent are the proficiency gains obtained from two different types of treatment maintained over time? Related to that question it was hypothesized that the proficiency gains obtained from comprehension-based instruction are maintained over time to a greater extent when compared to production-based instruction (see Hypothesis 2 in Part 1.4). According to the results of the data analysis that particular hypothesis has been partially justified. The reasoning under this "partial justification" lies in the consideration of the sub-hypothesis about retention.

According to the first sub-hypothesis (see Hypothesis 2a in Part 1.4), the proficiency gains for comprehension obtained from comprehension-based instruction are maintained over time to a greater extent when compared to production-based instruction. However, it was found that there was not a significant difference between the post-tests and follow-up tests in two groups for comprehension. That could be observed in the post hoc Scheffee tests for comprehension. Table 4.4 illustrates no significant difference between the post-test and the follow-up test scores in the Interpretation Task Group. Similarly, Table 4.8. illustrates no significant difference between the post-test and the

follow-up tests. This finding suggests that the subjects in the two groups were able to maintain their proficiency gains for comprehension over time. To put it a different way, they could all perform the same sentence level interpretation task successfully after a period of 8 months. In short, the first sub-hypothesis about retention has not been justified.

In the second hypothesis (see Part 1.4), it was hypothesized that, the proficiency gains for production obtained from comprehension-based instruction are maintained to a greater extent when compared to the production-based instruction. The data justifies this hypothesis. The post hoc Scheffee test -in Table 4.6- shows that there was not a significant difference between the post and follow-up tests for the production scores in the Interpretation Task Group. That is, the subjects in this group can be said to maintain their proficiency gains for production of the target structures over time. Therefore, they were able to perform the same sentence level production tasks successfully after an 8-month period. The subjects in the Traditional Instruction Group, on the other hand, were found not to be able to maintain their proficiency gains for production of the target structures the same extent as the other group. The post hoc Scheffee test -in Table 4.10- illustrates a significant difference between the post and follow-up tests given in this group. The production task scores obtained from the subjects in this group in the follow-up test were observed to be lower when compared to the production post-test scores. This may suggest that the subjects in this group were not be able to perform the sentence level production tasks after an 8-month period as well as the subjects in the other group. That is, comprehension-based instruction appeared to be superior for production over production-based instruction.

In conclusion, the data shows that there is no difference between comprehension-based and production-based instruction modes in terms of increasing the proficiency gains for both comprehension and production of the target grammar structures; and that there is no difference between the two different types of instruction in terms of maintaining the proficiency gains for comprehension over time. On the other hand, statistical results obtained from each group suggest that comprehension-based instruction appears to be more effective in terms of maintaining the proficiency gains for production over time.

CHAPTER V
CONCLUSIONS

5.1. Summary of the Study

Studies on the role of explicit grammar instruction in second language classrooms have important implications for language learning and language teaching. Research in this field has focused mainly on issues like whether or not explicit instruction is beneficial to second language acquisition, and what can or should be taught. One issue that has been debatable is "how" grammar should be taught.

This study approached the matter of explicit grammar instruction in a more specific way, within the framework of "grammatical consciousness-raising", posing such questions as "How do two different types of grammar instruction -traditional, production-based versus comprehension-based instruction in which C-R for comprehension has been considered- affect the acquisition of target problem structures?", and "To what extent are the proficiency gains obtained from these two different types of instructions maintained over time?". It was hypothesized that comprehension-based instruction for the problematic grammar structures enables EFL learners to acquire the specified grammar structures as well as production-based instruction does; and, the proficiency gains obtained from comprehension-based instruction are maintained over time to a greater extent when compared to production-based instruction.

In order to test the hypotheses of the study, two groups of subjects were given two different types of treatment for the target structures identified by the grammaticality judgment test given. Before and after the four-week treatment, the subjects were given a test as pre/post test to see the effects of two different types of instruction. In order to test the hypothesis regarding the maintenance of the acquired knowledge over time, about 8 months later the same test was given as a follow up test. Findings of the study suggested that processing instruction in which grammar interpretation tasks have been used helps L2 learners with their comprehension and production as well as traditional instruction does. As for the durability of the proficiency gains obtained from two different types of treatment -traditional versus input processing-, it was found that the

production scores of the subjects in the grammar interpretation group were maintained over time to a greater extent when compared to the ones in the traditional instruction group.

5.2. Assessment of the Study

The collected data (pre, post and follow-up test measures involving both a sentence-level interpretation -comprehension- task and a sentence-level production task) were submitted to an analysis of variance. The statistical results showed that there is a significant difference between pre, post and follow-up test scores obtained in each of the two groups. That is, the subjects of the study increased their proficiency gains in comprehension and production of the target NC structures. According to these results there is no difference between comprehension-based and production-based instruction in terms of comprehension and production of the grammar structures given. This finding answered the first main question of the study (see part 1.1).

Studies in the literature (Van Patten and Cadierno, 1993 as a notable example) indicated that processing instruction, i.e., comprehension-based instruction, altered the way in which the subjects processed input, which in turn had an effect on the developing system and what the subjects could access for production. In the traditional instruction, however, it was found that the learners made an improvement in terms of production, but this type of instruction had little impact on how the subjects processed input. The slight gains in interpretation made over time by the subjects in the traditional group were not to be attributed to instruction. As for the subjects of the present study, the EFL learners in Turkey, it was seen that both the processing instruction and the traditional instruction were beneficial for the subjects for the comprehension as well as the production of the NC structures as the post-test results indicated. An important gain was also observed in interpretation -besides production- for the subjects of the traditional group, as was hypothesized: Comprehension-based instruction for the problematic grammar structures enables EFL learners to acquire these specified structures as well as production-based instruction does. This particular finding is interesting since it contradicts the findings found in Van Patten and Cadierno's (1993) study noted above. Why did this happen? The first point that should be discussed here is that the subjects in the traditional group

learned to perform the task, but did they really "acquire" any new language? The subjects in the processing instruction group, on the other hand, were able to perform a production task that was not part of their instruction. Could it be claimed, then, that these subjects acquired the new language?

To answer these questions, we should look at the second main question of this study regarding "retention": The proficiency gains obtained from comprehension-based instruction are maintained over time to a greater extent when compared to production-based instruction. In order to see how proficiency gains in comprehension and production were maintained over time, the follow-up tests were analyzed, and it was found that there was no difference between the two groups for the comprehension follow-up scores. That is, the subjects in both groups seemed to maintain their comprehension proficiency gains over time as the analyses in each group suggest. As for production, however, the subjects in the traditional group appeared not able to perform the sentence-level production tasks in the follow-up test, as successfully as they did in the post-test, after a period of time. Although there was not a statistically significant difference across the groups, the analyses made separately for each group might suggest that comprehension-based instruction was superior to production-based instruction.

This being the case, it could be concluded that the EFL learners in the processing instruction group seemed to perform the comprehension and production of the target structures better than the ones in the traditional group did.. One tenable explanation for this situation is that the traditional grammar presentation and practice do not enhance how learners process input and therefore do not provide intake for the developing system. Instead, traditional instruction results in a different knowledge system. It provides input for comprehension and production of the grammar structures, but does not result in "intake" for long-term accuracy. In the studies conducted by Fotos (1993), and Fotos and Ellis (1991) there were also interesting findings about the long-term proficiency gains. They compared the traditional instruction group with the grammar task group (in which the subjects were given GCRTs), and they have found that the task appeared to have functioned equally well as the traditional grammar instruction in the short term -as in the present study-, and was only slightly less effective in maintaining proficiency than the traditional grammar lesson after 2 weeks. That is, the

consciousness-raising task in which grammar was the task content was not so effective in terms of "durability". In this study, however, the consciousness-raising tasks with a different nature, -C-R for comprehension- appeared to be more effective for longer-term accuracy in production.

The results of this study confirm the findings in the literature about comprehension: Comprehension is superior to production. It is known that learners perceive more syntactic variation than they actually produce (see Part 2.6.1). The learners in this study appeared to have perceived more than they produced as can be concluded from their performance at the sentence-level comprehension task in the follow-up test (see Tables 4.4 and 4.8). In that case, processing instruction seems to help more for production as the results of this study suggest. Regarding the improved performance of the subjects in the task group in the production section in the follow-up test given after an 8-month period, it could be claimed that the production of the target structures during the post-test served as communicative input for the learners, a process suggested by Sharwood Smith (1981, 1991 in Fotos, 1993) as one way to convert explicit knowledge into implicit knowledge. That is, the requirement to produce the form, which was not a part of their instruction, served as an extra form-focused activity. It can therefore be suggested, following the proposals of Ellis (1990) and Schmidt (1990), that exposure to the target structures through noticing exercises served to make the effects of the consciousness-raising treatment more durable. Lightbown (1992) notes similar results in her data, and terms the process 'consolidated acquisition'. That is, repeated communicative exposure to grammar structures presented through formal instruction tended to consolidate and increase the learners' accuracy.

One methodological concern that should be discussed in this part relates the scoring system for the test. In Van Patten and Cadierno's study (1993), in which a similar scoring procedure has been used, an arbitrary score of 8 out of 10 on the tasks was set so that any subjects with 8 or above on the pre-test tasks had been eliminated from their study, because the researchers thought the impact of instruction in studies of this kind was measured by an increase in knowledge. No subject was eliminated from the present study for that reasoning, since it was thought that it would be interesting to observe the progression and/or regression (if any) each subject made throughout the

treatment. In this study, only the subjects who scored 9/10 were discussed separately. There were 10 subjects in the interpretation task group, and 7 subjects in the traditional instruction group, who have scored 9 or 10 for either the interpretation task or the production task in the pre-test. It is worth discussing these subjects' performance separately since it may suggest some interesting implications. The subjects' performance levels can be seen in the following tables:

Table 5.1.
The Improvement of the Traditional Group Subjects who Scored 9 /10 in the Pre-test

	Comp/Pre	Prod/Pre	Comp/Post	Prod/Post	Comp/Follow	Prod/Follow
S. 1	7	10	9	10	9	9
S. 2	7	9	8	10	4	9
S. 3	9	8	8	10	7	10
S. 4	6	10	8	7	6	7
S. 5	10	8	9	9	9	10
S. 6	9	5	9	10	7	6
S. 7	9	6	9	10	10	10
S. 8	6	9	8	9	7	6
S. 9	9	2	8	9	8	2
S. 10	8	9	7	9	9	10

Table 5.2.
The Improvement of the Interpretation Task Group Subjects who Scored 9 /10 in the Pre-test

	Comp/Pre	Prod/Pre	Comp/Post	Prod/Post	Comp/Follow	Prod/Follow
S. 1	9	7	9	9	9	10
S. 2	6	9	10	10	9	10
S. 3	2	10	9	10	8	10
S. 4	8	10	10	10	9	10
S. 5	6	9	10	8	9	8
S. 6	8	9	9	10	10	10
S. 7	6	9	10	10	10	10

S: Subject

Comp/Pre: Comprehension pre-test score

Prod/Pre: Production pre-test score

Comp/Post: Comprehension post-test score

Prod/Post: Production post-test score

Comp/Follow-up: Comprehension follow-up score

Prod/Follow-up: Production follow-up score

As can be seen in the tables above, the subjects -in each group- who scored 9 or 10 for comprehension, but less for production improved their production scores right after the treatment; and vice versa. When examined carefully, though, it could be seen that most of the subjects in the interpretation task group exhibited a noticeably better improvement for the comprehension task when compared to the subjects in the traditional instruction group. This is consistent with the finding obtained from Van Patten and Cadierno's (1993) study: There is a significant gain in both comprehension and production for subjects who were given grammar interpretation tasks.

The findings discussed so far came from the statistical analyses made for that study. There are several general points to be discussed besides what the numbers have told us. The first one is concerned with "noticing". The assumption in this study was that no learning is possible without noticing. The subjects in the processing instruction group were assumed to have paid conscious attention to the target grammatical features, i.e., to notice and to notice the gap. Was that really the case? Is it "also possible for some learning to be based on unnoticed information, information that is perceived at some level and perhaps processed subliminally without being consciously registered?" (Schmidt, 1993 p.25). There is not a clear cut answer to that question since as Bears, 1988; Kahneman, 1973; Kihlstorm, 1984 (in Schmidt 1993) suggest, "there are many situations in which a language learner is free to opt in or out of learning contexts and to pay attention or not, depending on one's personal hierarchy of deep goals and momentary disposition ...." (p. 27). This study is far from answering the question whether or not some learning was possible without noticing.

Another related question is about "intention". Did the learners really want to learn? More generally, is it necessary to want to learn in order to learn? Anderson (1985) and Ericsson and Simon (1984) (in Schmidt, 1993) believe that it does not matter if a language learner intends to pay attention or not. A learner's limited processing abilities may make it impossible to notice something regardless of an intent to do so. In short, intention is not as much an important issue as noticing. One notable comment about that particular issue comes from Beugrande (1997). He claims that "input might

be noticed but not comprehended until a later time and then acquired" (p. 300). This study is unable to answer the question whether this has happened or to what extent it has happened. For only a few subjects it was seen in the follow-up tests that either the comprehension or the production scores were higher than both the pre and post test comprehension/production scores (see the production scores of S.5 and S.10 in Table 5.1; and see the comprehension score of S.6 as well as the production score of S.1 in Table 5.2). This situation might have to do with the distinction between short term memory and long term memory. As noted in Robinson (1995) short term memory is that subset of long term memory in a currently activated state. Short term memory is where noticing takes place. Considering the fact that the follow-up tests were given after an 8-month period, Beugrande's claim could be an explanation; however, it is very difficult reach such a conclusion depending on the statistical analyses made for that study.

There is another point that Hawkins (in Larsen-Freeman, 1985) warns us about. Hawkins believes that we need to be more circumspect before making judgments about non-native speakers' (NNS) comprehension. It seems reasonable to assume that a NNS had comprehended an utterance when s/he responded appropriately. Hawkins shows, however, that a learner's appropriate responses need not be reliable in this regard. He says "NNSs can give signals that they understand the foreigner talk they are receiving, when in fact they don't understand" (p. 441). In the present study it was assumed that when a subject gave an appropriate answer to an interpretation question, s/he comprehended the material. Depending on what Hawkins suggests we had better rethink the way we verify that the input has been comprehended.

5.3. Pedagogical Implications

This study attempted to emphasize the "comeback" role of grammar in SLA; and it claims that , as Rutherford (in Larsen-Freeman, 1989) would agree, the view of grammar as process should ideally be incorporated into our pedagogical grammar, not replace the view of grammar as product. The most important pedagogical implication this study intends to make is to answer the following question: What considerations need to be taken into account in developing a framework for the integration of grammar within the language curriculum? It is expected that a grammar-learning environment

should facilitate the comprehension of how grammar works in the conveying and interpretation of meaning, in the way that Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985 in Dickins and Woods, 1988) discuss the role of consciousness-raising in grammar teaching. In that sense, this study has important implications for language teachers and syllabus designers who need to determine which grammatical areas will be excluded/included, and how one can assess the effectiveness of grammar learner tasks.

As noted earlier, this study proposes an alternative approach to grammar teaching in the sense of an old idea: "remedial teaching". The concerns mentioned above could be answered by taking the idea of "remedial teaching" into account. Ellis (1993) proposes that a way for organizing the content of a structural syllabus is derived from that particular idea. That might be noteworthy for syllabus designers. The content of a remedial language program is established through the identification and description of learners' errors. As Ellis (1993) suggests, it rests on the simple idea that formal language teaching will be more efficient if it concentrates on what the learner has not learned rather than on teaching the whole grammar. At that point a very important concern comes out: The identification of the problematic target structures. In other words, what factors are important in selecting the erroneous structures. Ellis (1995) says that two factors are important: problematicity and learnability. Problematicity can be determined by examining samples of the learner output in order to determine (a) which grammatical structures are not yet being used, that is, the forms have not been acquired, (b) forms that are being used but incorrectly because their target function(s) has not yet been acquired. Learnability concerns whether the learner is able to integrate new grammatical information into the interlanguage system. In the case of problems resulting from lack of knowledge of target forms it will be very difficult to decide when a particular group of learners are ready to acquire a specific new form (Ellis, 1995). However, if the new learning required is that of assigning a different function to an already acquired form, learnability may be less of a problem. These factors were taken into consideration while selecting the target structures of the present study: Noun Clauses with questions. In brief, the best candidates for grammar interpretation tasks may be the structures for which the form is known but the meaning(s) realized by the form is not. The findings of the study shed light upon the foreign language teachers and

syllabus designers by encouraging them to design remedial syllabuses. These might constitute a record of the potential deviations, and serve as checklists. Armed with these lists, the teachers would need to observe the learners' errors in order to establish whether the potential deviations actually occur in their production and, if so, when. The teachers then would devise grammar interpretation tasks to raise the learners' consciousness about how the target language grammar works. It should be recognized, however, that a remedial syllabus will need to be used alongside some kind of meaning-based syllabus, which is designed to provide learners with opportunities for communicating in the second language.

Another important pedagogical implication that can be made in this study is the significance of "task" in language learning. Grammar interpretation tasks that have been used in this study remind us of the key question: What tasks seem to be most helpful in facilitating second language acquisition? That particular question brings us to the notion of "task-based language teaching" (TBLT), which has become a powerful influence in language education (Nunan, 1991). Many researchers stress the importance of tasks (Kumaravadivelu, 1991), task-based syllabus design (Long and Crookes, 1992), and task-based learning procedures (Yule, Powers and Macdonald, 1992). Long and Crookes (1993), for example, criticize most of the syllabuses and pedagogic materials that embody them since they value linguistic analysis over analysis of learners' needs, and they ignore psycholinguistic constraints on learners' input processing abilities. They, therefore, propose 'task-based language teaching with a focus on form' as a potential solution to such problems.

Similarly, referring to Long and Crookes, Robinson (1995) notes that recent task-based approaches to L2 pedagogy present learners with communicative activities in which attention is directed to meaning and to the accomplishment of tasks goals requiring information exchange and joint problem solving. These activities contrast with form-focused approaches to pedagogy that explicitly direct learners' attention to the formal properties of different types of input. This being the case, the ideal approach appears to be the integration of form and meaning. In such an approach, well designed tasks can facilitate noticing the formal aspects of the target language as well as the meanings realized by these forms. It should not be forgotten that limited processing

capacities require second language learners to prioritize where they allocate attention, and there is growing interest in applying models of attention from psycholinguistics to the second language case (Robinson, 1995 in Skehan, 1998). The theory which this study is based on, and the grammar interpretation tasks used are parallel to the understanding above, i.e., the attempt of bringing together the form and the meaning in explicit grammar instruction.

One last implication that should be made in that part is somewhat more specific. It is related to the sequencing of a typical grammar lesson; to put it more crudely, the stages in a grammar lesson. Traditionally, grammar lessons -like many other lessons- are based on the '3Ps' approach; namely, presentation, practice and production. The practice model in that particular approach has been itself widely discredited (Stern, 1983 in Skehan, 1996) (see also part 2.7.2). The practice part is the most important one for the type of instruction given in that study, and it is rather different from the understanding of "practice" in the traditional sense. In the input processing approach where grammar interpretation tasks are used, the practice part never required the learners to practice the target structures by producing them. In other words, subjects never practiced production; and the findings of the study indicated that in that particular practice model the learners exhibited a successful performance both in terms of comprehension and production. Moreover, this kind of a practice was found to be more effective in maintaining the proficiency gains obtained from the treatment in the study. Considering these outcomes, the sequencing of grammar lessons could be renewed especially in the settings where a remedial syllabus is being followed, and where C-R for comprehension is given priority. The typical sequence would, then, be: an explicit presentation of the target problem structures followed by practice activities based on comprehending and responding minimally. There is no room for production in that sequencing. It is important to see that some recently published textbooks for teaching English are based on the comprehension based approach. One example is the textbook Spectrum, which was published in 1994. The following quotation from *Spectrum* introduction pages illustrates this understanding: "*Spectrum* acknowledges that students can understand more English than they are able to produce; i.e., their ability to comprehend language (to listen or read) naturally precedes their ability to produce it (to

speak or write); and to this end, *Spectrum* places great emphasis on comprehension" (p. x).

In conclusion, this study intended to propose an approach to grammar teaching that is compatible with how learners learn grammar. Interlanguage development can be more readily influenced by manipulating input than output. This is an approach that requires interpretation tasks that cause learners to attend to specific grammatical properties in the input, to identify and understand the meanings they convey, and to compare the form-function mappings of the target language with those that characterize the interim stages of learner's own interlanguage development (Ellis, 1995).

Interpretation tasks offer teachers the chance to intervene directly in interlanguage development; but they do not guarantee that their intervention will be successful because intake may not become part of implicit L2 knowledge. Nor is it the case that all grammar teaching should be comprehension based. There may be a role for other forms of grammar teaching such as C-R for explicit knowledge, and perhaps, also, traditional production-based instruction as a way of improving learners' accuracy in the use of target language grammatical forms they have already acquired. Interpretation tasks are proposed as just one -albeit a highly promising one- of several ways of tackling grammar instruction. The emphasis this study has placed on grammar teaching is not meant to suggest that there is no room for tasks that invite learners to make a free selection from whatever current linguistic resources are available to them (e.g., information-gap tasks). A complete language program will include a variety of tasks that invite both a focus on form and a focus on message conveyance.

5.4. Implications for Further Research

The study has shown that instruction in processing input transfers to production under controlled conditions. However, it has not shown that it transfers to production under more spontaneous circumstances. Studies in the literature (Tarone, 1985 as a notable example) have indicated that second language learners exhibit a variability in their interlanguage use. It was found that the performance of second language learners on a grammar task varies from their performance when attempting to communicate orally. Similarly, in the studies conducted by Ellis (1984, 1992 in Ellis, 1994), it was

seen that formal instruction has an effect on accuracy in planned but not in unplanned production. Again, Kadia (1988 in Ellis, 1994), in her study concluded that formal instruction seemed to have very little effect on spontaneous production, but it was beneficial for controlled performance.

The present study was not set out to test whether or not instruction results in better communicative performance. It was set out to ascertain whether or not instruction involving a focus on input processing resulted in similar or different effects compared to traditional instruction. Future research might compare samples of spontaneous speech and writing gathered before and after instruction to see whether or not an effect of the two instructional types on more spontaneous performance can be found.

Another related limitation concerns the "view" of grammar. This study tended to view grammar as an exclusively sentence-level phenomenon. As noted in Celce-Murcia (in Miller, 1997) this perspective is outmoded and has had negative consequences for the way in which grammar is described and taught. A sentence-based view of grammar, she claims, is inconsistent with the notion of communicative competence, which includes at least four interacting competencies noted by Canale (1983 in Miller, 1997): linguistic/grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. It is important, therefore, to move beyond the sentence level in the conception of grammar and understand the relationship between the morphological and syntactic aspects of linguistic competence, and the various sociolinguistic and pragmatic aspects of discourse competence. Considering that, it would be interesting to conduct the same type of study in the future viewing grammar at the discourse level rather than at the sentence level.

In Van Patten and Cadierno's study (1993), which has a similar research design probing into the differences and similarities between traditional and processing instruction, it was found that there were significant gains in both comprehension and production for subjects who experienced processing instruction; and for those experiencing traditional instruction, significant gains were made in production only. When compared to those findings an interesting question arises about the findings of the present study: Why did the subjects in traditional instruction group make significant gains both in comprehension and production unlike the subjects in the traditional group

mentioned in the study above? In other words, what made their performance in both comprehension and production the same as the ones in interpretation task group subjects? (see also part 5.2.). This might have to do with the limited scope of the test items being tested, or with the controlled conditions under which comprehension and production took place. Whatever the reason, further research is needed to determine possible qualitative differences between 'processing instruction' and 'traditional instruction'.

Another methodological limitation is related to the period between the post-test and the follow-up test given to the subjects in two different groups. There was an about 8-month period between the post-test and the follow-up tests; and during this period the subjects were not in experimental conditions. Therefore, their possible extra exposure to the target structures of the study (in or outside the classroom) was not taken into account in the discussion of the findings about retention. That point could be considered in future studies.

According to the 'interaction hypothesis' suggested by Long (1983 in Nobuyoshi and Ellis, 1993), learners acquire new forms when input is made comprehensible through negotiating for meaning. In a consciousness-raising grammar task in which the grammar is the task content (see part 2.5.1.1), it is possible to test for proficiency gains as well as to analyze the quality and quantity of interactions (Fotos and Ellis, 1991). This study, by no means, considered the effects of interaction in that sense. It would be interesting, therefore, to replicate this study by giving such grammar tasks and by analyzing the effects of interactions between the learners and between the learners and the teacher.

Another important point that should be noted as an implication for future research is about the nature of the target problem grammar structures selected. Robinson (1996), in his study in which he investigated learning simple and complex second language rules, found out that learners' performance differs according to the complexity of the rules being taught. He noted that "simply noticing the structures presented as examples is unlikely to be facilitative of learning if the structures themselves are too complex and the salient features of the structures that the rule regulates are consequently not obvious" (p. 32).

Similarly, Green and Hecht (1992), in their study about implicit and explicit grammar, asked the question "Are foreign language learners better at some rules than others?". They have evaluated the subjects' performance on a grammaticality judgment test, and have distinguished between rules that are easy and rules that are hard to learn. The rules that were easy to learn in their investigation, for example, were those that (1) were referred to easily recognized categories; (2) could be applied mechanically, and (3) were not dependent on large contexts, e.g., a/an, who/which, some/any. Hard rules were those that involve aspect, for example. In brief, the subjects' performance in the test was better at some rules than the others. In this study, however, such a distinction between easy vs hard rules was not taken into account in the selection of the target structures. Future research might investigate the effects of input processing instruction with the use of grammar interpretation tasks on the grammar rules with a differing complexity level, or the rules with different levels of "markedness". Here, the concepts "learnability/teachability" might also be important factors in the consideration of the points made above.

Foreign language learners' knowledge of grammar rules has always been a controversial issue in the second language literature. The main question here is: How can we understand that a learner "knows" a particular rule? It is really hard to know that. The common belief is that if a learner is able to articulate a rule s/he is considered to know the rule. Bialystok (in Rutherford and Sharwood Smith, 1988) disagrees with that belief and suggests that it is erroneous to equate analyzed knowledge with articulated knowledge although that assumption has often been made.

In the study by Seliger (1979), the learners were shown to be able to perform in fairly sophisticated tasks without being able to provide rules. Seliger claims that "... being able to state a rule is no assurance of good performance just as not being able to state any rule is not an induction of poor performance" (p. 364). Similarly, Anderson (in Wolff 1987), in his discussion of procedural vs declarative knowledge, argues that as we use the same knowledge over and over again in a procedure, we can lose our access to the rules that originally produced or enabled the procedure, and thus lose our ability to verbally report or declare these rules.

In the present study, an attempt was made to obtain the subjects' knowledge of the selected grammar rules through a specially designed grammaticality judgment test. In this test it was assumed that if a subject can find and correct a mistake, and then state the related grammar rule in a given sentence, s/he "knows" the rule. When we take Bialystok's, Seliger's and Anderson's notes into consideration, however, the assessment of the learners' interlanguage rule knowledge might pose a limitation to the study. Further research is needed to determine the actual rule representations of second language learners with some methods supporting the G-J test.

One more comment is about the nature of the grammaticality judgment test. The test used in this study consisted of isolated sentences; therefore, it might not be regarded as naturalistic as a judgment test which is contextualized. A future study investigating grammar acquisition at the discourse level rather than sentence level could obtain different outcomes using a contextualized G-J test.

Comprehension was one of the key concepts in this study. Obviously, comprehension in L1 and comprehension in L2 are different processes. As noted in Faerch and Kasper (1986), whereas L1 comprehension, to the extent this is based on linguistic knowledge, typically relies on the L1 system only, L2 comprehension often involves more than one linguistic system: input data may be interpreted not only by means of the relevant underlying interlanguage knowledge but also by means of the L1 system. This point, i.e., L1 factors like interference, was not regarded in this study. Future researchers might be interested in investigating this particular point.

The data collection process of this study was somewhat vulnerable to teacher/ researcher effects, because the teacher who gave the treatment to the subjects in the study was, at the same time, the researcher of the study. Therefore, there might be a "teacher/researcher effect" on the outcomes of the study. Future studies can avoid this by having a different teacher giving the treatment, one who is not aware of the focus of the activities.

As noted in Yip (1994), there might be a correlation between the degree of interest and participation shown by the subjects and their performance in the tests. Some subjects could respond to instruction better than others. They could be more willing to give answers when a question was asked and raise questions of their own. The more one

is interested and concerned about the forms in question, hence paying attention to what is presented, the more easily one can internalize the knowledge. The extent to which individual learners attend to linguistic forms is necessarily variable, given the wide range of inherent individual differences (Yip, 1994). In this study, such individual differences, in that sense, were not regarded at all. The study, in the future, can be replicated by taking student interest and participation into consideration, and a correlation between these factors and student performance could be sought.

5.5. Conclusions

This study has intended to propose an alternative approach to grammar teaching; the teaching of problematic grammar structures. These are the structures with which the learners are familiar, and they do use them, but incorrectly. This study investigated a particular type of C-R because of an observed distinction between explicit knowledge and implicit knowledge. It assigned a significant function to comprehension through interpretation tasks rather than production-based tasks. It is also worth clarifying that the study does not advocate abandoning communicative activities and tasks that provide opportunities for making output. It is clear that learners need to develop their abilities in accessing the developing system for fluent and accurate production. What is meant here is that explicit grammar instruction should first seek to make changes in the developing system via focus on input and only afterwards should instruction provide opportunities for developing productive abilities.

In addition, this study is believed to have made a strong connection between input processing and instruction. In light of the claims made for the importance of comprehensible input in SLA, instruction as direct intervention on learners' strategies in input processing should have a significant effect on the learner's developing system. The results of the present study suggest that this is so. The study also demonstrated that instruction is more beneficial when it is directed at how learners perceive and process input rather than when it is focused on practice via output. Learners who receive instruction that attempts to alter input processing receive a double bonus: good processing of input and knowledge that is apparently also available for production. The results are important, then, not only because of what they might contribute to the

ongoing discussion of the effects of instruction, but also for the support that they give to input processing as a critical aspect of SLA.

Many past studies of grammar instruction have been conducted in ESL settings. Since this is a study conducted in Turkey, it is hoped that the results will provide further insights into the grammar instruction in an EFL setting by comparing the findings of this study with those in ESL settings.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Grammaticality Judgment Test

Name: **Number:** **Section:** **Age:** **Sex:**

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

a) cümlenin doğru olup olmadığını yazın,

b) cümle hatalı ise doğrusunu yazın, ve

c) hatalı olduğunu düşündüğünüz cümlede uyulmamış olan ingilizce dilbilgisi kuralını yazın.

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

(1) I didn't go to dinner with them because I had already been eaten. (Azar,1989)

a)

b)

c)

(2) What he does is a secret. (Werner, P.K. & Nelson, J P., 1990)

a)

b)

c)

(3) Husbands cannot understand how can a woman be superior. (Student error-1996/1997 Fall term writing papers)

a)

b)

c)

(4) Whether Harry is happy in his new job not known. (Researcher's Statement)

a)

b)

c)

(5) Mr. Adams insists that we be careful in our writing. (Azar,1989)

a)

b)

c)

(6) Sam wants to know whether the sound travels faster than light or not. (Azar,1989)

a)

b)

c)

(7) It is essential that you don't be late. (Azar,1989)

a)

b)

c)

(8) Why do people dislike their jobs is often predictable. (Werner, P.K. & Nelson, J P., 1990)

a)

b)

c)

(9) Ann was handed a menu at the restaurant. (Azar,1989)

a)

b)

c)

(10) The little boy wants to know whether or not is there a Santa Claus. (Azar,1989)

a)

b)

c)

(11) I will ask them how are their lives going on. (Student error- 1996/1997 Fall term writing papers)

a)

b)

c)

(12) She demanded that I had to tell her the truth. (Azar,1989)

a)

b)

c)

(13) I wonder will people be able to communicate with dolphins some day. (Azar,1989)

a)

b)

c)

(14) I am not sure how many people there are at the meeting. (Drummond,1972)

a)

b)

c)

(15) I am frustrated by my inability to understand spoken English. (Azar,1989)

a)

b)

c)

(16) Tell the taxi driver where do you want to go. (Azar,1989)

a)

b)

c)

(17) Which of the candidates will get the job will be announced at 3 o'clock. (Researcher's Statement)

a)

b)

c)

(18) Ms. Adams wants to know if will you be in class tomorrow. (Azar,1989)

a)

b)

c)

(19) What does a patient tell a doctor is confidential. (Azar,1989)

a)

b)

c)

(20) I would like to write about several problems I have faced since I came here. (Azar,1989)

a)

b)

c)

(21) It is vital that noone else must know about the secret government opinion. (Azar,1989)

a)

b)

c)

(22) He asked her who had given her the nickname Maya. (Fuch &Bonner,1995)

a)

b)

c)

(23) I recommended that she not go to the concert (Azar,1989)

a)

b)

c)

(24) The city where we spent our vacation was beautiful. (Azar,1989)

a)

b)

c)

(25) I need to find out how old does a person have to be to get a driver's licence. (Azar,1989)

a)

b)

c)

APPENDIX B
G-J Test Evaluation Chart

Sorular	2+	3-	4-	6+	8-	10-	11-	13-	14+	16-	17+	18-	19-	22+	25-
0 puan															
1 puan															
2 puan															

APPENDIX C

Instructional Packets Used in Groups

TRADITIONAL GROUP

Week 1

PRESENTATION

- Noun clauses replace words and phrases. A noun is used as subject or object of a sentence. Similarly, Noun Clauses might be subjects or objects of sentences. Therefore, they answer the question "WHAT?" depending on their positions in the sentence. Briefly, a noun clause is used in the same ways as a noun (Understanding and Using English Grammar, p.263 -see the following page).

Consider the examples:

(a) His story was extremely interesting for everyone in the hall.

(WHAT?)

(b) What he said was extremely interesting for everyone in the hall.

Noun Clause (In this example, it was used as the subject of the sentence. Notice Noun Clause has its own subject -he-, and verb -said-).

(c) Everybody in the town heard his story.

Noun (object)

(d) Everybody in the town heard what he said.

WHAT? Noun Clause (object of the verb HEARD)

- There are different types of noun clauses. Today, we are going to study noun clauses with Question Words. Now, please look at your books (Mosaic) page 230 (see the following pages). Read the passage and underline all the sentences with question words. (Talk about their function).
- Now, listen to me carefully. When we are talking about NCs with QWs, we also have to talk about Reported Questions. Look at the examples on the board:

Mükremin: How much money did you get from the horse races?

Tirbişon: 10 bucks.

What does Mükremin ask to Tirbişon?

What did Mükremin ask to Tirbişon?

Understanding and Using English Grammar p. 263

CHAPTER 7
Noun Clauses

7-1 NOUN CLAUSES: INTRODUCTION

A noun is used as a subject or an object.
A noun clause is used as a subject or an object. In other words, a noun clause is used in the same ways as a noun.

(a) ***His story*** was interesting. (b) ***What he said*** was interesting.	In (a): ***story*** is a noun. It is used as the subject of the sentence. In (b): ***what he said*** is a noun clause. It is used as the subject of the sentence. The noun clause has its own subject (*he*) and verb (*said*).
(c) I heard ***his story***. (d) I heard ***what he said***.	In (c): ***story*** is a noun. It is used as the object of the verb ***heard***. In (d): ***what he said*** is a noun clause. It is used as the object of the verb ***heard***.

WORDS USED TO INTRODUCE NOUN CLAUSES

(1) *question words:**

when	***who***
where	***whom***
why	***what***
how	***which***
	whose

(2) ***whether***
if

(3) ***that***

 Mosaic p.230

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, you will study ways of replacing words and phrases with noun clauses. As you study the chapter, notice any changes in emphasis when noun clauses are used. Also, pay attention to changes in verb tenses and position in noun clauses.

Previewing the Passage

The original idea of a census was only to count the population of an area. Today, the U.S. Census collects a broad variety of information. Do you know what the census tells Americans, in addition to the size of the population?

The U.S. Work Force

The U.S. Census gathers much more information than simply the number of people living in the States. The census tells us about population growth, life expectancy, housing, crime, eating and drinking habits, immigration and migration, and ethnic backgrounds of Americans. Some of the most interesting statistics, however, concern the work habits of Americans. The census gathers detailed information on who is or isn't working, what kinds of jobs people hold, where they find the jobs, how much money they make, how they spend their earnings, how often they change jobs, how many people are injured on the job, and when men and women retire.

What recent census information has shown is that a definite shift in employment is occurring. America is moving from goods-producing industries to service-sector jobs. That Americans are better educated, healthier, and more mature by the time they enter the labor force is also significant. What the statistics do not show, unfortunately, is a significant narrowing in the gap between the earnings of men and women or between the opportunities available for whites and for minorities. Even more troubling, the gap between rich and poor is widening.

Looking at Structures

1. Underline the subject(s) and verb(s) in the second sentence. What follows *tells*? Could the verb *says* be substituted for *tells*?
2. Reread the last sentence in Paragraph 1. Circle all of the clauses. How many are there? What connecting words are used? What is the order of the subjects and verbs in the clauses?
3. What is the subject of the first sentence of the second paragraph? What is the complement of that sentence? What is the subject of the second sentence in that paragraph?

He asks him how much money he (Tirbişon) got from the horse races.

No tense change!

Pronoun change!

Notice: It is not a question anymore!

He asked him how much money he (Tirbişon) had gotten from the horse races.

Both tense and pronoun change!

When reporting questions we use statement order rather than question order (QW+S+V).

Here is another example:

Mücver: Why don't you let me listen to that song?

Fadıl: Don't ask me that, you know why!

What does Mücver ask to Fadıl?

What did Mücver ask to Fadıl?

She asks him why He (Fadıl) doesn't let her listen to that song.

No tense change Pronoun change

She asked him why He (Fadıl) didn't let her listen to that song.

Both tense and pronoun change!

- Notice that in all these examples NCs function as the objects of the sentences. So, in reported speech -questions in particular- NCs commonly function as objects. Look at these:

How much money Tirbişon got from the horse races has been asked

Why Fadıl didn't let Mücver listen to that song has been asked.

In these sentences NCs are the subjects of the sentences.

PRACTICE

- Now, look at your Mosaic books, page 241 (see the following page).
- Do you remember you had an interview when you entered our faculty. Try to remember the questions the interviewers asked you. Write at least two of them -with QW- using NCs. Begin your sentences with:

The interviewer asked me .....

Mosaic p. 241

SUSAN: "Well, tell me about the interview. Who did you talk to? What kinds of questions did they ask?"

ELLEN: "I talked with Mrs. Harris. Of course, she asked me how much experience I'd had and why I wanted to work there. I told her about my work in Boston and Toronto. Then she wanted to know why I was quitting my job in Toronto."

SUSAN: "What did you say to her?"

ELLEN: "I said that I was tired of living in a city and that I'd like to move to a smaller town."

Looking at Structures

1. Find the subject(s), verb(s), and objects or complements in Ellen's first sentence. What connecting words are used? Can you think of a synonym for *whether*?
2. Reread the sentences in Lines 7–10 and underline all question words that begin clauses. What questions can be formed from these clauses?

NOUN CLAUSES AND QUESTION WORDS

Information questions may be changed to noun clauses. Question words such as *when, why, what,* and *who(m)* are used to introduce them. When the question is changed to a noun clause, the subject must come *before* the verb, as it does in statements.

INFORMATION QUESTIONS	NOUN CLAUSES WITH QUESTION WORDS
When will you start your new job?	I wanted to know **when** I would start my new job.
How much will you make?	I'm not sure **how much** I'll make.
Who is going to be your supervisor?	Could you tell me **who** is going to be my supervisor?
Why did you leave your last job?	She asked me **why** I had left my last job.

- Now, look at your handouts (English Structure Practice, pp.84-85 - see the following pages). Read the examples. In pairs have your dialogs following the models. Choose 5! Use the initiators on the board:

-I'm afraid .....

-I don't know .....

-I've no idea .....

-I haven't the faintest /slightest idea .....

-Don't ask me .....

-I don't/didn't understand .....

- In all these examples NCs are the objects of the sentences. Now, I want you to use the same NCs as subjects of the sentences using the complements on the board.

- ..... is a mystery.
- ..... is not known.
- ..... is obvious.
- ..... is a secret.
- ..... will be told to everybody.
- ..... should be found out.
- ..... might be predicted. etc.

- Let's do the same thing orally. I will ask you some questions, and you will respond me using reported questions.

INTERPRETATION TASK GROUP

Week 1

PRESENTATION

Same as the one in Traditional group.

PRACTICE

(A) I will read you some sentences. Listen to me carefully. Are the sentences true or not true? Decide according to the pictures (see the following page) given. If you

17. There were a lot of people there. Can you tell me how many?
18. One of the men has lost his passport. Do you know which one?
19. You saw John a short while ago. Do you remember when it was?
20. There's some money in that account. Can you tell me how much?
21. Mary has a lot of friends in Australia. Do you know how many?
22. Those books belong to someone. Can you tell me whose they are?
23. Jim hurt his leg last week. Have you any idea how it happened?
24. A lot of people live in that city. Could you tell me how many?
25. English spelling is difficult. Have you asked anyone why this is so?

75 Noun Clauses I

Further practice.

What's Peter's last name?
STUDENT A: **Do you know what his last name is?**
STUDENT B: **I've no idea what it is.**

Who's got my magazine?
STUDENT C: **Have you any idea who's got his magazine?**
STUDENT D: **I don't know who's got it. Why ask me?**

Where does John have dinner?
STUDENT E: **Can you tell me where he has dinner?**
STUDENT F: **I haven't the slightest idea where he has it.**

1. When must Mr Jones take his holiday?
2. How many pairs of shoes did Mary buy?
3. What do Peter and Paul like to drink?
4. When will Sally's brother arrive here?
5. What did Richard lend George yesterday?
6. How long has Jane been studying English?
7. How often does Bill think about the exam?
8. How much will it cost me to fly to Canada?
9. Where does John like to spend his holidays?

10. What did Robert go to his room for just now?
11. What does that hotel charge for a single room?
12. How long ago did Mr and Mrs Brown get that car?
13. Which of the two films did Betty enjoy the most?
14. How soon must Barbara go back to her own country?
15. How long did Rosemary stay at the party last night?
16. How many cigarettes does Peter get through in a day?
17. Who did Sheila meet in the town yesterday afternoon?
18. What time did David finish his breakfast this morning?
19. Whose house are the interior decorators working on now?
20. How much did Bob spend while he was in Miami last month?

76 Noun Clauses I

Use the word(s) in brackets to introduce your clause, as shown:

Was Paul late getting home? (what time)
I don't know what time he got home.

Did John go to the office? (where)
I don't know where he went.

Will Mary watch TV this evening? (what)
I don't know what she'll do this evening.

(a) 1. Was Peter at the meeting? (who)
2. Is Mary speaking to *David*? (who)
3. Is Harry having a meal now? (what)
4. Is David's birthday in June? (when)
5. Is that Peter's typewriter? (whose)
6. Did John come because of Mary? (why)
7. Was Jim going to telephone *Jill*? (who)
8. Did David take the 1 p.m. train? (which)
9. Will Bob be driving to the station? (how)
10. Has *Peter* gone on holiday with Bill? (who)
11. Did Bob leave the car in the street? (where)
12. Did Jim go to the theatre last night? (what)
13. Will *Anne* invite Gordon to the party? (who)
14. Has Mary bought that book for *her mother*? (who)
15. Will John be having three assistants? (how many)

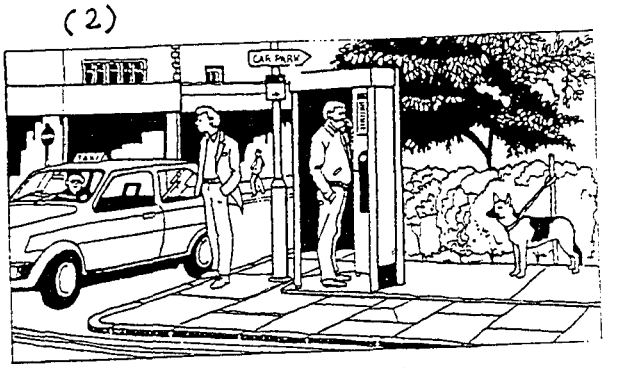
English Structure Practice
pp. 84-85

(A)

(1)

True Not true

(2)



True Not true

(3)

True Not true

(4)

True Not true

(5)

True Not true

(6)

True Not true

think a sentence is true circle true, if you think it is not circle not true. If you like, you can ask me to repeat the sentence.

1) We cannot say how many people there are in this picture. **(F)**
2) Whom the dog belongs to is not known in the picture. **(T)**
3) What the relationship between these two people could be can be predicted. **(F)**
4) I can easily tell you what those two ladies are talking about. **(F)**
5) It is impossible to know whom he is talking to on the phone. **(T)**
6) Why the man and woman are hiding is not known. **(T)**

(B) Look at the questions and their reported forms below. Indicate the inversions using arrows, and indicate the tense and pronoun changes (if any) by circling the words that have undergone a change.

e.g. Whose house are they working on now?

They wanted to know whose house they were working on.

1) -How many assistants will John have?
-I'm afraid I don't know how many assistants John will have.
2) -When will Sally's brother arrive here?
-When Sally's brother will arrive here is a mystery.
3) -Who took Jane to the cinema last night?
-I haven't the slightest idea who took Jane to the cinema last night.
4) -Why does she behave like that?
-Why she behaves like that is not known.
5) -What does the hotel charge for a single room?
-The tourist asked the receptionist what the hotel charged for a single room.
6) -How many pairs of shoes did Mary buy?
-Joe asks Jim how many pairs of shoes Mary bought.

(C) Respond to each of these sentences with:

-True for me
-Not true for me
-Partly true for me

1) I haven't decided Which job I will choose in the future. .....

2) How I look is not so important for me. .....

3) I never express how I feel. .....

4) I never plan what I will do everyday. .....

5) How often I should do homework should be my decision. .....

6) I can easily imagine what the world will look like in the future. .....

(D) Now, we are going to listen to tape. You will listen to Mehtap talking to her friend Bahar. Try to work out what Bahar should have said.

Listening Text (Written and recorded by the researcher)

Mehtap: Good afternoon Bahar? How do you feel today?

Bahar: Don't ask me how do I feel.

Mehtap: What? Why shouldn't I ask you how you feel. What is wrong?

Bahar: I had a terrible job interview today. The interviewer first asked me How many children do I have.

Mehtap: Oh! I think you meant "how many children you had".

Bahar: Well, yes I meant that. Anyway it was a stupid question. What is worse he wanted to know how long have we been married how much money does my husband earned a month.

Mehtap: What? Did he really ask you how long you had been married how much money your husband earned a month?

Bahar: Yes, he did. What kind of a private life do I have should not be his concern.

Mehtap: Sure, What kind of a private life you have is your own affair. What has it got to do with the job?

Bahar: I really don't know. At the end I asked him how do these questions specifically relate to the job?

Mehtap: You mean you asked him how these questions specifically related to the job!

Bahar: Oh, you are right. I meant that. Then, I left his office.

Mehtap: You did a good job.

TRADITIONAL GROUP

Week 2

PRESENTATION

- Review of the previous week.
- Like the questions with the question words, Yes/No questions may be changed to Noun Clauses by using if or whether (or not) to introduce them. When you report a Yes/No question you use an if clause beginning with the conjunction "if", or a whether clause beginning with the conjunction "whether" (Collins Cobuild, p.322 - see the following page). "Whether" is preferred in formal English, but "if" is quite commonly used, especially in speaking.

Example: Q: Does Jane's sister speak French?

I wonder if her sister speaks French.

I wonder whether her sister speaks French.

- We use "if" when the speaker has suggested one possibility that may be true. "Do you know my name?" could be reported as "A woman asked if I knew her name" " (Collins Cobuild, p.322).

Example: Someone asked me if the work was going well.

He inquired if her hair had always been that color! (ONE POSSIBILITY!)

- We use "whether" when the speaker has suggested one possibility but has left open the question of other possibilities. After "whether", you can suggest another possibility or you can leave it unstated (Collins Cobuild, p.322).

Example: I was asked whether I wanted to stay at a hotel or at his home (Two possibilities!).

She asked whether the servants were still there.

I asked Professor Bailey whether he agreed.

A policeman asked me whether he could be of help.

- Sometimes the alternative possibility is represented by "or not".

Example: The barman didn't ask whether or not they were over eighteen.

They asked whether Britain was or was not a Christian country.

- The list of alternatives on the use of if/whether:

1) I don't know if Ann will be in class tomorrow.

Reporting questions

Collins Cobuild p-322

7.29 As well as reporting what someone says or thinks, you can also report a question that they ask or wonder about.

Questions in report structures are sometimes called **reported questions** or **indirect questions.**

the reporting verb

7.30 The reporting verb most often used for reporting questions is 'ask'. Questions can be reported in a more formal way using 'enquire' or 'inquire'.

I asked if I could stay with them.
He asked me where I was going.
She inquired how Ibrahim was getting on.

WARNING

7.31 When you report a question:

- you do not treat it as a question by using interrogative word order
- you do not use a question mark.

So the question 'Did you enjoy it?' could be reported: 'I asked her if she had enjoyed it'.

Questions are explained in paragraphs 4.10 to 4.30.

'yes/no' questions

7.32 There are two main types of question, and so two main types of report structure for questions.

One type of question is called a **'yes/no' question.** These are questions which can be answered simply with 'yes' or 'no'.

When you report a 'yes/no' question, you use an **'if'-clause** beginning with the conjunction 'if', or a **'whether'-clause** beginning with the conjunction 'whether'.

You use 'if' when the speaker has suggested one possibility that may be true. 'Do you know my name?' could be reported as 'A woman asked if I knew her name'.

She asked him if his parents spoke French.
Someone asked me if the work was going well.
He inquired if her hair had always been that colour.

You use 'whether' when the speaker has suggested one possibility but has left open the question of other possibilities. After 'whether', you can suggest another possibility, or you can leave it unstated.

I was asked whether I wanted to stay at a hotel or at his home.
She asked whether the servants were still there.
I asked Professor Fred Bailey whether he agreed.
A policeman asked me whether he could be of help.

Sometimes the alternative possibility is represented by 'or not'.

The barman didn't ask whether or not they were over eighteen.
They asked whether Britain was or was not a Christian country.

2) I don't know whether Ann will be in class tomorrow.

3) I don't know whether or not Ann will be in class tomorrow.

4) I don't know whether Ann will be in class tomorrow or not.

- Notice Noun Clauses in those 4 sentences are the objects of the verb. It is also possible to use them as subjects of the sentences.

Example: Whether Ann will be there doesn't concern me.

Whether or not Ann will be there doesn't concern me.

- We don't use "if" in Noun Clause in subject position!

*If Ann will be there doesn't concern me.

PRACTICE

- Now, please look at your Mosaic books, page 242. Read the examples, and do exercise B on page 243 (see the following pages).

Presentation (Continues)

- OK. Now, let's analyze the reported questions as we did in NCs with Question words in our last lesson. Look at that example:

Şaban: Did you finish your homework?

Şirine: Yes, I did.

Şaban asks her if **she** finished **her** homework (Pronoun change!).

Şaban asked her if **she had finished her** homework (Pronoun and tense change!).

- Notice that in all these sentences we used statement word order not the question word order. That is, if/whether is followed by a subject.

Practice (Continues)

- Now look at these exercises. Replace the underlined parts with appropriate NCs. (Modern English, p.75)

1) "Did you lock the front door?"

Mr. Jones' wife asked him this.

2) "Is he really a rich man?"

This is not known even to his relatives.

3) "Will the audience laugh at the new clown?"

 Mosaic p.242

■ **EXERCISE A** The following are typical questions asked on a job application or in a job interview. Change them from direct questions to noun clauses with question words. Use the examples as models.

Examples application / What is your name?
On an application, you will be asked what your name is.

interview / Why will you be an asset to the company?
During an interview, you may (might, could) be asked why you will be an asset to the company.

1. application / When were you born?
2. application / Where do you live?
3. application / What work experience do you have?
4. application / Why do you want to work here?
5. interview / What are your strengths and weaknesses?
6. interview / Why should we hire you?
7. interview / How would you describe yourself? What kind of a person are you?
8. interview / How much money do you hope to earn?

■ **ON YOUR OWN** Can you think of other questions that are commonly asked during job interviews?

NOUN CLAUSES WITH *IF* AND *WHETHER*

Yes/no questions may be changed to noun clauses by using *if* or *whether* (*or not*) to introduce them. *Whether* is preferred in formal English. It also implies choice among alternatives rather than a strict yes/no decision. Remember that the subject must come *before* the verb in the noun clause.

YES/NO QUESTIONS	NOUN CLAUSES WITH *IF, WHETHER*
Do you have any job openings?	Could you tell me **if** you have any job openings?
Should I talk to the manager?	I would like to know **whether (or not)** I should talk to the manager.
Is the manager here now?	Do you know **if** the manager is here now?

Mosaic p-243

■ **EXERCISE B** Jobs are not the only situations that require interviews. Colleges and universities often use interviews to help in admissions and placement, especially with nonnative English speakers. The following are typical questions used in academic interviews. Change them from direct questions to noun clauses with *if* or *whether*. Use the example as a model.

Example Are you applying to several schools?

I will (may, might) be asked if (whether) I am applying to several schools.

1. Do you have your high school (or college) transcripts? Are they in English?
2. Do you have letters of recommendation? Are they in English?
3. Is your family supporting you? Do you have a scholarship? Will you need financial aid?
4. Have you taken the TOEFL test? Did you find certain sections more difficult than others?
5. Did you take the admissions test (SAT, ACT, GRE, etc.)? Have you received your scores?

■ **ON YOUR OWN** Did you have an interview in order to enter this school? Have you ever had a placement interview? What questions were you asked?

■ **EXERCISE C** The following are typical questions asked during job interviews in specific careers. Imagine that you had interviewed for one of these jobs. Tell about the questions you were asked. Change the direct questions to indirect questions. Use the question words to begin your clauses or add *if* or *whether* when necessary. Pay close attention to shifts in verb tenses in the noun clauses.

Example executive secretary
Do you take shorthand?

The interviewer asked (wanted to know, inquired about) if (whether) I took shorthand and how many words. . . . Then she wanted to know. . . .

1. executive secretary
   a. How many words per minute do you type?
   b. Can you use a dictaphone?
   c. What office machines do you know how to use?
   d. Have you ever used a word processor?

We cannot know this.

4) "Are we going to have a test tomorrow?"

This should be asked to the teacher.

5) "Does the bus stop here?"

Joe asked Mary this.

- Now, I will give you handouts. (English Structure Practice, p.87 - see the following page). What you are supposed to do is to use those questions as Noun Clauses. Try to use them, a)as subjects or b) as objects in your sentences. Try to use the variety of if/whether/ whether or not /whether.....or not. Use the prompts below:

I wonder .....

Do you know .....

Can you tell me .....

The little girl/boy wants to know .....

(Annie) wants to know .....

Noone knows .....

Do they know .....

Let's ask him .....

..... is not known.

..... cannot be understood.

..... is obvious.

..... can be predicted.

..... should be asked him/her/them....

..... is a mystery.

- If you could interview a famous person, living or dead, whom would you choose? Think of 5 questions you would ask this person. Your questions should all be Yes/No questions. Begin each of your 5 sentences with these words:

I would ask him/her ..... (from Building English Structures, p.417)

! Since you are using hypothetical sentences, use past tenses in your NCs.

Example: I would ask him whether or not he lik**ed** his job.

4. Has Peter gone to New York by air, or has he gone by sea?
5. Is Mary going to marry John, or is she going to marry Bob?
6. Has David been to London twice, or has he been three times?
7. Did the men do the job in the morning, or in the afternoon?
8. Do John and Mary go to class every day, or every other day?
9. Is it this book the critics recommended, or is it that one?
10. Was Sheila born in Switzerland, or was she born in Austria?
11. Will there be a strike now, or will there be one next week?
12. Were there twenty people on the plane, or were there more?
13. Did Sally swim one kilometre, or was it a greater distance?
14. Did Paul need a month to learn English, or did he need longer?
15. Did Bob stay away because he was ill, or because of laziness?
16. Is it six hundred kilometres from here to the border, or is it further?
17. Has John got a headache, or has he got a broken leg? (use: suffer from)
18. Did Sheila spend three weeks in Osaka, or did she stay there for four weeks?
19. Is Bob going to the United States for a visit, or to live there permanently?
20. Does Bob prefer to go out in the evening, or does he prefer to do something else?

English Structure Practice p.87

(This is an oral practice activity!)

- Now, you will have interviews with each other. One of you will be the interviewer and the other will be the candidate for Ms/Mr World. The interview is just before the contest. The interviewer will ask 5 Yes/No questions using the expressions on the board, and the other will answer.

USEFUL EXPESSIONS

I would like to know .....

Could/Would you explain (describe, tell me etc.) .....?

Would you mind telling me .....?

It is important for me to know .....

Can I ask you .....?

Do you mind if I ask you .....?

Can you tell me .....?

I want to learn .....

! Answers could also include NCs.

Example: A: Do you mind if I ask you whether you have boyfriend?

B: Whether or not I have a boyfriend should not be your concern.

INTERPRETATION TASK GROUP

Week 2

PRESENTATION

Same as the one in Traditional group.

PRACTICE

(A) There is a murder. Lord Chomley was shot last night. "Perfect Dedective" Peter Piers is investigating that murder. Below you see the answers of several suspects, which they gave to the dedective. Listen to the dedective's questions carefully and try to match the questions with the answers.

- **Sir John Hall:** "No, I was not. The murder happened after I left the house".
- **Prince John:** "Yes, I heard three shots as soon as I left the house".

- **Elena Richby:** "No, I was blind drunk, so I don't remember anything".
- **Lady Isobel:** "No, of course not. We never had problems about the business we were making together".
- **Lady Chomley:** "Sure, he was. He had always been considerate to me and to our children".
- **Sheila Bailey:** "Yes, he always helped me in solving my family related problems".
- **Lord Aston:** "Well, yes. Recently he had some financial problems".

Statement of the dedective's questions to be macthed:

(1) Dedective asked whether he had heard anything unusual at the time of murder.

Correct answer: Prince John

(2) It was important for the dedective to know whether Lord Chomley had been a good husband and a father or not.

Correct answer: Lady Chomley

(3) Dedective wanted to learn if he had been at home when the murder happened.

Correct answer: Sir John Hall

(4) Dedective inquired whether or not she remembered anything unusual about last night.

Correct answer: Elena Richby

(5) Dedective wanted to know if she had had any kind of trouble about their job.

Correct answer: Lady Isobel

(B) Read the following passage and underline all the NCs with whether/if. Then, for each sentence you have underlined

a) indicate the inversion using arrows

b) indicate the tense change by putting a tick mark to the changed part

c) circle the pronouns that you think have changed.

MARK'S GRANDFATHER

Everyone has good stories, and collecting them is an interesting way for younger family members to stay close to older relatives. Recently, my son Mark has interviewed his grandfather. If you would like to try this in your own family, here are the steps Mark took to make his grandfather at ease:

First, Mark asked him politely if he had got some time to talk to him. Then he found a quiet room to talk and a comfortable armchair. Whether the grandfather felt

relaxed was very important for the sake of this talk. To get started Mark talked about an event that the two of them had shared. He asked his grandfather whether he remembered their trip to the circus or not. When the interview got underway, Mark wanted to know about the details of his grandfather's life. He wanted to know if he had been a good student at school and if he had had a good education that led to his job in communication. When he asked him about new inventions, he learned about his grandfather's fascination with computers. At the end of the talk, Mark knew so many details about his grandfather. However, whether or not the grandfather had an unforgettable love affair was still a mystery!

(C) Indicate whether or not each statement that you will listen to applies to you by checking ""true" or "not true".

1. True Not true
2. True Not true
3. True Not true
4. True Not true
5. True Not true

Sentences to be heard:

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

(D) You are going to read an extract from a court case. The speakers are a policeman and a prosecution. They are talking about Mrs. Jones, the accused. Identify the errors in the policeman's sentences and correct them.

Policeman: I asked Mrs. Jones she would open her bag and take the things out.

Prosecution: And what were the articles in the bag?

Policeman: Well, there were six ladies' handkerchiefs, half a dozen eating apples, 500 gr. pocket coffee and two pairs of man's socks.

Prosecution: And what did you do then?

Policeman: If she had bought these things in the shop was not clear. She said "I can't remember". I then asked her whether she puts them in her bag. She said "I think yes". And then I wanted to know whether or not had she paid for them. She said "I don't know".

Prosecution: What then?

Policeman: I inquired if she and her family ate apples?

Prosecution: Why did you ask that?

Policeman. I think it is important to know whether has she been eating the apples in the shop without paying any money.

Prosecution: OK. Go on!

TRADITIONAL GROUP

Week 3

Practice from:

1. Focus on Grammar pp. 305-306
2. English Structure Practice pp. 82-83
3. English Structure Practice pp. 375-376
4. Modern English pp. 63-64

(The photocopies of the relevant pages are on the following pages).

INTERPRETATON TASK GROUP

Week 3

PRACTICE

(A) The following are the direct questions that Melissa was asked during a job interview. The questions are out of order. Listen to the conversation between Melissa and her friend Don. Number the questions in their proper order (1^{st},2^{nd},3^{rd}, etc.).

Note that NOT all the questions are the direct ones that she was asked.

☐ When were you most successful?

☐ What would you change about your current job?

☐ Have you cleaned out your car recently?

3 In Your Experience

In small groups, discuss a personal experience with a school or job interview. It could be your own experience, or the experience of someone you know. Talk about these questions:

What did the interviewer want to find out?
What was the most difficult question to answer? Why?
Were there any questions that you didn't want to answer? What did you say?
What did you ask the interviewer?

Focus on Grammar p- 305

4 Nosy Neighbor

p- 306

Claire has an interview next week. Her neighbor, Jaime, wants to know all about it. Report Jaime's questions, using the words in parentheses.

Jaime: I heard you're going on an interview next week. What kind of job is it?

Claire: It's a secretarial job.

1. He asked what kind of job it was.
(kind of job / what / was / it)

Jaime: Oh, really? When is the interview?

Claire: It's on Tuesday at 9:00.

2. _____
(the interview / was / when)

Jaime: Where's the company?

Claire: It's downtown on the west side.

3. _____
(was / where / the company)

Jaime: Do you need directions?

Claire: No, I know the way.

4. _____
(needed / if / she / directions)

Jaime: How long does it take to get there?

Claire: About half an hour.

5. _____
(to get there / it / takes / how long)

Jaime: Are you going to drive?

Claire: I think so. It's probably the fastest way.

6. _____
(was going / if / she / to drive)

Jaime: Who's going to interview you?

Claire: Uhmm. I'm not sure. Probably the manager of the department.

7. _____
(was going / her / who / to interview)

14. Does Betty intend *to resign from her firm*?
15. Does Jim intend to speak to *Jean* about it?
16. Did Paul intend to drive *twenty kilometres*?
17. Did Susan intend to give away her *blue* dress?
18. Did Sheila intend to have her holiday *at home*?
19. Does Betty intend to give her boy-friend *a car*?
20. Did Joe intend to arrive *on the 1st of the month*?

(8) *To practise and contrast the two types of clause shown above, respond as shown:*

Who is that man?
I don't know who he is.

What's Peter's surname?
I've no idea what it is.

Where does John come from?
I haven't the faintest idea where he comes from.

Who took my pen?
Don't ask me who took it. I haven't the slightest idea.

1. How old is George?
2. Who took John's car?
3. When did Peter arrive?
4. Where does Gordon live?
5. Where do they have lunch?
6. Why does Bob buy two papers?
7. What did Sue cook for dinner?
8. Which of those books is Peter's?
9. Whose car is that near the house?
10. What time did the programme start?
11. How long did Bob stay at the party?
12. How far is it from here to New York?
13. What time will Jim leave for Toronto?
14. What happened when Jim didn't turn up?
15. How many cigarettes did Rosemary have?
16. How long was the film on TV last night?
17. Who decided when all the guests should go?
18. How does Mary travel to her place of work?
19. How often does Allan take his family abroad?
20. How much time does Joe spend on his homework?

English Structure Practice pp. 82-83

Answer the following questions as shown:

Bob went to New York last month. Do you know why?
No, I don't know why Bob went to New York last month.

I said something to you. Did you understand it?
No, I'm sorry. I didn't understand what you said to me.

Something happened at the office yesterday. Do you know what it was?
No, I'm afraid I don't know what happened at the office yesterday.

1. Gordon's very old. Do you know how old?
2. That man says a lot. Do you believe him?
3. I said something just now. Can you repeat it?
4. Philip spoke to a lady. Did you see who it was?
5. John went to Canada last year. Can you explain why?
6. Jim came home late. Do you remember what time it was?
7. Someone cleaned the rooms. Can you tell me who it was?
8. One of the firm's agents called. Do you know which one?
9. A car has broken down outside. Do you know whose it is?
10. Elizabeth went out with someone. Do you know who it was?
11. Someone drove Jim to the station. Do you know who it was?
12. I want to watch the film. Do you know what time it starts?
13. John said something just now. Can you tell me what it was?
14. Bob goes to the cinema a lot. Have you any idea how often?
15. One of those actors is English. Can you tell me which one?
16. Someone rang me up while I was out. Did Jim say who it was?

278 Reported Speech 1A

To practise reported questions, respond as shown:

What time does the bus leave? Paul asked Joe —
Paul asked Joe what time the bus left.

Are you coming to the meeting? Tom asked me —
Tom asked me if/whether I was going to the meeting.

How many cigarettes do you have a day? John asked me —
John asked me how many cigarettes I had a day.

Will Bob be in class tomorrow? Mary asked Jim —
Mary asked Jim if/whether Bob would be in class the next day.

1. Must you go now? Bill asked Mary —
2. Is there a bar here? I asked John —

p. 375

English Structure Practice

p. 376

3. What's Jane really like? Tom asked us —
4. Does Bob know what time it is? I asked Joe —
5. Must Paul leave tomorrow? Peter asked Sally —
6. Will you be coming tomorrow? Jim asked Peter —
7. When did you lose your key? Jane asked Philip —
8. Why did you get such low marks? Bob asked Jim —
9. Has there been a message for me? Tom asked Joe —
10. Will you give me some help? The boy asked Jane —
11. Do I have to do all the work now? Paul asked me —
12. Have you used this camera before? John asked Tom —
13. How can I get to the station? The girl asked Mary —
14. Whose car is that outside? The policeman asked us —
15. Does it have to be so untidy here? Jane asked Paul —
16. Did you do any studying yesterday? David asked John —
17. Have I to return the books tomorrow? Joan asked Paul —
18. How many children have you got? The inspector asked me —
19. Who was the last owner of the car? I asked the salesman —
20. How much can I draw out now? Joe asked his bank manager —

B. Indirect Speech
Noun Clauses from Questions

Modern English pp. 63-64

Change to indirect speech. Observe the sequence of tenses and make the necessary changes in pronouns. Use a period at the end of the sentence.

EXAMPLE: He asked me, "Does the train always arrive late?"
He asked me whether (*or informal* if) the train always arrived late.

1. He asked me, "Will the report be ready soon?"

2. He asked me, "Has anyone found the missing dog?"

3. He asked me, "What is your name?"

4. He asked me, "What color do you want?"

5. He asked me, "How much does this umbrella cost?"

6. He asked me, "Can you cook?"

7. He asked me, "Would you prefer to see a movie or a play?"

8. He asked me, "Where is the post office?"

9. He asked me, "Why didn't you answer when I called you?"

10. He asked me, "Who was hurt in the accident?"

11. He asked me, "Can anyone enter the contest?"

12. He asked me, "When are they leaving for Chicago?"

13. He asked me, "Is the bus non-stop?"

14. He asked me, "Have you ever been to New York?"

15. He asked me, "Which typewriter do you like better?"

16. He asked me, "Who is that pretty girl?"

17. He asked me, "What time is it?"

18. He asked me, "Whose hat is this?"

19. He asked me, "Whom does this hat belong to?"

20. He asked me, "How long have you been waiting?"

21. He asked me, "Which beach did you go to?"

- Are you ready for more responsibility?
- How much experience have you had?
- Do you ever make any snap decisions?
- Was it a normal interview?
- Do I really want this job?
- How much money are you making now?
- Are you good enough to work for such an important company?
- Have you been fired?
- Why doesn't your employer want you to stay at your job?

(The conversation is on the following page).

(B) Read the following passage about "Stress Interview". Concentrate on the indirect questions, analyze them and find their direct forms.

(The passage is on the following page).

(C) Listen to the cassette and decide whether the following statements are True or False.

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

Listening Text (Tapescript)

Interviewer: Your resume is very impressive Ms. Sarakoff.

Ms. Zarakoff: That's "Zarakoff".

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

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

FOCUSED PRACTICE

Discover the Grammar

Melissa Morrow is telling a friend about her job interview. Underline the indirect questions in the conversation.

Don: So, how did the interview go?

Melissa: It was very strange.

Don: What happened?

Melissa: Well, it started off like a normal interview. He asked me how much experience I had had, and I told him I had been a public relations officer for ten years. Let's see. . . . He also asked what I would change about my current job. That was a little tricky.

Don: What did you say?

Melissa: Well, I didn't want to say anything negative, so I told him that I was ready for more responsibility.

Don: Good. What else did he ask?

Melissa: Oh, you know, the regular things. He asked when I had been most successful, and how much money I was making.

Don: Sounds like a normal interview to me. What was so strange about it?

Melissa: Well, at one point, he just stopped talking for a long time. Then he asked me all these bizarre questions that weren't even related to the job.

Don: Like what?

Melissa: He asked me if I had cleaned out my car recently.

Don: You're kidding.

Melissa: No, I'm not. Then he asked me why my employer didn't want me to stay at my job.

Don: That's crazy. I hope you told him that you hadn't been fired.

Melissa: Of course. Oh, and he asked if I was good enough to work for such an important company.

Don: What did you tell him?

Melissa: I told him that with my skills and experience I was one of the best in my field.

Don: That was a great answer. It sounds like you handled yourself very well.

Melissa: Thanks. But now I'm asking myself if I really want this job.

Don: Take your time. Don't make any snap decisions.

B. Read the following passage about "Stress Interview". Concentrate on the indirect questions, analyze them and find their direct forms.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Interviewer: Do you owe anyone any money?

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

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

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

Interviewer: Have you ever been arrested?

Ms. Zarakoff: Excuse me?

Interviewer: Have you ever been arrested?

Ms. Zarakoff: No, Why do you ask?

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

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

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

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

Interviewer: (Telephone rings) Hmm! Would you excuse me a moment; I have to take this call! (Focus on Grammar, Unit 24)

Responding personally

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

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

(D) Read part of a memo an interviewer wrote after an interview. Find and correct the mistakes. (Memo is on the following page).

TRADITIONAL GROUP

Week 4

Review

1. Focus on Grammar pp.302-303-304
2. A Practical English Grammar pp.182
3. (Practice) Focus on Grammar p.307
   (The photocopies of the relevant pages are on the following pages).
4. Think of a simple joke that you like. Write it out in reported speech including at least 5 Noun Clauses with question words or with whether/if. Share it with your classmates.

D. Read part of a memo an interviewer wrote after an interview. Find and correct the mistakes.

May 15,1995

To: Francesca Giuffrida

From: Bob Marley

Subject: Interview with Carl Treng

This morning I interviewed Carl Treng for the secretarial position. Since this position requires a lot of contact with the public, I did some stress questioning. I asked Mr. Treng why ~~couldn't he~~ *he couldn't* work under pressure. I also asked him why his supervisor disliked him. Finally, I inquired when he would quit the job with our company?

Mr. Treng kept his poise throughout the interview. He answered all my questions calmly, and he had some excellent questions of his own. He asked "if we expected changes in the job." He also wanted to know how often do we evaluate employees. I was quite impressed when he asked why did I decide to join this company.

Focus on Grammar pp. 302-303-304

Grammar Notes

1. Use *if* or *whether* in indirect *yes/no* questions.

Direct Question	Indirect Question
"Can you type?" she asked.	She asked me **if** I could type.
"Do you know how to use a fax machine?" he asked.	He wanted to know **whether** I knew how to use a fax machine.

People often use *whether or not* to report *yes/no* questions.

He wanted to know **whether or not** I knew how to use a fax machine.

Usage note: *Whether* is considered more formal than *if*.

2. Use question words in indirect *wh-* questions.

Direct Question	Indirect Question
"Where is your office?" I asked.	I asked **where** his office was.
I asked, "How much is the salary?"	I asked **how much** the salary was.

3. Be careful! Use statement word order, not question word order, for indirect *yes/no* questions and for indirect *wh-* questions about something in the predicate.

Direct Question	Indirect Question
He asked, "**Does the company provide** good benefits?"	He asked whether **the company provided** good benefits. NOT ~~He asked does the company provide good benefits.~~
"**Have you started** working there yet?" Sylvia asked.	Sylvia asked whether **I had started** working there yet. NOT ~~Sylvia asked have I started working there yet.~~
"Why **did you leave** your previous job?" she asked.	She asked me why **I had left** my previous job. NOT ~~She asked me why did I leave my previous job.~~
"How long **had you worked** there?" she asked.	She asked how long **I had worked** there. NOT ~~She asked how long had I worked there.~~

Notice that the indirect questions in the examples above end with a period (rather than a question mark) and do not use the auxiliary *do, does*, or *did*.

4. For indirect *wh-* questions about the subject, keep the same word order as direct questions.

Direct Question	Indirect Question
"**Who got** the job?" I asked.	I asked **who had gotten** the job.
"**What caused** the problem?" I asked.	I asked **what had caused** the problem.

5. The same verb tense changes and other changes occur in indirect questions as in indirect statements. See Units 21 and 22.

See Appendix 13 on page A8 for a list of verbs used to report questions.

DIRECT SPEECH: *WH-* QUESTIONS ABOUT THE PREDICATE

Subject	Reporting Verb	Direct Speech
He	asked,	"Who(m) did you work for?" "What did you do there?" "When did you leave?" "Where do you work now?" "How are you going to get to work?" "Why have you decided to change jobs?"

INDIRECT SPEECH: *WH-* QUESTIONS ABOUT THE PREDICATE

Subject	Reporting Verb	Noun/Pronoun	Question Word	Indirect Speech
He	asked	her Melissa	who(m)	she had worked for.
			what	she had done there.
			when	she had left.
			where	she worked now.
			how	she was going to get to work.
			why	she had decided to change jobs.

INDIRECT QUESTIONS

DIRECT SPEECH: *YES/NO* QUESTIONS		
SUBJECT	REPORTING VERB	DIRECT SPEECH
He	asked,	"Do you have any experience?" "Can you use a computer?" "Will you stay for a year?"

INDIRECT SPEECH: *YES/NO* QUESTIONS				
SUBJECT	REPORTING VERB	NOUN/PRONOUN	*IF/WHETHER*	INDIRECT SPEECH
He	asked	her Melissa	**if** **whether**	**she had any experience.** **she could use a computer.** **she would stay for a year.**

DIRECT SPEECH: *WH-* QUESTIONS ABOUT THE SUBJECT		
SUBJECT	REPORTING VERB	DIRECT SPEECH
He	asked,	"Who told you about this job?" "What happened on your last job?"

INDIRECT SPEECH: *WH-* QUESTIONS ABOUT THE SUBJECT				
SUBJECT	REPORTING VERB	NOUN/PRONOUN	QUESTION WORD	INDIRECT SPEECH
He	asked	him	**who**	**had told him about the job.**
		Bob	**what**	**had happened on his last job.**

Usually **here** has to be replaced by some phrase:

She said, 'You can sit here, Tom.'
She told Tom that he could sit beside her/on the rug &c.

but **He said, 'Come here, boys'** *would normally be reported as* **He called the boys.**

A Practical English Grammar p-182

278 Questions in indirect speech

Example of a direct question: He said, 'Where is she going?'
Example of an indirect question: He asked where she was going.

When we turn direct questions into indirect speech, the following changes are necessary:

Tenses, pronouns and possessive adjectives, and adverbs of time and place change as in statements.
The interrogative form of the verb changes to the affirmative form. The question mark (?) is therefore omitted in indirect questions:

He said, 'Where *does she live*?'
= He asked where *she lived*.

If the introductory verb is **say**, it must be changed to a verb of inquiry, e.g. **ask, inquire, wonder, want to know** &c.:

He said, 'Where is the station?'
= He asked where the station was.

ask, inquire, can also be used in direct speech. They are then usually placed at the end of the sentence:

'Where is the station?' he inquired.

ask can be used with an indirect object:

He said, 'What have you got in your bag?'
= He asked (me) what I had got in my bag.

But **inquire, wonder, want to know** cannot take an indirect object, so if we wish to report a question where the person addressed is mentioned, we must use **ask**:

He said, 'Mary, when is the next train?'
= He asked Mary when the next train was (if we use **inquire, wonder** or **want to know** we must omit 'Mary').

If the direct question begins with a question word (**when, where, who, how, why** &c., the question word is repeated in the indirect question:

He said, 'Why didn't you put on the brake?'
= He asked (her) why she hadn't put on the brake.
She said, 'What do you want?'
= She asked (them) what they wanted.

3 Who's Asking

Focus on Grammar p. 307

Read the following questions, which were asked during Claire Yang's interview. Some were asked by Claire, and some were asked by the manager, Pete Stollins. Decide who asked each question. Then rewrite each question as indirect speech.

1. "What type of training is available for the job?"

   Claire asked what type of training was available for the job.

2. "What kind of experience do you have?"

   Pete asked what kind of experience she had.

3. "Is there opportunity for promotion?"

4. "Are you interviewing with other companies?"

5. "What will my responsibilities be?"

6. "How is job performance rewarded?"

7. "What was your starting salary at your last job?"

8. "Did you get along well with your last employer?"

9. "Do you hire many women?"

10. "Were you fired from your last job?"

11. "Why did you apply for this position?"

12. "Have you had any major layoffs in the past few years?"

INTERPRETATON TASK GROUP

Week 4

Explicit grammar explanations /same in traditional group 1&2 above)

PRACTICE

(A) Look at the picture (see the following page) given and listen as your teacher read a sentence and check if it is true or false.

Sentences to be heard:

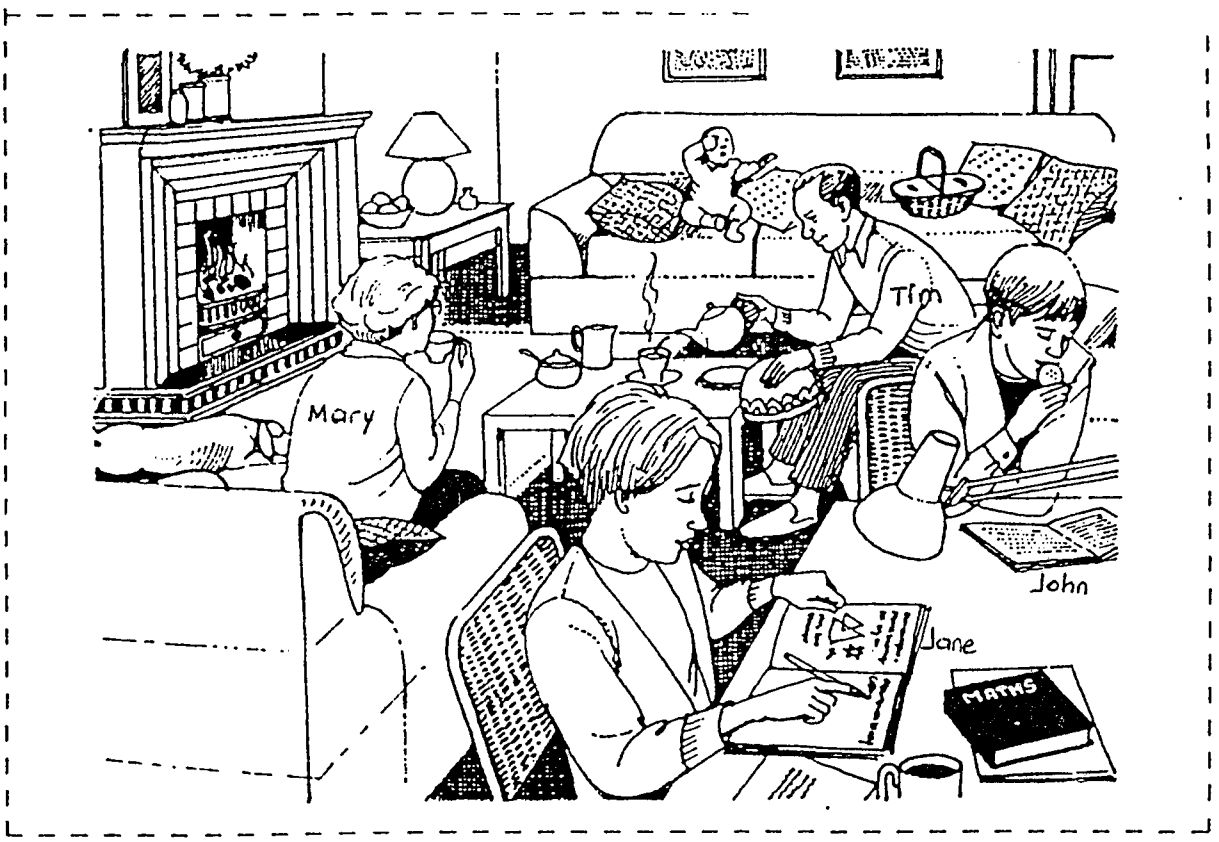
1. What the girl on the table (Jane) is studying is not known. (F)
2. We cannot see how many biscuits John had eaten. (T)
3. Whether the baby is crying or laughing is not clear in the picture. (T)
4. How old Mary is cannot be predicted. (T)
5. Whether Mary and Tim are married is obvious in the picture. (F)
6. We can say whether Jane is younger than John.

(B) Each sentence corresponds to something that you might do to your parents. Check which ones apply to you. Then compare your responses with a classmate.

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

(C) Identify and correct the problem in each of the following sentences.

1. He asked her whom she had worked for.
2. John asks Melisa how she was going to get to work.
3. Whether or not John is happy is a mystery?
4. I really would like to know is he happy with his new job.
5. Everybody wonders why have they decided to change their jobs.


Mary
Tim
John
Jane
MATHS

APPENDIX D
Pre/Post/Follow-up Test

Name: Number: Section: Age: Sex.:

PART A

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

(1) a) How much time Joe spends on his homework?
b) How much time Joe did spend on his homework?
c) How much time does Joe spend on his homework?

(2) a) Can you meet me at the airport?
b) Could you meet me at the airport?
c) Can I meet him at the airport?

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

(4) a) Do they cancel the last flight?
b) Will they cancel the last flight?
c) Will the last flight be canceled?

(5) a) Will you ever quit smoking?
b) Would you ever quit smoking?
c) Will I ever quit smoking?

(6) a) Where have they intended to meet?
b) Where do they intend to meet?
c) Where they intend to meet?

(7) a) Did I leave my previous job?
b) Did you leave your previous job?
c) Had I left my previous job?

(8) a) How can we get there?
b) How we can get there?
c) How could we get there?

(9) a) Do you hand your homework?
b) Did she hand her homework?
c) Did you hand your homework?

(10) a) How he gets the money?
b) How did he get the money?
c) How does he get the money?

SENTENCES TO BE HEARD

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

PART B

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

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

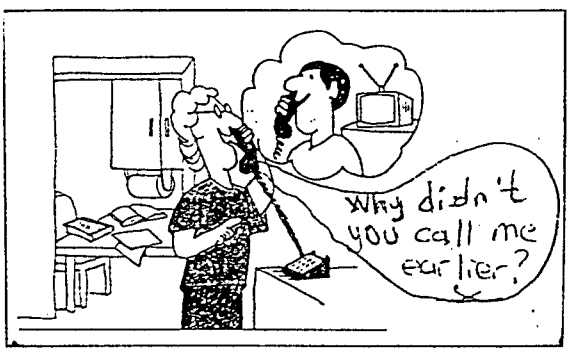
1. ----------
2. ----------
3. ----------
4. ----------
5. ----------

** This text was taken from the textbook "**Distinction**" (1993, p.47).

PART C

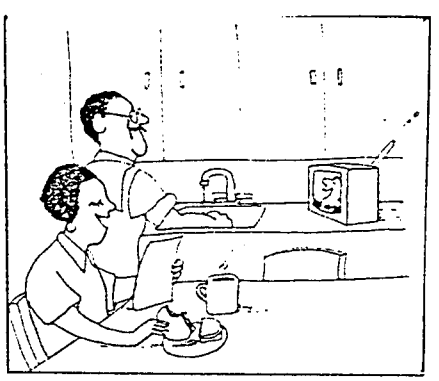
Instruction: By looking at the pictures complete the sentences according to the questions given.

(1)



- She wanted to know ----------

(2)



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

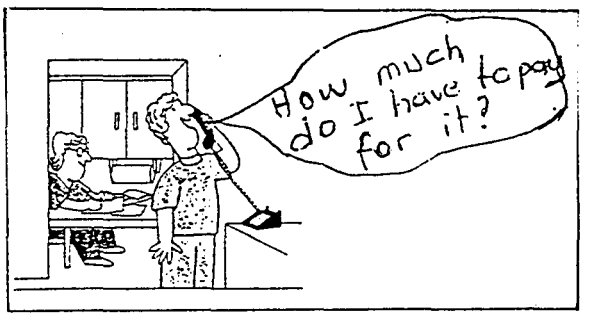
- Larry asks Sally ----------

(3)

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

- ---------- is not known.

(4)



- The boy on the phone asked ----------

(5)

Does she enjoy reading the newspaper?

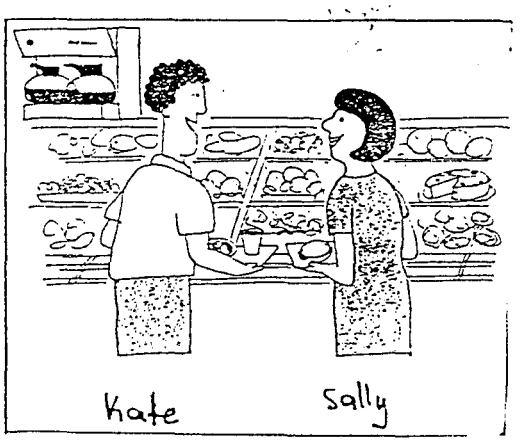
- ---------- is obvious in the picture.

(6)

Where are these people looking at?

- ---------- is very difficult to guess.

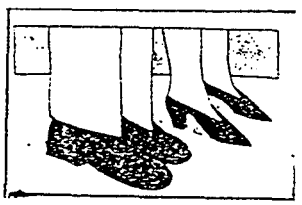
(7)



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

- Kate asked Sally ----------

(8)



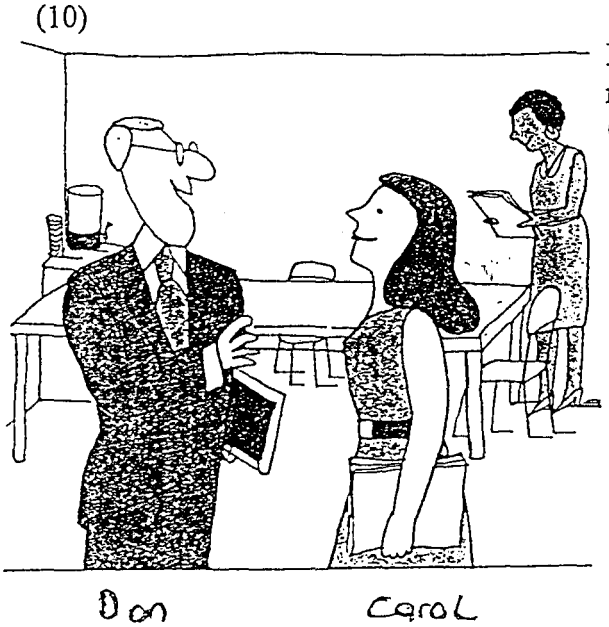
Are those expensive shoes?

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

(9)

- The boy asks the girl ----------

(10)



Don: How much money does she make per month?
Carol: Nobody knows that; it is a mystery.

- ---------- is a mystery.

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