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**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH**

**THE EFFECTS OF GRAMMAR CONSCIOUSNESS-  
RAISING TASKS ON FACILITATING THE  
ACQUISITION OF ADJECTIVE  
ORDER**

**A CASE STUDY OF FIRST-YEAR STUDENTS OF ECONOMICS AT LARBI BEN M'HIDI  
UNIVERSITY OF OUM EL BOUAGHI**

**DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR  
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TEACHING**

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## Dedication

I dedicate this work to my dear parents.

To my sisters, my brothers and all my family.

To all my teachers.

To my best friend and colleague Samira ARROUF.

To all my friends.

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## Abstract

Recent research has explored the importance of explicit attention to grammatical forms in the acquisition of grammar. A number of studies have shown that consciousness-raising in grammar contributes to the acquisition of grammatical knowledge. This study investigates the effectiveness of grammar consciousness-raising tasks on facilitating the acquisition of grammar among first-year students of Economics at Larbi Ben M'hidi University of Oum El Bouaghi. This quasi-experimental study examines the effects of the presence or absence of grammar consciousness-raising tasks on the acquisition of the English word order of various categories of attributive adjectives within the same sentence. Training took place under conditions with no explicit presentation of grammatical features for the control group and with a focus on form for the experimental group. Subjects in the control group were instructed in the comprehension of texts in Economics while subjects in the experimental group performed grammar consciousness-raising tasks. Subjects' pre-instructional knowledge of the use of the targeted grammatical structure was measured prior to the period of instructional treatment by a pre-test. After the instruction, a post-test was administered. The post-test was identical to the pre-test. A survey was administered at the same time. The results reveal that the experimental group subjects achieved significantly higher scores than those of the control group. The results of an independent samples t-test and a paired samples t-test show that the grammar consciousness-raising task treatment is the causative variable for the students' improved performance on the post-test measure. Furthermore, the results of the survey indicate that the students have positive attitudes towards grammar consciousness-raising tasks. These results suggest that there is a role for grammar consciousness-raising (GCR) tasks in facilitating language acquisition.

## List of Symbols and Abbreviations

<b>ALM</b>	Audiolingual method.
<b>ASTP</b>	Army specialized training programme.
<b>CCL</b>	Cognitive code learning.
<b>CLT</b>	Communicative language teaching.
<b>C-R</b>	Consciousness-raising.
<b>EFL</b>	English as a foreign language.
<b>ESL</b>	English as a second language.
<b>GCR</b>	Grammar consciousness-raising.
<b>GJT</b>	Grammaticality judgement test.
<b>IL</b>	Interlanguage.
<b>L1</b>	First language.
<b>L2</b>	Second language.
<b>MCT</b>	Multiple choice test.
<b>PPP</b>	Presentation practice production.
<b>SLA</b>	Second language acquisition.
<b>TBA</b>	Task-based approach.
<b>TBL</b>	Task-based learning.
<b>TBLT</b>	Task-based language teaching.
<b>TL</b>	Target language.
<b>US</b>	United states.
<b>Vs</b>	Versus.
<b>&lt;</b>	More than.
<b>&gt;</b>	Less than.

## List of Figures

<b>Figure 1:</b>	Consciousness in a multistore model of memory	46
<b>Figure 2:</b>	Consciousness as a central information exchange	48
<b>Figure 3:</b>	An example of a grammar consciousness-raising task	60
<b>Figure 4:</b>	The process of learning implicit knowledge	78
<b>Figure 5:</b>	An example of an interpretation task	95
<b>Figure 6:</b>	Control group's scores on the MCT	163
<b>Figure 7:</b>	Experimental group's scores on the MCT	164
<b>Figure 8:</b>	Control group's scores on the GJT	182
<b>Figure 9:</b>	Experimental group's scores on the GJT	183

## List of Frequency Polygons

<b>Frequency Polygon 1:</b>	Pre-test scores on the MCT: Control group vs Experimental group	160
<b>Frequency Polygon 2:</b>	Control group's scores on the MCT: Pre-test vs Post-test	161
<b>Frequency Polygon 3:</b>	Experimental group's scores on the MCT: Pre-test vs Post-test	165
<b>Frequency Polygon 4:</b>	Post-test scores on the MCT: Control group vs Experimental group	172
<b>Frequency Polygon 5:</b>	Pre-test scores on the GJT: Control group vs Experimental group	179
<b>Frequency Polygon 6:</b>	Control group's scores on the GJT: Pre-test vs Post-test	180
<b>Frequency Polygon 7:</b>	Experimental group's scores on the GJT: Pre-test vs Post-test	184
<b>Frequency Polygon 8:</b>	Post-test scores on the GJT: Control group vs Experimental group	189

## List of Tables

<b>Table 1:</b>	An example of a GCR problem-solving task	61
<b>Table 2:</b>	Prepositions after adjectives	110
<b>Table 3:</b>	Adverbs used with gradable and ungradable adjectives	114
<b>Table 4:</b>	Basic order of attributive adjectives	126
<b>Table 5:</b>	Examples of attributive adjective word order	127
<b>Table 6:</b>	Issues that determine the strength of quasi-experimental designs	135
<b>Table 7:</b>	The instruction the experimental group received	139
<b>Table 8:</b>	Students' sex	147
<b>Table 9:</b>	Students' age	147
<b>Table 10:</b>	Students' native language	148
<b>Table 11:</b>	Year of getting the BAC	148
<b>Table 12:</b>	Stream of study in the secondary school	149
<b>Table 13:</b>	Students' attitudes towards English	149
<b>Table 14:</b>	Mark of English in the BAC exam	150
<b>Table 15:</b>	Students' educational background knowledge in English	150
<b>Table 16:</b>	Students' attitudes towards learning grammar	151
<b>Table 17:</b>	Teacher's role in grammar teaching	151
<b>Table 18:</b>	Students' attitudes towards GCR tasks as a type of grammar instruction	152
<b>Table 19:</b>	Students' attitudes towards attention to grammar rules	153
<b>Table 20:</b>	The relationship between noticing and input enhancement	154
<b>Table 21:</b>	Noticing the gap	155
<b>Table 22:</b>	The frequency of subjects scores on the MCT at pre-test and post-test	157

<b>Table 23:</b>	Control group's scores on the MCT at pre-test, post-test and their gain scores	162
<b>Table 24:</b>	Experimental group's scores on the MCT at pre-test, post-test and their gain scores	166
<b>Table 25:</b>	Experimental group's squared difference on the MCT	169
<b>Table 26:</b>	The frequency of subjects' scores on the GJT at pre-test and post-test	176
<b>Table 27:</b>	Control group's scores on the GJT at pre-test, post-test and their gain scores	181
<b>Table 28:</b>	Experimental group's scores on the GJT at pre-test, post-test and their gain scores	185
<b>Table 29:</b>	Experimental group's squared difference on the GJT	186

## Contents

	Page
Dedication	I
Acknowledgment	II
Abstract	III
List of Symbols and Abbreviations	IV
List of Figures	V
List of Frequency Polygons	VI
List of Tables	VII
Contents	IX
<b>Introduction</b>	1
1 Aim of Research	2
2 Statement of the Problem	2
3 Research Questions	2
4 Research Hypotheses	2
4.1 The Alternative Hypothesis (H1)	3
4.2 The Null Hypothesis (H0)	3
5 Structure of the Dissertation	3

6	Definition of Key Terms	4
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## **Chapter One: Language Approaches / Methods and Grammar Teaching**

Introduction	7
1.1 Defining Approach, Method, and Technique	7
1.2 Grammar in the Grammar-Translation Method	8
1.3 Grammar in the Direct Method	12
1.4 Grammar in the Audiolingual Approach	14
1.5 Grammar in the Oral-Situational Approach	17
1.6 Grammar in the Cognitive-Code Approach	18
1.7 Grammar in the Communicative Approach	20
1.8 Grammar in the Task-Based Approach	25
Conclusion	34

## **Chapter Two: Grammar Consciousness-Raising Tasks**

Introduction	37
2.1 Definition of Grammar	38
2.2 Kinds of Knowledge	40
2.2.1 Explicit and Implicit Knowledge	40
2.2.2 Declarative and Procedural Knowledge	41
2.3 The Role of Consciousness in Second Language Learning	42
2.3.1 The Different Senses of Consciousness	43
2.3.1.1 Consciousness as Awareness	43
2.3.1.2 Consciousness as Intention	45

2.3.1.3 Consciousness as Knowledge	45
2.3.2 Theories of Consciousness	46
2.3.2.1 Consciousness in Information Processing Theories	46
2.3.2.2 Global Workspace Theory	48
2.4 The Role of Grammar Consciousness-Raising Tasks	49
2.4.1 Grammar Consciousness-Raising	49
2.4.2 Grammar Consciousness-Raising Tasks	52
2.4.3 The Effects of Grammar Consciousness-Raising Tasks	62
2.5 Grammar Consciousness-Raising versus Traditional Grammar	66
2.6 Differential Effects of Awareness, Attention, Noticing and Input Enhancement	72
2.6.1 Awareness	72
2.6.2 Attention	75
2.6.3 Noticing	77
2.6.4 Input Enhancement	80
2.7 Grammar Consciousness-Raising versus Practice	88
Conclusion	96

## **Chapter Three: Order of Adjectives**

Introduction	99
3.1 Defining Adjectives	99
3.2 Kinds of Adjectives	102
3.3 Special Classes of Adjectives	106
3.3.1 Attributive and Predicative Adjectives	106
3.3.2 Gradable and Ungradable Adjectives	111
3.4 Comparison of Adjectives	115
3.5 Order of Adjectives	118
3.5.1 Order of Premodifier Attributive Adjectives	118



4.6.3.1 Pre-test: Control Group versus Experimental Group	177
4.6.3.2 Control Group Pre-test versus Control Group Post-test	177
4.6.3.3 Experimental Group Pre-test versus Experimental Group Post-test	182
4.6.3.4 Post-test: Control Group versus Experimental Group	188
4.7 General Discussion	191
<b>Chapter Five: Pedagogical Implications</b>	
5.1 Reasons for Incorporating GCR Tasks in Second Language Curricula	197
5.2 Suggestions for Effective Grammar Teaching/ Learning	199
<b>General Conclusion</b>	205
<b>Bibliography</b>	209
<b>Appendices</b>	225
<b>Appendix A: Test Used in Pre-testing and Post-testing</b>	
<b>Appendix B: Students' Questionnaire</b>	
<b>Appendix C: Test Correct Items</b>	
<b>Appendix D: The Instruction the Experimental Group Received</b>	
<b>Appendix D 1: GCR Task 1 (Session 1)</b>	
<b>Appendix D 2: GCR Task 2 (Session 2)</b>	
<b>Appendix D 3: GCR Task 3 (Session 2)</b>	
<b>Appendix D 4: GCR Task 4 (Session 3)</b>	
<b>Appendix D 5: GCR Task 5 (Session 3)</b>	
<b>Appendix D 6: GCR Task 6 (Session 4)</b>	
<b>Appendix D 7: GCR Task 7 (Session 4)</b>	
<b>Appendix D 8: GCR Task 8 (Session 5)</b>	

**Appendix E:** An Example of the Implicit Instruction the Control Group  
Received

**Appendix F:** Post-test squared scores of both groups on the MCT

**Appendix G:** Post-test squared scores of both groups on the GJT

## Introduction

The acquisition of grammar has often been a controversial topic in the research of second language acquisition, and so is the topic of grammar instruction. A great deal of studies has been conducted on how grammar is acquired, how grammar should be taught or whether grammar should be taught at all. All these questions are central to the issue of deciding the role of grammar instruction in the language curriculum.

Therefore, there are some researchers who maintain that the teaching of grammar has only a minimal effect on the acquisition of linguistic competence in a second language. Krashen (1985) is a leading advocate of the idea that grammar instruction is not an important part of language acquisition, which is developed instead through massive comprehensible input.

However, the last decade witnessed substantial increases in psycholinguistics-based studies that attempt to draw learners' attention to specific grammatical information in the input in order to promote subsequent processing of such information. The theoretical foundation underlying these studies is the crucial role attention plays in promoting further processing of grammatical information in adult learners' second language development. Indeed, a variety of research findings favour conscious grammar teaching/ learning. Significantly, there are a number of studies that prove the importance of grammar consciousness-raising tasks on facilitating the acquisition of grammatical structures (Fotos and Ellis, 1991; Sheen, 1992; Fotos, 1993, 1994; Yip, 1994; Chan and Li, 2002; Mohamed, 2004; Eckerth, 2008).

Importantly, this study examines the effects of grammar consciousness-raising tasks on facilitating the acquisition of attributive adjective order, with a view of assessing the value of these tasks in the language curriculum.

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## **1 Aim of Research**

This study is conducted to investigate the effects of grammar consciousness-raising tasks on facilitating the acquisition of adjective order among a group of first-year EFL students at the intermediate proficiency level with another group not receiving grammar consciousness-raising tasks at the same proficiency level.

## **2 Statement of the Problem**

During discussions with Algerian EFL teachers at the secondary school and at the university, the common remark is that after many sessions of explicit explanations of grammatical rules, learners still achieve poor results in grammar tests. At the origins of this problem, many teachers have questioned the utility of conscious grammar teaching/ learning. Being interested in grammar teaching, and believing that conscious attention to grammatical structures is necessary in grammar instruction, the researcher attempts to examine the effects of grammar consciousness-raising tasks on facilitating the acquisition of adjective order.

## **3 Research Questions**

Our piece of research aims at addressing the following research question:

Do learners who receive grammar consciousness-raising task treatment perform better on tests measuring proficiency of the target structure than those who do not receive grammar task treatment?

## **4 Research Hypotheses**

As a main step for conducting the present research, the following research hypothesis is put forward:

#### **4.1 The Alternative Hypothesis (H1)**

Students who receive grammar consciousness-raising task treatment would perform better on tests measuring proficiency of the target structure than those who do not receive grammar task treatment.

#### **4.2 The Null Hypothesis (H0)**

Students who receive grammar consciousness-raising task treatment would not perform better on tests measuring proficiency of the target structure than those who do not receive grammar task treatment.

### **5 Structure of the Dissertation**

This dissertation consists of five chapters. The first chapter sheds light on the place of grammar in language teaching approaches/ methods. It provides: a) basic definitions of three main concepts: approach, method, and design; b) an overview of some of the major approaches/ methods in language teaching, namely, the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audiolingual Approach, the Oral Situational Approach, the Cognitive-Code Approach, the Communicative Approach, and the Task-Based Approach; and c) an analysis which tries to locate the position grammar has occupied in each approach or method.

The second chapter provides a theoretical support for grammar consciousness-raising tasks: a) it offers a review of the role of consciousness in second language learning; b) it gives the background leading to the emergence of the grammar consciousness-raising approach and highlights the significance of using grammar consciousness-raising tasks in promoting significant gains in language acquisition; and c) it demonstrates the different effects of awareness, attention, noticing and input enhancement in relation to second language acquisition.

The third chapter provides basic rules for adjective word order. It includes: a) a review of some definitions of adjectives; b) a demonstration of the different kinds

of adjectives including attributive/ predicative and gradable/ ungradable adjectives; and c) an analysis of some rules for attributive adjective word order.

The fourth chapter represents our field work that includes: a) a quasi-experimental study that is of great importance in determining more precisely the research hypothesis based on a multiple choice test and a grammaticality judgement test; b) a questionnaire which investigates students' attitudes towards grammar consciousness-raising tasks as an approach to grammar instruction; c) an interpretation of the obtained results; and d) a discussion of the findings and whether they display any agreement with the current second language acquisition (SLA) research results.

The fifth chapter includes the pedagogical implications. It provides: a) reasons for incorporating grammar consciousness-raising tasks in second language curricula; and b) some pedagogical implications to work with for effective grammar teaching/ learning.

## **6 Definition of Key Terms**

### **Acquisition/ learning**

Language acquisition is a subconscious process; language acquirers are not usually aware of the fact that they are acquiring language, but are only aware of the fact that they are using the language for communication. However, learning refers to conscious knowledge of a second language that occurs as a result of formal study where the learner focuses on the formal properties of the language.

### **Grammar consciousness-raising tasks**

These are tasks used to draw learners' attention to certain target structures. Their primary aim is to develop explicit knowledge of the grammatical structures and to provide opportunities for interaction focused on an exchange of information.

**Second/ foreign language**

A second language is any language learned after the first language (mother tongue). However, a foreign language is the language learned for use in an area where that language is not generally spoken. It is also defined as the language one did not learn at early stages.

**CHAPTER ONE**

**LANGUAGE APPROACHES/ METHODS AND**

**GRAMMAR TEACHING**

Introduction

1.1 Defining Approach, Method, and Technique

1.2 Grammar in the Grammar-Translation Method

1.3 Grammar in the Direct Method

1.4 Grammar in the Audiolingual Approach

1.5 Grammar in the Oral-Situational Approach

1.6 Grammar in the Cognitive-Code Approach

1.7 Grammar in the Communicative Approach

1.8 Grammar in the Task-Based Approach

Conclusion

## **Introduction**

Foreign language teaching has a long history of hundreds of years (modern foreign language teaching dates from the seventeenth century). Throughout this period, changes in language teaching methods have reflected recognition of changes in the kind of proficiency learners need. The most influential teaching approaches and methods include the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audiolingual Approach, the Oral Situational Approach, the Cognitive-Code Approach, the Communicative Approach, and the Task-Based Approach. In these influential methodologies, grammar plays a different role. This chapter will define the precise role of grammar in each approach or method. However, it would be useful to define three terms that are mutually and hierarchically related, and that could lead to some misunderstanding if not clarified at the outset; these terms are approach, method, and technique.

### **1.1 Defining Approach, Method, and Technique**

In describing methods, the difference between the philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory and principles and a set of derived procedures for teaching a language is central. In an attempt to clarify this difference, a scheme was proposed by Anthony in 1963. He identified three levels of conceptualization and organization, which he termed approach, method, and technique. An approach is a set of assumptions dealing with the nature of language and language learning. A method is described as an overall plan for the presentation of language material based upon the selected approach, the aspects of the theory which are put into practice. A technique reflects what actually takes place in the classroom. The arrangement is hierarchical in that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach.

A couple of decades later, Richards and Rodgers (1986) proposed a reformulation of the concept of 'method'. They suggested a model described in

terms of approach, design, and procedure. A method, according to Richards and Rodgers (1982; in Brown, 2001: 14) is “an umbrella term for the specification and interrelation of theory and practice”. An approach defines assumptions, beliefs, and theories about the nature of language and language learning. Designs specify the relationship of those theories to classroom materials and activities. The schematic representation of method describes six important features of designs: objectives, syllabus (criteria for selection and organization of linguistic and subject-matter content), activities, learner role, teacher role, and the role of instructional materials.

The last level of conceptualization and organization within a method is procedure. This encompasses the actual moment-to-moment techniques, practices, and behaviours that operate in teaching a language according to a particular method. It is the level at which a description of how a method realizes its approach and design in classroom is made; how tasks and activities are integrated into lessons and used as the basis for teaching and learning. According to Richards and Rodgers (1986: 26) there are three dimensions to a method at the level of procedure: a) the use of teaching activities to present a new language and to clarify and demonstrate aspects of the target language; b) the ways in which particular teaching activities are used for practising language; and c) the procedures and techniques used in giving feedback to learners.

## **1.2 Grammar in the Grammar-Translation Method**

The Grammar-Translation Method prevailed in language classes during the 1840's and the 1940's. It lasted in most parts of the world till the 1950's, and is still in use in certain other parts. Its basic assumptions originated from the nature of the languages taught in the nineteenth century, namely, Greek and Latin. These languages were taught essentially in their written forms because they were no longer used for communication. According to Prator and Celce Murcia (1979; in Brown, 2001: 18-19) the major features of the Grammar-Translation Method are:

1. Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of target language.
2. Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words.
3. Long, elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given.
4. Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form of inflection of words.
5. Reading of difficult classical texts is begun early.
6. Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis.
7. Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.
8. Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.

The major focus of the Grammar-Translation Method is to develop the student's mind to be able to read the literature of the language in question. Hence, the written language is emphasized at the expense of the oral one; little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking or listening. The student's native language is the medium of instruction. It is used to explain new items and to enable comparisons to be made between the foreign language and the mother tongue. Language teachers organize, control and lead the lesson by means of translation exercises, and learners are regarded as passive recipients. In a word, it is a teacher-fronted method.

The Grammar-Translation Method, as its name indicates, focuses on the teaching of the second language grammar. A typical lesson begins with a presentation of a grammar point which is then explained and illustrated in a text, followed by practice activities which involve translating sentences from and into the target language. Therefore, grammar is taught deductively by the presentation and study of grammatical rules which are then practised via translation exercises. These rules are usually illustrated in independent sentences not in the larger context where the grammatical and semantic features operate. In most Grammar-Translation texts, a syllabus was followed by the sequencing of grammar forms throughout a text, and there is an attempt to teach grammar in an organized and systematic way (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). In other words, grammar is an essential component in foreign language teaching. Gascoigne (2002: 22) points out:

In fact, the dominant method of second language instruction from the late eighteenth to the early twentieth century, the grammar-translation approach, viewed grammar as the sole means to, and at times even the object of, language study.

Furthermore, the dominant role for explicit grammar teaching is defined by the Grammar-Translation Method. In practice, Grammar-Translation courses followed a grammar syllabus and lessons typically began with an explicit statement of the rule for the purpose of developing the student's mind. According to Gascoigne (2002: 22):

In grammar translation, the development of the mind, as well as of translation skills, was accomplished through a deductive form of teaching, moving from the statement of the rule to the example. In the classroom, the student was a passive recipient of rules and engaged in practice activities and translation exercises requiring the application of explicit grammar rules.

In spite of its dominance in European foreign language teaching from the early days to the 1940's, the Grammar-Translation Method showed many weaknesses which are summed up by Al Mutawa and Kailani (1989: 15) as follows:

- It [the method] aims at knowing the grammar of the language and the language itself.
- It provides the learner with rules, but does not enable him to construct systematically correct sentences.
- It neglects the speaking skill because it is primarily concerned with the written language.
- Vocabulary is translated on lists of separate words out of any context.

Another important shortcoming of this method concerns communication. Students learn more about how the language works than how to use it effectively in communicative situations. In other words, genuine communication skills were ignored.

### **1.3 Grammar in the Direct Method**

Because of its weaknesses, the Grammar-Translation Method was replaced by the Direct Method in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century; it coincided with a new school of thinking ‘the Reform Movement’ in language teaching. The basic premise of the Direct Method was that learning a foreign language is very much like first language learning. In this light, an emphasis was put on oral interaction, spontaneous use of language, no translation between first and second languages, and little or no analysis of grammatical rules. Richards and Rodgers (1986: 9-10) summarized the major principles of the Direct Method:

1. Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language.
2. Only everyday vocabulary and sentences are taught.
3. Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes.
4. Grammar was taught inductively.
5. New teaching points were introduced orally.
6. Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, object, and pictures; abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas.
7. Both speech and listening comprehension were taught.
8. Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasized.

Although the Direct Method gained considerable popularity, it showed some limitations which can be summed up as follows:

- It is difficult to use because of the constraints of budget and classroom size as outlined by Brown (2001: 22):

The Direct Method did not take well in public education, where the constraints of budget, classroom size, time and teacher background made such a method difficult to use.

- It lacks a rigorous basis in applied linguistic theory.
- It is said to be time consuming because the meaning of the words especially abstract ones cannot be explained in the native language.
- It requires a teacher who is fluent in the language, and can use adequate teaching techniques, but in practice, it is difficult to meet these requirements.

Richards and Rodgers (1986: 10) state that:

it required teachers who were native speakers or who had native like fluency in the foreign language. It was largely dependent on the teacher's skill, rather than on a textbook, and not all teachers were proficient enough in the foreign language to adhere to the principles of the method.

One of the most radical changes brought about by the Direct Method was the role of grammar in the classroom. The method adopts an inductive approach to grammar teaching. The meaning of the grammatical structures is not to be given through explanation in either the native language or the target language but it is to be induced from the way the form is used in the context or situation. In the Direct

Method, students were encouraged to create their own structural generalizations from what they had been learning via inductive activities (Gascoigne, 2002: 23). Hence, grammar is taught through situations not rules; it is indirectly acquired through practice. Consequently, the dominant role of explicit grammar in the language classroom as defined by the Grammar-Translation Method was challenged by the Direct Method of language instruction.

#### **1.4 Grammar in the Audiolingual Approach**

During World War II, the US was thrust into a worldwide conflict, heightening the need for Americans to become orally proficient in the languages of both their allies and their enemies. In this light, the Army Method was developed through a US army programme known as the Army Specialized Training Programme (ASTP). Numerous foundation stones of the Direct Method were borrowed and injected into this new approach. In all its variations and adaptations, the Army Method came to be known in the 1950's as the Audiolingual Approach (Brown, 2001: 22-23).

The Audiolingual Approach was firmly grounded in linguistic and psychological theory. It originated from Structuralism, defended by Bloomfield, and behaviouristic psychology, advocated by Skinner. According to Structural linguistics, learning a language entails mastering the elements or building blocks of the language and learning the rules by which these elements are combined, from phoneme to morpheme to word to phrase to sentence type. On the other hand, advocates of Behaviourism, viewed language learning as a matter of habit formation. Habits are developed following a stimulus-response pattern, and reinforcement which encourages the repetition of the response in the future until it becomes habitual (Brown, 1980).

Unlike the Grammar-Translation Method which stressed intellectual and literary study, the Audiolingual Approach rested on techniques of mimicry and

memorization of language patterns and forms designed to develop the ability for oral communication. Furthermore, the method emphasized repetition and practice of structural patterns until they are well established. Oral proficiency is equated with accurate pronunciation and grammar, and the ability to respond quickly and accurately in speech situations.

The main features underlying the Audiolingual Approach were pointed out by Moulton (1961; in Kailani and Al-Mutawa, 1989: 19) as follows:

- Language is speech, not writing. That is, it is the spoken aspect of language that concerns structural linguistics.
- Language is a set of habits. This principle means that language is acquired by imitation and practice.
- Teach the language, not about the language. This means that we must teach pupils a set of habits, not a ‘set of rules’.
- A language is what native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say.

In spite of its contributions, Audiolingualism was criticized on many grounds. Its practical results fell short of expectations. Students were often found to be unable to transfer the skills acquired to real communication outside the classroom. Loup (1996: 358) holds that:

The ALM is the wrong example to select to illustrate that grammatical competence develops from pattern acquisition. As a learning technique, it was a dismal failure. Myriads of L2 learners attempted to become fluent by memorizing formulaic routines and manipulating patterns, but these techniques did not transfer into either grammatical competence or communicative fluency.

After all, it was realized that learning a language is a much more complex endeavor than the acquisition of patterns and routines, and that errors are not necessarily to be avoided at all costs.

In the Audiolingual Approach, grammar is essentially taught by inductive analogy which involves the processes of generalization and discrimination, rather than by deductive explanation. More specifically, students are not given explanations of rules until they have practised a pattern in a variety of contexts. In fact, they are expected to acquire a perception of the analogies involved through drill activities which enable them to use the grammatical structures accurately (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Moreover, proponents of this method believe that students should be able to use the language subconsciously, like native speakers, without conscious learning of grammar rules.

Although there is little provision for explicit explanations in the audiolingual lesson, subsequent pattern practice and substitution drills such as “person number, substitutions, patterned response drills, singular-plural transformations, tense transformations, directed dialogue, cued response, and translation drills” (Omaggio Hadley 2001; in Gascoigne, 2002: 26) kept some grammatical structures in focus.

## **1.5 Grammar in the Oral-Situational Approach**

The Oral-Situational Approach, also known as the Oral Approach or Situational Language Teaching, was developed by the British applied linguists during the 1930's to the 1960's. It was considered "as an alternative approach to the Audiolingual Approach promoted in the United States" (Ellis, 2005a: 3). The theory of language underlying Situational Language Teaching can be characterized as a type of British Structuralism. Speech was regarded as the basis of language, and structure was viewed as being at the heart of speaking ability. In terms of language theory, there was little to distinguish such a view from that proposed by American linguists, such as Fries. However, the notion developed by British linguists, such as Firth and Halliday, that structures must be linked to situations in which they could be used, gave Situational Language Teaching one of its distinctive features (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 35).

The theory of learning underlying the Oral-Situational Approach was based on a behaviourist learning theory. This theory viewed language learning as habit formation. Ellis (2005a: 3) pointed that habits were formed when learners learned the correct responses to stimuli through repeated practice.

According to Richards and Rodgers (1986: 34), the main assumptions on which the Oral-Situational Approach is based are:

1. Language teaching begins with the spoken language. Material is taught orally before it is presented in written form.
2. The target language is the language of the classroom.
3. New language points are introduced and practised situationally.

4. Vocabulary selection procedures are followed to ensure that an essential general service vocabulary is covered.
5. Items of grammar are graded following the principle that simple forms should be taught before complex ones.
6. Reading and writing are introduced once a sufficient lexical and grammatical basis is established.

Like the Direct Method, Situational Language Teaching adopts an inductive approach to the teaching of grammar. The meaning of a structure is not to be given through explanation in either the native tongue or in the target language; it is to be induced from the way the form is used in a situation. In accordance to its theory, the approach rejects explicit grammar teaching. Ellis (2005a: 3-4) points that “According to this theory, grammar is learned inductively; there is no need for (and no value) in explicit explanations of grammar points”.

Clearly, the Oral-Situational Approach lacks explicit rule presentation; but, it essentially follows a grammatical syllabus. Grammatical items are graded following the principle that simple forms should be taught before the complex ones. The textbook contains tightly organized lessons planned around different grammatical structures. Accuracy in grammar is regarded as crucial and errors are to be avoided (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

### **1.6 Grammar in the Cognitive-Code Approach**

The Cognitive-Code Approach was developed as a reaction to the behaviourist features of the Audiolingual Approach in the 1960's. The approach put an emphasis on the learning of rules through meaningful practice and creativity. It derived its theoretical framework from both cognitive psychology and Chomsky's theory of Transformational Generative Grammar (Chastain, 1976).

With the Chomskyan revolution in linguistics, the attention of linguists was drawn towards the deep structure of language. There are universals which underlie all languages. These are rules which can generate any sentence from a common deep structure; each language may use different transformations to get to the surface structure. Moreover, Chomsky (1965) believes that from a finite set of rules an infinite number of (well-formed) sentences can be created. In other words, he claims that language is a rule-governed creativity. The learner, who succeeded in learning a target language, began to be viewed as an individual who can generate any sentence or novel combinations of utterances after having internalized the basic system of rules.

At the same time, the cognitive and mentalist theories had a major influence on cooperative learning. These emphasized the importance of learners' engagement in some sort of cognitive reasoning with the guidance of a teacher. In contrast to Behaviourism, language was no longer defined in terms of habit formation; it was "a process of acquiring conscious control of the phonological, grammatical, and lexical patterns of the second language, largely through study and analysis of these patterns as a body of knowledge" (Carroll, 1966: 102).

The Cognitive-Code Approach considers abstract mental processes to be part of language learning, and learners use their innate language abilities to understand the underlying grammatical rules of language. It allows for a conscious study of grammatical rules. Moreover, it concentrates on meaningful practice achieved when the learner understands the rules involved in practice. Therefore, the teaching of grammar in this approach is deductive. Learners are encouraged and helped to understand the grammatical rule before they practise and use it creatively in meaningful contexts. Carroll (1966: 102) states that:

The theory attaches more importance to the learner's understanding of the structure of the foreign language than to the facility in using that structure, since it is believed that provided the student has a proper degree of cognitive control over the structures of the language, facility will develop automatically with the use of the language in meaningful situations.

Evidently, the Cognitive-Code Approach reemphasizes the role of abstract cognitive abilities and the student's mind in language learning (somehow similar to the Grammar Translation's goal of training the mind), and also reinstates explicit grammar presentation and practice in the classroom. In fact, Cognitive Code Learning (CCL) methodology began to inject more deductive rule learning into language classes. In an amalgamation of Audiolingual and Grammar-Translation techniques, classes retained the drilling typical of Audiolingualism but added healthy doses of rule explanations and reliance on grammatical sequencing of material (Brown, 2001: 24).

Furthermore, Cognitive-Code Learning resulted in a liberation for teachers from the emphasis of the Audiolingual Method on pattern drills as a means of grammar teaching, without explicit explanation of grammatical rules. More than anything else, it changed the orientation of teachers and above all their attitudes to errors. These are to be viewed not only inevitable in the learning process but also as a positive indication that learning was taking place.

### **1.7 Grammar in the Communicative Approach**

The early 1970's saw the rise of a revolutionary approach to teaching foreign languages known as the Communicative Approach, or Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). It grew out of the work of such well known linguists as Hymes

(1972) and Halliday (1973). In fact, CLT holds that language is a means for the expression of functional meaning and that the primary function of language is interaction and communication. One of the basic tenets of CLT is the interpretation of ‘competence’. The concept of competence originates from Chomsky’s definition of it as the knowledge of “an ideal native speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community” (Chomsky, 1965: 5). Therefore, the primary focus of linguistic theory, competence, is to apply the knowledge of language in actual performance. Hymes (1972) expanded the concept of competence beyond grammar to contrast Chomsky’s interpretation. He coined a new concept which he called ‘communicative competence’. The latter constitutes the desired goal of CLT which views language, first and above all, as a system of communication. According to Hymes, communicative competence is “dependent upon both [tacit] knowledge and [ability for use]” (Hymes, 1972: 282). In other words, communicative competence includes not only knowledge of rules of grammar, but also the ability to use language appropriately in various social contexts. Therefore, a communicative Approach is usually seen to need a syllabus “designed around semantic notions, such as time, place, and quantity, and functions (that is communicative uses of language)” (Lock, 1996: 266).

Celce-Murcia (1991: 8) summed up the basic aspects included in the Communicative Approach as follows:

- a. It is assumed that the goal of language teaching is learner ability to communicate in the target language.
- b. The content of a language course will include semantic notions and social functions, not just linguistic structures.
- c. Students regularly work in groups or in pairs to transfer (and, if necessary negotiate) meaning in situations where one

- person has information that the other (s) lack.
- d. Students often engage in role-play or dramatization to adjust their use of the target language to different social contexts.
  - e. Classroom materials and activities are often authentic to reflect real-life situations and demands.
  - f. [All four skills] are integrated from the beginning.
  - g. The teacher's role is primarily to facilitate communication and only secondary to correct errors.
  - h. The teacher should be able to use the target language fluently and appropriately.

Hyme's notion of communicative competence was examined by a number of language educators including Canale and Swain, who provided an elaborate definition of the term in 1980. In their model of analysis, there are four dimensions of communicative competence: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Grammatical competence is the domain of grammatical and lexical capacity. Sociolinguistic competence refers to an understanding of the social context in which communication takes place. Discourse competence refers to the interpretation of individual message elements in terms of their interconnectedness and of how meaning is represented in relationship to the entire discourse or text. Strategic competence refers to the coping strategies that communicators employ to initiate, terminate, maintain, repair, and redirect communication (Canale and Swain, 1980; in Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 71). It is worth noting that learning a foreign language successfully depends on how well learners have developed their communicative competence.

Accordingly, CLT requires a learner-centred, communication-oriented language instruction based on learners language learning needs. Therefore, learners are provided with more practice and experience of language used in real situations and contexts through the use of authentic materials and activities. In these activities, learners share their knowledge and experience with their classmates, and have a great responsibility for their own learning rather than relying on their teachers who act as facilitators.

When grammar is concerned, the Communicative Approach focuses on meaning along with grammar. For some linguists and language teaching specialists, as Richards and Rodgers (1986: 66) pointed out, “Communicative Language Teaching means little more than an integration of grammatical and functional teaching”. Littlewood (1981; in Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 66) holds “One of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language”. Moreover, many scholars closely associated with the development of CLT continued to stress the relationship between grammar and communication. For instance, Canale and Swain’s (1980) definition of communicative competence includes grammar. Widdowson (1990: 98) has written 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”.

Furthermore, the proponents of the Communicative Approach conceive grammar as a means to an end, which speeds up and provides a more efficient path to second language acquisition, rather than an end in itself. Halliday (1985; in Rea Dickins and Woods, 1988: 630) claims that traditional grammar asks the question, What do these forms mean? However, the question should be, How are these meanings expressed? Hence, grammatical forms are taught not for their own sake but as a means of meaningful communication. In fact, many researchers have

different opinions on how these grammatical structures are to be taught in a communicative classroom. Therefore, to find an adequate answer to this question, it is important to refer to what Howatt (1984: 279) described as weak and strong versions of CLT.

On the one hand, proponents of the weak version of CLT argue that learners learn the language in order to use it. That is, “learn the rules and then apply them in life-like communication” (Thornbury, 1999: 18). As an example to such an approach to CLT is what is commonly known as the PPP lesson (for presentation, practice, and production). Language forms are first presented under the guidance of the teacher, then practised in a number of exercises, again under the teacher’s control. The final stage of the lesson gives the learners the opportunity to produce the chosen forms in the context of communicative activities which are related to their lives and interests. Regardless of how the teacher makes it genuinely communicative, the PPP model clearly treats language as a product made up of linguistic forms and structures behind the pragmatic functional use of language. Therefore, “the exclusion of explicit attention to grammar was never a necessary part of CLT” (Thompson, 1996; in Liao, 2000: 4).

On the other hand, the strong version of CLT can be summed up as the view that we use a language in order to learn it. Clearly, undue attention is paid to explicit grammar teaching. Instead of a presentation and practice approach to language structures, the teacher begins with classroom activities that help learners to learn for themselves how the language works as a formal system. Hatch (1978; in Larsen-Freeman, 2001: 36) points that “One learns how to do conversation, one learns how to interact verbally and, out of this interaction, syntactic structures are developed”.

In both cases, the Communicative Approach does not reject grammar, but sees it as being only one element amongst others in the social use of language. In fact, the overt teaching of decontextualized isolated grammatical structures is

questioned, and clearly the importance of presenting grammar in authentic contexts is highlighted. Brown (1994: 349) states:

Reason, balance, and the experience of teacher in recent CLT tradition tell us that judicious attention to grammatical form in the adult classroom is not only helpful, if appropriate techniques are used, but essential to a speedy learning process.

In sum, communication is not the only necessary component in second language (L2) learning, grammar too has an integral part. If communication is the aim, then the fact remains that it can be generally achieved by means of a grammatical structure or by a series of such sentences logically related. Seen from this perspective, grammar lies at the heart of communication. Therefore, grammar and communication are two complementary elements necessary for effective language use. Brown (1994: 348) holds that:

no one can tell you that grammar is irrelevant, or grammar is no longer needed in a CLT framework. No one doubts the prominence of grammar as an organizational framework within which communication operates.

### **1.8 Grammar in the Task-Based Approach**

Since the advent of Communicative Language Teaching and the belief that language is best learned when it is being used to communicative messages, the communicative task has ascended to a position of prominence as a unit of organization in syllabus design. Research findings in the field of general education, into teachers' actual classroom practices, and in second language acquisition have

led to claims that the Task Syllabus (Long, 1985) has a richer potential for promoting successful second language learning than do other syllabus types.

In 1976, the British applied linguist David Wilkins suggested a basic distinction between what he called ‘synthetic approaches’ to syllabus design and ‘analytical’ approaches. All syllabuses, he suggested, fitted one or other of these approaches. In ‘synthetic’ approaches, as Wilkins (1976: 2) states:

Different parts of the language are taught separately and step by step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of parts until the whole structure of language has been built up.

Such approaches represent the ‘traditional’ way of organizing the syllabus, and reflect the common-sense belief that the central role of instruction is to simplify the learning challenge for the student. One way to simplify learning is to break the content down into its constituent parts, and introduce each part separately and step-by-step. A related concept that was popular in the 1960’s was that of mastery learning. Having broken the subject matter down and sequenced it from easy to difficult, each item of content was introduced to the learner in a serial fashion, and a new item was not supposed to be introduced until the current item had been thoroughly mastered (Nunan, 2006: 1).

In his book ‘Notional Syllabuses’, however, Wilkins offered an alternative to synthetic approaches. These are known as ‘analytical’ approaches because the learner is presented with holistic ‘chunks’ of language and is required to analyse them, or break them down into their constituent parts. Wilkins (1976: 13) argues that:

Prior analysis of the total language system into a set of discrete pieces of language that is a necessary precondition for the adoption of a synthetic approach is largely superfluous... [Such approaches] are organized in terms of the purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language that are necessary to meet these purposes.

All syllabus proposals that do not depend on a prior analysis of the language belong to this second category. In addition to Task-Based Syllabuses, we have project-based, content-based, thematic, and text-based syllabuses. Despite their differences, they all have one thing in common - they do not rely on prior analysis of the language into its discrete points. Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), then, grew out of this alternative approach to language pedagogy (Nunan, 2006: 2). It has gradually been gaining ground since Prabhu originally conceived and implemented the first Task-Based programme in India in 1979. He headed a project in schools in South India in which learners were simply presented with a series of problems and information/ opinion gap activities which were solved under teacher guidance through the medium of English. One of the reasons for its spread is the fact that it readily fits in with other communicative approaches to foreign language teaching (Willis and Willis, 2001: 175).

Since then, the concept of 'task' has become an important element in syllabus design, classroom teaching and learner assessment, although teachers brought up in tradition methods still struggle with the concept. It underpins several significant research agendas, and it has influenced educational policy-making in both English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) settings.

According to Nunan (2006: 2), Task-Based Language Teaching has strengthened the following principles and practices:

1. A needs-based approach to content selection.
2. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
3. The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.
4. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language, but also on the learning process itself.
5. An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.
6. The linking of classroom language learning with language use outside the classroom.

Tasks have been defined in various ways. Nunan (2004) draws a basic distinction between real-world or target tasks, and pedagogical tasks. Target tasks, as the name implies, refer to uses of language in the world beyond the classroom. Pedagogical tasks are those that occur in the classroom.

Long (1985: 89) frames his approach to TBLT in terms of target tasks, arguing that a task is:

a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form, buying a pair of shoes, making an airline reservation, borrowing a library book, taking a driving test, typing a letter, weighing a patient, sorting letters, talking a hotel reservation, writing a cheque, finding a street destination and helping someone across a road. In other words, by 'task' is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between.

When they are transformed from the real world to the classroom, tasks become pedagogical in nature. Breen (1987: 23) offers a definition of a pedagogical task as:

...any structured language learning endeavour which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. 'Task' is therefore assumed to refer to a range of workplans which have the overall purposes of facilitating language learning - from the simple and brief exercise type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem-solving or simulations and decision-making.

Willis (1996: 23) defines a task as an activity where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome.

Finally, in a recent book that looks at ‘task’ more from a language acquisition perspective than a pedagogical one (although it does also deal with aspects of pedagogy), Ellis (2003: 16) defines a task in the following way:

A task is a workplan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills and also various cognitive processes.

Nunan (2006: 4) argues that a task is a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, a middle and an end.

What all these definitions have in common, however, is that they recognize tasks as being the central component in a language curriculum, endorse the concept of organizing a syllabus around communicative tasks that learners need to engage in outside the classroom, and accept the view that curricula should be learner-centred, rather than language-centred.

Notwithstanding, a Task-Based Approach (TBA) to language pedagogy can provide opportunities for the kinds of interaction which have been suggested to promote acquisition. Long (1989) proposes four general points regarding the effectiveness of different task types:

1. Two-way, reciprocal tasks produce more negotiation of meaning than one-way non-reciprocal tasks, since the former make the exchange of meaning obligatory, whereas the latter do not.
2. Planned tasks, where learners prepare their speech or think about what they will say beforehand, encourage more negotiation than unplanned tasks.
3. Closed tasks, where there is a definite solution and ending, produce more negotiation than open tasks, where there is no clear resolution.
4. Convergent tasks, where the participants must agree on a solution, promote more negotiation than divergent tasks, where different views are permitted.

As far as task type is concerned, Prabhu (1987) identified three broad task types: information gap, reasoning gap and problem solving. Willis (1996) offers another classification of tasks which subsumes these types and is intended as a generative pedagogic tool. She suggests that we first draw up a series of topics (e.g. families) suited to our learners. She then identifies a number of operations, based on a chosen topic to be carried out in the target language. These

operations are: listing, ordering and sorting, comparing, problem-solving, sharing personal experiences, and creative tasks.

While task definitions vary somewhat, they all emphasize the fact that tasks involve communicative language use in which the user's attention is focused on meaning rather than grammatical form. This does not mean that form is not important. Nunan's definition refers to the deployment of grammatical knowledge to express meaning, highlighting the fact that meaning and form are highly interrelated, and that grammar exists to enable the language user to express different communicative meanings. However, tasks differ from grammatical exercises in that "learners carrying out a task are free to use any language they can to achieve the outcome: language forms are not prescribed in advance" (Willis and Willis, 2001: 174).

A Task-Based Approach to grammar focuses primarily on performing a communicative task. Unlike traditional approaches to grammar, the grammar focus comes after the task has been completed. It also involves a degree of detective work on the part of the learner, i.e., learning by discovery, and therefore relies less on the teacher presenting a set of ready-made rules as a basis for subsequent practice. The focus on successfully performing a communicative task helps to prevent the sidelining of contextualized meaning (as opposed to form/ structure) and at the same time contributes to the meaningfulness of examining language structure. As Willis and Willis (2001: 174) comment "In task-based approaches, therefore, language development is prompted by language use, with the study of language form playing a secondary role".

Recent research, however, suggests that while communicative language use is the deriving force for language acquisition we also need a focus at some point on language form if acquisition is to be maximally efficient. Skehan (1996: 196) argues that unless we encourage a focus on form learners will develop more effective strategies for achieving communicative goals without an accompanying

development of their language system. They will develop a 'classroom dialect', which enables them to exchange meanings in spite of the shortcomings of their language. As a result they will fossilize at a relatively low level of language development. He suggests that learning is prompted by the need to communicate, but argues that learning will be more efficient if there is a need to focus on accuracy and a critical focus on language form within the Task-Based cycle.

The challenge for Task-Based Learning (TBL), therefore, is to devise a methodology which affords learners the freedom to engage natural learning processes in the creation of a meaning system, but which also provides them with incentives to restructure their system in the light of language input.

The need for a focus on form within a Task-Based methodology may be met in part by manipulating the circumstances of communication in the classroom. Tasks carried out orally in groups or pairs demand a relatively low level of accuracy. Tasks which involve a presentation to the class as a whole, or the preparation of written output, demand a higher level of accuracy. This is in the line with natural language use. We are more conscious of language form in public presentation than in private use. Willis and Willis (1996: 38) offer a detailed rationale for these procedures, a framework involving a pre-task phase followed by a task-planning report cycle, in which learners move from pair discussion of a task to a public report of their findings.

A three-part cycle is central to this methodology. At the task stage, learners-working on two or three are encouraged to use whatever language they can recall to fulfil the task outcome; the teacher stands back, but encourages all attempts at communication. Following the task there is a planning stage, where the teacher helps learners plan a public presentation of their task findings in preparation for the report to the class. It is at the planning stage that a focus on form is natural and teacher advice and correction is likely to be of most use, since learners, faced with a wider audience, will naturally want to present as accurately and fluently as they

can. At the report phase, the teacher simply acts as chair, commenting on the content and summing up at the end. After the task cycle, a 'language focus' phase allows time for deeper and more systematic study of the language arising out of the task cycle, from the text or task recording; this can also incorporate examples from tasks and texts used in previous lessons (Willis and Willis, 2001: 178).

A critical focus on language form may be achieved through grammar consciousness-raising (GCR) tasks which help the learners notice a specific feature of language as a first step towards its acquisition. Such tasks, then, encourage the learner to make hypotheses and further generalizations about the language which contribute to present or future learning (Sharwood-Smith, 1981; Rutherford, 1987; Skehan, 1998).

In short, TBLT is an approach which seeks to allow students to work at their own pace and within their own level and areas of interest to process and restructure their interlanguage. It moves away from a prescribed development sequence and introduces learner freedom and autonomy into the learning process.

## **Conclusion**

Given the preceding historical survey, we can find that grammar has played a role in the teaching and learning of foreign languages. Although all the approaches and methods discussed have a different belief concerning the precise position of grammar, they all consider it part of language teaching. Thus, grammar remains central in any teaching/ learning situation as Al-Mutawa and Kailani (1989: 69) put it "A language cannot be learned without learning its grammar because it is the element that makes meaning in language use".

It is clear that grammar is the necessary part of language, so the most important question is how to incorporate it into language instruction. Therefore, recent work investigating the pedagogical effectiveness of grammar consciousness-raising tasks has been carried out.

# **CHAPTER TWO**

## **GRAMMAR CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING TASKS**

### Introduction

#### 2.1 Definition of Grammar

#### 2.2 Kinds of Knowledge

##### 2.2.1 Explicit and Implicit Knowledge

##### 2.2.2 Declarative and Procedural Knowledge

#### 2.3 The Role of Consciousness in Second Language Learning

##### 2.3.1 The Different Senses of Consciousness

###### 2.3.1.1 Consciousness as Awareness

###### 2.3.1.2 Consciousness as Intention

###### 2.3.1.3 Consciousness as Knowledge

##### 2.3.2 Theories of Consciousness

###### 2.3.2.1 Consciousness in Information Processing Theories

###### 2.3.2.2 Global Workspace Theory

#### 2.4 The Role of Grammar Consciousness-Raising Tasks

##### 2.4.1 Grammar Consciousness-Raising

##### 2.4.2 Grammar Consciousness-Raising Tasks

##### 2.4.3 The Effects of Grammar Consciousness-Raising Tasks

#### 2.5 Grammar Consciousness-Raising versus Traditional Grammar

#### 2.6 Differential Effects of Awareness, Attention, Noticing and Input

##### Enhancement

##### 2.6.1 Awareness

##### 2.6.2 Attention

##### 2.6.3 Noticing

##### 2.6.4 Input Enhancement

#### 2.7 Grammar Consciousness-Raising versus Practice

### Conclusion

## Introduction

Second language acquisition (SLA) is a relatively new field of study. While it may not be possible to identify its precise starting point, many researchers would agree that the late sixties marked the onset of an intensive period of empirical and theoretical interest in how second languages are acquired (Ellis, 2005b).

Within the field of SLA, there has been a long debate over conscious versus unconscious learning. Krashen (1982) is a leading advocate of the idea that acquisition is largely unconscious process. All what is needed to trigger it is massive comprehensible input of the target language.

In contrast to Krashen's theories, many researchers have come to observe that L2 learning is a much more conscious experience than was heretofore believed, that acquisition involves conscious processes of which the most fundamental are attention and awareness. In a similar vein, according to Schmidt's noticing hypothesis (1990), attention to target language forms is necessary for acquisition; these forms will not be acquired unless they are noticed. Schmidt (1995: 20), further, states that "What learners notice in input is what becomes intake for learning".

Recently, researchers hold new perspectives towards grammar teaching. Much of their focus was on what type of grammar instruction is most effective. Therefore, the bulk of research since the mid-nineties has focused on finding various methods to integrate formal instruction within a communicative framework. The methods used are analogies to some advocated in the SLA literature. For instance, the role of input enhancement has been heavily debated. This question is closely related to such basic issues as the exact relationship between input and intake, the significance of explicit and implicit knowledge and learning, and the role of attention and consciousness in this process. Most

important of all, there are a number of studies that prove the importance of grammar consciousness-raising tasks, where attention is drawn to the grammatical features of the language that are held to be facilitative of acquisition.

## 2.1 Definition of Grammar

To begin with, it is necessary to define the word grammar. The definitions go from the most general and narrow to the most elaborated and broad. A number of existing definitions are chronologically listed as follows:

“English grammar is chiefly a system of syntax that decides the order and patterns in which words are arranged in sentences” (Close, 1982: 13).

“We shall use grammar in reference to the mechanism according to which language works when it is used to communicate with other people. We cannot see this mechanism concretely because it is represented rather abstractly in the human mind. One way of describing this mechanism is a set of rules which allow us to put words together in certain ways, but which do not allow others” (Leech, *et al.* 1982: 51).

“Grammar may be roughly defined as the way a language manipulates and combines words (or bits of words) in order to form longer units of meaning” (Ur, 1988: 4).

“Grammar is a combination of morphology and syntax which together make up the system of language” (Alexander, 1990: 379).

“Grammar is a system of rules governing the conventional arrangement and relationship of words in a sentence” (Brown, 1994: 347).

“At its heart, then, grammar consists of two fundamental ingredients- syntax and morphology- and together they help us to identify

grammatical forms which serve to enhance and sharpen the expression of meaning” (Batstone, 1994: 4).

“...grammar (ing) is one of the dynamic linguistic processes of pattern formulation in language, which can be used by humans for making meaning in context-appropriate ways” (Larsen-Freeman, 2003: 142).

Noteworthy, we can classify these definitions into three classes. Firstly, the definitions of Close (1982), Alexander (1990) and Brown (1994) reflect the structuralist point of view of grammar which refers only to a combination of morphology and syntax. In other words, grammar means the study of morphology and syntax.

Secondly, a more global view of grammar is found in the definitions of Ur (1988), Batstone (1994) and others. For these researchers, grammar is not just form, what is more important is to learn its use in particular contexts. This view is also held by Larsen-Freeman (1991) who states that grammar involves interrelationships among form, meaning, and context including the dimensions of semantics and pragmatics. Celce-Murcia (1991) also posits that grammar should never be taught for its own sake, but always with reference to meaning, social factors and discourse. In other words, grammar is the study of how syntax (form), semantics (meaning) and pragmatics (use) work together to enable individuals to communicate through language (Nunan, 2001: 101).

Thirdly, in the definitions of Leech, *et al.* (1982) and Larsen-Freeman (2003) the cognitive view of grammar is prevailing. Accordingly, grammar is seen in terms of its underlying systems with a relation to different mental processes involved in its acquisition. Therefore, Larsen-Freeman proposes that grammar teaching should reflect the dynamic nature of grammar. While grammar can be taught as a product, it can also be considered a process.

Defining the term grammar is not sufficient. We have to consider the important distinction in cognitive psychology between types of knowledge that lies at the basis of great amount of discussion of the mental grammar and the processes and strategies used to develop it. Therefore, it is useful to be aware that there are kinds of knowledge necessary to gain proficiency in a second language. These are known as explicit/ implicit knowledge (Bialyslock, 1982) and declarative/ procedural knowledge (Anderson, 1983).

## **2.2 Kinds of Knowledge**

The distinction between explicit/ implicit knowledge and declarative/ procedural knowledge is of considerable importance in both cognitive psychology and second language acquisition (SLA).

### **2.2.1 Explicit and Implicit Knowledge**

Explicit knowledge refers to knowledge that is analysed (i.e. it can be described and classified), abstract (i.e. it takes the form of some underlying generalization of actual linguistic behaviour), and explanatory (i.e. it can provide an objective account of how grammar is used in actual communication).

Ellis (1993a) holds that explicit knowledge is available to the learner as a conscious representation. It cannot be developed together with metalinguistic knowledge (i.e. knowledge of grammatical terms) although this may help in its articulation. Moreover, Ellis (1995) claims that this type of knowledge manifests itself in some form of problem solving activity (e.g. a sentence transformation exercise), but it can also be accessed in natural language use (e.g. a conversation) that allows time for monitoring.

Ellis (1993a) identifies two types of implicit knowledge: formulaic knowledge and rule-based knowledge. Formulaic knowledge consists of ready made chunks of language such as whole utterances (e.g. I don't know) or utterance

frames with one or more empty slots (e.g. can I have a\_\_\_\_\_?). Rule-based knowledge consists of generalized and abstract structures which have already been internalized.

In both cases, as Ellis (1993a: 93) points out, the knowledge is intuitive and automatic (i.e. it can be easily accessed for use in spontaneous language use). It is unanalysed in the sense that language users are not aware of the knowledge they hold. This is illustrated by the fact that native speakers are usually unable to describe the rules they use to form actual sentences. Implicit knowledge is typically manifest in some form of naturally occurring language behaviour such as a conversation.

To sum up, explicit and implicit knowledge can be distinguished according to two principal criteria: accessibility and awareness. Ellis and Han (1998: 6) state:

Implicit knowledge is easily accessed in tasks that call for fluent language performance. In contrast, explicit knowledge can be accessed only with controlled effort and, thus, is typically used in tasks that allow for careful planning and monitoring. Whereas implicit knowledge is unanalysed, and consequently held without awareness, explicit knowledge is analysed and model-based, and thus represents consciously held insights about language.

### **2.2.2 Declarative and Procedural Knowledge**

Another basic distinction in cognitive theory is between declarative and procedural knowledge. These terms were initially used by Ryle (1949) then taken by cognitive psychologists like Anderson (1983). Basically, declarative knowledge

refers to knowledge of facts and things. Procedural knowledge has to do with knowledge about how to do things. The distinction is usually considered as the difference between knowing that (declarative knowledge) and knowing how (procedural knowledge). For example, knowledge of the rules of the highway code (e.g. always signal before overtaking) would constitute declarative knowledge while knowledge of how to drive a car according to these rules would be procedural.

Anderson (1983) characterizes classroom L2 learning as beginning with declarative knowledge of rules (usually supplied by the teacher), which is gradually proceduralized, resulting in the ability to use the language without thinking.

By and large, it seems that consciousness and awareness play a significant role in the relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge.

### **2.3 The Role of Consciousness in Second Language Learning**

One of the most controversial issues in applied linguistics concerns the role of conscious and unconscious processes in second language learning. On the one hand, there are many researchers who believe that conscious understanding of the target language system is necessary to produce correct forms and use them appropriately. For instance, Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith (1985) provide theoretical frameworks which allow a role for conscious knowledge.

On the other hand, others firmly believe that language learning is essentially unconscious. Seliger (1983; in Schmidt 1990: 129) claims that “obviously, it is at the unconscious level that language learning takes place”. Krashen (1981, 1985) elaborates a theory that rests at the distinction between two independent processes. The first process is acquisition. This is a subconscious process. The second one is learning. According to him, learning refers to conscious knowledge of a second

language; knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to talk about them. Therefore, he equates learning to grammar and rules. Moreover, he claims that acquisition and learning coexist in the adult mind. The first one initiates utterances and is responsible for fluency while learning has only one function; as Monitor that operates to regulate and control language output.

The most influential positions against any role for consciousness in behaviour and learning are put forth by behaviourists. They believe that consciousness is epiphenomenal, i.e., playing no role in human life. They also state that consciousness is meaningless, prescientific term since it cannot be scientifically investigated (Brown, 1980). Nevertheless, in the past two decades, consciousness and the role it plays in cognition and language learning has been reconsidered. The main point of view in current cognitive psychology claims that learning without awareness is impossible. At this stage, it is necessary to point out the various meanings carried out by consciousness.

### **2.3.1 The Different Senses of Consciousness**

In his discussion of the role of consciousness in second language learning, Schmidt (1990) points out that there are different meanings for consciousness. That the question of whether second language learning is to be thought as conscious or unconscious is not a single question, but is a reflection of a number of many contrasts. He (1990: 131) suggests that it is important to distinguish several senses of consciousness.

#### **2.3.1.1 Consciousness as Awareness**

In common usage, consciousness is equated with awareness (Rotner, 1987). Many researchers (e.g. Baruss, 1987) have recognized that there are levels of awareness. The crucial ones are: perception, noticing and understanding.

**Level 1: Perception**

Schmidt (1990: 132) argues that it is generally believed that perception implies mental organization and the ability to create internal representations of external events. Yet, perception is not necessarily conscious, and subliminal perception is possible.

**Level 2: Noticing**

Schmidt (1990: 132) claims that there is a crucial distinction between information that is perceived and information that is noticed. For instance, when reading a book we notice the content of what we are reading, the style of type in which the text is printed, music playing on a radio in the next room, or background noise outside a window. However, we still perceive these stimuli and may pay attention to them if we choose. So if we choose to pay attention to specific items, noticing occurs.

Noticing can be defined as availability to verbal report. That is, what we could report verbally is what we have noticed (Ericsson and Simon, 1980). However, the lack of verbal report cannot be taken as evidence of failure to notice unless the report is gathered either concurrently or immediately following the experiences that are basically difficult to describe (*ibid.*).

**Level 3: Understanding**

When we notice some aspect of the environment, we can analyze it and compare it to what we have noticed on other occasions; by this, we experience understanding. This comparison goes through different stages of modification. At the end, the processing of the input yields comprehension (*ibid.*).

### **2.3.1.2 Consciousness as Intention**

As regards the term consciousness, Schmidt (1990: 133) argues that awareness and intent are usually misused. When we say that we have done something ‘consciously’, we often mean that we did it intentionally. We often speak of conscious efforts and strategies referring to the deliberate nature of the action. In learning, it highlights a contrast between intentional learning (learning in which learners can deliberately set out to learn something) and incidental learning (learning one thing while their primary attention is focused on some other goal).

### **2.3.1.3 Consciousness as Knowledge**

White (1982) points out the common assumption that to know something is to be conscious of it. Therefore, consciousness and knowledge are not alike. Schmidt (1990) notes that it is unfortunate that most discussion of the role of consciousness in language has focused on distinctions made between conscious and unconscious knowledge. In addition, he suggests that the conscious/ unconscious knowledge contrast represents a continuum, and there is no agreement on where to draw the line to distinguish conscious knowledge from unconscious knowledge.

Schmidt (1994) claims that to perceive an information, to focus attention on it, to attempt to comprehend its significance and to compare it to what has been noticed in other occasions comprise a mental activity commonly called ‘thinking’. All of this mental activity is carried out in consciousness. Consequently, if a learner chooses to process information for meaning, he is likely to call upon his consciousness so that the information is actually processed.

Schmidt’s (1990) types of consciousness can be of great help to gain some understanding of the complex notion of consciousness. In its multiple meanings, it enters into language learning in a myriad of different ways at numerous points in

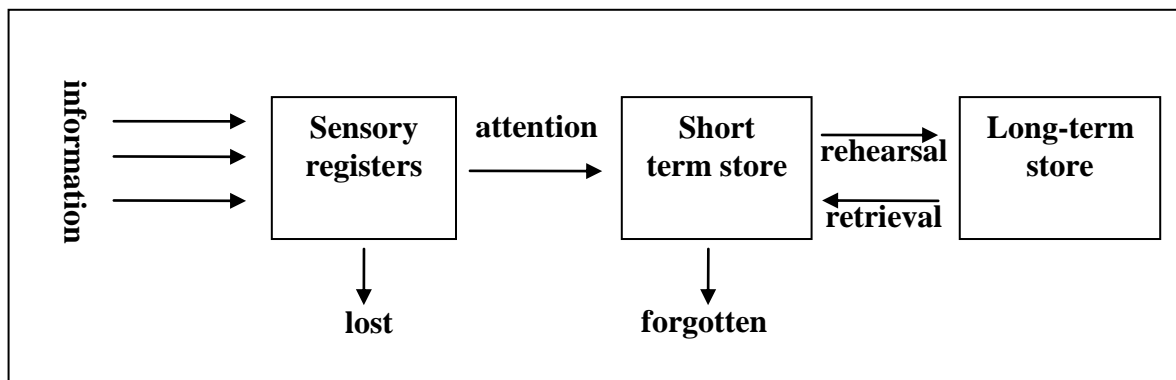
the learning process. Schmidt also states that theories of consciousness are of great help to analyse consciousness in different ways.

### 2.3.2 Theories of Consciousness

Schmidt (1990) notes that almost all theories of consciousness attempt to explain what he calls noticing and the systems that give rise to it.

#### 2.3.2.1 Consciousness in Information Processing Theories

The basic postulate of information processing theories is that all humans are limited capacity processors of information, as pointed out by Schmidt (1990: 135) “the notion of consciousness in information processing theories is associated in one way or another with this notion of a limited capacity system”. The term consciousness as a limited capacity memory system is showed in a number of models that attempt to define input processing in terms of a series of different storage structures (e.g. Figure1).



**Figure 1:** Consciousness in a multistore model of memory (Kihlstorm1984; in Schmidt, 1990: 135)

The multistore theories of memory specify three main concepts: a bank of stores or sensory registers that accept information from different modalities for

analysis by a variety of unconscious processes; a second part known as primary memory, short term store, and a final store, secondary or long term memory.

There are several multistore models of memory, with important differences among them. However, they share two points. First is the identification of short term memory with consciousness. In these models, the terms consciousness, focal awareness, and short term memory are taken as equivalents. The second point is that processing in short term memory is necessary for permanent storage. Thus, once in short term memory, information that is not encoded into long term memory is lost. If consciousness is indeed equivalent to the short term store, storage without conscious awareness is impossible (Kihlstrom, 1987).

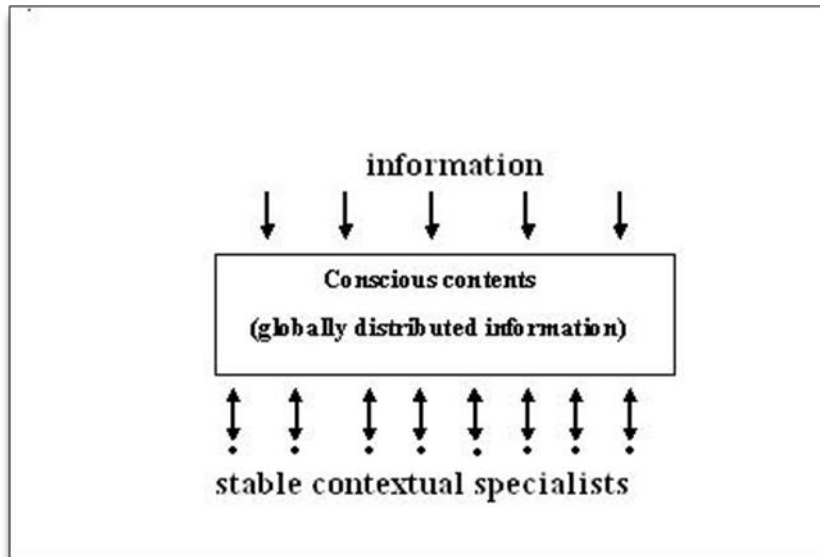
Other information processing models relate consciousness to attention. The latter is viewed as a switchboard, or filter that prevents us from being overwhelmed by the complexity of input. Others suggest the idea of a limited span of attention that is closest to the concept of working memory (Anderson, 1985).

According to Shiffrin and Schneider (1977: 138) humans have two levels of processing that are relevant to attention. We can use automatic processing on easy tasks that use highly familiar items (for example, imagine scanning a list of students' names to see if your name is included). In contrast, we must use controlled processing on difficult tasks that use unfamiliar items (for example, imagine scanning that same list of names, except that you must see whether the list includes three unfamiliar names).

Finally, some information processing theories see consciousness as an internal programmer or executive control centre. Consciousness is identified with an attentional system that is called on when planning is called for or at critical decision points (Hulstijn and Hulstijn, 1984).

### 2.3.2.2 Global Workspace Theory

Baars (1983; in Schmidt, 1990: 137) gives a theory of consciousness that can be exemplified in Figure 2.



**Figure 2:** Consciousness as a central information exchange (after Baars, 1983; in Schmidt, 1990: 137)

The main ideas of Baars's theory are those of distributed information processing, in which control is distributed among a large number of specialized processors and a global workspace or central information exchange. According to this theory, the metaphor for consciousness is a broadcasting station which accepts input from various sources and provides information to a large number of viewers. Conscious experience results when interaction between an input pattern and unconscious contextual constraints results in a coherent and stable representation that is then displayed to any processor to make use of it (Baars, 1988).

To summarize, all these theories associate consciousness with varied constructs as working memory, attention, and central processing. They are all compatible with the view that consciousness separates mental life into two distinct

spheres: conscious and unconscious processes. They all specify a crucial role for consciousness in dealing with behaviour and learning (Gardner, 1985).

Acknowledging the role of consciousness in language learning, and basing their arguments from cognitive psychology and cognitive psycholinguistics, some researchers have provided a theoretical framework that allows a role for conscious knowledge (Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith, 1985). They argue that grammar consciousness-raising facilitates language acquisition.

## **2.4 The Role of Grammar Consciousness-Raising Tasks**

### **2.4.1 Grammar Consciousness-Raising**

Like so many other terms in pedagogy, the term grammar consciousness-raising (GCR) is rather vague and is used with very different meanings (Ellis, 1993b). Essentially, grammar consciousness-raising refers the deliberate attempt to draw the learners' attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language (Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith, 1985: 274). Therefore, grammar consciousness-raising (also known as the consciousness-raising (C-R) approach to grammar teaching) is an approach to the teaching of grammar in which instruction in grammar is viewed as a way of raising the learner's awareness of grammatical features of the target language (TL). This is claimed to indirectly facilitate SLA.

Sharwood-Smith's (1981) concept of grammar consciousness-raising is of overall importance. GCR is assumed to make up for the limited amount of data the learner is exposed to in the classroom and seems to explain the interaction between instruction guided processes and natural learning processes. Grammar cannot be instilled so that forms and notions emerge full-blown, as it were in the learner's language. But GCR is assumed to draw the learner's attention to what is to be learned in more or less explicit ways. These range from rule statement accompanied by practice to linguistic perceptual clues and symbolic devices as

discrimination and problem-solving tasks. Finally, the least explicit GCR instrument is an authentic text in which the grammatical phenomenon to be focused on occurs naturally. It is assumed that consciously constructed learner output also becomes input for the learner. What has been consciously learned feeds into naturalistic acquisition processes (Sharwood-Smith, 1981: 166). Therefore, raising learner's consciousness about the existence of linguistic features which she should otherwise ignore plays an important role in language acquisition. In other words, more or less explicit grammatical concepts are probably helpful for the learner. They will promote attention to the features concerned in the input so that they are acquired procedurally.

Addressing a pure input-based approach, Rutherford (1987) claims that the circumstances in which we learn a foreign language are often limited to the extent that, contrary to the experience of acquiring our native language, we have access to considerably less than the necessary range of data for making appropriate generalizations. This is especially true in situations where the classroom is the only source of such data. Therefore, grammar consciousness-raising is considered as a facilitator of second language acquisition by providing data through which learners may form generalizations and test hypotheses about second language (L2) target structures from and/ or functions. Rutherford (1987: 18) states:

The role of C-R ... is thus seen as one in which data that are crucial for the learner's testing of hypotheses, and for his forming generalizations, are made available to him in somewhat controlled and principled fashion.

Furthermore, while performing grammar consciousness-raising tasks, learners are encouraged to notice particular features of the language, to draw conclusions from what they notice and to organize their view of language in the light of the

conclusions they have drawn (Willis and Willis, 1996). In fact, noticing seems to be of great importance in the learning process. Consequently, GCR tasks are used to help the learner to notice a specific grammatical feature as a first step towards its acquisition.

According to Ellis (1993a: 109) grammar consciousness-raising refers to the deliberate attempt on the part of the teacher to make the learners aware of specific features of the L2; it entails an attempt to instill an understanding of the formal and functional properties of these features by helping the learners develop a cognitive representation of them. For him, there are two kinds of grammar consciousness-raising:

### **Grammar consciousness-raising for comprehension**

In this case, the aim is to focus the learner's attention on the meaning (s) performed by specific grammatical properties. This type of grammar consciousness-raising 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).

### **Grammar consciousness-raising for explicit knowledge**

The aim, in this case, is to help the learner learn about a particular grammatical feature by providing 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 grammatical rules. This type of grammar consciousness-raising can be achieved by means of traditional grammar explanation of the kind found in the Grammar-Translation Method. Another way; however, is to make the use of problem-solving tasks that supply the learners with the data they need to discover the rules for themselves (Fotos and Ellis, 1991).

It should be noted that grammar instruction as consciousness-raising is what used to be called grammar presentation. But the term grammar consciousness-raising is now preferred since it credits the learners with an active role in the process of learning. However, whereas presentation is usually paired with practice implying immediate and accurate production, grammar consciousness-raising may occur solely at the level of understanding (Thornbury, 1999).

Recently, researchers recommend the use of communicative grammar consciousness-raising tasks for grammar instruction, in which students are asked to solve a grammar problem interactively. Within the framework of Task-Based Language Teaching and Learning, form-focused tasks are used as a pedagogical device to direct learners' attention to specific grammatical forms while they are communicating in the target language.

#### **2.4.2 Grammar Consciousness-Raising Tasks**

Essentially, the matter of raising the learner's consciousness is multifaceted; it can be divided into activities that ask the learner for a judgement and those that pose a task to be performed or a problem to be solved (Rutherford, 1987: 160). Citing recent research into grammar consciousness-raising and its relationship to SLA, Willis and Willis (1996: 63) suggest that what teachers can do is to raise consciousness of particular language features by providing learners with tasks which encourage them to think about samples of language and to draw their conclusions about how language works. Consequently, grammar consciousness-raising tasks (or C-R tasks for grammar teaching) provide students with data about how a particular grammatical structure works and help them to work the rules for themselves. Noteworthy, GCR tasks constitute tasks in their own right and, therefore, can be used as the main task in a lesson. But they can also be used as follow-up tasks to direct students to attend explicitly to a specific form that they used incorrectly or failed to use at all in the main task (Ellis, 2006).

GCR tasks offer an effective means of teaching grammar. Ellis (1997: 160) defines a GCR task as:

a pedagogic activity where the learners are provided with L2 data in some form and required to perform some operation on or with it, the purpose of which is to arrive at an explicit understanding of some linguistic property or properties of the TL.

The taskness of GCR tasks, therefore, lies not in the linguistic point that is the focus of the task but rather the talk learners must engage in order to achieve an outcome to the task.

The rationale for the use of GCR tasks draws partly on the hypothesized role for explicit knowledge as a facilitator for the acquisition of implicit knowledge, and partly on the claims in the psychological literature that learning is more significant if it involves greater depth of processing. They cater for discovery learning through problem solving, in accordance with the general principle that what learners can find for themselves is better remembered than what they are simply told (Ellis, 2003: 163). An invitation to discover rules for themselves may become more motivating to learners than simply giving them the rules. Moreover, if these tasks are performed in groups and the target language is used as the medium for solving the problems they pose, the tasks double as communicative tasks. Learners can as well as talk about grammar as talk about other topics. Thus, students take responsibility for their learning, instead of having materials spoonfed to them (Ellis, 1998: 48-49).

Once a learner's consciousness of a target feature has been raised through formal instruction or through continued communicative exposure, the learner often tends to notice the feature in subsequent input (Schmidt, 1990, 1993). Such

noticing or continued awareness of the feature is suggested to be important because it appears to initiate the restructuring of the learner's implicit or unconscious system of linguistic knowledge. When a language point is noticed frequently, learners develop awareness of it and unconsciously compare it with their existing system of linguistic knowledge, unconsciously constructing new hypotheses to accommodate the differences between the noticed information and their L2 competence. Thus, they test these new hypotheses, again unconsciously, by attending to language input and also by getting feedback on their output using the new form (Swain, 1985). Hence, tasks that raise learners' awareness of grammar forms will assist learners to acquire these forms. In addition, Gass and Mackey (2007: 112) state:

As the name implies, consciousness-raising tasks are intended to facilitate learners' cognitive processes in terms of their awareness of some linguistic structure or area of language.

Therefore, formal instruction and CLT can be integrated through the use of grammar consciousness-raising tasks designed to promote communication about grammar. These tasks have two primary aims: to develop explicit knowledge of L2 grammatical features and to provide opportunities for interaction focused on an exchange of information. They are communicative and they have an L2 grammar problem as their content. While focusing on the form of the structure, learners are also engaged in meaning focused use of the target language as they solve the grammar problem. Although it is communicative, the task content involves developing rules for use of grammar points. The learners are required to solve grammar problems through meaning-focused interaction about the grammar structure, which is the task content (Fotos, 2002). Likewise, Ellis (1997: 160) reports that:

The goal of consciousness-raising (CR) tasks is explicit knowledge of grammatical structures...including some metalingual knowledge...One major advantage of this discovery approach is that it provides opportunities for learners to interact in the target language while learning about it. Grammar becomes both the object of learning and a topic for communicating about.

Henceforward, a consciousness-raising approach to grammar teaching can provide opportunities for the kinds of interaction which have been suggested to promote acquisition.

It should be noted that GCR tasks can be inductive or deductive. Deductive instruction involves rule explanation by a teacher at the beginning of a lesson before students engage in language practice. In inductive instruction, learners directly attend to particular forms and try to arrive at metalinguistic generalizations on their own (Norris and Ortega, 2000). Most important, both deductive and inductive teaching approaches are examples of explicit instruction and are clearly differentiated from Norris and Ortega's definition of implicit instruction as instruction for which there are neither rule presentations nor directions to attend to particular language forms. Ellis (1998: 48) breaks down the category of explicit instruction into two types: direct and indirect. Direct explicit instruction takes the form of oral or written explanations of grammatical phenomena. They can stand by themselves or can be accompanied by exercises in which learners attempt to apply the rule they have learned. In indirect explicit instruction, learners complete grammar consciousness-raising tasks in which they analyse data illustrating the use of a specific grammatical rule. Furthermore, Ellis (2002: 172) states that:

CR tasks can be inductive or deductive. In the case of the former, the learner is provided with data and asked to construct an explicit rule to describe the grammatical feature which the data illustrate. In the case of the latter, the learner is supplied with a rule which is then used to carry out some task.

In fact, GCR tasks differ from other types of explicit grammar teaching in that they make no claim that the knowledge gained from such tasks can be automatized and available for immediate use (Lock, 1996). Grammar tasks which emphasize consciousness-raising rather than practice appear to be an effective type of classroom activity, and their use is supported by what is currently known about the way a second language is acquired (Fotos and Ellis, 1991). As an example of such tasks is to ask students sort a list of sentences into two groups and then have them explain how the two groups differ. A further example is to give students a set of sentences and ask them to figure out the rule for themselves regarding the correct order of direct and indirect objects in English:

I bought many presents for my family.

I bought my family many presents.

She cooked a delicious dinner for us.

She cooked us a delicious dinner [etc.]

(After Fotos and Ellis, 1991)

Students work in small groups so that they simultaneously use the target language communicatively as they induce the grammatical rule.

From Ellis (1992: 234), we can identify the main characteristics of grammar consciousness-raising tasks:

1. There is an attempt to isolate a specific linguistic feature for focused attention.
2. The learners are provided with data that illustrate the target feature and they may also be provided with an explicit rule describing or explaining the feature.
3. The learners are expected to utilize intellectual effort to understand the targeted features.
4. Misunderstanding or incomplete understanding of the grammatical structure by the learners leads to clarification in the form of further data and description or explanation.
5. Learners may be optionally required to verbalize a rule describing the grammatical structure.

A grammar consciousness-raising task consists of data containing exemplars of the targeted features, and instructions requiring the learners to operate on the data in some way. Ellis (1997) lists the data options and types of operations that are possible. Data options include authentic vs contrived, oral vs written, and gap vs non-gap. Types of operations include identification, for example, learners underline the target structure in the data, judgement, i.e., they respond to the correctness or appropriateness of the data, and sorting, i.e., they classify the data by sorting it out into defined categories. Hence, a GCR task constitutes a kind of puzzle which when solved enables learners to discover for themselves how a linguistic feature works.

GCR tasks have grown in importance in teaching, and now represent a wide range of choices that can be made. They connect with earlier discussions of noticing, in that they attempt to raise awareness of language structures while providing learners with relevant language input and activity (Skehan, 1998). Note that there are different taxonomies of these tasks. Skehan (1998: 139) provides an introductory list:

Pre-task activities (compare Willis, 1996), text exploration activities, for example with the task to provide particular aspects of language or classify some corpus of language, exposure to parallel tasks, perhaps done by others, but with guidance as to what should be focused upon, exposure to material with some aspects highlighted (Doughty, 1991) all constitute consciousness-raising activities. So do pre-task brainstorming activities and pre-task discussions.

Willis and Willis (1996: 69) classify them as follows:

1. Identify/ consolidate: students are asked to search a set of data to identify a particular pattern or usage and the language forms associated with it.
2. Classify (semantic/ structural): students are required to work with a set of data and sort it according to similarities or differences based on formal or semantic criteria.
3. Hypothesis building/ checking: students are given (or asked to make) a generalization about language and asked to check this against more language data.
4. Cross-language exploration: the students are encouraged to look for similarities and differences between patterns in their own language and in English.
5. Reconstruction/ deconstruction: the students are required to manipulate language in ways that reveal underlying patterns.

6. Recall: the students are required to recall and reconstruct elements of a text. The purpose of the recall is to highlight significant features of the text.
7. Reference training: students need to know how to use reference works, i.e., dictionaries, grammars, and study guides.

In Figure 3, Fotos and Ellis (1991) provide an example of GCR task which addresses dative alternation (i.e. indirect object placement). The data options are: 1) contrived, 2) written, 3) discrete sentences, 4) deviant, and 5) non-gap. The operations are: 1) judgement, and 2) verbalizing a rule.

**Figure 3:** An example of a grammar consciousness-raising task (Fotos and Ellis, 1991: 164)

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- A. What is the difference between verbs like give and explain?
1. She gave a book to her father (= grammatical)
  2. She gave her father a book (= grammatical).
  3. The policeman explained the law to Mary (= grammatical).
  4. The policeman explained Mary the law (= ungrammatical).
- B. Indicate whether the following sentences are grammatical or ungrammatical:
1. They saved Mark a seat.
  2. His father read Kim a story.
  3. She donated the hospital some money.
  4. They suggested Mary to trip on the river.
  5. They reported the police the accident.
  6. They threw Mary a party.
  7. The bank lent Mr Thatcher some money.
  8. He indicated Mary the right turning.
  9. The festival generated the college a lot of money.
  10. He cooked his girlfriend a cake.
- C. Work out a rule for verbs like 'give' and 'explain'.
1. List the verbs in B that are like 'give' (i.e. permit both sentence patterns) and those that are like 'explain' (i.e. allow only one sentence pattern).
  2. What is the difference between the verbs in your two lists.
-

Table 1 provides an example of an inductive task designed to raise learners' consciousness about the grammatical differences between 'for' and 'since'.

**Table 1:** An example of a GCR problem-solving task (Ellis, 2002: 173)

1. Here is some information about when three people joined the company they now work for and how long they have been working there.		
Name	Date joined	Length of time
Ms Regan	1945	45 yrs
Mr Bush	1970	20 yrs
Mrs Thatcher	1989	9 mths
Mr Baker	1990 (Feb)	10 days
2. Study these sentences about these people. When is 'for' used and when is 'since' used?		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Ms Regan has been working for her company <i>for</i> most of her life.</li> <li>b. Mr Bush has been working for his company <i>since</i> 1970.</li> <li>c. Mrs Thatcher has been working for her company <i>for</i> 9 months.</li> <li>d. Mr Baker has been working for his company <i>since</i> February.</li> </ul>		
3. Which of the following sentences are ungrammatical? Why?		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Ms Regan has been working for his company for 1945.</li> <li>b. Mr Bush has has been working for his company for 20 years.</li> <li>c. Mrs Thatcher has been working for her company since 1989.</li> <li>d. Mr Baker has been working for his company since 10 days.</li> </ul>		
4. Try and make up a rule to explain when 'for' and 'since' are used.		
5. Make up one sentence about when you started to learn English and one sentence about how long have you been studying English. Use 'for' and 'since'.		

By and large many investigators maintain their interest in studying GCR tasks and their possible effects on second language acquisition.

### 2.4.3 The Effects of Grammar Consciousness-Raising Tasks

A number of studies have investigated the effects of grammar consciousness-raising tasks in developing explicit knowledge of L2 and in promoting SLA. Here are some:

**Fotos and Ellis (1991)** carried out an experiment to investigate the effects of grammar consciousness-raising treatments with two groups of Japanese learners on dative alternation.

**Group I:** Subjects received direct grammar consciousness-raising by means of grammatical explanation.

**Group II:** Subjects received indirect consciousness-raising by means of a grammar consciousness-raising task that guides learners into discovering grammatical rules.

After the treatment period, subjects were given a grammaticality judgement test involving dative alternation. The results showed that both methods of consciousness-raising were effective and resulted in significant gains in understanding of the target structure, although the direct method seemed to produce the more durable gains. However, the investigators speculated that this might be because the students in this study were unfamiliar with working in groups, as was required by the indirect GCR method.

**Sheen (1992)** conducted an experiment with two groups of Japanese students about whether direct grammar consciousness-raising was better than indirect grammar consciousness-raising for learning certain rules.

**Group I:** This group received direct GCR involving direct explanations of grammar points.

**Group II:** Subjects in this group received indirect GCR using various types of grammar consciousness-raising tasks by providing them with L2 data to analyse and instructions about how to set about this.

The results showed that students in the groups did equally well in a written post- test of the structures taught holding that the tasks raised awareness of the forms in the experimental group (group II) compared to learners in the control group (group I) who were provided with direct explanations of the target structures.

**Fotos (1993)** conducted a study to investigate the role of GCR tasks in language teaching. Three groups of Japanese students of English were randomly assigned:

**Group I:** (The grammar task group). Subjects in this group performed three grammar consciousness-raising tasks.

**Group II:** (The grammar lesson group). Subjects in this group received grammar lessons identical in content to the grammar tasks. They received a formal, teacher-fronted lesson, the contents of which were taken directly from the task sheets and task cards used for the grammar task.

**Group III:** (The communicative task group). This group performed communicative tasks lacking grammar task content.

The frequencies of noticing the target structure in communicative input one and two weeks after the grammar consciousness-raising treatment are compared with the noticing frequencies of the control group which was not exposed to any type of grammar consciousness-raising task. 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. It was demonstrated that a number of learners who develop knowledge about grammar structures went on to notice those structures in communicative input after their consciousness had been raised.

**Fotos (1994)**, in a replication of her study (1993), utilized three GCR tasks on : 1) adverb placement, 2) indirect object placement, and 3) relative clause usage. She administered these three tasks to three classes of Japanese ESL students. Class one received a focus on forms treatment in the form of three teacher-fronted grammar lessons on adverb placement, indirect object placement, and relative clause usage respectively. Class two received a focus on form treatment, in which the participants performed three GCR tasks with the same grammatical features. Class three received a focus on meaning treatment, characterized by three communicative tasks with no grammatical content. Pre-tests, post-tests, and delayed post-tests were administered to the three classes. She found that the focus on form group was as accurate as the grammar group on the three target structures. The results lent support to the use of such tasks as one possible alternative to teaching with focus on meaning or focus on forms approach. They integrated language use and grammar instruction in the classroom.

**Yip (1994)** used a method of grammar consciousness-raising to direct learners' attention to ergative verbs in English, related structures as passive and the auxiliary system. There were two groups in her study.

First, subjects in the two groups were given a pre-test in which they were asked to indicate whether a given sentence was clearly grammatical, probably ungrammatical, or clearly ungrammatical. They were also asked to make corrections if they thought a particular sentence was ungrammatical. Immediately after the pre-test, the consciousness-raising sessions were held with the two groups. The grammar consciousness-raising session in the first group lasted about forty-

five minutes; that in the second group went on a little longer. Two weeks after the consciousness-raising treatment a post-test was administered.

The results of the post-test suggested that when students were given guidance in attending to the differing syntactic and semantic characteristics of ergatives and passive constructions via grammar consciousness-raising treatment, several of them showed improvement in distinguishing accurately between grammatical and ungrammatical uses. Therefore, the grammar consciousness-raising sessions were responsible for the students' improvement especially with the group in which they showed a significant difference between pre-test and post-test scores.

**Chan and Li (2002)** carried out an empirical study exploring the effectiveness of giving oral remedial instruction to secondary and university students using a grammar consciousness-raising approach on the verb 'concern', the related adjective 'concerned', and the connective 'on the contrary'.

The instrument consisted of two identical tests before treatment (pre-test) as well as a delayed post-test with different test items. While the experimental group received treatment using a grammar consciousness-raising approach, the control group received explanations of grammatical structures.

The results show that effective acquisition took place and both the experimental and control groups show significant improvement in their performance. However, students in the experimental group slightly outperformed those in the control group suggesting that the grammar consciousness-raising model of remedial instruction is more effective and conducive to acquisition.

**Mohamed (2004)** reported a study that was carried out to determine learners' attitudes to learning grammar through the use of two types of grammar consciousness raising tasks. A deductive task provided explicit explanations of a grammar structure, while an inductive task required learners to discover the

grammar rules for themselves. The study investigated learners' preferences relating to deductive and inductive tasks, and aimed to provide a learner perspective of the effectiveness of such tasks. The results indicated that learners viewed both tasks to be useful, and there was no obvious preference for one task type over the other.

**Eckerth (2008)** carried out an experiment which investigated a series of grammar consciousness-raising tasks which were introduced into two groups in an actual L2 classroom over an extended period of time. The investigation sought to measure learning gains in the short and medium term by a pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test design. In order to examine the gains raised during the collaborative completion of the tasks, two test formats were developed: a pre-test that covered those L2 features focuses on by the tasks, and a post-test which was based on a retrospective analysis of learners' Task-Based interactions. In fact, this research showed that GCR tasks could bring significant learning gains in L2 explicit knowledge.

In the discussions of the role of grammar consciousness-raising tasks in the acquisition of language structures, the distinction between grammar consciousness-raising and traditional grammar teaching is unavoidable.

## **2.5 Grammar Consciousness-Raising versus Traditional Grammar**

Grammar consciousness-raising (GCR) contrasts with traditional grammatical instruction in a number of important respects. In the first place, there is much greater attention paid to form-function relationships. Hence, there is an attempt to move the emphasis away from the learning of target structures independent of their use to learning how these structures function in a language; it would be useful to match forms with their functions. Most important of all, in order to successfully match form and function it is necessary to be able to read clues from the context to understand the speaker's meaning. In other words, in the absence of context it is

very difficult to recover the intended meaning/ function of a single word or phrase (Nunan, 1991)

Grammar consciousness-raising also attempts to situate the grammatical structures and elements in question with a broader discoursal context. Rutherford (1987: 104) expands the concept of grammar as “the on-line processing component of discourse” and insists on grammar as a process in the service of coherent textual meaning “It is C-R in the service of a concept of language in which the notion of relationship is held to be paramount” (*ibid.* 100). Accordingly, one crucial benefit of using GCR approach is to encourage the identification of grammatical structures with the discourse types in which they typically appear.

Furthermore, grammar consciousness-raising takes an organic rather than linear view of learning. This is due in part to the fact that structures are not learned in isolation, but they interact with each other (Nunan, 1991: 148). Indeed, the learning of grammar, as with the learning of many aspects of language, is a much more organic process. This suggests that a traditional grammatical syllabus that sequences structures one after another may result in a mis-match between learnability and teachability (Pienemann, 1984). For this reason, many researchers recommend the use of a spiral syllabus, where particular structures are recycled from time to time during a course, and to keep returning to and expanding upon the same grammatical structures over time (Larsen-Freeman, 2001). A helpful guideline in the construction of such a spiral syllabus is to focus on a different dimension of a grammatical structure each time it is revisited (De Carrio and Larsen-Freeman, 2002). Rutherford (1988a) further suggests that an optimal approach to dealing with the non-linearity of grammatical acquisition is when teachers help students understand the general principle of grammar (e.g. how to modify basic word order) rather than concentrating on teaching structure-specific rules.

Rutherford (1987), in building his case for grammar consciousness-raising, explicitly rejects the traditional belief that language is constructed out of discrete entities and that language learning consists of the gradual accumulation of these entities. In fact, traditional grammar was extremely narrow in scope in that it limited its grammatical awareness to parts of speech and word categories (Dirven, 1990: 5). Such a view underpins both Audiolingual and Cognitive-Code Learning theories. Imparting the necessary information about the items that comprise the code can be attempted either inductively (as in Audiolingualism) or deductively (as in the Cognitive-Code Approach). That is, the instruction may simply provide the learners with plentiful opportunities to produce utterances containing the target item, or it can provide explicit information about the properties of the item. However, a purely deductive approach, such as the Grammar-Translation Approach, assumes that language is neither more nor less than the sum of its parts. Rutherford (1988b: 232) states:

Pedagogical attention to language form is rooted in a conception of language whose formalism is directly manifested in discrete entities such as the familiar bound morphemes, parts of speech, verb tense, clausal units, sentence types, and so forth. It is therefore relatively easy to let such entities constitute points of focus in the teaching syllabus, or units to be mastered [...] Underlying this approach is usually the tacit assumption that successful language learning is equivalent in large part to the cumulative mastery of sequentially introduced units.

An alternative to the accumulated entities view of learning is grammar consciousness-raising. The latter differs from traditional grammar teaching in that

it views that grammatical rules cannot be directly imparted to the learner through teaching because of the complexity of many rules, and because of the interrelationships between them (Rutherford, 1987).

Inherent in the accumulated entities standpoint is a further assumption that learners have no prior knowledge, either of how language is constructed or used. This view of language learners as *tabula rasa* is clearly erroneous since we are all highly proficient in constructing and using at least one language: our mother tongue. While a second language may differ significantly from the first, there is likely to be some commonality both in structure and strategies for exploitation. Rutherford (1987: 14) insists on the fact that language learners have already a broad knowledge of language and both specific and universal kind to build on and calls the language learning process “an interaction of the universal with the specific”. Therefore, grammar consciousness-raising not only accepts that L2 learners have such prior knowledge and experience of language construction and use but also seeks to utilize them to aid SLA. In other words, it bridges the gap between the learner’s prior knowledge (the familiar) and the learner’s ignorance of grammatical devices (the unfamiliar). Rutherford (1987: 21) holds that:

The ultimate role of grammatical C-R as a ‘facilitator’ of language learning, where ‘facilitation’ is to be understood as nothing less than the illumination of the learner’s path from the known to the unknown.

Unlike traditional approaches to teaching grammar, then, grammar consciousness-raising fulfils a process rather than a product role; it is a facilitator, a means to an end not an end in itself. That is, whatever it is that is raised to consciousness is not to be looked upon as the object of study to be committed to memory by the learner and recalled by him whenever sentences have to be

produced. Rather, what is raised to consciousness is not the grammatical product but aspects of the grammatical process; as a part of the process not as the goal. Corder (1973; in Rutherford, 1987: 18) notes that:

Pedagogical descriptions are aids to learning not the object of learning; so long as we keep that firmly in our minds we shall not get confused by the ambiguity of the expression 'teaching grammar'.

This view of the role of grammar consciousness-raising is consistent with the top-down rather than a bottom-up principle of grammatical function. The top-down approach begins with whole texts and works down instead of beginning with individual grammatical items and working up. In other words, when the teacher wants to focus on a particular grammatical item, that item is introduced within a particular context, and learners work from context to text to sentence and clause, and not from clause/ sentence to text. The pedagogical approach derived from this model of linguistics also seeks to show learners how language differs according to the context in which it is produced, the purposes for which it is produced, and the audience to which it is addressed (Nunan, 1991).

Additionally, the view is a conception of the role of grammar consciousness-raising that aligns with the notion that to teach language is not to teach a body of knowledge but to teach how to learn, or to teach learners how to become better managers of their own learning. That is "Just as we have grammar, broadly speaking, in the service of language use, so also we have grammar, through C-R, in the service of language learning" (Rutherford, 1987: 104).

Grammar consciousness-raising aims at setting student's linguistic and cognitive challenges using authentic data. This is achieved through grammar consciousness-raising tasks. While some of them bear a superficial resemblance to

traditional grammar exercises, they have quite a different purpose. A key feature of such activities is the use of authentic target language in context not the contrived examples commonly associated with traditional approaches to grammar teaching. It should be noted that authenticity is central to grammar consciousness-raising because it provides what is generally considered to be the best data to illustrate the target language's form-function relationship (Nunan, 1991: 150).

Rutherford provides what he states as the most important distinction between grammar consciousness-raising and traditional grammar teaching. He (1987: 24) points that:

C-R is a means to attainment of grammatical competence in another language (i.e. necessary but not sufficient, and the learner contributes), whereas 'grammar teaching' typically represents an attempt to instill this competence directly (i.e. necessary and sufficient, and the learner is a tabula rasa).

To sum up, grammar consciousness-raising is often claimed to hold a 'middle-ground position' between two extreme approaches to teaching target language grammar (Yip, 1994). At one end of the scale is the zero approach advocated by Krashen (1985) who claims that the teaching of grammar is a waste of time. The claim is a reaction to older approaches using extensive grammar drilling. Consequently, grammar consciousness-raising stands for the pendulum swinging back but taking into account more recent findings of second language acquisition research, as well as benefits of communicative approaches.

In short, grammar consciousness-raising is closely related to some basic issues as attention, awareness, noticing and input enhancement. Therefore, it seems quite important to examine their role in SLA.

## **2.6 Differential Effects of Awareness, Attention , Noticing and Input**

### **Enhancement**

#### **2.6.1 Awareness**

There are differing views in current SLA literature as to whether the role that awareness plays in L2 learning is crucial for subsequent processing of L2 data (Leow, 2000: 558). Additionally, how to operationalize and measure what constitutes awareness in SLA has been quite a thorny issue and subject to methodological critique. Recently, a few studies conducted in the L2 classroom setting have reported overall positive effects of awareness on learners' performances.

On the one hand, several researchers argued for dissociation between awareness and learning. For instance, Tomlin and Villa (1994) propose an analysis of attention in which none of the attentional functions require awareness to operate. Empirical studies that support the view that awareness and learning are dissociated (Velmans, 1991; Curan and Keele, 1993; Carr and Curran, 1994) have generally used postexposure questionnaires to establish a relationship between learners' awareness during an experimental exposure to some stimuli and their performances after exposure to the stimuli. However, Schmidt (1995) points out that these studies did not methodologically establish a complete absence of awareness in language learning. In other words, some participants assigned to the unaware group could have been described as somewhat aware but not completely unaware. Consequently, the categorization of the participants' levels of awareness in the different groups could lead to potential new interpretations of the results.

On the other hand, Robinson (1995) and Schmidt (1990, 1993, 1994, 1995) view the role of awareness as a necessary and sufficient condition before any L2 data can be taken and further processed. For example, Schmidt's (1990) noticing hypothesis postulates a crucial role for awareness in subsequent L2 processing.

Learners must first demonstrate a conscious awareness of some particular form of input before any subsequent processing or intake of that noticed feature can take place. Therefore, learning cannot take place without awareness. Empirical support for the facilitative effects of awareness on foreign language learning has been found in a few recently published classroom-based studies. The data collection procedures used to measure whether learners demonstrate awareness while participating under experimental conditions fall into three categories: a) offline elicitation measures such as postexposure questionnaires (Robinson, 1997), b) online elicitation measures such as think-aloud protocols (Leow, 1997, Rosa and O'neil, 1999), and c) a combination of both online (think-aloud protocols) and offline (a grammaticality judgement test and a rule statement test) elicitation measures (Alanen, 1995).

For example, Leow (1997) qualitatively addresses the role of awareness in relation to Schmidt's noticing hypothesis in second language acquisition. Awareness in this study was based on Tomlin and Villa's restricted definition of awareness (1994: 193) as "a particular state of mind in which an individual has undergone a specific subjective experience of some cognitive content or external stimulus".

In his 1997 study, Leow used online data, i.e., data gathered concurrently while learners were interacting with the L2 and analyzed the think aloud protocols produced by 28 adult beginning learners of Spanish completing a problem solving task (a crossword puzzle) and their immediate performances on two postexposure assessment tasks. These tasks were designed to elicit recognition and written production of the target form: the irregular third person singular and plural forms of stem-changing -ir verbs in Spanish. From the analysis of the think-aloud protocols, Leow identified three levels of awareness: [+ cognitive change, - meta awareness, -morphological rule formation] when participants did not provide a report of their subjective experience or verbalize any rule, [+ cognitive change, +

meta awareness, - morphological rule formation] when participants did report their subjective experience but did not provide any verbalization of the rule, and [+ cognitive change, + meta awareness, + morphological rule formation] when participants provided both a report and a verbalization of rule formation. His findings suggest the following conclusions: different levels of awareness lead to differences in processing, and that learners demonstrating a higher level of awareness performed significantly better than those with a lower level of awareness on both the recognition and written production of noticed forms. Leow, 1997: 467) suggests that:

Different levels of awareness lead to differences in processing, more awareness contributes to more recognition accurate written production of noticed forms, and findings provide empirical support for the facilitative effects of awareness on foreign language behaviour.

Similar findings were also reported by Rosa and O'Neil (1999), which extended Leow's (1997) line of investigation by exploring the role of awareness at a syntactic level, namely on learners' intake of Spanish conditional sentences in the context of problem-solving task. In this study, 67 participants were randomly assigned to five different conditions that were permised on five degrees of explicitness (a combination of [ $\pm$ formal instruction] and [ $\pm$ directions to search for rules]). A multiple-choice recognition task administered immediately after the experimental task was used to measure learners' intake. Concurrent think-aloud protocols were also used to establish different levels of awareness. Rosa and O'Neil found that both awareness at the levels of noticing and understanding contributed substantially to a significant increase of learners' ability to recognize the targeted structures.

Overall, these findings appear to provide empirical support for the facilitative role of awareness in foreign language behaviour and learning. However, “the issue of whether awareness is essential for subsequent processing to take place remains unsolved” (Leow, 1997: 494).

Surely enough, the role of consciousness and awareness in the human attentional system while learning a foreign language has been particularly controversial in the fields of cognitive psychology, cognitive sciences and second language acquisition.

### **2.6.2 Attention**

Research on attention has made tremendous progress in recent years in understanding the role attention plays in SLA. In a series of studies, Schmidt (1990, 1993; Schmidt and Frota, 1986) claims that conscious attention to input is necessary for learning to take place. Attention “is necessary in order to understand virtually every aspect of second language acquisition” (Schmidt, 2001; in Gass, Svetics and Lemlin, 2003: 498). Furthermore, he argues for attention as one of the factors that determine whether something in input will be noticed or not.

Tomlin and Villa (1994) posit that current research in SLA has been influenced by four main concepts of attention.

The human attentional system has been generally described as a limited mental resource or capacity. The human mind seems limited in the sense of not being able to process fully all of the perceived stimuli. Thus, only a limited subset of information reaching sensory memory is selected for further processing by the human attentional system. In other words, there is a limitation to the amount the human mind can handle at a given time and information is selected by the attentional system because of the processing limitations of the human mind.

More recent work changes the focus from the limited capacity of attention to, instead, limitations in our ability to carry out multiple tasks at one time. Attention is implicated not only in processing information but also in the performance of whole tasks. Thus, attention may have limits, but these limits can be contributed among several tasks. Some tasks require more attention than others.

Looking more closely at the human attentional system, many researchers (e.g. Shiffrin and Shneider, 1977) support a difference between automatic and controlled processes. Although the human mind has processing limitations, it can run two tasks concurrently, if at least one is automatic, but it has problems running two attention-demanding tasks at the same time. Automatic processes require little or no attention and do not interfere with other activities whereas controlled processes require attention, and therefore they interfere with other processes that also require attention.

The key issue for attention as control of action is to articulate the process by which information is regulated as to whether or not it receives attentional resources.

We therefore turn to an analysis of attention that integrates these related conceptions into a system that allows investigation of the role attention has in SLA.

Tomlin and Villa (1994) examine the role of attention in SLA from the perspective of cognitive psychology. They propose that attention has three components: alertness, orientation and detection. Alertness according to Tomlin and Villa (1994: 190) refers to the overall “readiness to deal with incoming stimuli or data” and relates to the rate at which information is selected for further processing; the greater the alertness, the faster information will be processed. Orientation facilitates detection by directing attentional resources to a particular type of information while exchanging other information. The third component of

attention, detection is defined as the “cognitive registration of sensory stimuli” (*ibid.* 192). It is the process that selects a particular bit of information. Detected information consumes a lot of attentional resources. Once information is detected, then further processing is possible. Furthermore, they argue that none of the central components of attention require awareness although awareness requires attention.

From these premises, it would follow that attention research supports the claim that learning language aspects without focusing attention on them is impossible, and that language teachers should try to promote noticing by focusing their learners’ attention on the targeted language (Thornbury, 1997a: 326). This point has come to extensive investigations, and is best reflected in Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis (1990). A theme we shall discuss in the section to come.

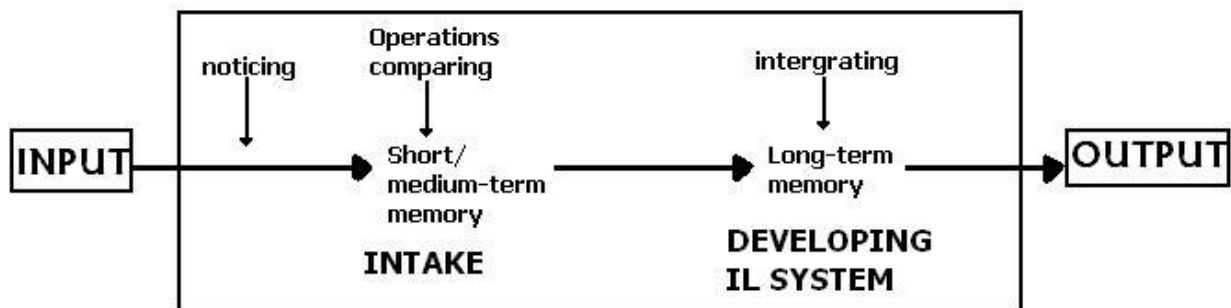
### **2.6.3 Noticing**

As regards the role ascribed to noticing, many researchers have proposed that noticing a feature in the input is a critical first step. Noticing requires of the learner a conscious attention and awareness of input. Schmidt excludes the possibility of subconscious noticing. In other words, he rejects subliminal learning (any sort of noticing without awareness) and argues that “Subliminal language learning is impossible and that intake is what learners consciously notice” (Schmidt, 1990: 149).

Recent years have seen a growing concern with the role of conscious processes in SLA. This concern is centred on the noticing hypothesis of Schmidt (1990, 1993, 1995; Schmidt and Frota, 1986) which has been adopted by a large number of researchers (e.g. Ellis, 1993b; Fotos, 1993; Harley, 1993). The hypothesis is a claim about how input becomes intake (Truscott, 1998: 103). According to Schmidt, noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input to intake in second language learning. He (1990: 139) defines intake as the part of the input that is noticed. Therefore, once the learner notices

something in the input, it automatically becomes intake, “If noticed, it becomes intake” (*ibid.*). Learners select specific parts of the input they are exposed to which then becomes available for further processing. Indeed, Schmidt argues strongly against any intake of input that the learner has not noticed. Therefore, noticing is equated with attention plus awareness, and is operationalized as a cognitive operation that takes place both during and immediately after exposure to the input that is available for self-report. In other words, noticing is linked noticing to subjective experience and one’s ordinary ability to report such experience.

To help clarify Schmidt’s hypothesis, and the place of noticing in SLA, the following model, proposed by Ellis (1997), is useful (Figure 4).



**Figure 4:** The process of learning implicit knowledge (Ellis, 1997: 119)

Ellis has based his model on current theories of SLA, where two main stages are seen to be involved in the process of input becoming implicit knowledge. The first stage, in which input becomes intake, involves learners noticing language features in the input, absorbing them into their short term store and comparing them to features produced as output. The second stage is one in which intake is absorbed into the learner’s interlanguage (IL) system. Schmidt (1990: 213) believes that “Noticing is related to rehearsal within working memory and the transfer of information to long term memory, to intake, and to item learning”. In the same vein, Batstone (1996: 273) argues that:

Noticing is a complex process: it involves the intake both of meaning and form, and it takes time for learners to progress from initial recognition to the point where they can internalize the underlying rule. This argues for teachers to provide recurring opportunities for learners to notice, since one noticing task is most unlikely to be sufficient. More specifically, we may want to work with different kinds of noticing task in future in order to serve different psycholinguistic factors.

Schmidt concludes that noticing is central to SLA based on the analysis of his own acquisition of Portuguese during a five-month stay in Brazil (Schmidt and Frota, 1986). He kept a diary of what he has noticed through instruction and also recorded his interactions with native speakers. Analysis of the two sources indicated that just being taught a particular grammatical form was insufficient for subsequent use of the form in the taped conversations. It was only after Schmidt noticed the target form in communicative input that the form eventually showed up in his production. He (1990: 41) states that this study provides strong evidence for a close connection between noticing and emergence in production:

I heard them (features) and processed them for meaning from the beginning, but did not notice the form for five months. When I finally did notice the form, I began to use it.

It is clear that language learners are not free to notice whatever they want whenever they want. Schmidt (1990: 143) points that there are a number of factors that are likely to influence what learners notice. These factors are:

## **Instruction**

Instruction provides structured input that assists noticing by focusing attention on and enhancing awareness of language features (Skehan, 1998). Schmidt (1990) also proposes that instruction will play an important role in priming learners to notice features by establishing expectations about language.

## **Frequency**

A language feature may become frequent due to repeated instruction or by way of teacher talk. Schmidt (1990) asserts that when the item does appear more frequently in the input, the likelihood that an item will be noticed and integrated into the interlanguage system is increased. Therefore, the more frequent an item, the greater number of opportunities for noticing exist.

## **Perceptual salience**

The more prominent a language form at input, the greater the chance it will be noticed (Skehan, 1998). It stands to reason, therefore, that the less salient a form, the less likely it is to be noticed and such forms include morphemes that are bound and unstressed.

## **Skill level**

According to Schmidt (1990), skill level includes how well individuals are able to routinize previously met structures. This processing ability in turn determines how ready learners are to notice new forms in the input.

## **Task demands**

Task demands refer to the way in which an instructional task causes learners to notice particular features that are necessary in order to carry out that task (Schmidt, 1990). To achieve this, Ellis (1997) suggests that language features may

be made intentionally prominent or the task be designed to force learners to process the language. Skehan (1998) also points out that noticing may be more or less depending on whether the level of processing that the task demands is low, such as in the exchange of familiar information, or high, as in a task that requires imaginative and abstract decision-making.

## **Comparing**

Ellis (1997) points out that only by learners recognizing that new language features are at variance with their current interlanguage version, will those features become part of their developing interlanguage system. Similarly, Schmidt and Frota (1986) suggest that noticing alone is not enough for input to become intake. Rather, it requires learners to make a comparison between their observed input and typical output based on their existing interlanguage system. In other words, they must consciously ‘notice the gap’. Learners may notice not only the target language form but also that it is different from their own interlanguage.

Considerably, second language learners must consciously notice the grammatical form of their input in order to acquire grammar. Moreover, the likelihood of noticing can also be increased by high frequency of a feature in the input.

### **2.6.4 Input Enhancement**

Recently, SLA research focuses on the cognitive mechanisms that underpin learner processing of input. In studies of how second language instruction has an effect on L2 learners subsequent processing of input, many researchers examined how external manipulation of input can affect intake and subsequent learning. For instance, Sharwood-Smith (1991) proposes that the term consciousness-raising be replaced by input enhancement. According to him (1993:176), the difference between the two terms lies on the fact that consciousness-raising implies that the

learners' mental state is altered by the input; hence, all input is intake. Input enhancement, however, implies only that we can manipulate aspects of the input but make no further assumptions about the consequences of that input on the learner. Therefore, input enhancement involves directing the focus of the learner to targeted linguistic forms. Moreover, Tomlin and Villa (1994:186) state that:

Consciousness-raising focused on processes internal to the learners, processes that are largely inaccessible to simple observation... Input enhancement which focuses more on the observable characteristics of the input and less on learner's internal processes, involves ways in which certain features of language input are made more salient to the learner.

Sharwood-Smith (1993) posits that there are different ways to make input salient and different ways in which such salience may affect the learner's knowledge and performance in the second language. Among these ways corrective feedback. The latter attracted considerable attention from researchers. The theoretical motivation for this interest lies in the claim that L2 learning requires negative evidence as well as positive evidence (i.e. learners need to be shown what is not correct as well as provided with examples of what is correct). Further theoretical support for corrective feedback can be found in Schmidt's claim (1995) about the importance of noticing and noticing the gap in SLA. Corrective feedback may help learners notice linguistic forms that they might ignore and to identify how their deviant utterances differ from the linguistic norms of the language (Ellis, 2005a: 19). Positive input enhancement would simply make more salient certain correct forms in the input. For instance, color coding, say, case marking or gender distinction in the definite article, or bold facing the target structures to make them more salient to learners would be an unelaborated form of salience, with no appeal

to metalinguistic knowledge. The oral equivalents to this would be special stress and intonation and use of gesture. A highly elaborate form of enhancing the input would be pointing out and explaining a construction using metalinguistic terminology. It would require the learner to be trained in the appropriate concepts and terms. Negative input enhancement would flag given forms as incorrect, thus signaling to the learner that they have violated the target norms (Sharwood-Smith, 1993). Therefore, teachers should provide students with negative feedback by recasting (reformulating correctly a learners incorrect utterance) or leading students to self-repair by elicitation (e.g. How do we say that in English), clarification (e.g. I don't understand), metalinguistic clues (e.g. No, we don't say it that way) or repetition (e.g. A books?) (Larsen-Freeman, 2001: 40).

In a total turnaround from the view that learners' errors are to be prevented, some linguists suggest that students should be encouraged to make errors by being led down the garden path. For instance, students might be given a rule without being told that it has exceptions. It is assumed that when students do overgeneralize the rule and commit an error, the negative feedback they receive will be more successful in their acquiring the exceptions than if they were given a list of exceptions in advance (Tomasello and Herron, 1989). It should be noted that the input enhancement technique used in this example is based on capitalizing learners' erroneous tendencies in connection with the target language structure.

Also included in the input enhancement technique would be Van Patten's (1996) input processing tasks, in which students are told what to pay attention to and what to notice, rather than working on explicit rule learning and application. For instance, if students are directed to accomplish a certain action by the teacher (e.g. Point to the window), they have an opportunity to associate the imperative form with its use in a meaningful way.

While input is clearly necessary for noticing, research has also shown that output plays an important part. As reported by Swain (1998: 67) “it is while attempting to produce the target language (vocally or subvocally) that learners notice that they do not know how to say (or write) precisely the meaning they wish to convey”.

Henceforth, a variety of output techniques may be employed including negotiation tasks and metatalking. The latter involves talking about the language. One procedure used to encourage metatalking is a dictogloss. It is “a form of dictation, but one in which the students hear or reconstruct the whole text, rather than doing so line by line” (Thornbury, 1999: 82). With this procedure, a short text is read to the learners at normal speed; while it is being read, students write down familiar words, and phrases and then work together in small groups to reconstruct the text from their shared resources. The final versions are then analysed and compared (Swain, 1998).

Other input enhancement techniques aimed at providing error flags on given forms and constructions include nonlinguistic signals such as when the teacher grasps or makes a funny face on hearing an error (Lightbown and Spada, 1990).

Moreover, input enhancement may take the form of input flooding; that is, increasing the number of times that students encounter the target structure in a particular text.

In sum, there are many techniques that can be used to make input salient, which can affect L2 learners processing of input. Tomlin and Villa (1994:186) hold that:

Techniques used to enhance input include the explicit discussion of linguistic form, metalinguistic description; negative evidence through overt error correction; and input flooding, in which the learner is exposed to a great number of exemplars. These instructional procedures increase learner performance in L2 over treatments indifferent to linguistic form.

A number of experiments have examined the effects of various input enhancement techniques. Here are some:

**White, Spada, Lightbown and Ranta (1991)** investigated the extent to which form-focused instruction and corrective feedback (i.e. input enhancement), provided within a primarily communicative programme, contribute to learners' accuracy in question formation. Over a two-week period, three experimental classes of beginner level francophone ESL learners (aged 10-12 years) were exposed to a variety of input enhancement activities on question formation. Their performance on paper- and pencil- tasks and an oral communication task was assessed on a pre-post test basis and compared with an uninstructed control group. The results indicate that instruction contributed to syntactic accuracy and that learners who were exposed to the input enhancement activities significantly outperformed the uninstructed learners. These results were interpreted as evidence that input enhancement can bring about genuine changes in learners' interlanguage systems.

**Doughty (1991)** reported an experiment investigating the learning of English relative clauses within the context of a computer-assisted reading lesson. Twenty ESL learners were randomly assigned to one of three treatments: a rule oriented treatment, including explicit rule statements and on-screen sentence

manipulation; a meaning-oriented treatment, including highlighting and capitalization of target forms; and a control group (exposure only). Students in the control group received no instruction whatsoever, but did view sentences containing relative pronouns on a computer screen. Results indicated that increasing the salience of target forms was as successful as providing explicit metalinguistic descriptions in fostering acquisition of relative clause structures. The meaning-oriented group outperformed both the rule-oriented and the control group in comprehension of the texts read during the experiment, suggesting a dual advantage for the instructional technique of focusing learners attention on linguistic forms in context. Doughty (1991: 451) notes that:

The meaning oriented 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.

**Alanen (1995)** reported a randomized control study of the learning of Finnish as a second language, in which the learning targets were two locative suffixes and a rule of consonant gradation. The study compared a group for whom the target structures were made more salient by italicization with a simple exposure control group where participants were scored for their ability to produce the correct target suffixes -lla and -ssa after training, there were no significant differences between the two groups. However, analysis of their productions showed that participants in the control group were likely to omit the suffixes altogether, whereas most participants in the input enhancement condition produced incorrect variances, such as, -ousa, -ous, -osi,-osso, -asso, -asse and sa (all for -ssa). This suggested that italicization had caused them to notice the presence of the suffix but was insufficient for them to acquire the exact form.

**White (1998)** examined the effects of manipulating input on the acquisition of visually-enhanced target features. The topographical enhancement used in the study included the manipulation of italics, bolding, enlargement and underlying. The objective was to direct the learners' attention to the target feature (the third person singular in English) in a manner that was both more explicit than input flooding, but less explicit than providing a grammatical rule and explanation. The participants in this study were 86 French-speaking students enrolled in an ESL class, and were divided into three treatment groups. The first group received a typographically-enhanced input flood and extensive listening and reading practice. The second group received the typographically-enhanced input flood only. The third group received an un-enhanced input flood. Input for all conditions was presented within the context of a story which included enhanced forms.

The researcher hypothesized that learners exposed to typographical input enhancement would progress further in the acquisition of target structures than would learners who did not get enhanced input. Following treatment, participants completed a passage correction task, a multiple choice test, and an oral picture description task. The findings revealed that many of the lessons benefited from input enhancement.

In addition to the test measurements, a questionnaire about the typographical enhancement was administered at the end of the study. Participants' responses suggested that typographical enhancement was salient enough to attract learners' attention to the target structure without distracting them while they read.

We turn to an analysis of another basic distinction between grammar consciousness-raising and practice.

## 2.7 Grammar Consciousness-Raising versus Practice

For most teachers, the main idea of grammar teaching is to help learners internalize the structures taught in such a way that they can be used in everyday communication. To this end, learners are provided with opportunities to practise the structures, first under controlled conditions, and then under mere normal communicative conditions. Ur (1988:7) argues that “The practice stage consists of a series of exercises...whose aim is to cause the learners to absorb the structure thoroughly; or, to put it another way, to transfer what they know from short-term to long-term memory”.

According to Ellis (2002), it is common to distinguish a number of different types of practice activities: mechanical practice, contextualized practice, and communicative practice. Mechanical practice consists of various types rigidly controlled activities, such as substitution exercises. Contextualized practice is still controlled, but involves an attempt to encourage learners to relate form to meaning by showing how structures are used in real-life communication. Communicative practice entails various types of “gap activities which require the learners to engage in authentic communication while at the same time keeping an eye, as it were, on the way the structures are being manipulated in the process” (Ur, 1988: 9).

Irrespective of whether practice is mechanical, contextualized or communicative, as Ellis (2002: 167) points out, it will have the following characteristics:

1. A specific grammatical feature is isolated for focused attention.
2. The learners are required to produce sentences or statements comprising the target feature.
3. The learners will be provided with opportunities for repetition of the targeted feature.
4. There is expectation that the learners will perform the grammatical feature correctly.
5. The learners receive feedback (immediate or delayed) on whatever their performance of the grammatical structure is correct or incorrect.

These five characteristics provide a definition of what most methodologists mean by practice. It should be noted that each characteristic constitutes an assumption about how grammar is learnt.

Traditionally, much practice was at the sentence level; sentence completion (e.g. gap filling exercises and substitution drills), sentence transformation (e.g. changing active to passive voice, declarative mood to interrogative mood, etc.), and occasionally sentence creation (creating sentences from given specification) (Lock, 1996: 275). For example, one concern over the Grammar-Translation Method is its reliance upon rote learning and practice tasks: the memorization and recitation of translation equivalents or texts. In fact, this type of practice does not use existing cognitive structures or existing conceptual system, but treats the target language in isolation.

Furthermore, grammar teaching has been conducted by means of activities that give learners opportunities to produce sentences containing the target

structure. These activities consist of mechanical pattern-practice drills of the kind found in the Audiolingual Method (ALM) or situational grammar exercises in which the target structure is contextualized in terms of some real or imaginary situations. The underlying assumption of both types of activity is that having learners produce the structure correctly and repeatedly helps them learn it.

A widely prevailing approach to the teaching of grammar, which is used to practise grammatical features, developed in the 1970's and 1980's and is still popular with many teachers, is to present a grammatical structure to learners, to ask them to practise it in controlled activities which focus on accurate reproduction of the structure, and then to set up free activities in which students produce the target form. This is often known as the presentation practice production (PPP) model. (Hedge, 2000:164).

The PPP model has enjoyed, and still enjoys today, great popularity among teachers and teacher trainers but it has come under heavy criticism recently. The basis of much of this criticism is that an important gap exists between teaching and learning. Students may be able to demonstrate a good grasp of a particular grammatical form during classroom activities but later, when once again operating under the pressures of real-time communication, they no longer exhibit the same control. Ellis (1993b: 6) expresses the problem inherent in the PPP model in this way:

You can design an activity hoping that learners will produce a certain feature, but the reality is that, if they do treat it as a piece of genuine communication, there is a very good chance that they will not use the grammatical feature that you intended them to use. In other words, you can devise activities that make the use of a feature natural and useful, but it is extremely difficult to make the use of a feature essential.

Another major flaw in the PPP paradigm is its excessive emphasis on productive practice. Asking students to produce grammatical structures immediately may be “counterproductive, in that it may distract attention away from the brain world involved in understanding and restructuring” (Thornbury, 1999: 105).

Grammar consciousness-raising, on the other hand, does not necessarily demand immediate mastery or accurate production of the target structure, but instead, may simply exist at the level of understanding and remembering (Thornbury, 1999: 24). Therefore, an important feature which may be said to typify the consciousness-raising approach to grammar teaching is its rejection of the PPP approach in favour of a discovery-oriented approach. Ellis (1993b: 5-6) states:

[Activities] that will seek to get a learner to understand a particular grammar 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.

The proponents of grammar consciousness-raising challenge the traditional role practice has played in the teaching of grammatical structures. They hold that it is unclear whether this type of practice will enhance learners' retention or recall. Instead, they suggest that most teachers attempt to place their input in context to aid understanding. This is the contextualized practice that is assumed to increase the level of consciousness-raising. Accordingly, practice must develop the cognitive strategies required to form, test, evaluate and (if necessary) reform hypotheses or generalizations of how the TL is constructed and used.

Furthermore, a number of researchers devised exercise types called grammar interpretation tasks or structured input tasks to replace the traditional production tasks. Ellis (1995), in particular, comments that such tasks require learners to process input which has been specially structured so as to help them understand the target item, and there is no immediate need to produce it. He (1995: 94) argues that interpretation tasks have the following goals:

1. To enable learners to identify the meaning (s) realized by a specific grammatical feature. 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. For example, on hearing the sentence: I'd like three bottles please, a learner may be able to understand that bottles is plural in meaning without noticing the -s morpheme or understanding its function.
2. To enhance input 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.

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 input that has been specially contrived to induce learners to attend to the meaning of a specific grammatical structure, 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 ultimately on their own output.

Ellis (1995: 98) gave a list of general principles for the design of interpretation tasks:

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 (i.e. they must have undertaken a form-function mapping).

Figure 5 gives an example of a part of an interpretation task that was designed to teach psychological predicate constructions and the kind of errors learners made with this structure. For instance, learners misunderstand a sentence like ‘Mary worries about her mother’.

**Figure 5:** An example of an interpretation task (Ellis, 1995).

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A- Answer the following questions:

1. Do tall people frighten you?
2. Do people who cook impress you?
3. Do smartly dressed people attract you?
4. Do argumentative people annoy you?
5. Are you interested in physically attractive people?
6. Are you bored by self-important people?
7. Are you irritated by fat people?
8. Are you confused by clever people?

B- On the basis of your responses in A, make a list of qualities of people whom

1. You like.
  2. You dislike.
- 

In fact, practice is directed at the acquisition of implicit knowledge of a grammatical structure. That is the sort of tacit knowledge required for applying the structure effortlessly to communicate. Grammar consciousness-raising is geared for the formation of explicit knowledge: the kind of intellectual knowledge which we are able to gather about any subject (Ellis, 1993a).

However, it is not intended to suggest that practice has no role at all in language teaching. Practice may still be important as a means of helping learners gain control over formulaic knowledge, and it probably has some place in the

teaching of pronunciation (Ellis, 1993a). What is being challenged is the traditional role it has played in the teaching of grammatical structures.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter has shown that consciousness is crucial for L2 learning to take place. The mainstream point of view of current cognitive psychology does not support the position that subjective awareness is epiphenomenal, and it is claimed that learning without conscious attention is impossible.

In fact, the noticing hypothesis has acknowledged the role of consciousness in language learning and argued that learners must first consciously notice, that is, demonstrate a conscious apprehension and awareness of some particular form in the input, before any subsequent processing of that form can take place. In other words, noticing is the necessary condition for the conversion of input to intake for learning. So, the claim that acquisition takes place solely by being exposed to comprehensible input, which is professed providing the language learner with implicit information about how language functions, is contrary to the findings of countless researchers.

Henceforward, acquisition involves conscious processes of which the most fundamental is attention. It follows that helping learners to attend to language structures will help them in their acquisition. Pointing out features of the grammatical system is thus a form of grammar consciousness-raising. Therefore, many researchers underlie the significance of GCR tasks. These tasks are mainly designed to engage the learners in rich and purposeful goal-oriented L2 communication, as well as to contribute to the development of explicit knowledge. Such classroom interaction is an important means of producing comprehensible input and negotiation of meaning which facilitate language acquisition. Eckerth (2008: 122) holds:

Consciousness-raising tasks draw the learners' attention to how form, meaning, function, and context interact...the investigated tasks stimulate the activation of previous knowledge, L2 hypothesis building and testing (Bialystock, 1983), cognitive comparison between input data and interlanguage knowledge (Ellis, 1997).

Bearing this in mind, and considering some reasons directly related to the present research (this will be made clear in the next chapters), our commitment will be to investigate the effects of GCR tasks on facilitating the acquisition of attributive adjective order.

# **CHAPTER THREE**

## **ORDER OF ADJECTIVES**

### Introduction

3.1 Defining Adjectives

3.2 Kinds of Adjectives

3.3 Special Classes of Adjectives

3.3.1 Attributive and Predicative Adjectives

3.3.2 Gradable and Ungradable Adjectives

3.4 Comparison of Adjectives

3.5 Order of Adjectives

3.5.1 Order of Premodifier Attributive Adjectives

3.5.2 Order of Predicative Adjectives

3.6 Typical Difficulties for Learners

### Conclusion

## Introduction

The main objective of this chapter is to review some of the basic rules for attributive adjective order. However, before discussing this issue, it is necessary to provide a clear explanation of some major points related to it. Therefore, the chapter begins with an overview of adjective definitions. The second part demonstrates the different kinds of adjectives with a distinction between special classes including attributive/ predicative adjectives and gradable/ ungradable adjectives. From there, it moves on to consider the ways used to compare adjectives. Most important of all, it provides an analysis of some proposed rules for ordering a string of adjectives. The chapter concludes with a reference to typical difficulties for learners of English when studying adjectives.

### 3.1 Defining Adjectives

In grammar, an adjective is a word whose syntactic role is to modify a noun or pronoun, giving more information about what the noun or pronoun refers to (Thornbury, 1997b: 109). For instance, the adjectives in the following sentences are underlined:

Large trees could be seen.

They are happy.

In the preceding examples, the adjective ‘large’ modifies the noun ‘trees’, and the adjective ‘happy’ modifies the pronoun ‘they’.

Generally, adjectives are often called describing words because they provide information about the qualities of something described in a noun, a noun phrase, or clause (Parrott, 2000: 18):

noun: an old film

noun phrase: an interesting experience of everyone.

clause: It’s unbelievable that we haven’t seen each other for so long.

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Similarly, Teschner and Evans (2007: 10), when analysing the semantic function of adjectives, point out that:

A semantic trait of adjectives is that they describe, modify, limit, distinguish or otherwise characterize the noun they refer to. Adjectives take a larger category -the noun- and limit it to a percentage of things within what the noun covers. An example is the phrase green apples. The larger category -apples- is made smaller by the adjective green, so that now only green apples (and not red, yellow, or golden apples) are being referred to.

Significantly, it is worth noting that adjectives are the colour commentators of language, the words that give writing and speech flavour; that is, we “use adjectives to make writing more specific and concrete” (Maclin, 1994: 9).

In fact, adjectives have been otherwise called attributes, attributives, qualities, adnouns; but none of these names is any better than the common one (G. Brown, 2000). Collectively, they form one of the traditional eight parts of speech, though linguists today distinguish adjectives from words such as determiners that used to be considered adjectives but that are recognized to be different (see Part 3.2). Moreover, adjectives form an open class of words; that is, it is relatively common for new adjectives to be formed via such processes as derivation (Huddleston, 1988).

Furthermore, Huddleston and pullum (2005: 112) note that adjectives typically denote properties of objects, persons, places, etc., properties relating to age (old, young), size (big, small), shape (round, flat), weight (heavy, light), colour (black, blue), merit or quality (good, bad), and the like.

Whereas it is generally accepted that all languages distinguish grammatically between nouns and verbs, not all languages have a distinct adjective class. Those that do not typically use words of another part of speech, often verbs, to serve the same semantic function; for example, such a language have a verb that means ‘to be big’, and uses a construction analogous to ‘big- being house’ to express what English expresses as ‘big house’. Even in languages that do have adjectives, one language’s adjective is not be another’s; for instance, where English has ‘to be hungry’ (hungry being an adjective), French has ‘avoir faim’ (Literally ‘to have hunger’) (From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia).

In languages which have a distinct adjective class, there is a tendency for verbs to be dynamic (denoting actions, events, etc.), adjectives static. Note in this distinction that in English adjectives generally occur very much more readily in the non progressive construction than in the progressive, whereas this is not so with the majority of verbs (so that ‘Ed moved’ and ‘Ed was moving’ are equally natural, ‘Ed was tall’ and ‘Ed was being tall’ are not). Additionally, nouns differ from adjectives in the sense that nouns typically have plural inflected forms, adjectives (in English) never do. Conversely, many adjectives have comparative and superlative inflected forms, but no nouns do (Huddleston, 1988).

In a similar vein, many languages, including English distinguish between adjectives which modify nouns and pronouns, and adverbs, which modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. Besides, there are words that can function as both (G. Brown, 2004: 296). For example, fast is an adjective in ‘a fast car’ (where it modifies the noun car), but an adverb in ‘he drove fast’.

Generally, many adjectives are made up of two parts (usually connected by a hyphen). These two part adjectives are multiword adjectives. The second part of multiword adjectives is often a past participle form. They can be an adverb and past participle (well-liked, well-intentional) or a noun and past participle (feather-brained, self-centred). We also derive adjectives from multiword verbs. In this

case, the first part is usually a past participle form (e.g. worn-out, tied-up). However, other multiword adjectives do not involve participle forms at all (e.g. two-piece, birds-eye) (Parrott, 2000: 19-20).

Thomson and Martinet (1986: 33) state that adjectives in English have the same form for singular and plural, masculine and feminine nouns:

a good boy, good boys.

a good girl, good girls.

The only exceptions are the demonstrative adjectives ‘this’ and ‘that’, which change to ‘these’ and ‘those’ before plural nouns.

this cat, these cats.

that man, those men.

Drawing on the basis of the previous lines of reasoning, we need to investigate the different kinds of adjectives that have been discussed by many investigators.

### 3.2 Kinds of Adjectives

Thomson and Martinet (1986: 33) classified adjectives into different kinds. They include in their list the following adjectives:

**a.** Demonstrative: this, that, these, those.

**b.** Distributive: each, every, either, neither.

**c.** Qualitative: some, any, no, little, few, many, much, one, twenty.

**d.** Interrogative: which, what, whose.

**e.** Possessive: my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their.

**f.** Of quality: clever, dry, fat, golden, good, heavy, square. This kind of adjectives is also called descriptive adjectives or fact adjectives. They describe the size, shape, colour, taste, quality, etc. of nouns.

The second type of adjectives identified by Thomson and Martinet (1986: 33) is participles. In English, both present participles (ing) and past participles (ed) can

be used as adjectives; however, care must be taken not to confuse them. Present participle adjectives, amusing, boring, tiring etc., are active and mean ‘having this effect’. Past participle adjectives, amused, horrified, tired etc., are passive and mean ‘affected in this way’.

The way was boring. (The audience was bored.)

The work was tiring. (The workers were soon tired.)

The scene was horrifying. (The spectators were horrified.)

An infuriating woman. (She made us furious.)

An infuriated woman. (something had made her furious.)

Brookes (1996: 119) includes another type which he called classifying adjectives. The latter identifies the particular class that things or people belong to. For example, if we say ‘financial help’, we are using the adjective ‘financial’ to classify the noun ‘help’. There are many different kinds of help, financial help is one of them. Since things or objects are either members of class or not, these adjectives are not gradable (this point will come into further discussion and clarification in the section to come).

G. Brown (2004: 297) identifies six classes of adjectives, namely, common, proper, numeral, pronominal, participial and compound.

1. A common adjective is any adjective denoting quality or situation as good, bad, peaceful.
2. A proper adjective is an adjective formed from a proper name as American, English, Genoese.
3. A numeral adjective is an adjective that expresses a definite number as one, two, three, etc. It is of three kinds :
  - a. Cardinal: one, two, three, four, five, etc.
  - b. Ordinal: first, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, etc.
  - c. Multiplicative: single or alone, double or twofold, triple or threefold, quadruple or fourfold, quintuple or fivefold, etc. But high terms of this series are seldom used.

**4.** A pronominal adjective is a definite word which may either accompany its noun, or represent it understood; as, ‘All join to guard what each desires to gain’. That is ‘All men join to guard what each man desires to gain’. They are comparatively very few, but frequency of use gives them great importance in grammar. The following words properly belong to this class : all, my, both, certain, each, either, else, enough, every, few, first, latter, last, little, less, least, many, more, most, much, neither, no, one, only, several, some, that, this, these, those, etc.

**5.** A participial adjective is one that has the form of a participle, but differs from it by rejecting the idea of time; as, ‘An amusing story’, ‘A lying divination’.

**6.** A compound adjective is one that consists of two or more words joined together, either by the hyphen or solidly as nut-brown, four-footed, threefold, lordlike.

In a provocative review of these kinds, Radden and Dirven (2007) identify several kinds of adjectives and classify them into four main types as follows : a) scalar adjectives, which are “sometimes also described as gradable adjectives, they are intensifiable (very intelligent), and they can be used in both attributive (intelligent beings) and predicative function (the beings are intelligent)” (Radden and Dirven, 2007: 150); b) determining adjectives, which “represent an even more peripheral class of premodifier adjectives: their sole or predominant function is to specify a category or ground a referent” (*ibid.* 151). Examples include main, complete, real, and only ; c) denominal adjectives, which “have a distinctly categorizing function. For example, denominal adjectives are used to distinguish different kinds of advice, such as legal advice, medical advice, and financial advice” (*ibid.* 152); and d) deadverbial adjectives, which “relate to the manner of an action...or to the setting of a situation. The meaning of manner is found in examples such as hard worker, early riser, and heavy smoker” (*ibid.*).

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Noteworthy, we can emphasize our feelings about something we mention by putting an adjective such as complete, absolute, utter in front of a noun.

He made me feel like a complete idiot.

Some of it was absolute rubbish.

We generally use an adjective of this kind only when the noun indicates our opinion about something. Because they are used to show strong feelings, these adjectives are called emphasizing adjectives. Examples are: entire, outright, perfect, positive, pure, real, total and true (Collins COBUILD English grammar, 1990: 69).

The word ‘very’, which is normally a submodifier, is sometimes used to emphasize a noun, in expressions like ‘the very top’ and ‘the very end’ (Collins COBUILD English grammar, 1990: 70):

at the very top of the shop.

the very bottom of the hill.

These molecules could have formed in the seas of the Earth at the very beginning of its history.

In addition to these different kinds, many names of materials, substances and nouns indicating use or purpose can be used as adjectives (G. Brown, 2004).

a kitchen chair

a mail train

a cotton dress

In fact, they remain nouns, as far as nature is concerned, having the function of adjectives. Similarly, determiners including articles, demonstratives (this, that, these, those), possessive determiners (my, our, your, etc.), cardinal and ordinal numbers can be used as adjectives. Therefore, their function is to modify a noun or pronoun. But, determiners such as ‘the’ are syntactically very different from adjectives as ‘happy’. In the first place, the, unlike happy cannot be used predicatively (people are happy but not people are the). Secondly, ‘the’ is

ungradable and cannot take any dependents of its own (contrast [she is] happier/very happy with the result). At its periphery; however, the determinative class has strong affinities with the adjective class, and it is debatable just where the boundary should be drawn (Huddleston, 1988: 116).

As a conclusion, we believe that adjectives can be classified into two kinds. The first kind includes adjectives which have the nature/ form and function of adjectives as tall, small etc. The second type involves adjectives that only function as modifiers of nouns or pronouns; however, they differ from adjectives as far as nature is concerned (e.g. nouns and determiners). Accordingly, many grammarians maintain their interest in analysing other types of adjectives. The differences in the way we use these special kinds of adjectives can cause problems even for advanced students. Therefore, we shall look at these different types and the ways in which we can modify their meaning in the section to come.

### **3.3 Special Classes of Adjectives**

Many grammarians have noted the distinction between attributive/ predicative adjectives and gradable/ ungradable adjectives.

#### **3.3.1 Attributive and Predicative Adjectives**

An adjective is attributive or used attributively when it comes before the noun it describes and therefore is part of the noun phrase. For example, 'happy' is an attributive adjective in the noun phrase 'happy kids'. However, an adjective which is separated from the noun or pronoun it modifies by a verb is often referred to as a predicative adjective. In other words, an adjective is predicative when it comes after linking verbs such as be or seem. In this case, the adjective is used as subject complement on its own; it completes the meaning of the subject. For instance, 'angry' is a predicative adjective in 'she seems angry'. In this example, the adjective 'angry' stands as a subject complement after the linking verb 'seem'.

As Walker and Elsworth (2000: 7) put it:

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When an adjective comes before a noun, it is attributive... when an adjective is separated from the noun and comes after the verb, it is predicative. An adjective can follow verbs like be, become, get, seem, appear, feel, smell, look, sound, taste, make (+ person), keep, stay, grow, turn. It is a complement of the verb and not an object.

It should be noted that attributive adjectives can be used in two main positions, i.e., as premodifier or postmodifier adjectives. The two positions have different functions and are associated with different structural meanings (Radden and Dirven, 2007: 149):

- a.** The North star is a visible star (attributive, premodifier).
- b.** Jupiter and Saturn are the planets visible (in January) (attributive, postmodifier).

Thus, in using the adjective visible as a premodifier in (a), the speaker implies that the North Star is permanently visible to the naked eye or by telescope, at least at night time. By using visible as a postmodifier in (b), the speaker suggests that the planets Jupiter and Saturn are only temporarily visible, for example in a particular month or at this moment.

Undoubtedly, most adjectives can be both attributive and predicative, but some adjectives can only be used in one particular position (Leech and Svartvick, 2002).

On the one hand, as Hewings (1999: 164) notes, some adjectives are used only in attributive position. More specifically, adjectives which identify something as being of a particular type, i.e., classifying adjectives (denominal adjectives). For example, we can talk about a ‘nuclear explosion’, but we cannot say ‘The explosion was nuclear’. Adjectives like this include: atomic, cubic, digital,

medical, phonetic; chief, entire, initial, main, only, whole; eventual, occasional, northern (etc.), maximum, minimum, underlying.

Some emphasizing adjectives are seldom or never used after a linking verb. These include: absolute, complete, mere and utter.

The main problem has now been solved.

I spent my entire savings on the project.

I felt an absolute idiot when I found that I hadn't got any money.

On the other hand, there are some adjectives that are used after a link verb and not in front of a noun. Adjectives which usually occur in the predicative position are those relating to health including ill, poorly, well/ unwell, fine (Walker and Elsworth, 2000: 10). For instance, she is very ill. Furthermore, adjectives beginning with the prefix -a can be used only as predicative adjectives, not as attributive adjectives such as afraid, alright, alike, alive, alone, ashamed, asleep, aware, awake (Maclin, 1994: 12). Thus, we can say 'the horse was alone in the field' but not 'the alone horse was in the field'.

Note that some of these adjectives have related adjectives that can be used as attributive adjectives (Swan, 1995: 10). Compare:

The animal was alive.

a living animal

The ship is still afloat.

a floating loaf

Other pairs like this include: afraid-frightened, alike-similar, asleep-sleeping.

Hewings (1999: 164) states that adjectives which usually occur in the predicative position also involve:

Some adjectives when they describe health and feelings: content, fine, glad, ill (notice that 'sick' can be used before a noun), poorly, sorry, (un) sure, upset, (un) well. (However, these words can sometimes be used between an adverb and a noun e.g. 'a terminally ill patient'.)

Notice that (un) happy can be used in both positions.

He is an unhappy man and The man felt unhappy.

Moreover, some adjectives can be used immediately after a noun in a similar way to relative clauses. This is common with adjectives ending in -able/ -ible (Swan, 1995: 10).

Send all the tickets available (=...tickets which are available)

It's the only solution possible (=...solution which is possible)

However, we use these adjectives immediately after a noun only when the noun follows words such as first, last, next, only, all, comparative and superlative adjectives, or when a prepositional phrase follows the adjective, because its meaning would otherwise be unclear or incomplete, and a few other adjectives like difficult and easy.

It's the only treatment suitable.

It is an offer available to club members only.

It is a difficult problem to solve.

Henceforth, when we use adjectives predicatively we can sometimes follow them with a preposition, infinitive or that clause. Parrott (2000: 22-23) comments that "learning what follows the adjective is an essential part of learning to use the adjective- and sometimes the most difficult part". Learners need to develop the habit of using a good learner's dictionary to check what can follow any particular adjective. Sometimes, there is more than one possibility.

Here, we will look at some examples.

**Table 2:** Prepositions after adjectives (Hewings, 1999: 172)

<p>angry and annoyed+ about/ with</p> <p>– She felt a little annoyed about the delay. (about something)</p> <p>– I’m not angry with you, Paul. (with somebody)</p>	<p>Concerned+ about/with</p> <p>– I’m a little concerned about your exam results. (=worried)</p> <p>– This section of the book is concerned with (=about) adjectives.</p>
<p>bad or good + at/ for</p> <p>– She’s very good/ bad at languages. (successful)</p> <p>– You should drink this. It’s good/ bad for you. (= healthy or beneficial)</p>	<p>Answerable+ for/ to</p> <p>– She is answerable for (=responsible for) the money that has disappeared.</p> <p>– The committee is answerable only to (=has to explain its actions to) the president.</p>

In Swan’s view (1995: 11), other adjectives come after something, everything, anything, nothing, somebody, anywhere and similar words.

Have you had anything interesting lately?

In addition, adjectives that describe size or age occur after the measurement noun in most expressions of measurement as in ‘two metres high’, ‘ten years older’, ‘six feet deep’, etc.

Another possible position for adjectives is after the object (often a noun or pronoun) in the structure verb+ object+ adjective. Here the adjective as complement describes something about the object.

I’ll get the car ready.

Do I make you happy?

Interestingly, adjectives can have different meaning as attributive adjectives from their meaning as predicative adjectives. Accordingly, bad/ good, big/ small,

heavy/ light and old used in such expressions as bad sailor, good swimmer, big eater, small farmer, heavy drinker, light sleeper, old boy etc., cannot be used predicatively without changing the meaning: a small farmer is a man who has a small farm, but the farmer is small means that he is a small man physically. Used otherwise, these adjectives can be in either position. Moreover, the meaning of early and late may depend on their position: an early/ a late train means a train scheduled to run early or late in the day. The train is early/ late means that it is before/ after its proper time. Poor meaning 'without enough money' can precede the noun or follow the verb. Thus, poor meaning 'unfortunate' must precede the noun, while poor meaning 'weak/ inadequate' precedes animate nouns such as student/ worker etc., but when used with inanimate nouns can be in either position (Thomson and Martinet, 1986: 34). Compare the following examples including similar adjectives:

–Jenny's a really old friend (I've known her for a long time)

Margaret's quite old now (old in age)

–I was asked for my present address (my address now)

All the people present (who were there) approved of the decision.

–His late father used to run the shop (His father is dead now)

He's nearly always late (he arrives on time)

–You're a heavy sleeper (you sleep very heavily; you do not wake up early)

This suitcase is really heavy (weighing a lot)

### 3.3.2 Gradable and Ungradable Adjectives

Many adjectives describe qualities that can be measured or graded in some way. These adjectives are often called gradable adjectives because they can take a modifying word, such as very, too and enough before them to show that a person or thing has more or less of a particular quality (Parrott, 2000: 23).

Too patient teacher

Very cold weather

Extremely large windows

Stated another way, a defining characteristic of gradable adjectives is that there is some gradient property associated with their meaning with respect to which the objects in their domains can be ordered. For example, any set of objects that have some positive linear dimension can be ordered according to how long the objects or how short they are, and any set of objects that move can be ordered according to how fast or slow they are.

A standard semantic analysis of gradable adjectives is that they include as a core part of their meaning a function that takes as its input an object and returns as its output a measure of the extent to which that object possesses a property denoted by the adjective. This measurement can be formally represented as values, or degrees, in an ordered set, or scale. The values of the scale correspond to the dimension labeled by the adjective (e.g. height, weight, age, etc.).

Words which qualify the adjective and make its meaning more precise are called submodifiers (Brookes, 1996). Thus, the modifying word locates the adjective on a scale of comparison, at a position higher or lower than the one indicated by the adjective alone. This characteristic is known as gradability. The lowest point on the scale is called the absolute form, the middle point is known as the comparative form, and the highest point is known as the superlative form. Comparative forms of adjectives show differences (contrasts) between two things or groups. Superlative forms show differences in three or more things or groups (Maclin, 1994: 13).

Adjective	comparative	superlative
big	bigger	biggest
new	newer	newest
old	older	oldest

Most adjectives are gradable, though if the adjective already denotes the highest point on a scale, then it is non-gradable (e.g. enormous, vast, priceless,

free). Ungradable adjectives describe qualities that are completely absent. They do not occur in comparative and superlative forms, and cannot be used with adverbs such as *very* or *extremely*, because we do not usually imagine degrees of more or less of the quality being described. Walker and Elsworth (2000: 15) explain that:

A non-gradable adjective is one that cannot be qualified by words like *very*, *too* and *enough*. Non-gradable adjectives include words like: *weekly*, *unconscious*, *dead*, *legal*, *medical*, *empty*, *full* where the meaning is strictly defined and cannot be qualified. There are, for example, no degrees of being *dead* or *unconscious*. Thus, we cannot say ‘*very dead*’.

Thus, ungradable adjectives have a meaning which represents the limit of a scale. For instance, the limits of the scale of ‘how much something costs’ are *free* (= it costs nothing) and *priceless* (=its cost is great to be counted). Moreover, other non-gradable adjectives are adjectives with a very strong meaning like: *wonderful*, *perfect*, *terrible*, *astonished*, *delicious*, *amazing*, *hilarious*. Since they already have very strong meanings, the use of a submodifier is very strange. These are called *limit adjectives* (Brookes, 1996: 121). But, when we want to indicate that we feel strongly about what we are saying, we can use a submodifier such as ‘*absolutely*’ before some of these adjectives. Walker and Elsworth (2000: 15) did argue that “we can add some strength to those words by preceding them with *absolutely* or *really*”. Common examples include: *totally impossible*, *really amazing*, *absolutely enormous*.

Because they place something in a class, *classifying adjectives* are also non-gradable in the way that *qualitative adjectives* are. Things are either in a particular class or not in it. Therefore, *classifying adjectives* do not have comparatives and superlatives and are not normally used with submodifiers as ‘*very*’ and ‘*rather*’

(Thornbury, 1997b). In other words, it is impossible to produce such forms like more Algerian, or most Algerian, and we cannot say more medical or most medical.

Hewings (1999: 166) provides a list of submodifiers that can be used with gradable or ungradable adjectives (Table 3).

**Table 3:** Adverbs used with gradable and ungradable adjectives (Hewings, 1999: 166).

Adverbs	Adjectives
extremely, deeply, fairly, hugely, immensely, pretty (informal), rather, really, reasonably, slightly, very	angry, big, busy, comfortable, common, happy, important, quiet, rich, young. } gradable adjectives
absolutely, completely, entirely, pretty, really, simply, totally, utterly	amazed, awful, dreadful, furious, huge, impossible, invaluable, terrible, wonderful, useless } ungradable adjectives

Note that not all the adverbs given can go with all the adjectives given. For example, we would not usually say ‘completely essential’.

As a rule of thumb, the common grading adverbs extremely, very, rather, slightly and a bit, which emphasize absolute qualities, do not occur with non gradable adjectives, since they intensify a particular type or an absolute quality (Brookes, 1996). Compare the following examples:

Non-gradable	gradable
This food is extremely superb	This food is extremely tasty
I found a very Roman coin	I found a very shiny coin

On the other hand, common non grading adverbs such as completely, totally and absolutely do not usually occur with gradable adjectives, since they describe qualities which can be measured in degrees. Compare:

Gradable	non-gradable
This book is absolutely excellent	This book is absolutely interesting
The exercise was completely important	The exercise was completely difficult.

One further important point to remember is that commonly used adverbs really, fairly and pretty (an informal variant of fairly) can be used with both gradable and non gradable adjectives (Parrott, 2000).

So far, it seems that the question of comparison of adjectives underlie the whole question of the distinction between gradable and ungradable adjectives.

### **3.4 Comparison of Adjectives**

Adjectives have, commonly, no modifications but the forms of comparison. Comparison is a variation of the adjective to express quality in different degrees as hard, harder, hardest; soft, softer, softest. Adjectives that can be compared are gradable adjectives.

In general, we can describe something by saying that it has more of a quality than something else. We do this by using comparative adjectives. When describing something to say that it has more of a quality than anything else of its kind, we use superlative adjectives (Collins COBUILD English grammar, 1990). If the two ways are combined (e.g. more cheaper), it is called double comparison and this is considered as non-standard, so are hybrid forms such as bestest (Maclin, 1994).

There are three degrees of comparison; the positive, the comparative, and the superlative. G. Brown (2004: 305) states that:

The positive degree is that which is expressed by the adjective in its simple form. The comparative degree is that which is more or less than something contrasted with it ... The superlative degree is that which is most or least of all included with it.

On the one hand, with short adjectives, i.e., adjectives composed of one syllable and not more than two, we “add -er for the comparative and -est for the superlative” (Maclin, 1994: 13). For example, bright, brighter, brightest. Certain one syllable adjectives have the form of consonant-vowel-consonant. These adjectives form their comparative and superlative by adding -er and -est after doubling the last consonant: big- bigger- biggest; hot, hotter, hottest (*ibid.* 311).

Thomson and Martinet (1986: 36) note that two-syllable adjectives ending in -y, -er or -ly usually add -er and -est.

clever	cleverer	cleverest
pretty	prettier	prettiest (note that the -y becomes -i)
silly	sillier	silliest

However, two-syllable adjectives which do not end in -y, -er, or -ly form their comparative and superlative by adding more/ less and the most/ the least to the absolute form (Hewings, 1999: 176).

honest	more/ less honest	the most/ the least honest
modern	more/ less modern	the most/ the least modern

For the opposite meaning, we use less and least and ‘the’ before superlatives. The degrees of inferiority are expressed, in like manner, by the adverbs less and least as: wise, less wise, least wise; famous, less famous, least famous (Maclin, 1994: 14).

Furthermore, two-syllable adjectives ending in *-ful* or *-re* usually take *more* and *most* to express degrees of superiority.

doubtful	more doubtful	most doubtful
obscure	more obscure	most obscure

On the other hand, long adjectives, i.e., adjectives made up of three or more than three syllables form their comparative and superlative by adding *more/ less* and the *most/ the least* to the base form (Thomson and Martinet, 1986: 36).

difficult	more difficult	the most difficult
	less difficult	the least difficult
comfortable	more/ less comfortable	the most/ the least comfortable

Nevertheless, some very common adjectives have irregular forms. Teschner and Evans (2007: 211), for instance, comment that “six base forms take irregular comparative forms, i.e., forms whose comparative use neither *-er* nor *more*”. These forms are presented with both their comparative and superlative forms as follows:

Base form	comparative	superlative
much	more	the most
many	more	the most
little	less	the least
good	better	the best
bad	worse	the worst
far	farther (measurable linear distance)	the farthest
	further (non-linear distance)	the furthest
old	older	the oldest (of people and things)
	elder	the eldest (of people only)

According to Maclin (1994: 17), in comparison of equals, we use *as...as* construction to say that two things or groups are similar:

---

Barbara is as tall as Carol.

Negative forms of sentences like this can use either not as or not so. In formal speech and writing it is common to use less than (Hewings, 1999: 178):

The gap between the sides is not as wide as it was. (or...is less wide than it was)

The bees are plentiful, but not so common as last summer. (or...but less common than last summer)

The construction as...as is also used in sentences with much and many to talk about quantities:

She earns at least as much as Marks, and probably more.

We also use as much/ many as or as little/few as to say that a quantity or amount is larger or smaller than expected. Many and few are used before numbers; much and little are used with amounts and distances:

There is a small number involved, possibly as few as a hundred. (not... as little as...)

Prices have increased by as much as 300 per cent.

Comparing adjectives is not the only problem encountered, thoroughly ordering many kinds of adjectives is no easy task too, and remains controversial. In this section, we shall attempt to consider the most conventionally accepted orders of adjectives by grammarians, and how they fit into the framework of teaching and learning of adjectives.

### **3.5 Order of Adjectives**

#### **3.5.1 Order of Premodifier Attributive Adjectives**

In English, it is common to use more than one adjective before a noun, for example, 'she is a smart energetic woman'. Thus, when a noun is preceded by more than one type of attributive adjectives, the different types of adjectives are usually arranged in a particular order. The order in which adjectives in a series sort

themselves out is perplexing for EFL students. Most other languages dictate a similar order, but not necessarily the same order. Swan (1995: 8) states that:

When several adjectives come before a noun (or when nouns are used to modify another noun), they usually have to be put in a particular order. For instance, we say a fat old lady, not an old fat lady, a small shiny black leather handbag, not a leather black shiny small handbag. Unfortunately, the rules for adjective order are very complicated, and different grammars disagree about the details.

Over the years, grammarians and linguists have come with increasingly fine-tuned rules for ordering strings of premodifier attributive adjectives. What we present here is a simplification of those rules, one that is cognizant of the fact that sequences of more than three to four adjectives are quite unusual. Thus, a phrase such as ‘a beautiful little dented old white Dutch mental teapot’ would be randomly criticized on stylistic grounds if written and would require a major feat of memory to utter (Teschner and Evans, 2007: 207).

The importance of establishing syntactic rules for different types of attributive adjectives is highlighted by the following ungrammatical phrases (Teschner and Evans, 2007: 207).

a hot nice bath

the fat big man

several red little schoolhouses

an Italian blue small automobile

One avenue of research on the main rules for attributive adjective order is that of Thomson and Martinet (1986: 35). In their presentation of these rules, they state that several variations are possible, but a fairly usual order is: adjectives of

- 
- a. Size
  - b. General description (excluding adjectives of personality)
  - c. Age, and the adjective little
  - d. Shape
  - e. Colour
  - f. Material
  - g. Origin
  - h. Purpose (these are really gerunds used to form compound nouns :  
walking stick, riding boots)

Adjectives of personality/ emotion come after adjectives of physical description, including dark, fair, pale, but before colours:

a pale anxious girl

a kindly black doctor

The adjectives little, old and young are often used, not to give information, but as part of an adjective noun combination. They are then placed next to their nouns:

Your nephew is a nice little boy.

Little+ old+ noun is possible: a little old lady. But little + young is not.

When used to give information, old and young occupy position (c) above:

a young coloured man

Adjectives of personality/ emotion can precede or follow young/ old

a young ambitious man            or            an ambitious young man

Young in the first example carries a stronger stress than young in the second, so the first order is better if we wish to emphasize the age.

Fine, lovely, nice and sometimes beautiful, + adjectives of size (except little), shape and temperature usually express approval of the size etc. If we say a

beautiful big room, a lovely warm house, nice/ fine thick steaks, we imply that we like big rooms, warm houses and thick steaks.

Fine, lovely and nice can be used similarly with a number of other adjectives:

fine strong coffee

a lovely quiet beach

a nice dry day

Swan (1995: 8) lists some of the most important rules. Adjectives of colour, origin, material and purpose usually go in that order.

	Colour	origin	material	purpose	noun
	red	Spanish	leather	riding	boots
a		German	glass	flower	vase

Other adjectives usually go before adjectives of colour, origin, material and purpose. It is impossible to give exact rules, but adjectives of size, length and height often come first.

the round glass table (not the glass round table)

a big, modern brick house (not a modern, big, brick house)

long, flexible steel poles

a tall ancient oak-tree

However, adjectives which express judgements or attitudes come before all others. Examples are lovely, definite, pure, absolute, extreme, perfect, wonderful, silly.

a lovely long cool drink.

According to Hewings (1999: 166), when we use more than one adjective before a noun, there is often a preferred order for these adjectives. However, this order is not fixed: opinion+ size/ physical quality/ shape/ age+ colour+ participle adjectives+ origin+ material+ type+ purpose+ noun.

an old plastic container (age+ material+ noun)

a hard red ball	(quality+ colour+ noun)
a frightening Korean mask	(opinion+ origin+ noun)
a round biscuit tin	(shape+ purpose (for holding biscuits)+ noun)
a small broken plate	(size+ participle adjective+ noun)
a useful digital alarm clock	(opinion+ type+ purpose+ noun)

To help learn this order, Hewings notes that it can be useful to remember that gradable adjectives (describing opinion, size, quality, shape and age) usually precede ungradable adjectives (participle adjectives and adjectives describing origin, material, type and purpose). Similarly, Parrott (2000: 21-22) presents the following rule to use when two or more adjectives occur before a noun:

general before specific (e.g. a large French car not a French large car).

opinion before description (e.g. a wonderful high ceiling not a high wonderful ceiling).

Teschner and Evans (2007: 207), in turn, suggest the following rule of thumb which expresses the essence of attributive adjective syntax “the more intrinsic the adjective is to the nature of noun, the closer to the noun the adjective is”.

It was pointed out, further, by Murphy (2004: 196) that opinion adjectives usually go before fact adjectives.

	opinion	fact	
a	nice	long	summer holiday
an	interesting	young	man
	delicious	hot	vegetable soup
a	beautiful	large round wooden	table

Sometimes, we use two or more fact adjectives. Very often we put fact adjectives in this order:

1	2	3	4	5	
How big	→ how old	→ what colour	→ where from	→ what is it made of	→ noun
a tall young man			(1→ 2)		
big blue eyes			(1→3)		
a small black plastic bag			(1→ 3→5)		
a large wooden table			(1→5)		
an old Russian song			(2→4)		
an old white cotton shirt			(2→ 3→ 5)		

Adjectives of size and length (big/ small/ tall/ short/ long etc.) usually go before adjectives of shape and width (round/ fact/ thin/ slim/ wide etc.)

a large round table

a tall thin girl

a long narrow street

As far as determiners is concerned, the first category including quantifiers (some, any, much, many, few, a few, little, a little.) and distributives (all, both, half, every, each, no, none) usually precede any other type of adjectives. The second category includes articles, possessive adjectives and demonstrative adjectives. A noun can usually be modified by one of the attributive adjectives in this category. They are generally placed after quantifiers and distributives (Brookes, 1996).

all the first five new steel beams

a few of Margaret's last dozen roses

both the first two old oak trees

Furthermore, numbers usually go before adjectives (e.g. six large houses, the second big building). In specifying any part of a series of adjectives, we have to place the cardinal number after the ordinal. Thus, 'the first three days' is more common than 'the three first days' (Swan, 1995).

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In addition, we place comparative and superlative adjectives before other types of adjectives (Ting, 2003):

The most wonderful home-cooked food

The best Italian cook I know

Within a cognitive framework, cognitive linguists as Radden and Dirven (2007: 154) provide a broad explanation of rules for premodifier attributive adjective order. They (2007: 154) explain that:

The order of premodifier adjectives is determined by the iconic principle of proximity. The more essentially a property functions in further specifying a thing or an instance, the closer the adjective is placed to its head noun.

In discussing adjective order, Radden and Dirven (2007: 154) illustrate it with the following examples:

the only reliable economic expert

the first intelligent diplomatic solution

Denominal adjectives like economic and diplomatic in the preceding examples play an essential function; they subcategorise a thing and are therefore placed closest to the noun. Scalar and deadverbial adjectives like intelligent and reliable have a less essential role: their function is purely categorising the referent and hence are placed further away from the head noun. If scalar and deadverbial adjectives co-occur, they also have a preferred order: an intelligent reliable expert sounds more natural than a reliable intelligent expert. Apparently, the deadverbial property ‘reliability’ is more essential to expertise than the scalar property intelligence. The determining adjectives only and first have, in conjunction with the determiner, the function of grounding the referent and hence go with the article ‘the’.

It is worth to point out that the order among purely characterizing adjectives is also determined by the iconic principle of proximity. Adjectives that stand for permanent qualities tend to come nearest to the noun. In other words, the more relevant and stable a property is, the nearer the adjective is placed to its head noun, and vice versa. For example, the colour of a person's skin is permanent but one's intelligence much less so: stupid white man is therefore the natural order. Moreover, evaluative adjectives are placed further away from the noun as in pretty young girl or superb white beaches (Radden and Dirven, 2007: 154).

When using more than one adjective from the same class, it does not usually matter what order they go in (Maclin, 1994):

She is a depressed, anxious young woman.

She is an anxious, depressed young woman.

Clearly, there is not a fixed order and learners generally appreciate more detailed guidance such as the table below:

**Table 4:** Basic order of attributive adjectives (after Parrott, 2000: 22)

<b>Opinion</b>	An opinion adjective explains what you think about something (other people may not agree with you). Examples: silly, beautiful, horrible, difficult.
<b>Size</b>	A size adjective, of course, tells you how big or small something is. Examples: large, tiny, enormous, little.
<b>Age</b>	An age adjective tells you how young or old something or someone is. Examples: ancient, new, young, old.
<b>Shape</b>	A shape adjective describes the shape of something. Examples: square, round, flat, rectangular.
<b>Temperature</b>	A temperature adjective describes the temperature of something. Examples: cold, hot, frozen.
<b>Colour</b>	A colour adjective, of course, describes the colour of something. Examples: blue, pink, reddish, grey.
<b>Origin</b>	An origin adjective describes where something comes from. Examples: French, American, eastern, Greek.
<b>Material</b>	A material adjective describes what something is made from. Examples: wooden, metal, cotton, paper.
<b>purpose</b>	A purpose adjective describes what something is used for. Within this class of adjectives, we can find nouns behaving like adjectives (but indicating purpose), or present participles. Examples: a roasting tin, a kitchen chair.

**Table 5:** Examples of attributive adjective word order (Parrott, 2000: 22)

	opinion	size	age	shape	colour	origin	material	purpose	noun
a	silly		young			English			man
a		huge		round			metal		bowl
a		big			black				bag
		small				French		serving	dishes
a		small	old			Italian		interesting	painting

Interestingly, when we have two or more adjectives in front of a noun, we do not use commas to separate them. However, we generally only use commas or and between attributive adjectives when there are two or more adjectives of equal importance ,i.e., coordinate adjectives which come from the same group/ class (Walker and Elsworth, 2000).

She is an intelligent and ambitious woman or

She is an intelligent, ambitious woman.

In this example, the adjectives intelligent and ambitious are separated by a comma or ‘and’ because they are with equal status in describing ‘woman’; they are opinion adjectives.

a large black, white dress (not a large and black, white dress).

The adjectives ‘black’ and ‘white’ are separated with a comma because both are colour adjectives (coordinate adjectives). But, the adjectives ‘long’ and ‘black’ are not separated by a comma or ‘and’ because they are not coordinate adjectives; they belong to different classes of adjectives.

### 3.5.2 Order of Predicative Adjectives

The order of predicative adjectives relative to one another is generally the same as the order of attributive adjectives. The following examples illustrate the order:

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The package is small and light.

The weather is clear, cold and dry.

The footstool is round and black.

In the first example, the adjective small indicating size precedes the adjective light indicating weight. In the second example, the general descriptive adjective clear precedes the adjective cold indicating temperature, which precedes the adjective dry of humidity. In the third example, the adjective round indicating shape precedes the adjective of colour black (Thornbury, 1997b).

When we use two or more adjectives as the complement of a link verb, we can put the adjectives in the order that we think is the most important. In this case, ‘and’ emphasizes the final adjective, and allows us to change the usual order of adjectives (Parrott, 2000).

He was tall, dark and handsome.

It should be noted that when we use two adjectives predicatively, we separate the adjectives with ‘and’. If there are more than two adjectives, we separate the last two adjectives with and, and the preceding adjectives with a comma (Walker and Elsworth, 2000).

The new teacher is committed, enthusiastic and hardworking.

He is always bright and cheerful.

In the light of these somewhat tangled definitions, classes, and rules for ordering more than two adjectives, EFL learners encounter many difficulties.

### **3.6 Typical Difficulties for Learners**

In his influential list of key considerations, Parrott (2000: 18) states that learners are generally more interested with the meaning of specific adjectives than with their grammar. When the grammar does cause problems, this is often related to:

- Ordering two or more adjectives that occur together.
- Constructing comparative and superlative forms.
- Deciding what words or combinations of words we can use directly before or after adjectives (e.g. where we can and cannot use very; where we can and cannot follow an adjective with an infinitive such as to eat).

In his proposed list, he (2000: 25- 26), further, identifies typical difficulties for learners as follows:

### **Comprehension**

If adjectives usually follow nouns in the learners' first language, learners may need time and considerable exposure to English in order to become familiar with the usual sequence of information in English noun phrases (adjectives before nouns). Even though they may know and be able to verbalize the rule, they may be wrong-footed by specific instances. This may cause them difficulty in processing information, particularly in listening English, and also when they come across a string of two or more adjectives.

### **Speaking and writing**

Learners may create a plural adjective form (e.g. they are olds books). This is generally common among people whose first language has a plural form of adjectives.

Learners may overgeneralize the rules which determine the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives.

She is more old than me.

That was the reasonablest I've ever seen her.

### **Sentence position**

Some learners often place adjectives after the noun where this is inappropriate in English.

It is a building very cold.

This mistake is common among learners whose first language places adjectives after the noun as a matter of course.

### **Adjective order**

Learners may use adjectives in a sequence that native speakers would instinctively avoid.

It is an old beautiful building.

### **Combining adjectives**

Learners sometimes use conjunctions (e.g. and) inappropriately in a sequence of adjectives.

They were playing with a big and red ball.

Learners may be confused by the fact that the rule is different according to whether or not the adjectives come before or after the noun.

The ball was big and red.

### **Gradable and ungradable adjectives**

Learners may not know which adjectives we can and cannot intensify.

She was very furious when she heard the news.

### **Conclusion**

At this point, it could be stated that the rules for attributive adjective order are very complicated, and many variations are possible. Therefore, it is clear that the acquisition of the basic rules constitutes one of the major difficulties for EFL learners. In our research, we will rely more considerably on the rules given by Parrott (2000) and Hewings (1999).

Nevertheless, the linguists' findings confirm the idea that GCR tasks facilitate learning and possibly the acquisition of the studied features. These findings have shown positive effects for grammar teaching that focuses the learner's attention on form and have discarded any possible role for implicit teaching. Shanks and ST. John (1994; in Belkacem Bouricha, 1999: 75) claim "There is little support...for unconscious rule induction (i.e. for implicit learning) or for the unconscious learning of any other type of information".

To investigate empirically these findings, an experiment has been carried out to find out whether these findings could apply to English language teaching/learning situation in Algeria.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## THE STUDY

### Introduction

#### 4.1 The Study

##### 4.1.1 Method

##### 4.1.2 Participants

##### 4.1.3 Research Design

#### 4.2 Data Collection Procedures

##### 4.2.1 Pre-test

##### 4.2.2 Treatment Period

##### 4.2.3 Post-test

#### 4.3 Instruments

##### 4.3.1 Students' Questionnaire

##### 4.3.2 Test Used in Pre-testing and Post-testing

#### 4.4 Scoring

#### 4.5 Analysis

#### 4.6 Results

##### 4.6.1 Results of Students' Questionnaire

##### 4.6.2 Results of the Multiple Choice Test

###### 4.6.2.1 Pre-test: Control Group versus Experimental Group

###### 4.6.2.2 Control Group Pre-test versus Control Group Post-test

###### 4.6.2.3 Experimental Group Pre-test versus Experimental

###### Group Post-test

4.6.2.4 Post-test: Control Group versus Experimental Group

4.6.3 Results of the Grammaticality Judgement Test

4.6.3.1 Pre-test: Control Group versus Experimental Group

4.6.3.2 Control Group Pre-test versus Control Group Post-test

4.6.3.3 Experimental Group Pre-test versus Experimental  
Group Post-test

4.6.3.4 Post-test: Control Group versus Experimental Group

4.7 General Discussion

## **Introduction**

Several empirical studies, among which the present study, have been carried out to investigate the possible effects of grammar consciousness-raising tasks on grammar acquisition. Results of the present study have been statistically analysed and discussed. Details about the research design, the procedure and the results of the study are exposed in what follows.

### **4.1 The Study**

#### **4.1.1 Method**

Expecting and targeting credible and valid results along with the nature and requirements of the topic are major factors in the preference of a method to another. Therefore, carrying out a quasi-experimental study seems to be the most appropriate method.

The subjects of this study make up two groups of first-year EFL students majoring in Economics. Students were randomly selected by the administration to four groups. For this study, the Economic Institute attributed us two groups; one group served as the experimental group, the other as the control group. We then compared the two groups before and after treatment. Clearly, the comparison groups are not set for research purposes, but we have exercised some control over the conditions of the treatment. This includes when, where, and how it is administered. Moreover, we have randomly chosen one group as the experimental group and the other as the control group. However, this control never includes the ability to randomly assign the subjects. Random assignment implies that each student had an equal chance to be in either a treatment group or a control group. If participants cannot be randomly assigned to either group, the study is a quasi-experiment. In fact, the present study carries a strong quasi-experimental design because it is similar to a true experiment, however, the subjects were not randomly

assigned to groups, but rather belonged to pre-existing groups that were formed by the administration. Gliner and Morgan (2000: 99) state that:

The strength of this quasi-experimental design is that it is similar to a random experimental design except that participants have not been randomly assigned to groups or conditions.

Table 6 summarizes the two issues that determine the strength of a pre-test – post-test quasi-experimental design.

**Table 6:** Issues that determine the strength of quasi-experimental designs

Strength of design	Random assignment of treatments to intact groups	Participant characteristics likely to be similar
Strong	Yes	Yes, assuming no bias in how participants were assigned to groups.
Moderate	No	May be.
Weak	No	No, because participants self-assigned to groups.

#### 4.1.2 Participants

The target population of the present study is first-year EFL students majoring in Economics at Larbi Ben M'hidi University, Oum El Bouaghi, for the school year 2007/ 2008. Practically, it is not possible to study the entire population under an experimental approach. According to Deldime and Demoulin (1975); cited in Khanchali (2005: 8) “sufficient data can be obtained through the study of a proportion of the population: a sample”. Therefore, we have selected two groups to represent the whole population.

The students who were initially enrolled for first-year were split into four groups. The study ultimately involved from this pool two groups. Twenty four of these subjects served as the experimental group, twenty three as the control group. I asked to have groups of first-year students so as to be sure that they freshly come from the secondary school after at least six years of instruction in English. Moreover, the subjects are at the high-intermediate/ low-advanced level of instruction, where learners can be assumed to have sufficient linguistic and pragmatic knowledge to focus on this aspect of grammar.

Homogeneity among subjects' level is a necessary condition for selection in any experimental study, since achieving homogeneity ensures that any obtained difference after a treatment period is due to the independent variable -in this case grammar consciousness-raising tasks- and not due to other factors. Miller (1975: 12) holds:

Such questions of layout should not be decided arbitrarily. The idea of experimental design is to ensure that the data emerging at the end of the experiment are relevant to the prediction being tested and not contaminated by outside factors.

To ensure homogeneity among the two groups, subjects completed a questionnaire (see Section A in Appendix B) in order to obtain information on their educational background and attitudes towards learning English. It was found that all subjects have colloquial Arabic as their mother tongue. Their ages ranged from eighteen to twenty four. At the time of the study, all of the students have already studied English for at least six years. The vast majority reported liking English. These factors are catered for to maximize the discarding of possible bias and hence spot the effect of the independent variable.

### **4.1.3 Research Design**

This study is a quasi-experimental, pre-test/ post-test, control group design.

As has previously been mentioned, subjects were randomly assigned to one of the two groups: one experimental group and one control group. The control group consists of 23 students (N=23), whereas in the experimental group there were 24 students (N=24). Note that the experimental group receives GCR task treatment about attributive adjective order rules. In contrast, subjects in the control group do not receive any explanation about how this structure functions. The groups are treated alike in all other ways. Since the only difference between the two types of groups is the presence of GCR task treatment, then any difference in subjects' performance might be due to the manipulation of the independent variable, namely GCR tasks about grammar. In other words, the use of these two types of groups would demonstrate, by contrast, the possible effects of the manipulated factor.

Improvement from pre-test to post-test is compared among subjects who are exposed to texts but received no grammar explanation (the control group) and subjects who, during the treatment period, are provided with an instructional treatment (GCR tasks) aimed at improving their grammatical knowledge about some rules of attributive adjective order (the experimental group).

## **4.2 Data Collection Procedures**

### **4.2.1 Pre-test**

Control and experimental group subjects were pre-tested on their knowledge of the chosen target structure, using a variety of tests developed specially for the experiment.

The pre-test (Appendix A) was administered during the first week of class. Simple vocabulary items were employed in the test. Nevertheless, throughout the administration of the pre-test, the researcher answered any questions the subjects

had about the vocabulary on the test. Although there were no time constraints, participants were all given 90 minutes to complete the test, which was sufficient time to answer all the items.

Before the experimental procedures were initiated, the students were informed that they were taking part in a research. They were also told that they will be given extra points for their participation. It was at the discretion of their respective instructor to decide that they will be given extra points.

#### **4.2.2 Treatment Period**

After the completion of the pre-test, subjects in the two groups attended a 90 minute period weekly class whose content depends on the group condition. During learning sessions, the control group was presented texts on economics. The target structure was embedded in the texts. During the next sessions, subjects in the control group were trained on exercises that dealt with text comprehension, economic terms and their translation from English into French or Arabic.

The experimental group, on the other hand, received grammar consciousness-raising task treatment on attributive adjective word order via GCR tasks throughout the five-week (pre-test in week 1, post-test in week 7) experiment (See Appendix D for examples). Table 7 illustrates the instruction the experimental group received.

**Table 7:** The instruction the experimental group received

Target structure	Examples	Sessions
Opinion+age+origin	He lives in a famous old English house. The artist drew an interesting old French painting.	Session 1
Age+origin	I met a young Egyptian man. We visited the ancient Russian ruins.	Session 2
Opinion+size+purpose	She prepared food in an expensive big roasting dish. She sat in the beautiful large summer house.	Session 2
Size+age+purpose	He sold his enormous old sailing boat. I set the big new alarm clock for 7 o'clock.	Session 3
Shape+colour+material	Your triangular yellow gold rings must cost you a fortune. She holds sugar in a round white metal bowl.	Session 3
Opinion+size+shape+material.	The clown was wearing an unusual small round plastic hat. The king sat on the comfortable large rectangular leather armchair.	Session 4
Opinion+temperature	My mother prepared delicious hot soup. She bought expensive warm blankets.	Session 4
Size+colour	I have a small black bag. Brian saw a big white bear.	Session 5

Approximately, two weeks were devoted to the first three orders, three weeks total to the last five. An attempt was to build on a firm understanding carefully, with constant review of earlier orders.

Experimental group subjects were presented the structure using an approach to explicit instruction. The approach is inductive. Furthermore, the objectives of the lesson are established right from the beginning of the experiment so as not to lose from mind the ultimate goal to be sought. They are as follows:

- To draw learners’ attention to attributive adjective word order.
- To enable learners to form their own hypotheses and generalizations and utilize their intellectual effort to understand the target structure.
- To facilitate subjects’ noticing of the different target features, their function and their position in any sentence.
- To enable them to carry out form-function relationship. In other words, to identify the meaning (s) realized by a specific type of adjectives and understand its function in the sentence.

The inductive instruction proceeded as follows. First, students completed GCR tasks. These tasks aim to draw students’ attention and develop their explicit grammatical knowledge about adjective word order. Each task contains examples illustrating the use of one adjective order, for example: opinion+ age+ origin. To ensure the participation of everyone, the alternating between pair work and class work was emphasized. This is sought to provide opportunities for interaction. Each of the inductive tasks contained an element of information gap to encourage learners to communicate and work together to solve the language problem. The task consists of three parts. Part A includes an example of a grammatical sentence with correct adjective order and an ungrammatical sentence with incorrect adjective order. Part B involves a number of examples manifesting the target structure to which the subject was to judge whether they are grammatical or

ungrammatical. In part C, the subjects were asked to list the sentences in part B that are grammatical. Then, they were required to label each type of these adjectives. For instance, they have to recognize that interesting is an opinion adjective, old is an age adjective, and Algerian is an adjective of origin, and so on. Finally, the students were required to state the grammatical rule describing the chosen adjective order and to correct the ungrammatical sentences. The aim was to help them form their own hypotheses and generalizations about adjective order.

Nevertheless, students may hypothesize the wrong rule. This is especially a danger where there is no overt testing of their hypotheses. Therefore, at the end of each task, subjects were given feedback as to whether or not their hypotheses were correct. Moreover, the feedback took the form of an explicit statement of the rule; the researcher writes the rule on the board and further explains its use.

It is worth noting that the tasks contained as many examples of each type of adjective. The aim was establish a firm understanding of these types of adjectives. For example, within the class of purpose adjectives students encountered many examples of both nouns behaving as adjectives but indicating purpose and present participles. Moreover, these structures were highlighted to foster students' noticing. The researcher aimed to make learners aware of each class and when it is used. Consequently, the mother tongue was sometimes resorted to while explaining the function and the meaning of the adjectives to facilitate comprehension and to save time. In addition, the researcher tried to point out the discrepancies between learners' intermediate forms and target language norms to help them differentiate between the mother tongue and the target language.

Before the completion of the next task, the researcher asked the students about the previous order which had been carried in earlier session. The aim was to have an overview of its use and to make sure that subjects fully grasped it before they began to work on the next one.

Interestingly, the tasks required minimal production on the part of learners; there is an opportunity to apply the rule in the construction of personalised statements. This is not intended to practise the rule but to promote its storage as explicit knowledge: production, therefore, is restricted to two sentences and there is no insistence on automatic processing.

### **Target structure**

The target structure selected for the study was attributive adjective word order. The choice of the target structure (adjective order) depends on the following reasons:

- Adjective order selection may be classified as a form of communicative value.
- Adjectives form a large class among the eight parts of speech.
- Learners are more generally concerned with the meaning of specific adjectives than with their grammar. When the grammar does cause problems, this is often related to their ordering two or more adjectives that occur together (Parrott, 2000).
- The rules for adjective order are very complicated and present a number of difficulties for learners of English (Swan, 1995).
- The researcher had chosen the most common rules for attributive adjective order.

### **4.2.3 Post-test**

At the end of the treatment period, all subjects were tested immediately to determine post-treatment knowledge. The same test used in the in the pre-test was administered again during the seventh week of each of the classes. This was considered sufficient time to remove any danger of a practice effect, that is, subjects remembering what they had written in the pre-test. The same conditions

applied as in the pre-test; subjects were all allowed to ask any questions about vocabulary, and there were no time constraints. This constituted the post-test phase of the experiment.

### **4.3 Instruments**

#### **4.3.1 Students' Questionnaire**

In order to win a wider perspective of our present work, we have used a questionnaire with the students participating in the study. This was meant to investigate the subjects' beliefs and attitudes concerning the topic under investigation, namely, grammar consciousness-raising tasks. Although the questionnaire may seem short but it fulfilled the target objectives. More important than length is question content. Questions should be meaningful and interesting to the respondent since he is more likely to answer if involved and interested in the research topic. In this respect, the questionnaire was developed to directly address the goals of the study. Moreover, the researcher explained the questionnaire's items in Arabic to make sure everything is quite clear and is properly understood. It is worth pointing out that the questionnaire was administered during the first week prior to taking the pre-test.

The questionnaire (see Appendix B) includes 15 items. It is divided into two sections.

#### **Section A: Background information (item 1→ item 9)**

It is aimed to ensure homogeneity among subjects in the two groups. It enquires about general background information about the participants in both groups namely sex, age, native language, stream of study in the secondary school, mark of English in the BAC exam, and number of years of studying the English language.

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## **Section B: Students' attitudes towards GCR tasks (item 1→ item 6)**

It is intended to explore students' attitudes towards grammar learning (item 1), teacher's role in grammar teaching (item 2), GCR tasks as a type of grammar instruction (deductive vs inductive) (item 3) and attention to grammatical structures (item 4). It also reveals the relationship between noticing and input saliency (item 5), and includes a question to determine whether students reconnect what they already know with new rules of grammar (item 6).

### **4.3.2 Test Used in Pre-testing and Post-testing**

It is a discrete-point grammar test (Appendix A). It consists of 40 items, reflecting eight major rules of attributive adjective order in English. The test is divided into two sections.

#### **Section A**

It consists of a multiple choice test (MCT). It is made up of twenty sentences. The subjects were asked to select a correct answer from a number of alternatives. The researcher expected that some participants could identify an incorrect sentence but could not formulate the correct form of the sentence as had been seen in the pilot study. This test was intended to make sure that if students have to choose between correct and incorrect forms, they could identify the correct one.

#### **Section B**

It is a grammaticality judgement test (GJT). It is made up of twenty sentences, ten of which contained a grammatical error (incorrect adjective order). Subjects were required to write for each sentence whether they consider it correct or not, and to make the necessary corrections.

In this task, we could have asked the participants to state the grammatical rule broken in each of the ungrammatical sentences after correction, but seemingly, the

treatment period is short to attain the proficiency level needed. Sorace (1985: 245) explains:

The ability to make rules explicit is a relatively late achievement, even in a formal classroom environment where students receive a great amount of metalinguistic information.

In the present study, the grammaticality judgement test was used to determine whether there is a validity to the hypothesis put forward by Krashen (1981) that holds that students who receive implicit language instruction will use a process of grammatical judgement similar to that employed by native speakers that will enable them to judge the correctness of sentences relying on their input experience with the language, without deliberate effort and without conscious reference to, or knowledge of grammatical statements.

It is of interest to note that a pilot study concerning the grammaticality judgement test and the multiple choice test has been carried out. It was on the basis of the pilot study that a number of vocabulary items of both tests were either changed or, completely reformulated so as to make subjects' attention focused on the answer. In this regard, we need mention that the pilot study was conducted with five students of first-year studying Commerce.

#### **4.4 Scoring**

The same scoring measures were used in the pre- and post-test.

Responses in the grammaticality judgement test were distributed in three categories, according to whether:

1. The subject was not able to identify the error. An answer is scored 0 if the sentence was correct and the subject identified it as incorrect and the subject identified it as correct.
2. The subject was able to identify the incorrect sentence but did not supply the correct form. In this category, an answer is scored 0 if the incorrect sentence is identified but no correction is provided.
3. The subject was able to identify the incorrect sentence and supply a correction. An answer is scored 1 if the incorrect sentence is identified and is corrected.

Therefore, the maximum score for this test was twenty.

As far as the multiple choice test, the maximum score was twenty. Each sentence was scored on a 0 to 1 point scale. One point was awarded if the participant had chosen the correct response among erroneous ones. The reverse (incorrect or blank response) received a score of 0.

#### **4.5 Analysis**

For an easier comparison, the scores of the pre-test and the post-test for both measures (MCT and GJT) were compared and one basic statistical procedure was applied: calculating the mean for each group in each test. For each group the mean score was calculated by adding up the individual scores and divided by the total number of subjects. In addition, standard deviations, standard errors of the difference, and squared scores were computed for the pre- and post-test scores of both groups. To find out whether there was a significant difference in ability between the experimental and control groups prior to instruction, an independent samples t-test was run using the pre-test scores. Furthermore, to find out whether each group had made any progress as a result of instruction, a within group paired samples t-test was computed for each group using the pre- and post-test mean scores of each group employing a probability level for rejection of  $p= 0,01$ .

## 4.6 Results

### 4.6.1 Results of Students' Questionnaire

#### Section A: Background information

##### Item 2: Sex

- Male
- Femal

**Table 8:** Students' sex

Sex	Experimental group		Control group	
	N	%	N	%
Male	11	45,83	12	52,17
Female	13	54,17	11	47,83
Total	24	100	23	100

N: Number of students

A glance at the table suggests that there is not a great difference between male's number and female's number in the control group or in the experimental group. This suggests that both groups are homogeneous in terms of sex.

##### Item 3: Age

**Table 9:** Students' age

Age	Experimental group		Control group	
	N	%	N	%
18 years	5	20,83	4	17,40
19 years	3	12,50	5	21,73
20 years	8	33,33	11	47,83
21 years	6	25,00	2	8,70
22 years	1	4,17	1	4,34
24 years	1	4,17	/	0
Total	24	100	23	100
Mean	19,95		19,60	

Table 9 shows that the participants' ages ranged from eighteen to twenty four. The mean age was 19,95 in the experimental group and 19,60 in the control group. This implies that students in both groups are homogeneous with regard to their age.

#### Item 4: Native Language

**Table 10:** Students' native language

Native language	Experimental group		Control group	
	N	%	N	%
Colloquial Arabic	24	100	23	100
Other languages	0	0	0	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100</b>

These results show that all of the students (100%) in both groups use Colloquial Arabic as their mother tongue. This ensures that students in the two groups are homogeneous in regard to the native language.

#### Item 5: When did you get your BAC?

**Table 11:** Year of getting the BAC

Option	Experimental group		Control group	
	N	%	N	%
2007	24	100	23	100
Before	0	0	0	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100</b>

100% of the respondents in both groups got their BAC in the school year 2007. This implies that students freshly come from the secondary school.

**Item 6: What was your stream in the secondary school?**

- Scientific
- Technical
- Literal

**Table 12:** Stream of study in the secondary school

Option	Experimental group		Control group	
	N	%	N	%
Scientific	10	41,67	6	26,08
Technical	14	58,33	17	73,92
Literal	0	0	0	0
Total	24	100	23	100

It is well evident that there were no students enrolling in the literary stream. Subjects in the experimental group and in the control group (58,33% and 73,91% respectively) belonged to a technical stream, whereas 26,08% in the control group and 41,66% in the experimental group were from the scientific stream. This reveals that students in both groups share the same learning experience of English.

**Item 7: Do you like English?****Table 13:** Students' attitudes towards English

Option	Experimental group		Control group	
	N	%	N	%
Yes	22	91,67	21	91,30
No	2	8,33	2	8,70
Total	24	100	23	100

This question is meant to see whether students are motivated to learn English or not. The vast majority of students (91,67% in the experimental group and 91,30% in the control group) reported liking English. However, only two students

(8,33%) in the experimental group and two students (8,70%) in the control group adhere to the second option 'No'. Clearly, these results indicate that the subjects in both groups are motivated to study English.

**Item 8: What was your mark of English in the BAC exam?**

**Table 14:** Mark of English in the BAC exam

Option	Experimental group		Control group	
	N	%	N	%
Above average	13	54,17	12	52,17
Below average	11	45,83	11	47,83
Total	24	100	23	100

More than half of the students (52,17% in the control group and 54,17% in the experimental group) had the average whereas the remaining number (47,83% in the control group and 45,83% in the experimental group) had marks below the average. This implies that students in both groups are homogeneous in terms of proficiency level. Accordingly, similarity in proficiency level made it possible to compare the two groups.

**Item 9: How long have you been studying English for?**

**Table 15:** Students' educational background knowledge in English

Option	Experimental group		Control group	
	N	%	N	%
6 years	5	20,83	4	17,40
7 years	3	12,50	5	21,73
8 years	16	66,67	14	60,87
Total	24	100	23	100

Table 15 shows that the number of years of exposure to the English language ranged from 6-8 years. The vast majority of students had eight years studying English; a period which is assumed to be acceptable to have a significant level of proficiency in the language.

### **Section B: Students' attitudes towards GCR tasks**

#### **Item 1: Do you think that learning grammar is necessary for learning English?**

- Yes
- No

**Table 16:** Students' attitudes towards learning grammar

<b>Option</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Yes</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>91,48</b>
<b>No</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>8,52</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>100</b>

The vast majority of students (91,48%) attached a great importance to the study of grammar for learning English. On the other hand, only four students (8,52%) opt for 'No'. The results obtained reveal that the respondents demonstrate a considerable awareness to the importance of grammar to learn English.

#### **Item 2: Does your teacher draw your attention to some rules of grammar?**

**Table 17:** Teacher's role in grammar teaching

<b>Option</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Yes</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>80,85</b>
<b>No</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>19,15</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>100</b>

These results show that only nine students (19,15%) ticked the second option 'No'. The answer of the latter may be due to the fact that teachers teach grammar

implicitly. On the other hand, the vast majority of the respondents (80,85%) argue that their teachers draw their attention to grammatical rules. This indicates that teachers do recognize the importance of teaching grammar.

**Item 3: Do you prefer to:**

**a. Read or listen to a grammar explanation first and then to do an exercise.**

**b. To look at some examples (some sentences or a text) and try to discover the rule by yourself then to receive rule explanation from the teacher.**

**Table 18:** Students' attitudes towards GCR tasks as a type of grammar instruction

Option	N	%
Yes	21	44,68
No	26	55,31
Total	47	100

The results in table 18 show that more than half of the students (55,31%) prefer to be exposed to a set of data from which they discover the rules by themselves. In other words, they argue in favour of inductive instruction. This view is in harmony with grammar consciousness-raising tasks as a type of inductive grammar instruction. One possible interpretation of these results is that students find the inductive instruction more motivating and interesting since they are more active in the learning process rather than being simply passive recipients. Another reason might be due to the fact that all respondents came either from a scientific or a technical stream; they are analytical learners who prefer to analyse the language. 44,68% of students, on the other hand, agree for deductive instruction. This implies that they valued considerably the teacher's role in language learning (students' added information). Stated another way, they report

an agreement to the belief that the best way to learn English is mostly in the classroom from the teacher who presents the rules for them.

**Item 4: Do you think that attention is necessary to learn grammatical rules?**

- Yes
- No

**Table 19:** Students' attitudes towards attention to grammar rules

Option	N	%
Yes	45	95,74
No	1	2,13
No answer	1	2,13
<b>Total</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 19 shows that 95,74% argue that attention is essential to learn grammatical rules. In fact, they believe for attention as a prerequisite for learning grammar. Therefore, they reinforce what we mentioned before in our study (Chapter 2 p: 75).

**Item 5: Do you notice new grammatical structures when they are highlighted in a sentence or a text?**

- Yes
- No

**Table 20:** The relationship between noticing and input enhancement

<b>Option</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Yes</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>87,24</b>
<b>No</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>12,76</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>100</b>

As shown in Table 20 only 6 students (12,76%) argue that they do not notice new grammatical structures when they are highlighted, unlike the vast majority of students (87,24%) who in fact notice the structures. As already mentioned in this study (p: 81), input enhancement is an effective technique to help learners notice targeted structures. Schmidt (1993: 217) believes that:

Target language forms will not be acquired unless they are noticed, and one important way that instruction works is by increasing the salience of target language forms in input so that they are more likely to be noticed by learners.

**Item 6: If yes, do you compare the new grammatical structures with your existing knowledge?**

- Yes
- No

**Table 21:** Noticing the gap

Option	N	%
Yes	28	59,58
No	18	38,29
No answer	1	2,13
<b>Total</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>100</b>

The results obtained show that more than half of the students (59,58%) compare their existing knowledge of grammatical features with what they actually observed in the input. In other words, they make the effort to establish in what ways the new feature is different from their existing interlanguage representation or they notice the gap. However, 38,29% of the students do not notice the gap although they already notice the feature. This may be due to the fact that students did not reach the stage of development to notice the gap. By developmentally ready, as Ellis (1993a:73) argues, we mean:

...to manage the processing of the operations involved or the restructuring of the existing system which the incorporation of new features is likely to entail.

## Conclusion

After analysing the questionnaire, we were able to draw the following conclusions. Section A revealed that students in both groups are homogeneous. In section B, it was found that the subjects recognize the importance of grammar teaching. They also had positive attitudes towards GCR tasks as an approach to

grammar teaching. Therefore, they preferred to induce the grammatical rule from a set of examples, then to have the explanation from their teachers. In fact, they argued that attention is necessary to grasp grammatical structures, and they believed that making input salient could help them notice these structures.

#### 4.6.2 Results of the Multiple Choice Test

**Table 22:** The frequency of subjects' scores on the MCT at pre-test and post-test

Score	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency
2	-	-	-	-
3	-	-	-	-
4	1	1	-	-
5	3	3	2	-
6	6	5	-	-
7	3	3	5	-
8	4	6	5	1
9	1	4	5	1
10	2	-	5	-
11	-	-	-	1
12	2	-	1	-
13	-	-	1	3
14	-	-	-	1
15	1	1	-	5
16	-	-	-	1
17	-	-	-	1
18	-	-	-	3
19	-	-	-	2
20	-	-	-	5
<b>Total</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>24</b>

#### 4.6.2.1 Pre-test: Control Group versus Experimental Group

Table 22 shows that there was no significant difference between subjects' scores at the pre-test. It also shows that control and experimental groups recorded more scores below the average than above the average.

For the total 47 scores, we have as follows:

Control Group       $18 < 10 \rightarrow 78,27\% < 10$

$5 \geq 10 \rightarrow 21,73\% \geq 10$

Experimental Group       $17 < 10 \rightarrow 70,83\% < 10$

$7 \geq 10 \rightarrow 29,17\% \geq 10$

Frequency Polygon 1 shows that the most commonly frequent scores are either 5, 6, 7, 8, or 9; all of which are below the average 10. It should also be noted that both arithmetic means ( $\bar{X}_1 = 7,65$  and  $\bar{X}_2 = 8,54$ ) are below the average.

#### 4.6.2.2 Control Group Pre-test versus Control Group Post-test

From Table 22, it is clear that the pre-test scores were higher than the post-test scores. The control group in the pre-test recorded more scores below the average than above the average, whereas in the post-test most all of the scores were below the average.

For the total 23 scores we have:

Pre-test       $18 < 10 \rightarrow 78,27\% < 10$

$5 \geq 10 \rightarrow 21,73\% \geq 10$

Post-test       $22 < 10 \rightarrow 95,66\% < 10$

$1 > 10 \rightarrow 4,34\% > 10$

Frequency Polygon 2 shows that both pre-test and post-test control group scores have a peak at 6 and 8 respectively; all other scores are packed around the central values 6 and 8. In both pre-test and post-test, scores below average have high frequencies in comparison to scores above average. It should be mentioned that the control group had a post-test mean  $\bar{X}_{po} = 7,34$  lower than the pre-test mean  $\bar{X}_{pr} = 7,65$ .

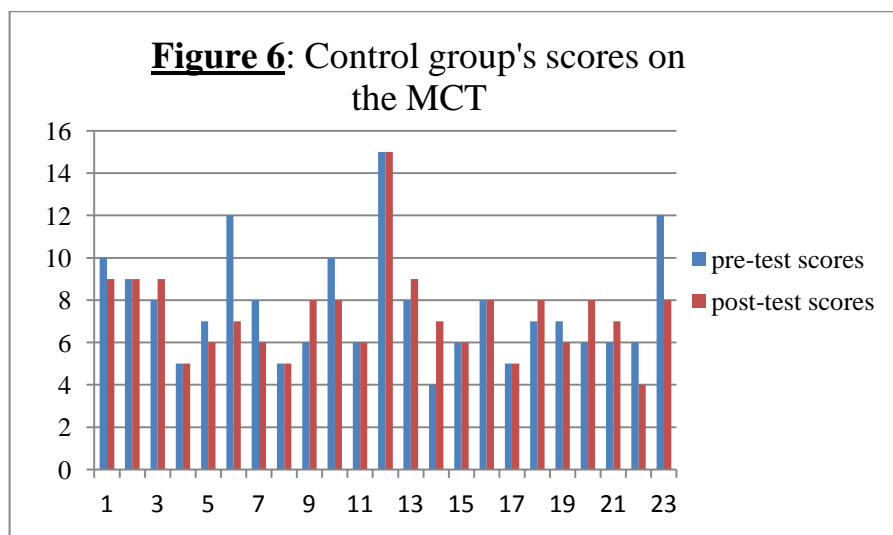
To delimit the amount of improvement from pre-test treatment, gain scores (differences between pre- and post-test scores) were calculated for each student by subtracting the pre- from the post-test score (shown in Table 23). The mean difference  $\bar{D} = -0,30$  is so small that we could deduce that there is no difference between pre-instructional and post-instructional knowledge. Furthermore, Figure 6 displays the contrast between the general pre- to post-test improvement in scores shown by the control group.





**Table 23:** Control group's scores on the MCT at pre-test, post-test  
and their gain scores

Individual student	Pre-test scores	Post-test scores	Difference
1	10	9	-1
2	9	9	0
3	8	9	1
4	5	5	0
5	7	6	-1
6	12	7	-5
7	8	6	-2
8	5	5	0
9	6	8	2
10	10	8	-2
11	6	6	0
12	15	15	0
13	8	9	1
14	4	7	3
15	6	6	0
16	8	8	0
17	5	5	0
18	7	8	1
19	7	6	-1
20	6	8	2
21	6	7	1
22	6	4	-2
23	12	8	-4
<b>The mean</b>	<b>7.65</b>	<b>7.34</b>	<b><math>\bar{D} = - 0.30</math></b>



As a primary consideration, it seems that subjects of the control group did not show any progress towards a mastery of the target feature though they were presented the targeted structures. In this case, the specific features were embedded in texts.

#### 4.6.2.3 Experimental Group Pre-test versus Experimental Group Post-test

From Table 22 and Frequency Polygon 3 it could be noted that the post-test scores were largely higher than the pre-test scores. The experimental group recorded more scores above the average in the post-test in comparison to scores in the pre-test.

For the total 24 scores we have:

Pre-test             $17 < 10 \rightarrow 70,83\% < 10$

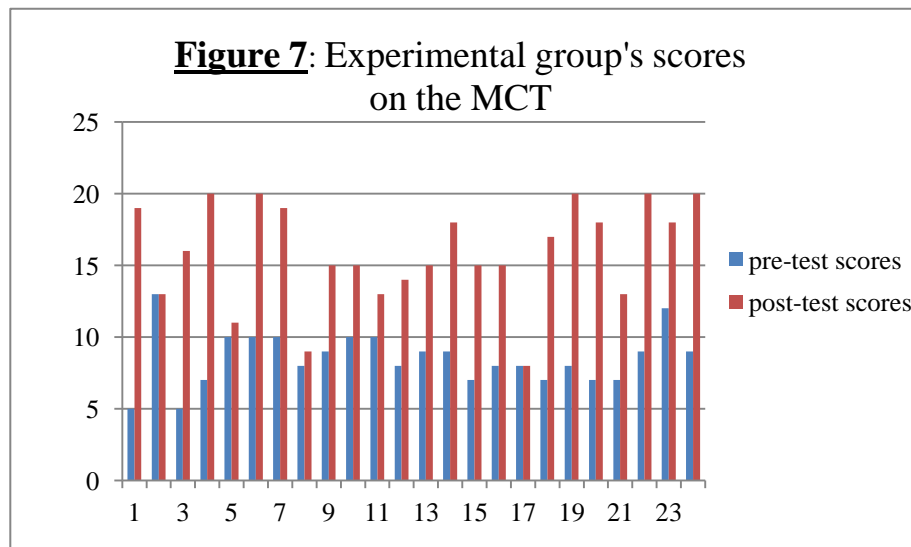
$7 \geq 10 \rightarrow 29,17\% \geq 10$

Post-test             $2 < 10 \rightarrow 8,33\% < 10$

$22 \geq 10 \rightarrow 91,67\% \geq 10$

The experimental group recorded a post-test mean  $\bar{X}_{po} = 15,87$  higher than the pre-test mean  $\bar{X}_{pr} = 8,54$ . To verify whether there is an improvement from

pre-test to post-test knowledge, gain scores were calculated (Table 24). The mean difference  $\bar{D} = 7,25$  is highly significant; this suggests that subjects in the experimental group were affected by the treatment (GCR tasks) and that this effect was large. Figure 7 provides the same information in graph form and highlights the improvement in scores.





**Table 24:** Experimental group's scores on the MCT at pre-test, post-test and their gain scores

Individual student	Pre-test scores	Post-test scores	Difference
1	5	19	14
2	13	13	0
3	5	16	11
4	7	20	13
5	10	11	1
6	10	20	10
7	10	19	9
8	8	9	-1
9	9	15	6
10	10	15	5
11	10	13	3
12	8	14	6
13	9	15	6
14	9	18	9
15	7	15	8
16	8	15	7
17	8	8	0
18	7	17	10
19	8	20	12
20	7	18	11
21	7	13	6
22	9	20	11
23	12	18	6
24	9	20	11
<b>The mean</b>	<b>8.54</b>	<b>15.87</b>	<b><math>\bar{D} = 7.25</math></b>

When comparing data emerging at the post-test, the researcher wished to know whether the differences, if any, have been caused by the independent variable and not by chance. The term chance refers to “the effects of irrelevant variables that are not perfectly matched across the two groups” (Miller, 1975: 56).

To examine whether there are significant differences between the two treatments of the experimental group that result from the manipulation of the independent variable, namely GCR tasks (the alternative hypothesis), or that the observed results are simply due to chance (the null hypothesis), a statistical t-test is applied.

### **The t-test**

The t-test is used to compare the means of two groups. It helps determine how confident the researcher can be that the differences found between two groups (experimental and control) as a result of the treatment are not due to chance. Once applied, it reveals, with a very tiny probability, the effect of the independent variable (GCR tasks) on the dependent variable (acquisition of adjective word order). The results of applying the t-test provide the researcher with a t value. That t value is then entered in a special table of t values which indicates whether, given the size of the sample in the research, the t value is statistically significant (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989: 231).

### **Reasons for the t-test choice**

The t-test (t-statistical) has been chosen because of many reasons:

1. It is a parametric test, it deals with countable scores and ratios, i.e., quantitative values and figures rather than qualitative rankings.
2. It is powerful in detecting a significant difference between two sets of scores even when the assumption of homogeneity has been violated (Miller, 1975).
3. Comparing results of the t-test with those reported in the t-tables enables the investigator to find out whether the differences obtained are due to chance or to the effects of the independent variable.

In this case, the subjects for the two groups are the same or matched. That is, the same subjects are observed twice, with some intervention taking place between measures. Since the comparison is between the same group (experimental group) compared at two different times (pre- and post-test), we applied the paired samples t-test. The latter is denoted by the following formula:

$$t_{n-1} = \frac{\bar{D}}{SE(\bar{D})}$$

$\bar{D}$  : The mean difference. Note that  $\bar{D}$  is the difference between the gain means of the sample, i.e., the gain mean in the post-test minus the gain mean in the pre-test.

n= Sample size

SE ( $\bar{D}$ )= Standard error of the difference.

Sd = Standard deviation.

**Table 25:** Experimental group's squared difference on the MCT

<b>Difference</b>	<b>Squared difference</b>
<b>14</b>	<b>196</b>
<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>
<b>11</b>	<b>121</b>
<b>13</b>	<b>169</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>9</b>	<b>81</b>
<b>-1</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>36</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>3</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>36</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>36</b>
<b>9</b>	<b>81</b>
<b>8</b>	<b>64</b>
<b>7</b>	<b>49</b>
<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>
<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>12</b>	<b>144</b>
<b>11</b>	<b>121</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>36</b>
<b>11</b>	<b>121</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>36</b>
<b>11</b>	<b>121</b>
$\sum D^2$	<b>1684</b>

**T statistic**

$$t_{n-1} = \frac{\bar{D}}{SE(\bar{D})}$$

$$\bar{D} = 7,25$$

$$\sum D^2 = 1684$$

$$N = 24$$

**Standard deviation**

$$Sd = \sqrt{S^2}$$

$$S^2 = \frac{\sum D^2}{N} - \bar{D}^2$$

$$S^2 = \frac{1684}{24} - (7,25)^2$$

$$S^2 = 70,16 - 52,56$$

$$S^2 = 17,60$$

$$Sd = \sqrt{17,60}$$

$$Sd = 4,195$$

**Standard error of the difference**

$$SE(\bar{D}) = \frac{Sd}{\sqrt{N}} = \frac{4,195}{4,898} = 0,85$$

**The t value**

$$t_{n-1} = \frac{\bar{D}}{SE(\bar{D})}$$

$$t_{24-1} = \frac{7,25}{0,85}$$

$$t_{23} = 8,52$$

Our obtained or calculated t value is 8,52. Our degrees of freedom (DF) equals the total group size 24 minus 1 (DF=n-1), or 23. Entering a t-table with 23 degrees of freedom, we see that for p= 0,01 the tabulated value is 2,82. The critical value is much bigger than the tabulated value at p=0,01; so we reject the null

hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis, namely that the difference in gain scores is likely the result of the experimental treatment (grammar consciousness-raising tasks) and not the result of chance variation. In other words, the difference between the means at 99% level is highly significant and there is only 1% probability that the observed mean difference occurred by chance.

#### 4.6.2.4 Post-test: Control Group versus Experimental Group

Table 22 and Frequency Polygons 2, 3, 4 depict a large difference between the control group and the experimental group. It is clear that subjects in the experimental group outscored controls. The latter with a mean  $\bar{X}_C = 7,34$  (less than the average 10), and the former with  $\bar{X}_E = 15,87$  (largely greater than the average).

The controls' post-test frequency polygon starts at 4 and ends at 15 with a peak at 8, i.e., the lowest score is  $\frac{4}{20}$  and the biggest is  $\frac{15}{20}$ . On the other hand, the experimental group's post-test frequency polygon begins at 8 (the most frequent score of the control group) and ends at 20, with a peak at 15 and 20 largely for from the controls' peak. The most frequent scores of the experimental group subjects are bounded by 13 and 20, whereas the control group most frequent scores were bounded by 5 and 9.



To verify whether the differences between the two treatments have been caused by the independent variable and not by chance, an independent samples t-test was carried out. The latter is used to compare the means of the two independent groups (experimental group vs control group) where there are different subjects in each group. To calculate the value, the following formula needs to be applied:

$$t_{N_1+N_2-2} = \frac{X_1 - X_2 \sqrt{(N_1 + N_2 - 2)N_1N_2}}{\sqrt{(N_1S_1^2 + N_2S_2^2)(N_1 + N_2)}}$$

$X_x$  = individual score.

$X_n$  = group mean (average).

$X_x^2$  = squared score.

$N_x$  = standard of subjects.

$S_x$  = sample variance

The sample variance is a virtual value assigned to probable difference of level among subjects.

The obtained result must equal or exceed the tabulated value (calculated with the degrees of freedom) to affirm, confirm or infirm the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable, and hence reject the null hypothesis.

### The sample variance

Experimental group

$$S_1^2 = \frac{\sum X_1^2}{N_1} - X_1^2$$

$$S_1^2 = \frac{6333}{24} - (15,87)^2$$

$$S_1^2 = 263,87 - 251,85$$

$$S_1^2 = 12,02$$

Control group

$$S_2^2 = \frac{\sum X_2^2}{N_2} - X_2^2$$

$$S_2^2 = \frac{1351}{23} - (7,34)^2$$

$$S_2^2 = 58,73 - 53,87$$

$$S_2^2 = 4,86$$

### The t value

$$t_{N_1+N_2-2} = \frac{X_1 - X_2 \sqrt{(N_1 + N_2 - 2)N_1N_2}}{\sqrt{(N_1S_1^2 + N_2S_2^2)(N_1 + N_2)}}$$

$$t_{24+23-2} = \frac{(15,87 - 7,34) \sqrt{(24 + 23 - 2) \times (24 \times 23)}}{\sqrt{(24 \times 12,02 + 23 \times 4,86)(24 + 23)}}$$

$$t_{45} = \frac{8,53 \sqrt{45 \times 552}}{\sqrt{(288,48 + 111,78) \times 47}}$$

$$t_{45} = \frac{8,53 \sqrt{24840}}{\sqrt{18812,22}}$$

$$t_{45} = \frac{8,53 \times 157,60}{137,15}$$

$$t_{45} = \frac{1344,38}{137,15}$$

$$t_{45} = 9,80$$

Entering a t-table at 45 degrees of freedom (  $DF = N_1 + N_2 - 2 = 45$ ) we find a tabulated t of 2,68 at the level 0,01. Our calculated t value  $t = 9,80$  is excessively higher than the tabulated t, so the difference between the two means of the groups at the 99% level is highly significant. This implies that if experimental group post-test scores are compared with the control post-test scores, differences

are significant. In other words, manipulating the independent variable-grammar consciousness-raising tasks- leads to a better performance and to a more mastery of the target structure.

### 4.6.3 Results of the Grammaticality Judgement Test

**Table 26:** The frequency of subjects' scores on the GJT at pre-test and post-test

Score	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency
2	1	-	-	-
3	3	-	-	-
4	8	2	2	-
5	5	8	4	-
6	2	3	6	2
7	1	2	4	2
8	-	4	4	2
9	2	2	2	1
10	1	1	-	1
11	-	1	1	2
12	-	-	1	1
13	-	-	-	1
14	-	-	-	1
15	-	-	-	2
16	-	-	-	2
17	-	-	-	-
18	-	-	-	2
19	-	-	-	2
20	-	-	-	3
<b>Total</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>24</b>

#### 4.6.3.1 Pre-test: Control Group versus Experimental Group

If we return to the data presented in Table 26, as has been already seen the MCT, it is clear that there was no significant difference between subjects' scores at the pre-test. Both control and experimental groups obtained more scores below the average than above the average.

For the total 47 scores, we have as follows:

Control Group       $22 < 10 \rightarrow 95,66\% < 10$

$1 \geq 10 \rightarrow 4,34\% \geq 10$

Experimental Group       $22 < 10 \rightarrow 91,67\% < 10$

$2 > 10 \rightarrow 8,33\% > 10$

From Frequency Polygon 5, we can notice that the most frequent scores are either 4, 5, 6, 7 or 8 see these scores are below the average 10. In addition, the mean of the control group  $\bar{X}_1 = 5$  and the mean of the experimental group  $\bar{X}_2 = 6,87$ , both of which are below the average.

#### 4.6.3.2 Control Group Pre-test versus Control Group Post-test

Table 26 shows that there was no significant difference between subjects' pre-test and post-test scores. The control group recorded more scores below average than above average in both pre-test and post-test.

For the total 23 scores, we have:

Pre-test       $22 < 10 \rightarrow 95,66\% < 10$

$1 \geq 10 \rightarrow 4,34\% > 10$

Post-test       $21 < 10 \rightarrow 91,30\% < 10$

$$2 \geq 10 \rightarrow 8,70\% \geq 10$$

Frequency Polygon 6 shows that pre-test scores have a peak at 5; all other frequent scores ranged from 3 to 9. By examining the frequencies in both pre-test and post-test, scores below the average occurred more frequently than scores above the average.

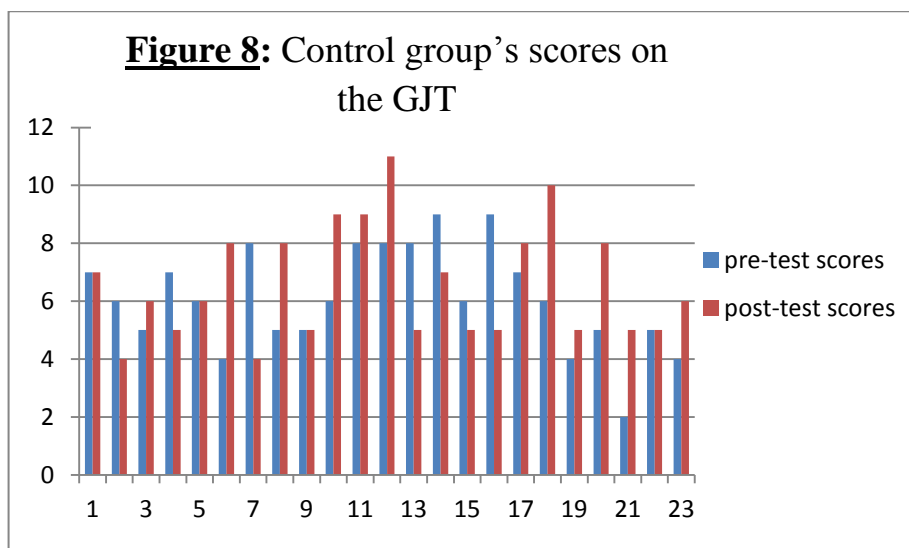
The control group recorded a post-test mean  $\bar{X}_{po} = 6,56$  whereas the pre-test mean  $\bar{X}_{pr} = 5$ . To examine the improvement from pre-test to post-test treatment, gain scores were calculated (Table 27). The mean difference  $\bar{D} = 1,73$  is not large, this suggests that subjects in the control group did not perform better on the post-test. Figure 8 shows that most of the subjects recorded scores below the average. Therefore, the results reflect the absence of a significant difference between pre-test and post-test scores. These findings contradict Krashen's hypothesis that advances that learners who receive implicit language instruction will use a native-like process of grammaticality judgement that will enable them to identify and correct the error easily, without conscious reference or knowledge of grammatical rules.





**Table 27:** Control group's scores on the GJT at pre-test, post-test and their gain scores

Individual student	Pre-test scores	Post-test scores	Difference
1	6	7	1
2	4	4	0
3	4	6	2
4	5	5	0
5	4	6	2
6	5	8	3
7	3	4	1
8	6	8	2
9	7	5	2
10	9	9	0
11	9	9	0
12	10	11	1
13	4	5	1
14	3	7	4
15	4	5	1
16	3	5	2
17	4	8	4
18	5	10	5
19	4	5	1
20	5	8	3
21	2	5	3
22	5	5	0
23	4	6	2
The mean	5	6.56	$\bar{D} = 1.73$



#### 4.6.3.3 Experimental Group Pre-test versus Experimental Group Post-test

An examination of Table 26 and Frequency Polygon 7 gives an overall picture of the difference between pre-test and post-test scores. The latter were largely higher than the pre-test scores. Clearly, the experimental group obtained more scores above the average in the post-test compared to pre-test scores that were below the average.

For the total 24 scores, we have:

$$\underline{\text{Pre-test}} \quad 22 < 10 \rightarrow 9,67\% < 10$$

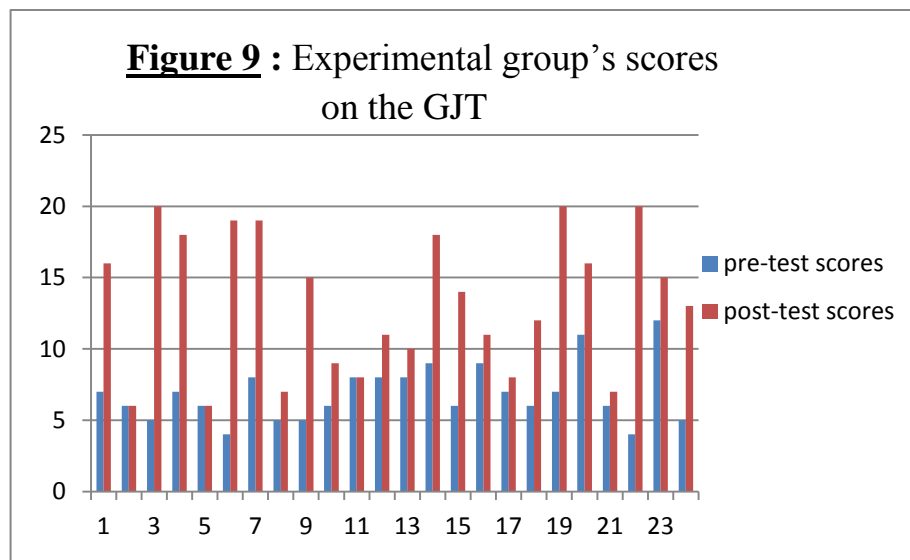
$$2 > 10 \rightarrow 8,33\% > 10$$

$$\underline{\text{Post-test}} \quad 7 < 10 \rightarrow 29,17\% < 10$$

$$17 \geq 10 \rightarrow 70,83\% \geq 10$$

It is worth noting that the experimental group had a post-test mean  $\bar{X}_{po} = 13,25$  higher than the pre-test mean  $\bar{X}_{pr} = 6,87$ . To check whether there is a progress from pre-test to post-test knowledge gain scores were calculated (Table 28). The mean difference  $\bar{D} = 6,37$  is highly significant. This indicates a

significant improvement of subjects' performance on the post-test. Figure 9 shows that, apparently, the average score was improved because most of the subjects, not a limited part of the subjects improved their scores. Hence, they were affected by the treatment and the effect was important.





**Table 28:** Experimental group's scores on the GJT at pre-test, post-test and their gain scores

Individual student	Pre-test Scores	Post-test scores	Difference
1	7	16	9
2	6	6	0
3	5	20	15
4	7	18	11
5	6	6	0
6	4	19	15
7	8	19	11
8	5	7	2
9	5	15	10
10	6	9	3
11	8	8	0
12	8	11	3
13	8	10	2
14	9	18	9
15	6	14	8
16	9	11	2
17	7	8	1
18	6	12	6
19	7	20	13
20	11	16	5
21	6	7	1
22	4	20	16
23	12	15	3
24	5	13	8
<b>The mean</b>	<b>6.87</b>	<b>13.25</b>	<b><math>\bar{D} = 6.37</math></b>

**Table 29:** Experimental group's squared difference on the GJT

Difference	Squared difference
9	81
0	0
15	225
11	121
0	0
15	225
11	121
2	4
10	100
3	9
0	0
3	9
2	4
9	81
8	64
2	4
1	1
6	36
13	169
5	25
1	1
16	256
3	9
8	64
$\sum D^2$	1609

To verify the significance of results obtained on the GJT by the experimental group, the paired samples t-test is applied.

**T statistic**

$$t_{n-1} = \frac{\bar{D}}{SE(\bar{D})}$$

$$\bar{D} = 6,37$$

$$\sum D^2 = 1609$$

$$N = 24$$

**Standard deviation**

$$Sd = \sqrt{S^2}$$

$$S^2 = \frac{\sum D^2}{N} - \bar{D}^2$$

$$S^2 = \frac{1409}{24} - (6,37)^2$$

$$S^2 = 67,04 - 40,57$$

$$S^2 = 26,47$$

$$Sd = \sqrt{26,47}$$

$$Sd = 5,145$$

**Standard error of the difference**

$$SE(\bar{D}) = \frac{Sd}{\sqrt{N}} = \frac{5,145}{4,898} = 1,05$$

**The t value**

$$t_{n-1} = \frac{\bar{D}}{SE(\bar{D})}$$

$$t_{24-1} = \frac{6,37}{1,05}$$

$$t_{23} = 6,06$$

T= 6,06 is the value of t observed. When compared to the tabulated value t=2,82, it could be deduced that at the 0,01 level of significance, the t observed is

larger than  $t$  tabulated. This implies that the results obtained at the post-test are not due to chance, but to the independent variable. Thus, the hypothesis stating that exposure providing grammar consciousness-raising tasks is effective is strongly supported in that the experimental group subjects improved greatly their level as compared to their pre-instructional level of proficiency.

#### 4.6.3.4 Post-test: Control Group versus Experimental Group

Both Table 23 or Frequency Polygon 7, 8 indicate a significant difference between the control group and the experimental group. Clearly enough, subjects in the experimental group outperformed control group scores. The latter recorded a mean  $\bar{X}_C = 6,56$  whereas the former had a mean  $\bar{X}_E = 13,25$ .

The control group's post-test frequency polygon begins at 4 and ends at 11 with a peak at 5, that is, the lowest score is  $\frac{4}{20}$  and the biggest is  $\frac{11}{20}$ . On the other hand, the experimental group's post-test frequency polygon starts at 6 (the most frequent score in the pre-test) and ends at 20, although the scores appear with low frequencies (the highest frequency for the scores is 3). The most frequent scores of the experimental group subjects ranged from 16 and 20, whereas the control group subjects most frequent scores ranged from 4 to 8.



To determine whether the difference in groups' mean is attributable to the action of the independent variable that is under investigation, or to chance variation, the independent samples t-test has been carried out.

### The sample variance

Experimental group

$$S_1^2 = \frac{\sum X_1^2}{N_1} - X_1^2$$

$$S_1^2 = \frac{4762}{24} - (13,25)^2$$

$$S_1^2 = 198,41 - 175,56$$

$$S_1^2 = 22,85$$

Control group

$$S_2^2 = \frac{\sum X_2^2}{N_2} - X_2^2$$

$$S_2^2 = \frac{1077}{23} - (6,56)^2$$

$$S_2^2 = 46,82 - 43,03$$

$$S_2^2 = 3,79$$

### The t value

$$t_{N_1+N_2-2} = \frac{X_1 - X_2 \sqrt{(N_1+N_2-2)N_1N_2}}{\sqrt{(N_1S_1^2 + N_2S_2^2)(N_1+N_2)}}$$

$$t_{24+23-2} = \frac{(13,25 - 6,56) \sqrt{(24+23-2) \times (24 \times 23)}}{\sqrt{(24 \times 22,85) + (23 \times 3,79)(24+23)}}$$

$$t_{45} = \frac{6,69 \sqrt{45 \times 552}}{\sqrt{(548,4 + 87,17) \times 47}}$$

$$t_{45} = \frac{6,69 \sqrt{24840}}{\sqrt{29871,79}}$$

$$t_{45} = \frac{6,69 \times 157,60}{172,83}$$

$$t_{45} = \frac{1054,34}{172,83}$$

$$t_{45} = 6,10$$

The t value is  $t=6,10$ . According to a degree of freedom (whereby  $DF=N_1+N_2 - 2 = 45$ ) the tabulated t is 2,68 at the level of 0,01. Our calculated t

exceeds the tabulated *t*. Therefore, the difference between the means at 99% level is highly significant. It is very likely to conclude that, clearly enough, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is strongly supported.

#### **4.7 General Discussion**

The findings of this study indicate that at the post-test students in the experimental group achieved significantly higher scores and outperformed control group subjects on the multiple choice test as well as on the grammaticality judgement test. This significant improvement on the two measures is due to the use of grammar consciousness-raising treatments (GCR tasks) about adjective order in English and not due to the implicit presentation of rules provided during the treatment period.

Since the experimental group showed a significant increase between pre-test and post-test scores on the discrete-point grammar test, the research hypothesis is supported. In other words, grammar consciousness-raising treatment appears to have had a significant effect in increasing the mean score on the post-test. The amount of increase is relatively significant; the increase of a 6, 37 points on the grammaticality judgement test and 7,25 points on the multiple choice test shown by the experimental group is, in fact, substantial.

For the control group, it appears that the learning condition did not make a difference. This is probably because the subjects did not notice the target feature that was embedded in texts. Usage of the provided implicit information does not show any improvement of performance on the test. Results on both measures lend support to this interpretation. As far as the multiple choice test, results show no improvement from pre-test to post-test.

Robinson (1996) points that to make a grammaticality judgement test, one can either scan a sentence to find evidence confirming the hypothesis that it is

grammatical, or scan the sentence to find evidence of incorrectness. In these operations, the subject would either rely on his implicit knowledge, and so automatically find the error without difficulty and in a very short time, or refer to his explicit knowledge; a kind of rules inventory that if retrieved would help the learner identify the violations, preceding serially by checking to see whether any of the possible violations of the retrieved rules has occurred.

Results on the grammaticality judgement test show that approximately the same number of subjects in the control group, either during the pre-test or post-test, failed to identify the error. Clearly, the gain for the control group was negligible ( $\bar{D} = 1,73$ ).

However, this slight improvement could be attributed to repetition and constant use of the target structure during the treatment period.

Another possibility for the controls' slight progress could be due to the fact that some subjects were able to induce by themselves the rules and possibly develop their own conscious rules about adjective order. Thus, they managed to distinguish between grammatical and ungrammatical uses of the target structure. Yet, their number is too small.

As regards the question whether grammar consciousness-raising task treatment could make a difference on learners' acquisition of adjective order, it seems that the experimental group results greatly confirm that this treatment is the causative variable for the students' improved performance on the post-test measure. Not only did the experimental group perform better than the control group on the multiple choice test, but on the grammaticality judgement test as well. It is of interest to note that these results seem to confirm and echo previous research findings of Fotos and Ellis (1991), Sheen (1992), Fotos (1993), Yip (1994), Chan and Li (2002), Mohamed (2004), and Eckerth (2008) Whose groups receiving various grammar consciousness-raising treatments show a certain control

of the presented structures in comparison to exposure groups who did not show any evidence for having learned any rule.

One possible explanation may be that GCR tasks were effective in directing students' attention to the target structure. They, at first, led the subjects in the experimental group to pay more attention to the highlighted grammatical forms. This may be explained by the fact that conscious attention could have fostered subjects' noticing of these forms in subsequent input. Then, such noticing could have facilitated learners' processing of the forms and identification of errors (as it is the case with the GJT), or identification of the correct form among erroneous ones (as in the MCT).

A second explanation may be that learners were able to develop significant levels of explicit grammatical knowledge as a result of GCR task treatment. Therefore, the explicit grammatical knowledge gained from completing GCR tasks promoted subsequent noticing of the target structure, and thus, facilitated students' identification of incorrect sentences and choice of the correct ones. The results tend to be consistent with those obtained by Fotos (1993). She found that two types of grammar consciousness-raising tasks promoted comparable significant levels of explicit knowledge, and resulted in significant instances of noticing the grammatical structures.

Grammar consciousness-raising tasks appeared to be effective in developing explicit knowledge that facilitated learners' cognitive processes in terms of their awareness of the target structure. Therefore, once their consciousness has been raised, the students continued to be aware of the grammatical forms. Students who were aware of the target structure were more likely to notice it when they subsequently encountered it in the test. Thus, awareness could have facilitated students' ability to judge the grammaticality of sentences involving adjective order or to choose the right answer.

Henceforward, the more favourable results of the experimental group might be due to the fact that grammar consciousness-raising task treatment resulted in increased students' understanding of the grammar rule. Accordingly, they utilized their mental efforts to understand the target feature. This understanding aided learners to improve their performance on the test. This correlates with Schmidt's claim (1990) that consciousness at the level of rule understanding is strongly facilitative of later acquisition.

The explicit knowledge developed via GCR tasks could have been used by students to monitor output. In the mean time, it is possible that some monitoring or self-correction took place while performing the test. Therefore, monitoring as a result of explicit knowledge is a possible explanation for the observed results in the present study. This interpretation goes in parallel with Krashen's Monitor hypothesis (1978: 16) which states that:

Conscious learning is available only as Monitor, which can alter the output of the acquired system before and after the utterance is actually spoken or written.

In addition, explicit information provided by the teacher at the end of each grammar consciousness-raising task could have possibly provided students with a knowledge that was referred to when necessary. Thus, learners would have been able to act upon this knowledge to perform on the multiple choice test and the grammaticality judgement test. This converges with Green and Hecht's view. They (1992:178) hold that:

What does seem to be the case here is that classroom learners with learned rules under their belt and confronted by a grammar test... operated to a large extent by feel. That is to say, they corrected largely by implicit rules, which very possibly had been facilitated by explicit rules. The explicit rules resurfaced when they were specifically called for.

Furthermore, task performance provided opportunities for the type of learner interaction suggested to promote acquisition. Such negotiated interaction could have helped learners to gain some control over their learning. During performance of the explicit structure-based tasks, the learners discussed their own understanding of the target structures and, through interaction they developed awareness of the target grammar feature. Ellis (2005b: 11) states:

According to the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996), interaction fosters acquisition when a communicative problem arises and learners are engaged in negotiating for meaning. The interactional modifications arising help to make input comprehensible, provide corrective feedback, and push learners to modify their own output in uptake.

Another possible explanation for the positive results would be that practice and corrective feedback provided by teachers could have constituted an additional source of explicit information that served as a kind of input enhancement. Therefore, they could have consolidated learners' knowledge of the target structure, and helped them to perform better on the two measures (MCT and GJT).

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS**

5.1 Reasons for Incorporating GCR Tasks in Second Language Curricula	197
5.2 Suggestions for Effective Grammar Teaching/ Learning	199

Results of the present study support the positive effects of grammar consciousness-raising tasks on facilitating the acquisition of grammatical structures. In other words, applying a consciousness-raising approach to the teaching of grammar proved to be efficient for grammar acquisition. This converges with Ellis's (1992: 238) view which asserts that "Consciousness-raising facilitates the acquisition of grammatical knowledge needed for communication".

### **5.1 Reasons for Incorporating GCR Tasks in Second Language Curricula**

Grammar consciousness-raising tasks can be incorporated in second language learning curricula, and this is due to a number of reasons. First of all, GCR tasks, as has been proved by the present study, improve explicit grammatical knowledge and can possibly lead to the acquisition of grammatical structures in the target language. Thus, GCR tasks can be a valuable pedagogical tool because it can promote a significant improvement in the learners' performance on discrete-point grammar tests such as the multiple choice test and the grammaticality judgement test. Moreover, GCR as an approach to explicit grammar instruction which attempts to draw learners' attention to specific linguistic forms can possibly lead to avoid fossilization. Interestingly, Willis (1996) pointed out that the lack of grammar instruction leads to premature fossilization. This view came in contradiction to Krashen and Terrel's (1983) claim that acquisition is dependent only on comprehensible input in a low-risk environment. Similarly, Yip (1994: 125) reported that "Comprehensible input is certainly necessary, but not sufficient to bring about successful acquisition".

Therefore, for efficient learning and acquisition, students need a focus on language forms and an extensive meaning-focused use of the target form so that they can become aware of its features in context. From this perspective, GCR tasks are useful to provide communicative use of instructed forms. Ellis and Fotos (1999: 206) observe that:

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Grammar tasks which emphasize consciousness-raising rather than practice appear to be an effective type of classroom activity, and their use is supported by what is currently known about the way a second language is acquired.

The second plausible reason to plea for resorting to GCR tasks is that they are effective in promoting significant levels of noticing. As a matter of fact, once a learner's consciousness of a target feature has been raised through GCR tasks, the learner often tends to notice the features in subsequent input (Ellis, 1991; Schmidt, 1990, 1993). When a grammatical structure is noticed frequently, learners develop awareness of it and compare it with their existing system of linguistic knowledge; that is, they notice the gap. Importantly, GCR techniques can be an effective way of directing students' attention to form, and therefore they will activate their mental processes.

Another reason to incorporate GCR tasks in the curriculum is that they meet the desires and preferences of many learners. As shown in the survey results, more than half of students (53,31%) had more favourable attitudes towards GCR tasks as an inductive approach to explicit grammar instruction. Interestingly, Boda and Okan (2000) have pointed out that many teachers acknowledge the need to understand learners' preferences, but they may not actually consult learners in conducting language activities. Teachers may believe that learners are not capable of expressing what they want or need to learn and how they want to learn. However, Chawham and Oliver (2000: 25) state that it is reasonable to conclude that teachers' consciousness of learners' beliefs contributes to a more conducive learning environment and to more effective learning. These beliefs about the importance of grammar instruction if not taken into account could cause students' demotivation and hinder their ultimate success. In short, teachers might need to be

very cautious about their students' desire to induce the grammatical rules. Borg (1996: 121) asserts that:

Inductive learning is the preferred modus operandi of language awareness and this allows learners to establish a more personal relationship with the aspect of language under study.

## **5.2 Suggestions for Effective Grammar Teaching/ Learning**

Thus, our study findings have some general implications for better grammar teaching and learning. Here are some suggestions.

First of all, teachers should keep in mind that learning is not a process which focuses merely on receptive skills on the part of learners and where the lessons are primarily teacher-centred. They are required to design innovative techniques that call for a step towards interaction between teachers and learners. All-Wright (1984; in Ellis, 1994: 28) sees interaction as fundamental on the grounds that the opportunities for learning which it affords constitute the major determinant of acquisition. As an example, discovering techniques used in GCR tasks can make grammar lessons more enjoyable. A language course should prepare students to become effective and independent language learners because “Working things out for themselves prepares students for greater self-reliance and is therefore conducive to learner autonomy” (Thornbury, 1999: 54). Moreover, teachers should create a learning environment where the students notice new language and exploit it in genuine communicative GCR tasks by relating the grammar lesson to a context. In this way, from the outset, students can be fully involved and feel comfortable and less stressed. In a more comfortable learning environment, learners exchange their opinions and information with their teachers and peers alike and will reinforce the lesson.

Secondly, providing smaller amounts of new information in meaningful contexts, but allowing students to discover it, make explicit the induced information, practise it immediately in different activities and get feedback for their productions in the same session, allow students to perceive grammar as a rewarding game because they can be aware of their success. Moreover, repeating the new grammatical structures in different contexts with long intervals of time may help all the learners acquire the structures since different opportunities for their learning are provided.

Thirdly, since teachers' challenge is especially aimed at helping learners learn the structures, facilitating their understanding of what is done in the foreign language classroom is necessary in order to motivate them to learn; that is why adapting the material to their level, and paying attention to the L1 since the L1 helps learners to differentiate important structural differences between the mother tongue and the target language norms. Pointing out the discrepancies between their intermediate forms and target language norms can be a useful way and can prove satisfactory due to the importance attached to L1 as the only reference point available for many students. Therefore, it would be senseless not to take advantage of the L1 linguistic knowledge that learners already process, and not to compare the systems of the L1 and L2 when helping students learn an L2 (Hernández, 1993: 33).

Fourthly, making the new information about the grammatical structure more salient by writing it in bold or in capital letters so that students' attention is easily drawn to it when introduced in meaningful contexts and their induction is facilitated will help students to be more autonomous; however, students should also be encouraged to make explicit the rule in order to confirm that their guesses are right. Moreover, repeating this explicit knowledge about the grammatical structure every time students practise the structure helps learners to provide them with more chances to understand it than if it is only mentioned once.

Finally, input-rich grammar instruction that encourages students to view grammar not just as a formal system, but also as a meaningful component of contextualized language use is favoured (Paesani, 2005: 16). That is, teachers should make efforts to apply a meaning-based approach in which attention to the grammatical feature is encouraged so that the rule can be induced and use GCR tasks that combine the opportunity for meaning-focused use of the target language with a study of its form. Stated another way, form and meaning are intrinsically linked, and inseparable. Therefore, students should be able to learn explicit grammar rules as well as have a chance to practise them in communicative and interactive tasks. Ellis (1997: 87) observes:

It is...perfectly possible to design grammar tasks that...focus [learners'] attention on specific structures and help them to understand the meaning (s) which these structures realize- to induce them to undertake a kind of form-function analysis of the structure, as this is exemplified in input that has been specially contrived to illustrate it.

It should be acknowledged that knowing that they can work out the rules from examples by themselves greatly increases students' motivation, makes them attentive, more actively involved in, and confident and enthusiastic about the learning process rather than simply passive recipients, and at the same time contributes to its effectiveness. However, students may hypothesize a wrong rule, or their version of the rule may be either too broad or too narrow in its application. It may be difficult to discover form-function relationship without explicit clues; learners feel more secure knowing that their hypotheses about grammar will be carefully monitored. Thus, when students ascertained the rule, the teacher then provides an explicit explanation of it; writes the rule on the board and further

explains its use. The feedback will help learners to integrate the new structure into their productions and the target language system. Immediate feedback should be provided at the end of each session because, as Ellis (2000: 15) explains, by focusing on what they get wrong and by correcting it, learners learn. Within a similar vein, Tomlinson (1998: 79) argues that:

Activities should be sequenced so that students first respond to the meaning of the structure through content-based tasks, then are sufficiently encouraged to raise their consciousness to notice the form and function of the target structure and then finally engage in some kind of error identification activity (preferably of identifiable learner errors) where incorrect or inappropriate versions of the key structure are presented.

Most important, grammar consciousness-raising tasks should not replace explicit grammar instruction, but rather be employed in conjunction with it. Rather than being wedded to one approach, the most profitable strategy can be an eclectic one combining both methods. Teachers should seek out tasks which combine communicative features of interaction (to cater for holistic learners) with the opportunity to analyse what is going on with the language (for analytical learners) because students do best in classes wherein the teacher varies the approach in order to accommodate all learning styles. Mohamed (2004: 233) states:

This examination of CR tasks suggests that both deductive and inductive tasks are effective learning tools that could be used in the language classroom to make learners aware of form, where explicit instruction is necessary. Less experienced and lower-level learners would need to be introduced gradually to them. This does not imply that these tasks alone are sufficient. They would need to be used in conjunction with other varieties of tasks in order to cater for all learning styles and needs of the learners, and to create an environment which is conducive to the acquisition of both form and meaning.

## **GENERAL CONCLUSION**

## General Conclusion

The results obtained from this study provide evidence in support of the effectiveness of grammar consciousness-raising tasks on facilitating the acquisition of grammatical structures. It has been found that such grammar tasks contribute to language acquisition in two ways. They contribute directly by providing opportunities for the kind of communication which is believed to promote the acquisition of implicit knowledge, and contribute also indirectly to enabling learners to develop explicit grammatical knowledge of language rules which will later facilitate the acquisition of implicit knowledge.

Therefore, GCR tasks are based on the claim that learners benefit from explicit knowledge of grammatical features. It has a role to play not only in language use (monitoring) but also in facilitating the process of noticing and noticing the gap, within a computational model of L2 acquisition are viewed as necessary steps in the development of implicit L2 knowledge. Moreover, they can also assist acquisition by promoting the depth of processing which promotes acquisition. Requiring learners to think and talk about grammar potentially involves greater intellectual effort than simply listening to a teacher's explanation, if this takes place in the TL will foster both the process of acquiring new knowledge and that of analysing and restructuring existing knowledge.

Grammar tasks which emphasize consciousness-raising appear to be an effective type of classroom activity, and their use is supported by what is currently known about how a second language is acquired. Furthermore, such tasks provide serious content, in contrast to the trivial content of information-gap activities, and they accommodate learners who believe that it is important to learn about grammar. They provide opportunities to communicate in the language in groups or in pairs, and they encourage an active discovery-oriented approach on the part of learners, which accords with current views about good educational practice.

Another benefit of the C-R approach to grammar teaching is that given sufficient exposure and opportunity, learners will discover elements of grammar and reach conclusions which make sense in terms of their own systems. This involves reconciling their new findings of the use and usage of a particular feature, and examples of its use by native speakers.

GCR tasks advantages, is that in the longer term, they nurture language awareness, sensitizing learners to the structures of the target language in a way that passively receiving information about language rules does not. Applying this approach trains learners to techniques which they can then use to study independently. In the affective sphere, self-discovery nurtures curiosity and builds confidence.

Nevertheless, since inferring is an essential mental process in language learning, refining or rejecting learners' working hypotheses about the target language is essential if we want to avoid fossilization. Feedback will help learners to integrate the new language into their interlanguage system since it makes them notice the difference between their productions and the target system. Thus, after the production attempt, the teacher gives the learners feedback in the form of explicit statement of the rule which is to be formulated and written on the board with examples illustrating its use. However, before these key explanations are provided to students, they are advised to reflect on their answers and correct their errors. It is by reflecting about their productions first, and later about their errors that the feedback is more effective.

The limitations of the present study such as the relatively small number of subjects, the limited range of structures involved, and the short period of treatment must be acknowledged. Future experimental studies correcting for these limitations will help define with firmness the relative effects of GCR tasks on grammar acquisition. Additionally, the use of GCR tasks remains an intriguing proposal in need of further study. Future research will need to address a number of issues.

These include: a) developing different formats of GCR tasks; b) examining the effects of these different formats on gains in acquisition; c) investigating the effects of teacher feedback; and d) investigating the role of learners in task performance. We still also need information across a wider range of ages, levels of proficiency, backgrounds, and learning styles.

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## **APPENDICES**

**Appendix A:** Test Used in Pre-testing and Post-testing

**Appendix B:** Students' Questionnaire

**Appendix C:** Test Correct Items

**Appendix D:** The Instruction the Experimental Group Received

**Appendix D 1:** GCR Task 1 (Session 1)

**Appendix D 2:** GCR Task 2 (Session 2)

**Appendix D 3:** GCR Task 3 (Session 2)

**Appendix D 4:** GCR Task 4 (Session 3)

**Appendix D 5:** GCR Task 5 (Session 3)

**Appendix D 6:** GCR Task 6 (Session 4)

**Appendix D 7:** GCR Task 7 (Session 4)

**Appendix D 8:** GCR Task 8 (Session 5)

**Appendix E:** An Example of the Implicit Instruction the Control Group  
Received

**Appendix F:** Post-test squared scores of both groups on the MCT

**Appendix G:** Post-test squared scores of both groups on the GJT



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**Appendix A: Test Used in Pre-testing and Post-testing****Section A**

Put a circle around the correct answer:

1. Sheila gave me a a- plastic red square vase.  
b- red square plastic  
c- square red plastic  
d- square plastic red
  
2. My friends bought a lot of a-interesting old Indian furniture.  
b- Indian old interesting  
c- old interesting Indian  
d- interesting Indian old
  
3. She looks so elegant in her a- pink large dress.  
b- large pink dress.
  
4. You can switch off this a- alarm big ancient clock.  
b- big alarm ancient  
c- big ancient alarm  
d- alarm ancient big
  
5. Tom drove his a- big expensive sports car.  
b- expensive big sports  
c- big sports expensive  
d- sports big expensive
  
6. He invited that a- American young lady.  
b- young American

7. The room was decorated with a- cotton red round balloons.

b- red round cotton

c- round red cotton

d- red cotton round

8. I saw a a- strange French modern painting.

b- strange modern French

c- modern strange French

d- modern French strange

9. Her son sits on a- nice small kitchen chair

b- small nice kitchen

c- kitchen small nice

d- nice kitchen small

10. Mohamed Dib was a a- famous Algerian young writer.

b- Algerian young famous

c- young Algerian famous

d- famous young Algerian

11. He owns a a- big old sailing ship.

b- big sailing old

c- sailing old big

d- sailing big old

12. She puts a a- rectangular woollen blue carpet on the floor.

b- woollen rectangular blue

c- rectangular blue woollen

d- woollen blue rectangular

13. We visited a a- traditional Japanese village.

b- Japanese traditional

- 
14. Ann prefers a- cheap small riding boots.  
b- riding small cheap  
c- small cheap riding  
d- riding cheap small
15. I have a a- big white car.  
b- white big
16. Leila likes her a- warm nice scarf.  
b- nice warm
17. In the kitchen, there was a a- beautiful round large plastic plate.  
b- round large beautiful plastic  
c- large plastic round beautiful  
d- beautiful large round plastic
18. He lives in a a- cold strange country.  
b- strange cold
19. Did you see the a- Italian new film?  
b- new Italian
20. She gave me a a- small square nice metal box.  
b- nice small square metal  
c- square nice metal small  
d- metal nice square small

## Section B

Read the following sentences. Decide whether they are correct or incorrect. Write (C) in front of the sentence if correct, or (I) if incorrect. If the sentence is incorrect, try to correct it in the space provided below:

1. She made a brown rectangular chocolate cake.

.....

2. My mother tried an Algerian old recipe.

.....

3. She gave us food in a clean small serving dish.

.....

4. They read an exiting new British magazine.

.....

5. My father sold his big old touring car.

.....

6. George is a young stupid American man.

.....

7. The girl took her large new summer dress.

.....

8. There is a square white wooden table in the room.

.....

9. James was listening to an old Russian song.

.....

10.Sara offered me tea in a yellow round glass cup.

.....

11.That old Canadian woman needs help.

.....

12.Maria lost her silver grey round mirror.

.....

13.He is an old attractive French actor.

.....

14.Have you seen this modern German fantastic house?

.....

15.The sky was covered with black huge clouds.

.....  
16. My father ate a hot delicious soup.

.....  
17. He sold a wonderful large rectangular leather sofa.

.....  
18. She bought an enormous blue umbrella.

.....  
19. It is an unusual hot weather.

.....  
20. What a small beautiful round golden ring!  
.....

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## **Appendix B: Students' Questionnaire**

Dear students, you are invited to complete a questionnaire about your background information and about your attitudes towards grammar learning. We assure you that your answers would be kept strictly confidential and would be used only for research purposes. Please read the questions attentively and respond to them by circling the appropriate answer (yes or no in section B).

### **Section A: Background information**

1. Name
2. Sex
  - Male
  - Female
3. Age
4. Native language
5. When did you get your BAC?
6. What was your stream in the secondary school?
7. Do you like English?
8. What was your mark of English in the BAC exam?
9. How long have you been studying English for?

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## Section B: Students' attitudes towards GCR tasks

1. Do you think that learning grammar is necessary for learning English?

- Yes
- No

2. Does your teacher draw your attention to some rules of grammar?

- Yes
- No

3. Do you prefer to:

A-Read or listen to a grammar explanation first and then to do an exercise.

B-To look at some examples (some sentences or a text) and try to discover the rule by yourself then to receive rule explanation from the teacher.

4. Do you think that attention to is necessary to learn grammatical rules?

- Yes
- No

5. Do you notice new grammatical structures when they are highlighted in sentence or a text?

- Yes
- No

6. If yes, do you compare the new grammatical structures with your existing knowledge?

- Yes
- No

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## Appendix C: Test Correct Items

### Section A

Put a circle around the correct answer

1. Sheila gave me a a- plastic red square vase.  
b- red square plastic  
c- square red plastic 0  
d- square plastic red
2. My friends bought a lot of a- interesting old Indian furniture. 0  
b- Indian old interesting  
c- old interesting Indian  
d- interesting Indian old
3. She looks so elegant in her a- pink large dress.  
b- large pink dress. 0
4. You can switch off this a- alarm big ancient clock.  
b- big alarm ancient  
c- big ancient alarm 0  
d- alarm ancient big
5. Tom drove his a- big expensive sports car.  
b- expensive big sports 0  
c- big sports expensive  
d- sports big expensive
6. He invited that a- American young lady.  
b- young American 0
7. The room was decorated with a- cotton red round balloons.  
b- red round cotton  
c- round red cotton 0  
d- red cotton round

- 
8. I saw a a- strange French modern painting.  
b- strange modern French 0  
c- modern strange French  
d- modern French strange
9. Her son sits on a-nice small kitchen chair 0  
b- small nice kitchen  
c- kitchen small nice  
d- nice kitchen small
- 10.Mohamed Dib was a a- famous Algerian young writer.  
b- Algerian young famous  
c- young Algerian famous  
d- famous young Algerian 0
- 11.He owns a a- big old sailing ship. 0  
b- big sailing old  
c- sailing old big  
d- sailing big old
- 12.She puts a a- rectangular woollen blue carpet on the floor.  
b- woollen rectangular blue  
c- rectangular blue woollen 0  
d- woollen blue rectangular
- 13.We visited a a- traditional Japanese village. 0  
b- Japanese traditional
- 14.Ann prefers a- cheap small riding boots. 0  
b- riding small cheap  
c- small cheap riding  
d- riding cheap small
- 15.I have a a- big white car. 0  
b- white big car.

16. Leila likes her a- warm nice scarf.  
b- nice warm scarf. 0
17. In the kitchen, there was a a- beautiful round large plastic plate.  
b- round large beautiful plastic  
c- large plastic round beautiful  
d- beautiful large round plastic 0
18. He lives in a a- cold strange country.  
b- strange cold 0
19. Did you see the a- Italian new film?  
b- new Italian 0
20. She gave me a a- small square nice metal box.  
b- nice small square metal 0  
c- square nice metal small  
d- metal nice square small

## Section B

Read the following sentences. Decide whether they are correct or incorrect. Write (C) in front of the sentence if correct, or (I) if incorrect. If the sentence is incorrect, try to correct it in the space provided below.

1. She made a brown rectangular chocolate cake. (I)  
She made a rectangular brown chocolate cake.
2. My mother tried an Algerian old recipe. (I)  
My mother tried an old Algerian recipe.
3. She gave us food in a clean small serving dish. (C)
4. They read an exiting new British magazine. (C)
5. My father sold his big old touring car. (C)
6. George is a young stupid American man. (I)  
George is a stupid young American man.
7. The girl took her large new summer dress. (I)  
The girl took her new large summer dress.

8. There is a square white wooden table in the room. (C)

9. James was listening to an old Russian song. (C)

10. Sara offered me tea in a yellow round glass cup. (I)

Sara offered me tea in a round yellow glass cup.

11. That old Canadian woman needs help. (C)

12. Maria lost her silver grey round mirror. (I)

Maria lost her round grey silver mirror.

13. He is an old attractive French actor. (I)

He is an attractive old French actor.

14. Have you seen this modern German fantastic house? (I)

Have you seen this fantastic modern German house?

15. The sky was covered with black huge clouds. (I)

The sky was covered with huge black clouds.

16. My father ate a hot delicious soup. (I)

My father ate a delicious hot soup.

17. He sold a wonderful large rectangular leather sofa. (C)

18. She bought an enormous blue umbrella. (C)

19. It is an unusual hot weather. (C)

20. What a small beautiful round golden ring! (I)

What a beautiful small round golden ring!

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## Appendix D: The Instruction the Experimental Group Received

### Appendix D1: GCR task 1 (Session 1)

A- What is the difference between these sentences?

a- He gave us a useful old Algerian opinion (grammatical).

b- The artist drew an old French interesting painting (ungrammatical).

B- indicate whether the following sentences are grammatical or ungrammatical:

1. He lives in a famous English old house.
2. We stayed at a nice new British hotel.
3. I have just finished an interesting new Canadian novel.
4. The doctor examined the strange American young patient.
5. We visited a new wonderful French university.
6. That is the beautiful antique Korean airport.
7. Have you seen this German fantastic modern invention?
8. The policeman arrested an attractive young British woman.

C-

1. List the sentences in -B- that are like sentence (a).
2. What we call types of words like: useful, interesting?  
What do we call types of words like: old, new?  
What do we call types of words like: English, American?
3. Work out a rule for sentences that are like sentence (a), i.e., allow a specific word order.
4. Try to correct the sentences that are ungrammatical.

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**Appendix D2: GCR task 2 (Session 2)**

A- Compare the following sentences:

- a- I met a young Egyptian man (grammatical).
- b- He drives his Italian modern car (ungrammatical).

B- Identify whether the following sentences are grammatical or ungrammatical:

1. We visited the Russian ancient ruins.
2. I saw a traditional Canadian souvenir.
3. Yesterday, we watched an old Spanish film.
4. My father sold his Japanese new car.

C-

1. List the sentences that are like sentence (a).
2. What we call types of words like: Egyptian, Italian?  
What do we call types of words like: modern, young?
3. Find out the rule for sentences that are like sentence (a).
4. Correct the ungrammatical sentences.

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**Appendix D3: GCR task 3 (Session 2)**

A- What is the difference between these sentences?

a- She prepared food in an expensive big roasting dish (grammatical).

b- He spent his night in a sleeping nice small bag (ungrammatical).

B- Indicate whether the following sentences are grammatical or ungrammatical:

1. She broke her clean serving small bowl.

2. My brother prefers his cheap biscuit big tin.

3. She sat in the beautiful large summer house.

4. My mother bought cheap small kitchen paper.

5. He has an exciting touring big car.

6. She used a beautiful large carving knife.

C-

1. List the sentences in -B- that are like sentence (a).

2. What do we call types of words like: expensive, cheap?

What do we call types of words like: big, large?

What do we call types of words like: sleeping, carving?

3. Work out a rule for sentences that are like sentence (a), i.e., allow a specific word order.

4. Correct the ungrammatical sentences.

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**Appendix D4: GCR task 4 (Session 3)**

A – What is the difference between these sentences?

a- he sold his enormous old sailing boat (grammatical).

b- He repaired the ancient hunting little cabin (ungrammatical).

B-Indicate whether the following sentences are grammatical or ungrammatical:

1. She bought a new small flower vase.
2. I set the big new alarm clock for 7 o'clock.
3. They encouraged the big modern sports team.
4. She bought large riding new boots.
5. He drives a big racing new car.

C-

1. List the sentences in - B- that are like sentence (a).
2. What do we call types of words like: enormous, big?  
What do we call types of words like: old, new?  
What do we call types of words like: sailing, hunting?
3. Work out a rule for sentences that are like sentence (a) ,i.e., allow a specific word order
4. Correct the ungrammatical sentences

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**Appendix D5: GCR task 5 (Session 3)**

A- What is the difference between these sentences?

a- Your triangular yellow gold rings must have cost you a fortune (grammatical).

b- He slowly opened a plastic square black box (ungrammatical).

B- Indicate whether the following sentences are grammatical or ungrammatical:

1. I've just bought a purple glass rectangular bottle.
2. I prefer that oval grey silver plate.
3. The boy needs red round cotton balls for that activity.
4. This morning, I saw the brown rectangular wooden table.
5. She holds sugar in a round white metal bowl.
6. Her hair was tied back in a rectangular blue plastic bow.

C-

1. List the sentences in -B- that are like sentence (a).
2. What do we call types of words like: gold, cotton?  
What do we call types of words like: triangle, square?  
What do we call types of words like: purple, red?
3. Work out a rule for sentences that are like sentence (a), i.e., allow a specific word order

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**Appendix D6: GCR task 6 (Session 4)**

A- What is the difference between these sentences?

a- we put an attractive small round glass vase in the corner of their office (grammatical).

b- He bought a large square woollen wonderful rug (ungrammatical).

B- Indicate whether the following sentences are grammatical or ungrammatical:

1. The little nice plastic round flowers attracted many visitors in the museum.
2. The clown was wearing an unusual small round plastic hat.
3. I'll order a large chocolate rectangular delicious éclair.
4. The king sat on the comfortable large rectangular leather armchair.
5. He stared at the large flat beautiful stone walls in disbelief.
6. She made a beautiful big round clay pot.

C-

1. list the sentences in –b- that are like sentence (a).
2. What do we call types of words like: unusual, comfortable?  
What do we call types of words like: round, square?  
What do we call types of words like: small, large?  
What do we call types of words like: glass, stone?
3. Work out a rule for sentences that are like sentence (a), i.e., allow a specific word order.
4. correct the ungrammatical sentences

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**Appendix D7: GCR task 7 (Session 4)**

A- Compare the following sentences:

a- my mother prepared delicious hot food (grammatical).

b- She sells hot cheap cookies (ungrammatical).

B- Find out whether these sentences are grammatical or ungrammatical:

1. What a difficult frozen climate!

2. She bought warm expensive blankets.

3. It was a nice warm day.

4. He gave me clean cold water.

C-

1. List the sentences in (B) that are like sentence (a).

2. Name types of words like: delicious, cheap.

Name types of words like: hot, cold.

3. Try to give a rule for sentences that are like sentence (a).

4. Correct the ungrammatical sentences in (B).

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**Appendix D8: GCR task 8 (Session 5)**

A- What is the difference between these sentences?

a- I have a small black bag (grammatical).

b- Brian saw a white big bear (ungrammatical).

B- Indicate whether the following sentences are grammatical or ungrammatical:

1. Why can't you wear your large pink dress?

2. She cleaned her yellow small plate.

3. There was an enormous blue carpet on the floor.

4. I've booked that brown big table on the corner.

5. He broke the green large jug.

6. There are small red trousers in her closet.

C-

1. List the sentences in -B- that are like sentence (a).

2. What do we call types of words like: small, big?

What do we call types of words like: red, yellow?

3. Work out a rule for sentences that are like sentence (a), i.e., allow a specific word order.

4. Correct the ungrammatical sentences.

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## **Appendix E: An Example of the Implicit Instruction the Control Group**

### **Received**

Economics is the big social science which studies the production, distribution and consumption of goods and services. The term 'economics' comes from the old Greek word oikos (house) and nomos (custom or law). Hence, rules of the house. A definition that captures much of modern American economics is that of Lionel Robins (1932) as 'the science which studies human behaviour as a relationship between ends and scarce means which have alternative uses'. Scarcity means that available resources are insufficient to supply all wants and needs. Absent scarcity and alternative uses of available resources, there is no economic problem. The subject thus defined involves the study of choices as they are affected by incentives and resources.

Areas of economics may be classified into various ways, but an economy is usually analysed by use of microeconomics or macroeconomics.

Microeconomics examines the economic behaviour of agents (including individuals and firms) and their interactions through useful large business markets, given scarcity and government regulation. A given market might be for a product, say fresh corn, or the services of a factor of production, say bricklaying. This famous market theory considers aggregates of quantity demanded by buyers and quantity supplied by sellers at each possible price per unit. It weaves these together to describe how the market may reach equilibrium as to price and quantity or respond to market changes over time. This is broadly termed demand and supply analysis.

Macroeconomics examines the economy as a whole 'top down' to explain broad aggregates and their interactions. Such aggregates include national income and output, the unemployment rate, and price inflation and sub-aggregates like total consumption and investment spending and their components. It also studies

effects of monetary policy and fiscal policy. Since at least the 1960's, macroeconomics has been characterized by further integration as to micro-based modeling of sectors, including rationality of players, efficient use of market information, and imperfect competition. Analysis also considers factors affecting the long-term level and growth of national income within a country and across countries.

From <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economics>

### **Questions**

Read the text then answer the following questions:

I Give a title to the text.

II Choose the correct answer:

1-Economics is originally:

- a- a French word.
- b- a Greek word.
- c- an American word.

2-Economics is the study of:

- a- the production , distribution and consumption of goods and services.
- b- scarce means and alternative uses of available resources.

3-Areas of economics include:

- a- economic reasoning.
- b- mathematical economics.
- c- macroeconomics and microeconomics.

4-Microeconomics examines:

- a- economic behaviours of individuals and their relations through business markets.
- b- factors influencing the level and growth of incomes.
- c- the total consumption and investment.

5-Macroeconomics explains:

- a- broad aggregates and their interactions, and effects of monetary and fiscal policy.
- c- different aggregates across all markets.
- d- general equilibrium theory.

III Match the following terms with their definitions

a-Inflation	1-An organizing principle to explain prices and thereof in a market economy
b-Unemployment	2-Lack or insufficient supply of something
c-Medium of exchange	3-The relation between the amount produced (output) and one unit of the land, labour or capital used (input) to produce that output, the ratio of the quantity of output to the quantity of input.
d-Productivity	4-The situation of being jobless when willing and able to work.
e-Scarcity	5-An increase in the general price level of goods and services.
f-Demand and supply	6-It is used as an intermediary for trade, in order to avoid the inefficiencies of a barter system.

IV 1-Translate into Arabic:

Scarcity means that available resources are insufficient to satisfy all wants and needs.

2-Translate into French:

Areas of economics may be divided into various types including microeconomics and macroeconomics.

**Appendix F:** Post-test squared scores of both groups on the MCT

<b>Experimental Group</b>	<b>Squared scores</b>	<b>Control Group</b>	<b>Squared scores</b>
19	361	9	81
13	169	9	81
16	256	9	81
20	400	5	25
11	121	6	36
20	400	7	49
19	361	6	36
9	81	5	25
15	225	8	64
15	225	8	64
13	169	6	36
14	196	15	225
15	225	9	81
18	324	7	49
15	225	6	36
15	225	8	64
8	64	5	25
17	289	8	64
20	400	6	36
18	324	8	64
13	169	7	49
20	400	4	16
18	324	8	64
20	400		
$\sum x_1 = 381$	$\sum x_1^2 = 6333$	$\sum x_2 = 169$	$\sum x_2^2 = 1351$

**Appendix G:** Post-test squared scores of both groups on the GJT

<b>Experimental Group</b>	<b>Squared scores</b>	<b>Control Group</b>	<b>Squared scores</b>
16	256	7	49
6	36	4	16
20	400	6	36
18	324	5	25
6	36	6	36
19	361	8	64
19	361	4	16
7	49	8	64
15	225	5	25
9	81	9	81
8	64	9	81
11	121	11	121
10	100	5	25
18	324	7	49
14	196	5	25
11	121	5	25
8	64	8	64
12	144	10	100
20	400	5	25
16	256	8	64
7	49	5	25
20	400	5	25
15	225	6	36
13	169		
$\sum x_1 = 318$	$\sum x_1^2 = 4762$	$\sum x_2 = 151$	$\sum x_2^2 = 1077$

## Résumé

La recherche récente a exploré l'importance d'une attention explicite aux formes grammaticales dans l'acquisition de la grammaire. Un certain nombre d'études ont prouvé que la sensibilisation dans la grammaire contribue à l'acquisition de la connaissance grammaticale. Cette étude examine l'efficacité des tâches de sensibilisation de grammaire pour faciliter l'acquisition de la grammaire parmi les étudiants de première année des sciences économiques à l'université de Larbi Ben M'hidi d'Oum EL Bouaghi.

Cette étude quasi-expérimentale examine les effets de la présence ou de l'absence des tâches de sensibilisation de grammaire sur l'acquisition de l'ordre de diverses catégories des adjectifs attributifs dans la même phrase. La formation a eu lieu dans des conditions sans la présentation explicite des éléments de grammaire pour le groupe contrôle et avec un centre sur la forme pour le groupe expérimental. Les sujets dans le groupe contrôle ont été instruits dans la compréhension de textes dans l'économie tandis que les sujets dans le groupe expérimental effectuaient des tâches de sensibilisation de grammaire. La connaissance pré-d'instruction des sujets de l'utilisation de structure grammaticale visée a été mesurée avant la période du traitement d'instruction par un pré-test. Après l'instruction, un post-test a été administré. Le post-test était identique au pré-test. Un questionnaire a été administré en même temps.

Les résultats indiquent que les sujets du groupe expérimental ont réalisé des points plus hauts que ceux du groupe contrôle. Les résultats d'un t-test d'échantillons indépendants et d'un t-test d'échantillons appariés prouvent que le traitement de tâche de sensibilisation de grammaire est la variable causative pour l'exécution améliorée des étudiants sur la mesure de post-test. En outre, les résultats du questionnaire indiquent que les étudiants ont des attitudes positives envers les tâches de sensibilisation de grammaire. Ces résultats montrent qu'il existe un rôle pour ce type des tâches dans l'acquisition de la langue.

## المخلص

كشفت البحوث الأخيرة عن أهمية الاهتمام الواضح بالقواعد النحوية في دراسة قواعد اللغة، كما بينت العديد من الدراسات بأن زيادة الوعي بهذه القواعد يساهم في اكتساب المعرفة النحوية. هذه الدراسة تحقق في مدى فعالية التطبيقات التي تزيد من وعي قواعد النحو في تسهيل اكتساب هذه القواعد بين طلاب السنة الأولى في الاقتصاد بجامعة العربي بن مهيدي، أم البواقي.

تبحث هذه الدراسة شبه التجريبية في تأثير هذه التطبيقات في اكتساب القواعد الخاصة بترتيب مختلف أنواع الصفات في اللغة الانجليزية. تجري التدريبات في ظل عدم تقديم واضح لقواعد النحو بالنسبة للفوج الحكم وبالتركيز حول هذه القواعد بالنسبة للفوج التجريبي، و قد تمحور تدريس طلبة الفوج الحكم حول فهم نصوص في مواضيع الاقتصاد، بينما دُرّس طلبة الفوج التجريبي باستخدام التطبيقات الخاصة بزيادة وعي القواعد النحوية. قيست معرفة الطلبة قبل التدريس باستعمال امتحان أول، بعد التدريس وُزّع امتحان ثاني كان مماثلاً للامتحان السابق، كما تم توزيع استجابات على الطلبة في الوقت ذاته.

تبين النتائج أن طلاب المجموعة التجريبية حققوا نتائج أعلى بكثير من تلك التي حققها طلاب المجموعة المراقبة، إضافة إلى ذلك أثبتت نتائج اختبارات العينة و العينة الحرة أن هذه التطبيقات هي العامل المسبب لتحسين أداء الطلبة في مرحلة ما بعد الاختبار. علاوة على ذلك، فإن نتائج الاستجابات تشير أن للطلبة مواقف إيجابية تجاه هذا النوع من التطبيقات. تبين هذه النتائج أن هذه التطبيقات لها دور في تسهيل اكتساب اللغة.