

MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

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The Effects of Explicit vs Implicit Grammar Instruction on Grammar Learning and Grammar Accuracy in Writing with a Focus on Verb Form: A Case Study of 1st Year Students and Teachers at the Department of English, Algiers 2 University

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DEDICATION

This is in memory of my father-in-law and uncle, Silhadi Mohamed Ezzine, who would have liked to see this dream come true.

This is also to my aunt Silhadi Zina, who in spite of her handicap raised me up and helped me to follow up my studies since school age until graduation.

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ABSTRACT

In the recent decades, the role of grammar has been revisited and the debate on grammar has shifted from the choice between implicit or explicit instruction to the degree of explicitness or implicitness it should be included in grammar instruction. As a result of such a debate the focus-on-form approach to teaching grammar emerged. This new approach maintains that grammar should be focused on but within communication. Within this new trend of grammar pedagogy, the explicit teaching (metalinguistic explanation) of isolated grammatical forms is referred to as the explicit focus-on-forms instruction (FonFs) and the implicit teaching of forms is referred to as the focus-on-form (FonF) instruction which targets grammatical features (implicitly or explicitly) while the overall emphasis is on meaning. Thus, in our study we use the terms explicit and implicit instructions to refer respectively to focus-on-forms and focus-on-form modes of teaching.

In the context of the Algerian university, the recent curricula of the LMD system mark also a shift towards a focus-on-form (more implicitly-oriented) teaching of grammar. The new approach for grammar teaching (i.e, FonF) with its multi options ranging from more implicit to more or less explicit options motivated us to undertake this study mainly that the new official LMD grammar syllabus requires the use of a communicative-based grammar instruction. Particularly, this study investigates whether this new communicative grammar teaching is implemented in class, if teaching grammar (whether implicitly or explicitly) translates into learning, if what is learned transfers to communicative tasks (especially writing), and if one method or another is more efficient than the other for learning specific grammatical structures.

To do so, this study investigates the EFL grammar teaching practices at the Department of English, University of Algiers 2 to find out whether grammar is taught through a focus-on-forms or focus-on-form instruction. The study also compares the effectiveness of two grammar teaching methods (one is based on the focus-on-forms and the other on the focus-on-form model) on grammar learning and correct use of grammar in writing. For data collection, the study used classroom observation, interviews, questionnaires, pre- and post-treatment tests, and analysis of errors. The study was carried out in the Department of English, Algiers 2 with the participation of 7 teachers of grammar and 400 first year students.

Our findings show that most teachers use the explicit focus-on-forms instruction but incorporate sporadically some features of the focus-on-form teaching. In addition, the group which followed the focus-on-form treatment outperformed the group which received the focus-on-forms instruction in the ability to use appropriately and more accurately the verb forms in writing, but both groups improved equally in learning the grammatical knowledge imparted. Finally, most verb forms were better learned under the implicit focus-on-form condition both as knowledge and application of such knowledge in writing tasks.

Key words: Explicit instruction, implicit instruction, form-focused instruction (FFI), focus-on-form (FonF), focus-on-forms (FonFs), input enhancement, output enhancement and recast.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- CF:** corrective feedback
- CFI:** communication-focused instruction
- CLT:** communicative language teaching
- C-R:** consciousness-raising
- EEE:** explore, explain, express
- EFL:** English as a foreign language
- ESL:** English as a second language
- FFI:** form-focused instruction
- FL:** foreign language
- FonF:** focus on form
- FonFs:** focus on forms
- GT:** grammar translation
- IP:** input processing
- L1:** mother tongue
- L2:** second or foreign language
- LMD:** licence master doctorate
- MFI:** meaning-focused instruction
- N:** number
- PPP:** presentation, practice, production
- RQ:** research question
- S:** student
- SLA:** second language acquisition
- T:** teacher
- TG:** traditional grammar
- TL:** target language
- UA2:** University of Algiers 2

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General Introduction

General Introduction

This study aims at identifying the teaching practices used by the teachers of grammar in the Department of English, University of Algiers 2 (UA2), with the objective of finding out the extent to which the communicative focus-on-form instruction (required by the new grammar syllabus established in 2014) is truly implemented in class. In addition, knowing that the traditional approach to teaching grammar has always prevailed in the EFL settings in spite of calls to replace it by a more communicative one, this study is set then to compare between outcomes of the focus-on-forms instruction (based on a more explicit-oriented approach) and the focus-on-form (based on a more implicit-oriented approach) in terms of grammatical knowledge and use of such knowledge in writing to see which approach is more beneficial for learning. The outcomes of this study can be important because we could clearly show whether the traditional approach has its place in teaching grammar or whether it should really be replaced by other approaches which are more in vogue such as the options of the new focus-on-form instruction. In what follows, we present the background to our study, the research problem, the research questions, the significance of the study, the methodology followed to investigate the problem, the limitations of the research and finally we present the general structure of the dissertation.

1. Background to the Study

In 2004, a new reform was adopted in the Algerian higher education system, namely, the LMD (License, Master and Doctorate). This is a European system which is based on globalization of education and bridging the education with the world market. In the new era of globalization, the English language is considered as the most important language for increasing students' chances in accessing different fields. Nowadays, Algerian policy makers require the teaching of English at all levels and in all disciplines to promote the acquisition of this language. Sarnou, Koçet Bouhadiba (2012, p. 182) maintained that at the university level, the LMD is based on:

A Communicative Approach that has been implemented ...almost in all subjects and specialties'. The new recent pedagogical procedures ...tend to transform the student, the docile object, and the passive agent into a principal active agent as the learner in the learning process.

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In this sense, the teachers are called to play the role of mediators and not as knowledge distributors. For grammar teaching, this implies that teachers should reduce their talk about metalanguage and guide the students through engaging them in exploratory tasks to get meaningful practice and construct their own grammar from their experience with the language.

Concerning the teaching of grammar as a subject in the English Language Degree course at the Department of English, UA2, it has known innovation mainly in terms of the teaching approach. According to the official curriculum established in 2014, teachers are expected to follow the principles of the new system, LMD. The new requirements of this curriculum consist mainly in the integrative teaching of grammar within writing and reading through making students read texts containing the targeted forms, answer comprehension questions on the texts and write paragraphs on which they receive feedback (See appendix 11)

Thus, syllabus designers try to make into practice the new policy of the LMD to cope with the new global requirements. In fact, this approach is in accordance with the new views of grammar teaching and which call for revising the traditional teaching of grammar so as to integrate it within a more communicative teaching. In the light of the new approach required to be followed, we investigate the teachers' real practices in class to see if really a 'divorce' with the traditional teaching in the grammar course occurred or not and to evaluate the effects of different approaches on grammar acquisition and its accurate implementation in writing.

2. Statement of the Research Problem

According to the official curriculum, a new methodology is required to be implemented in teaching grammar at university level so as to shift the view of grammar from an isolated skill to a tool for communication. Unfortunately, as teachers of grammar we have no evidence that the new required methodology is more effective than the old grammar teaching practices. Moreover, there is no evidence that the new principles of the LMD in general and of grammar teaching in particular are followed by the teachers of grammar in the Department of English, UA2. In addition,

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as teachers we are just given guidelines of an approach but without a clear methodology in terms of materials, interaction patterns, types of tasks and feedback to use in class. To have insights about grammar teaching practices in class, this study attempts to find out whether the new recommended focus-on-form instruction is used in class and whether the outcomes of this new approach might differ from any other approach (es) that is/are used by teachers in relation with grammar knowledge and its implementation in writing.

3. Research Questions

Borg (1999) claims that describing teachers' practices during formal instruction in the classroom is very important because describing classroom practices informs researchers about what works best for learning. Regarding grammar instruction approaches and all the available option present in the literature we are wondering about whether the teaching options used by the teachers of grammar in the Department of English are based on focus-on-forms (FonFs) or on focus-on-form (FonF). This leads us to address the first research question:

1. Do the teachers of grammar in the department of English use a focus-on-forms or a focus-on-form approach?

Having identified the teaching approach(es), we then address the second research question which attempts to seek the effect of the explicit focus-on-forms and implicit focus-on-form instructions on learning grammar. This leads us to address the following research question:

2. Do focus-on-forms and focus-on-form approaches have different learning outcomes in terms of grammatical competence?

Having identified the effects of the different teaching approaches on the acquisition of knowledge of rules, we then address the third research question which seeks to find out about the effectiveness of the two teaching approaches in using grammar correctly in writing. Thus, we would like to know which method of grammar

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instruction (FonF or FonFs) leads to the use of the learned structures in writing. Thus, the third research question is:

3. What effects do the focus-on-forms and focus-on-form approaches have on grammatical accuracy in writing?

After we find out about the effects of the teaching approaches on implementing grammar in writing, we address our fourth and last inquiry which attempts to find out about the effects of the different teaching approaches on learning particular grammatical forms (verb forms) and using them correctly in writing. Thus, our aim is to find out whether different grammatical forms (verb forms) can be learned under different conditions (FonF or FonFs instructions). More particularly, we look at the relationship between rule simplicity/complexity and the effectiveness of the teaching mode (FonF and FonFs). The fourth research question is:

4. What effects do the focus-on-forms and the focus-on-form approaches have on learning specific verb forms in terms of grammatical competence and accurate use in writing?

4. Significance of the Research

The significance of this study lies in the fact that it hopes to inform practitioners about the efficacy or non-efficacy of the communicative teaching of grammar and gives evidence or counter evidence to the limits of the teaching model called Present-Practice-Produce (PPP). The study is also significant in that it is expected to inform practitioners about the extent to which the communicative approach is applied in classroom as far as grammar teaching is concerned. The significance of the study lies also in the proposals made in terms of a model of teaching that we developed with relation to the new requirements of the official curriculum established in 2014. This model is called EEEE (explore, express, evaluate and explain); in fact, it is adapted from and expanded on a more implicit focus-on-form model, namely, Sysoyev's (1999) s EEE model (or Explore Explain Express). This latter aims at making students notice the forms in texts, infer the rules and then use them in communicative activities. But in our model we hold two more objectives. First, writing is at the heart of the Express

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part (or practice) and used as a means to push output on which feedback is received. Second, the Explain part is postponed until the end of the lesson so as to give more time to students to notice the forms via reading texts and practising through collaborative writing. In general, the role of the teacher in this model consists only in giving implicit feedback which might help students in correcting wrong hypotheses, if ever made, about what they notice in the enhanced input and pushed output to give them chance to infer the rules by themselves.

Moreover, the proposed model may constitute a link between grammar and writing courses and may be adopted to teach grammar in the two different courses because one common ultimate objective in both courses (grammar & writing) is producing accurate writing. Our study is also meaningful because it may enrich the literature with its important findings mainly in the area of the new form-focused instruction. It might provide a founded justification for the use of a more implicit focus-on-form approach as effectively as possible when teaching EFL grammar. It also might bring more specific information about which forms could be better learned under the implicit or explicit condition. Finally, this study might assist EFL teachers in their teaching practice with helpful insights about the possibility to implement a grammar teaching approach that is more communicative, learner-centered and which encourages collaborative writing in class and might provide them with different FonF options that can be used to make their teaching more communicative in the new sense of the term. Generally, the communicative approach is thought of as unfit for EFL contexts and large classes; so our study could show if implementing a communicative approach in large classes is practical or not and whether it can be beneficial mainly for transferring learned knowledge to communicative contexts such as writing.

5. Research Methodology

To answer our research questions, we designed various instruments of qualitative nature: (1) classroom observation for the investigation of the grammar teachers' teaching practices, (2) Teachers' and Students' questionnaires to crosscheck the results obtained from classroom observation, (3) follow-up interviews to gather more qualitative data as regards grammar teachers' practices and (4) we designed a series of

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lessons based on an implicit, communicative focus-on-form approach with the aim to carry out a treatment and measure its outcomes. To measure outcomes of the experimental treatment, we employed (5) pre-and post-tests and (6) analyzed errors.

We carried out our observation in four classes of grammar course and handed out questionnaires to all grammar teachers in first year (7 teachers) and to students in the classes we observed (200 students). We also interviewed all first year grammar teachers. In our treatment we taught forty structures which subdivide into three different areas of verb forms, namely: present/past tense, future and modals. We taught these structures to our experimental group (including 2 classes) following an implicit focus-on-form (a new FFI option) strategy and taught the same structures to a control group (including 2 classes) following a traditional explicit focus-on-forms instruction. Prior to and following each treatment/instruction in a given area of verb forms, pre-and post-treatment tests were used. We also error analyzed the grammar-focused tasks and the writing-focused tasks to find out about the most frequent errors in the light of the two different teaching options and to get insights about whether one teaching option is more effective than the other in teaching some particular structures.

Results from the instruments we used were analyzed qualitatively. For the results we obtained from the pre- and post-treatment tests, the SPSS software was used for analysis. We provide a summary after each set of data obtained on one instrument to facilitate their discussion.

6. Limitations of the Study

The study could be carried out in more optimal conditions without the following limitations:

1. The first limitation to our research was the length of the study. The fieldwork of the study lasted one semester, and our post-tests measured the immediate effects of instruction on learning. Maybe a study which is more extensive could be more conclusive. A delayed post-test could measure the durability of the gained knowledge. In fact, most studies reported in literature do not exceed a six-month duration. This may explain the inconsistent results of the

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comparative studies about the explicit and implicit approaches in terms of their effects on learning.

2. Another factor which was a real hindrance for our study was the lack of freedom in selecting the items to be taught. Since, as a teacher, we had to stand by the official program, so we had little freedom to add items to or omit items from the grammar syllabus. Nevertheless, we enjoy some flexibility in the way we teach the syllabus. For this reason, we opted for an interventionist study.
3. Another limitation to our study was the fact that we could not administer the tests to the students of the classes we observed. Actually, we used very long and time consuming pre- and post-tests and on three occasions. So we feared the non-collaboration of the teachers as these tests would have been a disturbance for them. In addition, if we had decided to use tests in these classes, we would have certainly needed to impose on them to teach the same grammatical points we covered during our treatment, so it would have been too demanding for them.
4. Finally, we had difficulty to deal with writing competence. We limited our study to measure improvement in grammar accuracy in writing and not on writing as a skill because this is beyond our study's scope and capacity. Nevertheless, we considered well-formed sentences and answering to the requirements as two important criteria in addition to accurate and appropriate use of the forms in evaluating students' writing.

7. Structure of the Study

The study is divided into five chapters. The first chapter encompasses the main focus-on-form instructional options and the research which relates grammar to writing. It subdivides into two parts: part one deals with the new options of grammar teaching in the light of grammar rediscovery era and the research about the effectiveness of the new FFI options on learning. Part two is concerned with the different approaches regarding the effects of grammar teaching on writing improvement. In the second chapter about research methodology, we present the participants, the setting, data collection tools, the data collection procedure, data analysis procedures and the pilot

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study. In the third chapter, we present the results obtained from classroom observation, questionnaires and interviews. In the fourth chapter, we present the results generated from tests and analysis of errors. In the fifth chapter, we discuss our results in the light of theories and findings discussed in chapter one with the aim to answer our research questions. We end up this chapter with recommendations, and suggestions for further research.

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Part One

Introduction

This chapter consists of two parts: Part one deals with the new approach of grammar teaching, namely form-focused instruction (FFI). It covers the different teaching options of FFI and the studies which have been carried out to investigate the effectiveness of these teaching options. Part two deals with the research which relates grammar instruction and feedback to writing accuracy improvement. It presents different views concerning the efficacy and non-efficacy of grammar teaching in enhancing students' writing and also tackles the new alternatives for teaching grammar as an aid to improve writing mainly in the light of the new FFI approach.

1.1 Historical Background of Grammar Pedagogy

The question of whether grammar instruction helps learners gain proficiency in a second language has been answered in many ways which could be placed along a continuum with extremes at either end (Rodriguez, 2009). At one end are extremely explicit approaches to grammar teaching, and at the other end lie implicit ones. Rodriguez (ibid) well summarized the history of grammar instruction in terms of these approaches.

The earliest approach, known as an explicit approach, is the grammar translation approach (GT) which is based on rote memorization and absence of communicative activities. Around the turn of the 20th century, linguists' structural description of world languages, combined with behaviourist psychology, gave rise to the direct method which assumes that L2 should be learnt in the same way as L1 that is through oral practice, drills and repetition. However, this approach was still structural in nature. Audiolingualism was another structural approach that shared this implicit orientation toward grammar. By the end of the 1960's, cognitive approaches, which

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were inspired by Chomsky's Universal Grammar, marked a shift back towards more explicit grammar instruction. However, in the 1970's the pendulum swung back again to implicit approaches with the advent of humanistic approaches, especially the communicative language teaching. These approaches emphasized meaningful interaction, and authenticity. The merits of both implicit and explicit approaches led contemporary researchers to agree that exclusive emphasis on either extreme impedes adult acquisition. This consensus set the stage to the appearance of a form-focused approach which induces learners to pay attention to form within communicative activities.

From this account, we can see that the different methodological swings happened in relation with the implicit/explicit teaching of grammar. In fact, what we can see from the above account and read in the literature in general is that there are three main divisions about the great methodological shifts in grammar theory and practice ranging from the period when grammar was supreme, then when it declined and finally when it came back. The traditional methods marked the supremacy of grammar, the advent of communicative approaches caused its decline and with the new focus-on-form instructional options, grammar has regained its place both in theory and practice.

1.2 Form-focused Instructional Approach (FFI) and the Rediscovery of Grammar

The focus-on-form approach emerged as a reaction against the purely communicative teaching which has shown its limits. Findings from immersion and naturalistic studies have revealed that when instruction is purely meaning-based, certain linguistic aspects remain flawed (Doughty et al, 1998 in Gascoigne (2001)). This led scholars and practitioners to reconsider the place of grammar in curriculums with the view to improve language mastery. This is justified by Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith (1985, in Gascoigne (2001,p.70)) as follows:

Instructional strategies which draw the attention of the learner to specifically structured regularities of the language, as distinct from the

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message content, will under certain specified conditions significantly increase the rate of acquisition over and above the rate expected from learners acquiring that language under natural circumstances where attention to form may be minimal and sporadic.

However, as Heilenman (1995, in Gascoigne (2001)) suggested focus on form is not a return to exclusive explicit grammar but rather a middle ground between the two extremes (explicit and implicit positions of language teaching). Heilenman (1995, in Gascoigne (2001,p.72)) maintains that:

Emphasis should be placed on helping students notice language forms that might not be in focus within a meaning-based curriculum. This differs radically from the more traditional present-practice-more practice form-focused communicative activities where learners' attention is focused on language for a preparation for a later, more communicative-phase

For Long (1991), FonF instruction is different from modes of instruction that aim at teaching specific L2 grammatical forms rather than presenting language as a mechanism for communication and modes that are purely communicative which prohibits direct grammar teaching. In contrast, Long (ibid) has asserted that FonF maintains a balance between the two modes by calling on teachers and learners to attend to form when necessary, yet within a communicative classroom environment. White et al (1991, in Wright (1999)) also maintain that the best formula for language development may well be a mixture of opportunities both for acquisition through communicative interaction and for form-focused instruction.

Similarly, Celce-Murcia (1985,p.297) adds that there is no single right or wrong position to take, but that:

There is a continuum along which grammar becomes increasingly more important or less important depending upon a number of learner s variables and instructional variables that each ESL teacher must carefully consider. It is perhaps somewhat misleading to state the issue as one of deciding whether or not to teach grammar. The issue is whether accuracy of form is more important or less important for the learner. In those cases where accuracy of form is required, it is important for the ESL teacher to know how to focus on form and to know how to correct errors.

Focus-on-form approach is, actually, based on the theory of noticing (Schmidt, 1990).Schmidt (ibid) argues that noticing is a necessary and sufficient condition for

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the conversion of input into intake in SLA. Noticing means paying attention to specific linguistic features of the input or/and paying attention to the gap between input and one's interlanguage. The role of explicit knowledge is that it facilitates such noticing. According to Ellis, N. (2008) noticing is the interface or the explicit process which facilitates acquisition. The noticing hypothesis was mainly motivated by research into effectiveness of the explicit and implicit L2 instruction. The most important one was the meta-analysis study of Norris and Ortega (2000) which demonstrated that focused L2 instruction resulted in substantial gains of the focused forms than the implicit instruction. Ellis, R. (2005) argues that L2 learners encounter novelty wherein a more conscious involvement is needed for successful learning and problem-solving, yet they do not realize it because these aspects of language are not salient. Low salience of L2 forms results in fossilization. The remedy as Ellis, R. (2005) suggested is in bringing the issue into the light of consciousness by using some strategies of form-focus (Sharwood-Smith, 1980) to help learners notice the cue in the first place and providing meaningful input that contains many instances of the same grammatical meaning-form relationship. In what follows, we present the different ways the new focus-on-form approach is conceptualized in the literature.

1.3 FFI Taxonomies

The form-focused approach is conceptualized in different ways by different researchers. Generally it is distinguished in terms of dichotomies such as 'focus on form' Vs 'focus on forms' (Long, 1991), or 'planned' Vs 'incidental FonF' (Ellis, R. 2002), or 'explicit' and 'implicit' FFI (Ellis, R. 2012), or even 'isolated' or 'integrated' FFI (Spada et Lightbown, 2008).

1.3.1 'Focus on Form' and 'Focus on Forms'

Long (1991) has brought a change to his interactional theory which initially promoted the aspect of negotiation of meaning as supportive of acquisition by adding a new aspect, namely '**focus-on-form**'. 'Focus' on form' has been proposed as a way to

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provide for ‘noticing’ of grammatical features during a communicative task. Since the appearance of the notion ‘focus on form’, there has been some confusion about the sense given to this notion in the literature (Doughty et al, 1998). In fact, in reviewing the relevant research on FFI instruction in SLA, one is immediately faced with the problem of defining it. The confusion comes from the use of ‘form-focused instruction’ (FFI) which is sometimes used to mean explicit focus on the formal properties of language and sometimes used to mean focus on meaning.

In order not to confuse between focus-on-form and the extreme explicit instruction, Long (ibid) distinguishes between “**focus-on-form**” and “**focus-on-formS**”. Focus on forms refers to the traditional explicit and decontextualised teaching of isolated grammatical points. During focus-on-formS activities, meaning is not stressed or may not even exist. A good example of a focus on forms lesson is one conducted by means of ‘PPP’ (Ellis, R. 2002). Focus on form, on the other hand, fuses explicit aspects into meaningful activities (Long, 1991). In practice, focus on form may involve “time out” to talk about a particular grammatical form within a communicative procedure, or involve paying attention to some features of grammar while focus is on meaning (Long, 1991).

Unfortunately, however, even the two terms (FonF and FonFs) are confusingly used in literature (Sheen, 2002). Sheen, for example, mentions that some authors (Dekeyser, 1998; Lightbown, 1998) use ‘FonF’ to refer to any approach which includes grammar instruction, thus including both ‘FonF’ and ‘FonFs’. In addition to this terminological confusion, many other taxonomies of FFI appeared.

1.3.2 ‘Planned’ and ‘incidental’ focus on form

Initially, focus on grammatical features within a communicative procedure was interpreted as being spontaneous reactions to perceived problems of form. Later, the interpretation to this new concept has become more flexible. For example Ellis, R. (2002) distinguishes between **planned** and **incidental** focus on form. Planned focus on form means that the features to attend to are pre-determined usually through text or task design: thus a text may contain a large number of exemplars of past progressive

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forms, or a task may be designed to be based on interrogatives. This type of focus on form is similar to focus on forms instruction in that forms are pre-selected for treatment, but it differs from it in the fact that during a focus on form treatment attention to forms occurs during a communicative activity and learners are not made aware that these forms are targeted (Ellis, R. 2002). Incidental focus on form, in contrast, is unplanned, and takes place mainly during oral interaction: spontaneous error correction, for example (Ur, 2002). In this type of focus on form many forms may be targeted in a lesson.

To better understand FFI instruction, Loewen (2002) assumes that it is important to look at it in the general context of instructed SLA as it is shown in the following graphic representation of the different trends of FFI instruction within instructed SLA.

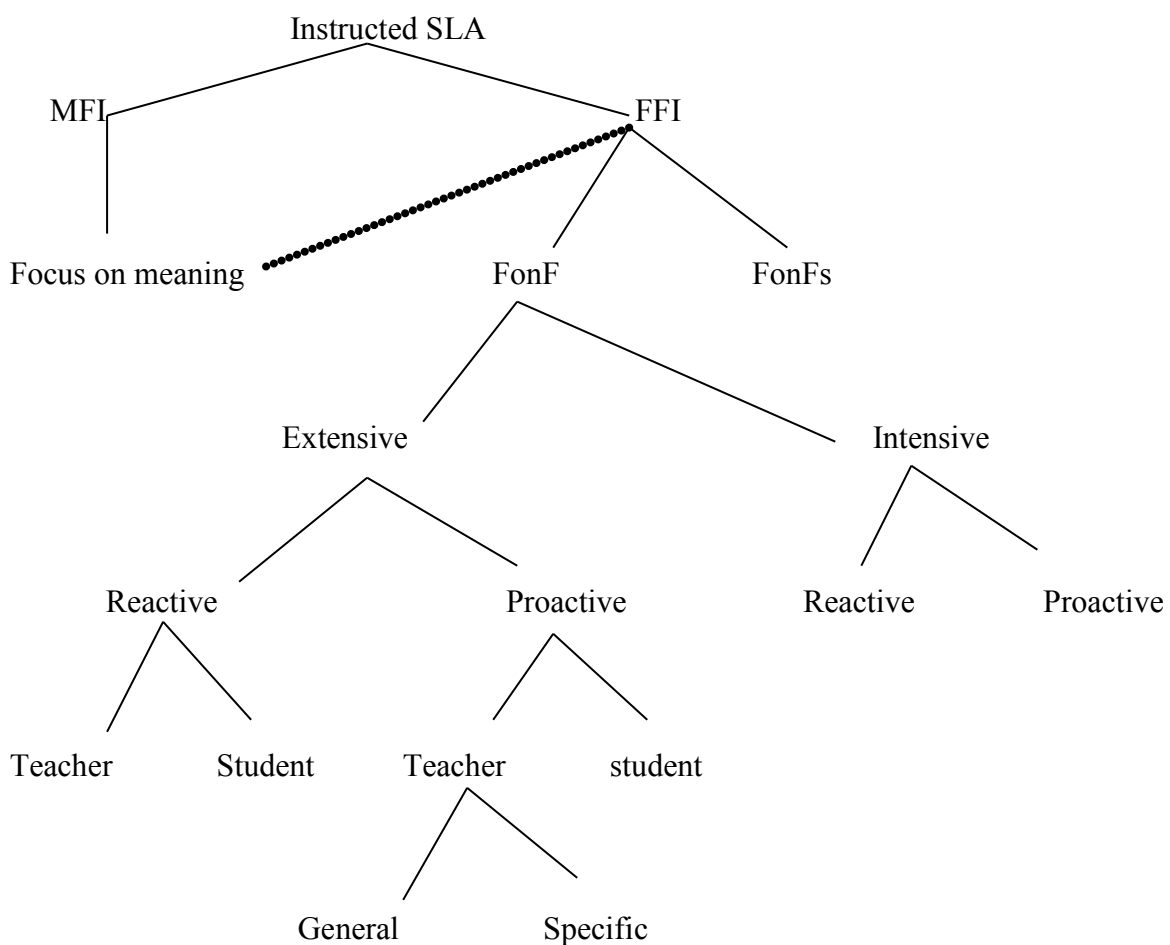


Figure 1.1: A taxonomy of Instructed SLA (Loewen, 2002)

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In what follows, we look more closely at the taxonomic categories of FFI relying more on Loewen's (2002) account of them:

- **MFI:** Meaning-focused instruction refers to providing learners with meaningful communication activities. Focus is purely on meaning, though some incidental FonF may occur but without interrupting the flow of communication as shown with a dash line.
- **FFI:** Form-focused instruction refers to instruction wherein focus is on the form. Such a focus can be in the form of explicit teaching of the form of a lesson (FonFs) or implicit teaching within meaningful communicative activities (FonF).
- **FonF:** refers to brief attention to problematic language during communicative activities. It subdivides into extensive and intensive FonF.
- **Extensive FonF:** refers to attention to a variety of structures; thus attention is not limited to a single linguistic item. When attention to form occurs sporadically or when it is unplanned, the FonF is said to be **reactive** or **incidental** (Ellis, R. 2002). But if attention is given to linguistic items identified beforehand as problematic then the FonF is called **proactive** or **planned**. Both reactive and proactive FonF can be either teacher-initiated or student-initiated. It is **teacher-initiated** when the teacher corrects errors, and **student-initiated** when correction is done by other students. Teacher-initiated FonF can emphasize **general** accuracy or **specific** linguistic elements identified as problematic.
- **Intensive FonF:** refers to continuous attention to one or two linguistic items during an activity. It can be **reactive** when attention to a specific form is spontaneous or **proactive** when a specific form is already embedded in the input.
- **FonFs:** Refers to the traditional explicit teaching of language.

These are the principal forms of instructed SLA with a more detailed **FonF** instruction categories (of Ellis, R. 2005) represented in the diagram. We notice that **FonF** can also be part of any **MFI** approach but not necessarily (as shown with the dash line), and that **FonF** is part of **FFI** and not its equivalent. In fact, Doughty &

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al(1998) have drawn our attention to the terminological confusion created by FFI and advised authors not to substitute it to FonF.

From this taxonomy, we clearly notice that the most important instructional option in FonF is the corrective feedback. It is also the most discussed option in the literature insomuch as sometimes ‘corrective feedback’ is treated as a synonym to FonF. However, other options and terms appeared in association with the FonF in particular and FFI in general. We look more closely at the FFI options in the following sections.

1.3.3 ‘Communicative-Focused Instruction’, ‘Explicit FFI’ and ‘Implicit FFI’

Ellis, R. (2012) distinguishes two broad kinds of focus on form: **communication-Focused Instruction (CFI)** and **Form-Focused Instruction (FFI)** which subdivides into **explicit FFI** and **implicit FFI**. **CFI** involves the use of tasks that focus learner’s attention on meaning. Spada (1997) defines FFI as any pedagogical effort used to draw the learners’ attention to form. According to Housen et Pierrard (2006), the theoretical underpinnings of CFI derive from the Comprehensible Input Hypothesis (Krashen1982) and the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis (Swain 1985). CFI assumes that language is best learned through the comprehension of input and through the noticing of form-function mappings which results from the learner’s own attempts to actively negotiate meaning in interaction (Ellis, R. 1999). FFI is based on the assumption that certain linguistic features can go unnoticed in the input unless the learner’s attention is somehow drawn to them so that s/he reaches the critical level of awareness (noticing) for the features to be internalized (Housen et al, 2006).

Ellis, R. (1999) distinguishes between **explicit FFI** and **implicit FFI**. He explains that explicit FFI involves some sort of rule being thought about during the learning process. In other words, learners are encouraged to develop metalinguistic awareness of the rule. This can be achieved deductively, as when a rule is given to the learners, or inductively, as when the learners are asked to work out a rule for

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themselves from an array of data illustrating the rule. Implicit FFI is directed at enabling learners to infer rules without awareness. Thus it contrasts with explicit instruction in that there is an absence of awareness of what is being learned. Ellis, R (ibid) makes an analogy between the implicit/explicit FFI and Long's (1991) FonF/FonFs. He explains that focus-on-forms is evident in the traditional approach to grammar teaching based on a synthetic syllabus. The underlying assumption is that language learning is a process of accumulating distinct entities. In such an approach, learners are required to treat language primarily as an object to be studied and practised bit by bit and to function as students rather than as users of the language. In contrast, focus-on-form draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication.

However, Ellis, R. (ibid) asks a very pertinent question which any one reading about FFI can ask, as it is our case when trying to pin down the scope of FFI, and the question is 'Does focus-on-form instruction correspond to implicit instruction? Ellis, R. (1999, p.439) argues that:

The answer would seem to lie in how learners' attention to linguistic elements takes place. If the means used are implicit types of corrective feedback (such as unobtrusive reformulations of learners' erroneous utterances), then the instruction can be considered implicit in terms of the definition given above. On the other hand, if the means involve the provision of more explicit types of corrective feedback (for example, overt correction or metalinguistic explanation) then focus-on-form can be considered explicit. Thus, whereas focus-on-forms involves explicit instruction, focus-on-form can involve both implicit and explicit instruction.

Housen et al (2006) argue that according to the degree of explicitness FFI can take many forms: implicit instructional techniques such as input flooding, input enhancement techniques and recasts to increasingly more explicit techniques like controlled focused exercises, overt error correction and the presentation and discussion of metalinguistic rules. Here it becomes clear for us that the term FFI is not exclusively explicit or traditional. Traditional grammar (TG) may be part of it. The distinctive features of the implicit and explicit FFI are shown in the following table:

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Implicit FFI	Explicit FFI
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • attracts attention to the target form • is delivered spontaneously (e.g., in an otherwise communication-oriented activity) • is unobtrusive (minimal interruption of communication of meaning) • presents target forms in context • makes no use of metalanguage • encourages free use of the target form 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • directs attention to the target form • is predetermined and planned (e.g., as the main focus and goal of a teaching activity) • is obtrusive (interruption of communicative meaning) • presents target forms in isolation • uses metalinguistic terminology (e.g., rule explanation) • involves controlled practice

Table 1.1: Implicit and Explicit Forms of Form-Focused Instruction (Housen et al, 2006)

1.3.4 'Integrated' or 'Isolated' FFI

Spada et al (2008) have used the terms '**isolated**' and '**integrated**' FFI to describe two approaches to FFI. **Isolated FFI** is provided in activities that are separate from the communicative use of language, but it occurs as part of a communicative or content-based courses. Isolated FFI may be taught in advance or after a communicative activity in which students have experienced difficulty with a particular language feature. Thus, in isolated FFI, the focus on language form is separated from the communicative or content-based activity. But this approach differs from Long's focus on forms, which refers to language instruction and practice organized around predetermined points of grammar in a structural syllabus, that is, form-based instruction that is not directly tied to genuinely communicative practice. In **integrated FFI**, focus on form occurs during communicative or content-based instruction. This definition corresponds to focus on form (both planned and incidental) as defined by Ellis, R. (2002) and by Doughty et al (1998). That is, although the form

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focus occurs within a communicative activity, the language features in focus may have been anticipated and planned for by the teacher or they may occur incidentally in the course of ongoing interaction. Thus the new component in Spada et al' s taxonomy is that the explicit FFI is used to support a communicative activity and that the term 'isolated' in this taxonomy does not refer to teaching items in a structural syllabus.

In this study we use FFI to mean any attempt to draw learners' attention to form. But we specify the term into explicit FFI and implicit FFI when we focus on the context in which it is given (within communication or in isolation). We also distinguish between explicit and implicit FonF (Ellis, R. 1999) which respectively refer to the use of explicit strategies or implicit strategies to focus on form.

Actually, the dichotomization of FFI into explicit and implicit instructions means that the new approach, namely focus on form gives the teacher the choice to decide how explicit should be his/her instruction so that learners notice the form. In additions, though Focus on form is a new concept, nevertheless it encapsulates a range of strategies which reflect the traditional teaching approaches going from the grammar translation to the purely communicative approaches. In the following sections, we present approaches which are based on FFI according to whether they are more explicit FFI or more implicit FFI.

1.4 Approaches Based on FFI

The focus-on-form approach is in fact a revival of some traditional approaches but with new visions such as using a plethora of the existing teaching options to fit the teaching of particular grammatical forms. Dornyei (2009) suggests that both explicit and implicit-based approaches should be integrated..

We can place all the well-known teaching approaches that exist in grammar pedagogy along the explicit and implicit FFI continuum where explicit FFI covers any approach that focuses more on form, accuracy and rule explanation and implicit FFI which deemphasizes explanation of rules and focus more on meaning and students'

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involvement in learning. Thus, since focus-on-form does not discredit any previous approach (traditional or communicative), we will refer to them in what follows but under two broad categories which are explicit FFI and implicit FFI.

1.4.1 Approaches Based on Explicit FFI:

The most explicit approach is the grammar-translation method which is deductive: starting from presentation and explanation of rules with examples then moving to practice. Actually, there are many criticisms to this approach which are mainly made by Larsen-Freeman (2000) and Richards et al (2001). First, communication is not a goal and oral skills are not developed. Second, the grammar-translation approach is criticized because it is laborious and monotonous. However, as Jin et al (2002) note criticism changes over time. Cook (in Jin et al, 2002) for example maintains that this approach of language teaching may suit academically gifted students mainly if language use is not a primary goal. He goes further maintaining that this academic style matches in a way with current ideas about the focus on form. Additionally, it may be useful with large classes, and that many people learned languages successfully with this teaching approach (Cook in Jin et al, *ibid*). Wang (2010) observes that GT is still widely used over the world. Another version of the GT is the direct approach which is actually an improvement of the grammar-translation. It is based on an inductive teaching where learners meet examples in meaningful contexts and grammar rules are taught after they have been practised.

A second approach which is based on explicit FFI (though less explicit than the former) is the oral-situational approach. Actually, this approach has different versions. Some versions are more implicit and others more explicit. More implicit versions of the oral-situational approach are based on inducing the meaning of a form through its use in the situation. Thus, the meaning of the structure is not given through explanation (Wang, *ibid*). The main characteristic of this approach is that items of grammar are graded following the principle that the simple forms should be taught before complex ones. Its theoretical principle is that grammar is learned inductively without explicit explanation of grammatical rules. However, later versions of the oral-

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situational approach incorporate explicit explanations with the emergence of the PPP (present-practice-produce) model. ‘Present’ means providing explicit information about a grammatical structure (declarative knowledge), ‘practice’ refers to the use of exercises and controlled production to internalize the structure and ‘produce’ is the stage where learners use the structure in a more extended, non-controlled form of practice generally in the form of oral or written tasks.

However, in reality, the PPP is ineffective in achieving what it is intended to do (Ellis, R. 1993 cited in Atkins, 2000). This is due to the controlled nature of the input that the students receive. Ellis, R. (in Atkins, 2000, p.3) claims that:

We can do PPP until we are blue in the face, but it doesn't necessarily result in what PPP was designed to do. And yet there is, still, within language teaching, a commitment to trying to control not only input but actually what is learned

This view is also echoed by Skehan (in Atkins, 2000, p.3) who writes:

The underlying theory of a PPP approach has now been discredited. The belief that a precise focus on a particular form leads to learning and automatization that learners will learn what is taught in the order in which it is taught) no longer carries much credibility in linguistics or psychology

A third approach that is based on explicit FFI is the notional-functional approach. According to Ellis, R. (2005), it is sometimes referred to as being ‘communicative’ but in fact it is based on a structural syllabus and emphasizes more accuracy rather than fluency. It draws on theories of communicative competence (Hymes, 1971) and functional grammar (Halliday, 1986) which put forward the use of language as the ultimate goal for learning (in Ellis, R. 2005). The notional syllabus consists of a list of functions (such as apologizing and requesting) and notions (such as past time and possibility) together with the appropriate structures required to realize them in communication (Ellis, R. *ibid*). The PPP model is the methodology used with this approach and accuracy is very important. Its main advantage is the teaching of pragmatic aspects of language, such as the linguistic devices needed to display politeness and also in the teaching of cultural topics such as how and when to greet people (Ellis, R. *ibid*). Actually this approach has been discredited recently and has

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even been likened to the grammar-translation (GT) method in that, as White (1988 in Atkins (2000, p.3)), maintained:

PPP and GT are very different but they both teach by presenting a language point, be it grammar or function, and then proceed to practice it. This approach [PPP] led to a great deal of criticism during the 1980s and the explicit teaching of grammar became taboo, at least in literature, if not actually in the classroom. PPP is still very much alive and this is for much the same reasons that GT was the method of choice for so long. These reasons- secure teacher roles and teacher training and clear accountability-go some way to explaining the persistence of what is essentially a discredited, meaning-impoverished methodology

Recently, a three-stage model which appears to be a parallel to PPP was created by SySoyev (1999) and was dubbed EEE which stands for *Explore, Explain and Express*. The model is based on inductive teaching for learning the rules and thus emphasizes the discovery process of learning. At the exploration stage, students are given sentences illustrating a certain grammar rule and are asked as a group to find the pattern and formulate the rule. To make the task easier, some forms are highlighted. Then, in the explanation stage, the rules are explained. Teachers can refer students to textbook rules so that they feel safer when they know the rules and have some source to go back to in case of confusion or future reference. Finally, in the expression stage, students practise the new forms in communicative tasks. Communicative interaction is better when it is content-based and related to topics that are of interest to and/or known by students to make it authentic. Ellis, R. (2005) describes this model as the PPP upset down. In fact, the EEE is a source of inspiration for our grammar treatment in the present study.

1.4.2 Approaches Based on Implicit FFI

There are two main implicit approaches in grammar pedagogy: the communicative and the task-based approaches. The communicative teaching approach emphasizes the need for learners to focus on meaning and to convey information one to another. Proponents of the communicative teaching approach argue that grammar is not only a formal system but primarily a means of communication. Thus what is important is not formal-correctness but communicative-effectiveness (Newby, 2000).

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Fotos et al (1991, p. 609) maintains that “*one of the important aims of communicative language teaching is to provide opportunities for learners to participate in interaction where the primary goal is to exchange meaning rather than to learn the L2*”. Concerning the grammatical rules, a distinction is made between ‘knowing about’ grammar and ‘knowing how’ (Fotos et al, *ibid*) to use it, referred to as declarative versus procedural knowledge. Rules are inferred inductively out of use.

One of the strongest components of CLT which has become a synonym to it is task-based learning (TBL). Johnson (1979, in Samuda et al (2008)) makes a crucial step in highlighting the need for materials not only to focus on relevant language, but also to engage the learners in developing the skills of using it in relevant ways. The task-based approach discourages the teaching of grammar piece by piece in a linear syllabus and provides learners with many encounters with natural language in input and stresses that the main source of learning is the communicative task (Skehan, 1997, in Ur, 2002). The tasks differ from the exercises in that the latter are used to manipulate some specific form rather than meaning and ask learners to manipulate language given to them rather than to attempt to communicate using their own linguistic resources (Ellis, R. 2005). Fotos et al (1991) distinguishes between ‘practice’ of the traditional methods and ‘practice’ within performing tasks in that the former aims at providing many opportunities to produce sentences containing the target feature whereas the latter aims at increasing opportunities to engage in interactional communication. Fotos et al (*ibid*) believe that it is interaction and not practice which ensures automatization or acquisition of the grammatical features.

Thus, in the traditional explicit approaches grammar topics are the backbone of the syllabus whereas in the communicative implicit approaches the development of the communicative skills are placed at the forefront with grammar introduced only to support the development of these skills (Brandl, 2008). Brandl (*ibid*) referred to some important principles of implicit FFI. We mention four important ones which reflect our implicit FonF methodology adopted in this study. The first principle is the use of tasks. This is based on theories of SLA which claim that language use is the driving force for language development. Doughty et al (2003) maintains that new knowledge

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is best integrated into long-term memory and easier retrieved when related to real world events and activities. In research on SLA, the “learning by doing” principle is strongly supported by an active approach to using language early on. This gives opportunity to try out new rules and modify them accordingly (Swain, 1995, in Brandl, *ibid*). Ellis, R. (2005) assumes that task-based teaching is a strong communicative approach. It does not aim at teaching communication as an object (as is the case with functional/notional approach) but also at engaging learners in authentic acts of communication in classroom. Learners learn best when they use language in ways that closely resemble the way language is used naturally outside the classroom.

The second principle of implicit FFI is the provision of rich input. Rich input involves being exposed to a plethora of language patterns in numerous contexts. Doughty et al (2003) claim that rich input in classroom entails realistic samples of discourse use. Learners need to hear the language either from the teacher, from multimedia resources, from students or any other source. There are two ways for creating rich input in the classroom: (1) the use of authentic materials. This refers to texts, photographs, video selections and other teaching resources not prepared for pedagogical purposes. Examples of authentic audiovisual materials are announcements, conversations and discussions taken as extracts or as a whole from radio and television public broadcasting, real-life telephone conversations, messages left on answering machines, or voice mail (Brandl, 2008). There are many justifications for the use of authentic materials such as linking the students’ needs to the real world. The other way to create rich input is via (2) maximizing the use of the target language (TL) as a medium of instruction. This is justified by the ‘maximum exposure’ hypothesis which implies that the greater the amount of input, the greater the gains in the new language (Brandl, 2008).

The third principle is the use of meaningful input. This means that the information being presented must be clearly relatable to existing knowledge that the learner already possesses (Brandl, *ibid*). Meaningfulness means that input should be of interest and useful to the learner. For example Lee et VanPatten (1995, in Brandl, *ibid*) claim that input must contain some message to which the learner is supposed to

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attend. Moreover, as Krashen (1991) proposed, language is acquired when learners are exposed to comprehensible input. The input should be comprehensible so that the learner understands most of what is spoken or written if acquisition is to happen (Lee et al, 1995, in Brandl (ibid)). The fourth principle is to promote cooperative learning. Cooperative work is an important principle in meaning-based approach in teaching (Nunan, 1989 in Ellis, R. 1991). In such an approach classrooms are organized so that students work together in small cooperative teams (groups/pairs) to complete activities (Brandl, ibid). The participants listen to input and negotiate the input they receive. This interaction between the learners or between learners and the teacher promotes language acquisition (Long, 1983 in Brandl (ibid)). Ellis, R. (1991) makes reference to some studies which found that learners produce more in pair/group work, and do not speak/write any less grammatically than they do in teacher-fronted lessons. Learners also negotiate meaning more, provided that the task requires information exchange

The literature reviewed in the previous two sections reveals that the traditional approaches to grammar teaching such as GT, audio-lingual, aural-situational and functional approaches focus more on the explicit teaching of forms than the communicative approaches which implicitly target the grammatical forms mainly via exposure to rich input and students' interaction. In the era of FFI, there is a debate about how much explicitness should be included in grammar instruction. The most important views as regards explicitness in teaching are presented in the following section.

1.5 Implicit or Explicit Instruction: the Debate Continues.

We noticed in literature that the debate on implicit and explicit teaching still exists and at two levels. There is a debate between MFI proponents and FFI proponents concerning the implicit/explicit instruction, and between FFI proponents as regards the reactive, implicit FonF and the degree of explicitness of proactive (instructional) FonF.

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It is true that FFI is regarded to be a move toward a middle ground after a century of heated debate over whether to teach grammar implicitly or explicitly, but, in fact, this debate still goes on (Gascoigne, 2001). Proponents of MFI fear the coming back of the traditional grammar. Doughty et al (1998, p.2) claimed that:

Responses to the suggestions that second language teaching that is primarily meaning-focused could be improved with some degree of attention to form have been heated, especially among classroom teachers. These responses have ranged from outright rejection by teachers whose orientation is wholly communicative, to an eager, if misguided, embrace by others as justification for a return to explicit, discrete-point grammar.

Proponents of MFI, thus, view that FFI is a comeback to the traditional explicit teaching and hence much criticism of FFI is similar to that of TG. They consider that over attention to forms does not lead to proceduralization of the L2 (Loewen, 2002) suggesting that it is better to provide learners with input-rich communicative environment. Some researchers advice not to interrupt the flow of communication (Doughty et al, 1998; Long, 2007 in Loewen, 2002). On the other hand proponents of FFI agree that noticing is important.

The second debate is held among the proponents of the FFI. There are issues concerning both the reactive FonF and 'instructional' or proactive FonF. Lightbown et al (1997) categorize FonF as either 'instructional' (the teacher presents a linguistic structure and leads the students to focus on it in practice) or 'reactive' (the teacher reacts to an apparent difficulty a student is having during a communicative activity). Lightbown et al (ibid) raised the issue about the proactive 'instructional' FonF. They observed that within the FonF framework controversy still surrounds the 'instructional' or explicit format on whether it should be inductive, implicit or deductive, explicit. Ellis, R. et al (2006) maintain that implicit types of FFI may not be salient to learners and therefore learning may not occur. Much of research conducted with corrective feedback has shown that explicit corrective feedback is more beneficial for learners than implicit corrective feedback (Ellis et al, 2006; Lyster et al, 1997). Another controversy also exists about whether to use isolated or

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integrated FFI. For example, isolated FFI may be necessary with difficult structures due to L1 influence, with structures having low salience or low frequency in the input.

However, more attacks are directed to the reactive FonF. Explicit FFI proponents argue that there are many issues concerning this type of FFI. The first issue concerns the degree of the intensity or the frequency of the FonF and the experimental difficulty to show its intensity effectiveness. Loewen (2002) argues that if we consider implicit FFI or FonF as a spontaneous reaction to errors, thus it will be difficult to experimentally investigate the effectiveness of something that occurs spontaneously. Consequently, investigated structures are structures that the researchers selects beforehand and according to Ellis, R. (2001, in Loewen, (ibid)) the effects of such planned FFI may differ from those incidental FFI because the former is intensive and focuses on one or two structures but on many occasions, and the latter is extensive and targets multiple structures receiving attention on one or two occasions.

A second issue concerns timing or when FonF should occur. This refers to the type of structures that need intervention for their teaching and correction. The problem is with the proactive FonF in predicting ‘problematicity’ of the structures. Williams (2005, in Loewen, (ibid)) rejects this type of FonF because teachers may not be accurate in predicting which forms will be difficult for learners. However, Ellis, R. et al (2002) recommend that teachers take notes of the forms that cause problems to students in communicative activities and address them when the activity is over. Other issues arise in relation with the notion of ‘problematicity’. For example, while some researchers suggest that FonF is more beneficial for simple structures (Ellis, R. 2006) others argue that FonF is more effective with more complex ones such as English adverb placement (Spada et al, 2008).

A third issue concerns the implementation of FonF. The proponents of explicit FFI view that the implicit FonF is not doable in some settings for two reasons as it is reported by Poole (2005). First, teachers do not have a say in designing the curriculum and choosing the materials. Some faculties impose purely-communicative curriculums like in Central America and others where English is taught as an FL language like in

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China only the structural grammar is seen to be more appropriate to be taught. And, the second other problem is class size (Poole, 2005). FonF suits better small classes where teachers can address all the students' problems, use tasks, involve students in participation and interaction, and evaluate their writing. However, EFL settings are generally large classes where individual attention and student-student interaction is not always possible.

We notice, then, that the debate on FFI is at two levels: between MFI and FFI proponents and among the FFI proponents themselves. And the debate, as has always been the case, is about the implicit/explicit instructions.

Now if we look closely to these issues we notice that they concern more the reactive FonF. In fact, FFI with its flexibility and middle position along the implicit/explicit continuum and all the options it offers, it can fit any context be it SL classroom or FL classroom or even small or large classes. This depends on the teacher picking up the best and most relevant of all the new options the FFI proposes.

The FFI options are presented in the following section together with the studies carried out in this area.

1.6 Research in FFI

This section presents the main FFI options discussed in the literature which we classify into corrective feedback options (reactive & proactive focus-on-form) and consciousness-raising techniques (input flood, input enhancement, input processing & output enhancement). In addition, studies carried out as regards the efficiency of such teaching options on learning are presented

1.6.1 Options of FFI

Ellis, R. (2012, p. 14) maintains that FFI '*is best conceptualized in terms of concrete activity options*' not in terms of abstract constructs such as FonF/FonFs, implicit/explicit and others. Ellis, R. et al (2002, p. 14) define the term 'option' as

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being ‘a specific strategy for delivering instruction’. The term ‘option’ is being more often used instead of ‘method’ because as Stern (in Ellis, R. 1998, p. 42) says the term ‘method’ is ‘now generally recognized as too crude a concept on which to base either research or teaching’. Stern (ibid) refers to teaching options as teaching strategies. It is possible to describe a number of such strategies for form-focussed instruction based on what is known about how learners acquire an L2 (Ellis, R. 1998).

We find many focus-on-form strategies in the literature: some of them are more implicit such as input flood, input enhancement, recast, and other more explicit ones such as input structuring and explicit feedback. We classify these options into corrective feedback types and consciousness-raising techniques. We classify the options into corrective feedback because it concerns errors and the different types of reaction to them, and other consciousness raising-techniques which concern the input and output and the ways they are made salient. Of course there are different categorizations of FFI options in the literature. For example Ellis, R. (1998) identifies four macro-options based on a psycholinguistic model of L2 acquisition (see fig.1.2). These are (1) input-based instruction, (2) explicit instruction, (3) output-based instruction, and (4) feedback. Ellis, R. (2012) used two broad categories of FFI options: performance options as in proactive FFI and feedback options as in reactive FFI. In the following figure the two broad options of Ellis, R. (2012) and their sub categories are presented:

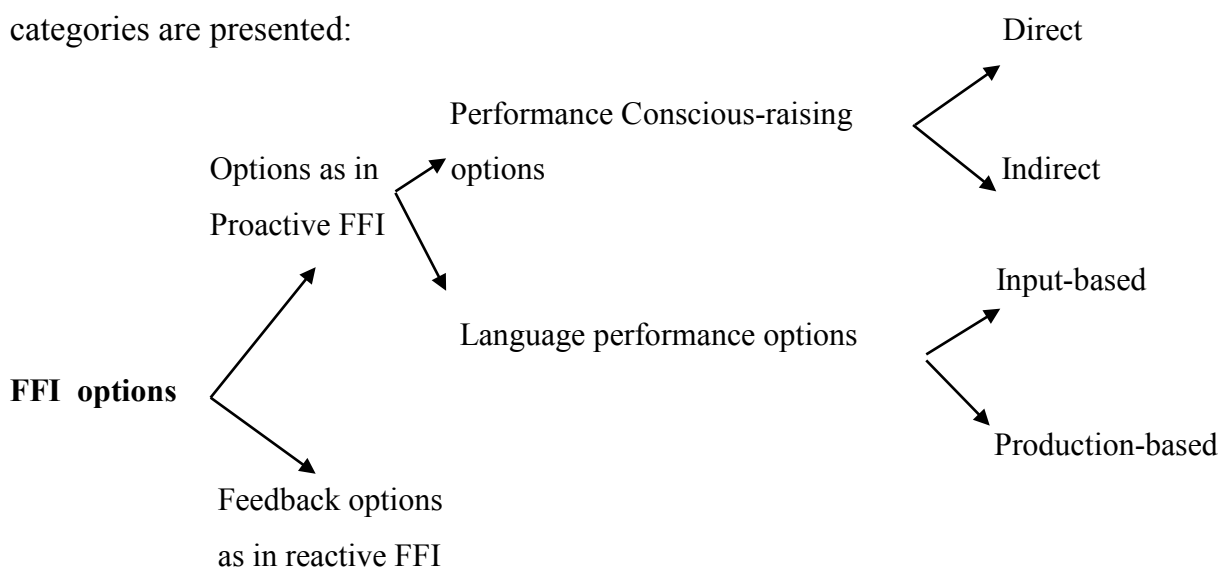


Figure 1.2: FFI Options (Ellis, R. 2012)

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In this figure, a broad distinction is made between techniques and procedures that involve some kind of performance on the part of the learner (Performance options as in proactive FFI) and those that provide the learner with feedback on their performance (Feedback as in reactive FFI). Instructional or proactive options can be either in the form of consciousness-raising techniques (direct such as explicit explanation of grammar, indirect such as self-discovery techniques), or language performance options based on input (comprehension) or output (production). Ellis, R. (2012) maintains also that different FFI approaches may involve different combinations of options. For example, a focus-on-form lesson would involve a text-creating task combined with feedback options. And a PPP lesson would involve a consciousness-raising option.

The following sections deal with the different FFI options which are referred to in the literature. They are divided into corrective feedback and consciousness-raising options.

1.6.1.1 Corrective Feedback Options

Corrective feedback occurs in response to learners' production errors. There are two types of corrective feedback: reactive and proactive.

Reactive Focus on Form

Long (1991) qualified FonF as a brief reaction to communicative problems. Ellis (2002) identified four main types of reactive FonF or feedback: conversational, didactic, explicit and implicit.

(a) Conversational: This can take the form of teachers' request for confirmation or clarification as respectively illustrated in the following example:

Example 1

S1: I'm looking for a room

S2: I will take you

T: What?

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S2: I'll take you

(Ellis, R. 2002)

In the example above a focus on a specific form is done within conversation; thus, the form ('ll) is being made more salient within communication and this constitutes the ideal conditions for noticing and acquisition to take place (Ellis, R. 2002).

(b) Didactic: this is called pedagogic 'time-out' where it involves negotiation of form and not of meaning as illustrated in example 3.

Example 2:

S: I was in pub

T: In the pub?

S: Yeah, and I was drinking beer.

(Ellis, R. 2002)

(c) Implicit: The most common implicit corrective feedback is 'recast'. Ellis, R. (2005) maintains that if the output is flawed, feedback given in the form of recast that illustrates a more appropriate form of expression can optimize the forms for their acquisition. This is due to the fact that learners notice the gap between their own erroneous utterance and the recast. Recasts which represent feedback to output highlight the relevant element of the form at the same time as the desired meaning-to-be expressed is still alive. An example of a recast which involves the reformulation of the student's utterance containing an error with highlighting it is shown in the following example:

Example 3:

S: I think that the worm will go under the soil.

T: I *thought* that the worm *would* go under the soil.

S: I think that the worm would go under the soil.

(Ellis, R. 2002)

(d) Explicit: The simplest way to perform an explicit feedback is to signal directly that the student has made an error or provide the correct form and give students opportunity to practise it as shown in the example below about a pronunciation problem:

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Example 4:

S1: Was anything found by this body?

S2: Pardon

T: Was anything found, fou, fou

S1: Found

T: Ow, ow, found

S1: Found

(Ellis, R. 2002)

In what follows, the second type of corrective feedback is presented.

Proactive Focus on Form

In this type of focus of form, teachers and students take time-out from communication to focus on some specific linguistic items which constitute the object in the conversation. Thus, here it is not a reaction to errors but students requesting assistance from the teacher or the teacher interrupting the flow of communication to raise a specific form to attention. Thus, forms can be topicalized either by the teachers (example 5) or the students (example 6). Consider the last two examples:

Example 5: teacher-initiated proactive FonF

T: What's an alibi?

S: Another name for girlfriend?

T: An alibi is a reason you have for not being at the bank robbery

(Ellis, R. 2002)

Example 6: student-initiated proactive FonF

S: T, how do you ... [Does not recall the word 'translation']

T: What?

T: Translation?

S: Translation, thank you.

(Ellis, R. 2002)

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The reactive and proactive FonF show, as Ellis, R. (2002, p. 25) maintains, *‘that the teacher’s role in a communicative activity should not be limited to that of a communication partner. The teacher also needs to pay attention to form’*

The following section deals with another FFI option that is called consciousness-raising option which is basically developed on the theory of noticing (Sharwood-Smith, 1980).

1.6.1.2 Consciousness-Raising (C-R) Techniques

The longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (cited in Atkins, 2000, p.4) defines C-R as:

An approach to the teaching of grammar in which instruction in grammar (through drills, grammar explanation and other form-focused activities) is viewed as a way of raising the learners’ awareness of grammatical features of the language. This is thought to directly facilitate second language acquisition. A conscious-raising approach is contrasted with traditional approaches to the teaching of grammar, in which the goal is instill correct grammatical patterns and habits directly

Sharwood-Smith (1980) was the first author who developed C-R which is in fact a development from Krashen’s input hypothesis. Sharwood-Smith (in Atkins, 2000, p.5) views comprehensible input as necessary but not sufficient for SLA to take place. The use of such an approach in practice, however, implies bearing in mind some pertinent questions such as:

Questions having to do with what we choose to bring to consciousness, what motivates the choice, when and how we raise something to consciousness, how often we call attention to it, how detailed is the information revealed.....and what effect on learner behaviour the information is intended to have

Recently, the term ‘consciousness-raising’ has been refined to become ‘noticing’ which means that forms are made salient and obvious to the learner. In fact, noticing is a process facilitated by C-R tasks and noticing is *‘the first phase of learning’* (Batstone, 1994 in Crivos et al, 2012, p. 8). Nowadays, the term CR is also

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replaced by ‘enhancement’ in some contexts because C-R means more manipulating the internal attentional process where as ‘enhancing’ means using activities that make the form salient so that learners understand how it works (Nassaji et al, 2004). In fact, we use the term consciousness-raising in this section with the meaning suggested by Nassaji et al (ibid).

In contrasting the C-R with traditional grammar (TG), Sharwood-Smith (1980) makes it clear that C-R can be more or less reduced to the explicit rule conveying of traditional grammar; but, in fact, C-R is the discovery of regularities in the target language whether blindly intuitive or conscious, or coming in between these two extremes, and the question is to what extent that discovery is guided by the teacher. The guidance, where consciousness-raising is involved, can be more or less direct and explicit. According to Sharwood-Smith (ibid), it is one thing, for example, to set up an illustrative pair of examples and draw the learner's attention to the relevant distinctions using verbal or non-verbal (visual) hints and quite another thing to give a formal rule couched in traditional metalinguistic terms. In both cases the learner is being made conscious of some aspects of the language itself but the manner varies. Ellis, R. (1993) distinguishes between C-R and traditional methods in that when using C-R strategies learners are expected to have knowledge about a grammatical form without necessarily producing sentences manifesting that particular grammatical point (as it is the case in traditional methods).

But yet some authors do not deny that TG is based on CR. Atkins (2000, p.9) commenting on Richards and Rodgers ‘s statement about the fact that the grammar-translation method (traditional grammar) has no advocates and that it is a method for which there is no rationale by saying;

I feel that this view may be harsh, but it is useful to keep in mind that it was written in 1986. Krashen and Terrell had only published their ‘Natural Approach’ three years previously and at that time people were perhaps impressed by the seeming innovation of the ideas.

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In fact, Rutherford (in Attkins, 2000, p. 11) claims that “*for most of the 2,500-year history of language teaching, the importance of C-R was simply assumed*”. Sharwood-Smith (in Attkins, *ibid*) put it the other way in that T-G is part of C-R. Anyway, even if the two approaches are related, it remains the fact that C-R is viewed to be an approach which helps learners to notice the form without precipitating any outcome. Ellis, R. (2002) believes that C-R, contrary to T-G, is a discovery process through a problem-solving task. More to the point, T-G is limited to few techniques in the form of PPP whereas C-R allows for a variety of techniques which can be adapted to type of forms and learners. These techniques are discussed in what follows.

Input Enhancement

Input enhancement stands as an implicit FonF instructional option which seeks to make the input more salient to learners by employing enhancement techniques with typographical cues such as boldfacing, underlying, italicizations, capitalization, colouring or using different font sizes and types. In this way enhanced texts are used to make a target form perceptually salient so as to facilitate the processing of that form (Lee et al, 2008). Schmidt’s (in Lee et al, 2008, p.308) noticing hypothesis offers a rationale for such a claim:

For input to be processed for acquisition by L2 learners, it must first be noticed. Enhancing input using typographical techniques increases the chance that the visually prominent input will be noticed and will thus establish a trace in long term memory.

Nassaji et al (2011) suggest the following steps when designing for example enhanced written texts:

1. Select a grammatical point that learners need to attend to.
2. Highlight the point by means of any typographical techniques such as boldfacing.
3. Make sure not to highlight many instances of the form in order not to distract learners from meaning.
4. Use strategies to keep learners’ attention on meaning.

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5. Do not provide any metalinguistic explicit explanation.

The authors give an example of textual enhanced input where the target form is the English third person singular verbs:

*The man **goes** with his dog to the park. He **brings** a ball with him to throw for the dog. When he **arrives** at the park, he **throws** the ball very far, and the dog **chases** after it. The dog **comes** back with the ball in his mouth. The man **is** happy to see the dog come back with the ball. He **spends** the rest of the day throwing the ball for his dog to chase. (Nassaji et al, 2011)*

We find many studies' reports in the literature which used input enhancement as a pedagogical intervention either in isolation (e.g, Leow, 2001; Jahan et al, 2015) or as part of a more global FonF instruction (Doughty, 1991; Robinson, 1996). This technique has more often been compared to the more implicit technique input flood.

Input Flood

Input flood is an implicit FonF which is also called enriched input. In this option, communicative tasks as Loewen (2002, p. 13) explained are

seeded with specific grammatical structures or vocabulary in the hope that the increased frequency of the forms will be salient to learners or that learners will produce errors in the targeted forms that can then receive corrective feedback

Nassaji et al (2011) provide us with an example of an input flood task. The target form is the English definite and indefinite articles. The text has been designed to include numerous instances of these forms.

A chipmunk sat on some branches in a great big tree. It was very hungry, so it decided to leave the tree and look for food. It climbed off the branches and reached the trunk of the tree, and went down the trunk to the ground below. The chipmunk saw lots of grass and in the grass lay many acorns! The chipmunk, in his delight, took as many acorns as it could, put them in its mouth, and ran back up the tree trunk to its nest. There, the chipmunk had a very good meal. (Nassaji et al, 2011)

Input processing

VanPatten (2002) describes processed input (PI) as a particular type of focus on form or input enhancement rather than a comprehension-based approach such as the

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natural approach. The term ‘structured’ is used because as VanPatten (1993, p.483) argues:

The input used is not free-flowing and spontaneous such as one might receive when involved in a communicative interaction. Instead, the input is purposefully manipulated to highlight particular grammatical features based on the processing strategies

During PI the learner’s job is to process sentences and interpret them correctly while attending to form as well. PI has three basic features or components:

1. Learners are given information about a linguistic form or structure.
2. Learners are informed about a particular IP strategy that may negatively affect the Picking up of the form or structure during comprehension.
3. Learners are pushed to process the form or structure during activities with structured Input that is manipulated

These features of PI can be exemplified in the case of the French causative with the verb ‘faire’. The causative generally takes the form seen in the following example:

(1) Jean fait promener le chien à Marie.

(lit., ‘John makes to walk the dog to Mary.’)

‘John makes Mary walk the dog.’

(VanPatten, 1993)

‘Mary’ (the subject of the second verb ‘promener’) is problematic to learners of French. When asked “Who walks the dog?” learners say “Jean”, since this is the first noun that appears before the verb. The learners, thus, will say the sentence means something like “John walks the dog for Mary.”

This confusion is better cleared away by PI lesson on the French causative which begins first with a brief explanation of what the structure is and looks like. Following this, learners would be told that it is natural to process the first noun as the subject of the verb but that this is inappropriate for this structure. Subsequently they would work through written and aural activities in which they are pushed to process sentences correctly. These activities are called structured input activities. Here are two examples:

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Activity 1. Listen to each sentence. Then indicate who is performing the action by answering each question.

1. Who cleans the room? _____
2. Who packs the bags? _____ etc.

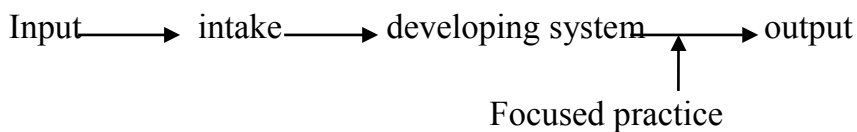
Activity 2. Read each sentence once. After each sentence, ask for an answer.

1. Claude fait nettoyer la chambre à Richard.
2. Marc fait les valises pour Jean. etc.

(VanPatten, 1993)

To understand the difference between the explicit traditional teaching and processing instruction as part of FFI, we can consider Van Patten et al's (1993) representation of the two instruction types in Figure 1.3 as follows:

Traditional explicit grammar instruction in foreign language teaching



Processing instruction in foreign language teaching

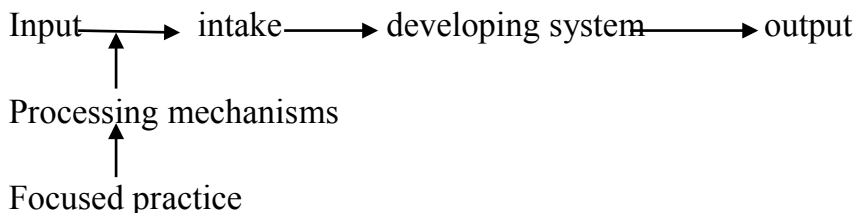


Figure 1.3: Traditional and Processing Instruction in FL Teaching
(Van Patten et al, 1993)

Output Enhancement

Swain (2001) argues that output of the L2 plays an important role in SLA. When learners attempt to produce the L2, they notice that they are not able to say what they want to say and this “pushes” them to achieve greater accuracy. Swain (ibid) claims that learners need the opportunity for pushed output in order to develop high

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level of grammatical competence. He maintains that even if learners do not have the necessary resources to allow successful utterance building, their pushed output can bring to their attention the fact that they need to know something else before they can say what they want to say. The initial claim that output plays a role in SLA was based on research with French immersion students which showed that in spite of seven years of comprehensible input in French, the written and spoken French of these students included numerous deviations from the native speaker usage. In fact, these students did not produce extended discourse and the teachers did not push their interlanguage beyond their current level as they interacted with the students. Swain (1995,p.99) claims that:

The importance of output could be that output pushes the learners to process language more deeply- with more mental effort- than does input. With output, the learner is in control. In speaking and writing, learners can 'stretch' their interlanguage to meet communicative goals. To produce, learners need to do something and in so doing, they discover what they can and cannot do

Swain (ibid) distinguishes three functions of output:

1. Noticing: Schmidh and Frota (in swain, 1995) proposed 'notice the gap principle' where learners notice the gap between the target form and their interlanguage. Swain suggests that learners notice that they do not know how to express precisely the meaning that they wish to convey at the moment of attempting to produce it. So they notice a 'hole' in their interlanguage. After noticing the 'hole', learners try to get solutions by turning to a grammar book or a dictionary or even ask their teacher or peers to get input.
2. Hypothesis testing: Learners' written and spoken productions reveal hypotheses about how language works. When learners test their hypotheses, they bring changes to their output following feedback. Learners do not modify every output, but they attend to change output that is comprehensible to them. Thus, when given feedback some input is taken up and other input is not. This selection of the output to attend to for modification has to do

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with comprehensibility, learner-internal input. This process (hypothesis testing and modification) contributes to SLA.

3. Reflection: When learners modify output, they consciously reflect upon it. The new output gives them opportunity to notice the gap in their linguistic knowledge. The reflective process gives the learners opportunity to notice the gap in their linguistic knowledge and this opportunity arises directly after creating a form new to them. So the initial output is the hypothesis which learners put through a set of tests.

One way to enhance output through the three functions is the use of collaborative output tasks that require learners to cooperatively produce language (Swain, 2001). For example, the dictogloss has been effectively used for such collaborative output tasks. In a dictogloss, the teacher reads a short L2 text twice and asks the learners to work in groups or pairs to reproduce the text as accurately as possible. The dictogloss tasks not only promote meaningful interaction in the L2 but also lead to improvement in accuracy in the use of target forms. In the following example of a dictogloss task (Swain, 1995), students learning French were asked to recreate in writing a text they had just read. Swain (1995) reported the dialogue between the two students when trying to recreate the phrase ‘de nouveaux problèmes’ of the sentence ‘Même les solutions écologiques causent quelques fois de nouveaux problèmes’ (Even ecological solutions sometimes cause new threats). Here is the dialogue:

Rachel: Cherchez nou...des nouveaux menaces. (Look up new [as in] new threats.)

Sophie : Good one !

Rachel ; Yeah, nouveau, des nouveaux, de nouveaux. Is it des nouveaux or de nouveaux ?

Sophie : Des nouveaux or des nouvelles ?

Rachel : Nou[veaux], des nou[veaux], de nou[veaux].

Sophie : It's menace, un menace, une menace, un menace, menace, ay ayay !

Rachel : Je vais le pauser. (I'm going to put it on pause [i.e the tape-recorder].)

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[They look up ‘menace’ in the dictionary]

Sophie: C’est des nouvelles! [triumphantly]

Rachel : C’est féminin...des nouvelles menaces.

(Swain, 1995)

Swain (1995) considers that the task has three benefits. First, students created for themselves a phrase (‘des nouveaux menaces’) that they could reflect on. Second, it gave them the opportunity to notice gaps in their linguistic knowledge. Third, it allowed the students to put their hypothesis (des nouveaux menaces) through a set of tests. Swain argues that this enhanced output in the form of collaborative dialogue is an important part of the learning process.

In what follows, we present the different studies which investigated the learning outcomes of the various FFI options discussed previously.

1.6.2 Studies on FFI

The early research on FFI concerned itself with ‘whether FFI works’ (Ellis, R. et al, 2014). Spada (2014, p.44) sums up the findings of such previous research as follows:

Over the past 25 years or so, considerable research has been done to investigate the effects of FFI on L2 learning, that is, the effects of different ways of drawing learners’ attention to form in communicative classrooms. This research has been done with children (e.g. Harley, 1989), adolescents (e.g. Lyster, 1994) and adults (e.g. Samuda, 2001). The overall findings indicate that meaning-based instruction that includes attention to form is more effective than instruction focused exclusively on either form or meaning (Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Spada, 2010). The findings from this research have also led to other questions about instructed L2 learning including: Are there better ways to draw learners’ attention to form?

Thus, today the question is which type of FFI is more effective so as to lead students to notice the input. Thus, researchers ask questions such as ‘which of the implicit FFI or explicit FFI is more effective?’ and ‘which of the input-based or out-based FFI is better than the other?’

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Many studies have been carried out to find out about how best grammar can be taught. In fact, a variety of means for focusing learners on form has been investigated, far more than we have space to review. For this reason we have selected studies on two important criteria: either (1) because of their frequent mention in the literature due to their pioneering role in a given area or due to the reputation of some researchers to be specialized in some areas; or/and (2) because of their recent publishing mainly in EFL context. We review some of the most important studies into these three areas: (1) studies about explicit and implicit FFI (2) studies about input-based FFI and (3) studies about output-based FFI. In what follows, we present studies dealing with implicit and explicit instructions in relation with existence or absence of rules.

1.6.2.1 Explicit and Implicit FFI Studies

According to the literature, the terms implicit/explicit within the framework of FFI can refer to either metalinguistic explanation of the rules, integration or isolation of the FFI or implicit/explicit corrective feedback. We look particularly at studies dealing with these types of implicit/explicit instruction. Thus, we categorize studies according to whether the studies are coded to be implicit or explicit in relation with (1) existence or absence of rules, or (2) use of integrative or isolated FFI, or (3) the use of explicit or implicit feedback. In the forthcoming section, the first type of FFI studies which focus on rule presentation is presented.

Rule Explanation

In terms of providing rules or not the best study we mention here is the meta-analysis research of Norris et al (2000). In fact, this study, which is concerned with the measurement of the effectiveness of instructional types, is the most frequently mentioned study in the literature. In their meta-analysis study, Norris et al (ibid) examined studies comparing explicit and implicit teaching between 1980 and 1998. The researchers described a study to be ‘explicit’ when metalinguistic rules were explained to learners, or when learners were directed to discover rules by attending to forms, and as ‘implicit’ when neither rule presentation nor directions to attend to particular forms were part of a treatment. Norris et al found that many of the studies

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(90%) favoured explicit instruction and that gains are durable over time. More specifically, instruction that incorporates explicit (including deductive and inductive) techniques leads to more substantial effects than implicit instruction. In addition, instruction that incorporates a focus on form integrated in meaning is as effective as instruction that involves a focus on forms. However, outcomes are measured in these studies by discrete-point tests. In fact, as Spada (2014, p.45) argues:

So far very few studies have compared the effects of explicit and implicit instruction on the development of learners' implicit L2 knowledge, that is, one's intuitive and unanalyzed ability to use language accurately, quickly, and spontaneously in typical everyday communicative interactions. One of the primary reasons for a lack of research attention is because few valid measures of implicit knowledge exist

One example of the studies that showed better results for the explicit teaching is that of Pica (1983). This study examined how presenting input under different conditions (explicit and implicit instructions) affects intake of a particular structure in Spanish. Pica (ibid) found that learners in every group demonstrated substantial improvement from the pre-test to the post-test. However, despite the significant gains in intake present in all conditions, formally instructed participants performed significantly better than those in the implicit training condition. It was hypothesized that performing a task under implicit conditions may have imposed higher cognitive demands on these learners than on those who were formally instructed. In this sense, this study supports Robinson's (1996) and Scott's (1989) claim that being exposed to L2 input in an implicit condition does not appear to be superior to instructed or rule-search conditions. Different results are found by Macaro et al (2006) and Shaffer (1989) who, following the same research design used by Pica (ibid), did not find that an intensive explicit instruction brought about improvement in grammatical knowledge or a reduction in written production errors and that the formally instructed participants did not significantly outperformed those who were instructed implicitly.

The evidence of a better effect of implicit instruction on language use is very small. One example is the study of Herron et al (1992) who compared two groups of beginning-level American college students learning French. With one group, they

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used 'guided induction' method in which students were assisted to form hypotheses about how grammatical patterns worked, but rules were never stated. With the other group, they used the deductive traditional method. The results revealed that the inductively-taught group learned better than the deductively-taught one. Herron et al (ibid) commented also on the results of some other studies comparing inductive and deductive teaching of grammar (especially those they used the deductive method where rules were explicitly provided before practice) which showed no significant difference between the two methods of teaching (like that of Shaffer, 1989), and draw our attention to the fact that in such studies students explicitly state the rules after discovering them which is not the case in Herron et al's inductive study. In fact, Ellis, R. (2005) considers both inductive and deductive methods as explicit as far as rules are stated regardless of whether they are stated at the beginning or at the end of examples or lessons.

To mention more recent studies with more positive effects of implicit instruction, Ellis, R. et al (2014) reported relatively a similar study to the one above and which was carried out by Mohamed (2001, in Ellis, R. et al (ibid)). The researcher compared implicitly-instructed and explicitly-instructed learners using two different types of tasks with each group. He found that gains of the implicitly-taught group were significantly higher than those of the explicitly-taught group in terms of explicit knowledge, so concluding that the tasks accompanied with implicit instruction served both to develop explicit knowledge and provided learners with opportunity for communication. A similar study was done by Pesce (2008, in Ellis, R. et al (2014)) who compared teacher-instructed groups and self-discovery ones over the learning of Spanish past tenses via completion of tasks. The immediate post-test revealed that self-discovery groups outperformed the explicit group in both morphology and syntax.

Other studies found that explicit and implicit teaching effectiveness depends on rules simplicity/complexity. Green et al (1992) maintain that some rules have a fairly consistently high success rate (e.g. articles) than others which have low success rate (e.g. verb aspect) which suggests that some rules are easier than others. In the literature, easier rules are termed simple, and difficult rules are termed complex, but

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there has been no agreement on the choice of features which make a structure either simple or complex. Some considered structure saliency, i.e., the extent to which a structure is noticeable, a feature that makes a structure simple to acquire/learn. For example, Clashen et al (1983 cited in Pienmann, 1984) consider that elements at the initial and final position in a sentence can be memorized best because they are more salient and they require the lowest degree of processing capacity. Other researchers such as Reber (1993 in Robinson (1996)), Hulstijn et al (1994), Dubravac, (2013) and Ellis, R. (2015) consider the pedagogical rules underlying language structures as a relevant feature in labelling a structure as simple or complex. For example, Hulstijn et al (1994) consider the scope of the rule (the number of cases covered by the rule) and reliability (the extent to which the rule holds true) as two important features for deciding about rule complexity. Dekeyser (2003, p. 331) describes rule difficulty “*as a ratio of the rule’s inherent linguistic complexity to the student’s ability to handle such a rule*” and this means simply that a rule is difficult if the student finds it difficult to learn.

Thus, different features seem to affect structure complexity; consequently, there have been different proposals as to whether a particular structure is amenable to either explicit or implicit learning. Some researchers such as Ellis, R. (2008) hold that when the material to be taught is relatively complex but there is only a limited number of variables and the important features are salient, it is better to adopt an explicit mode where learners are encouraged to explicitly make and test hypotheses. Ellis, R. (2015) also argues that structures that realise a single function and are not meaning redundant are easier to learn explicitly than those realising multiple functions and are meaning redundant. However, when the material to be taught is more randomly structured (complex) with a large number of variables and when the important relationships are not obvious, then only implicit learning of that material is more effective provided there are sufficient instances of it. Similarly, Mac Whinney (1997) argues that when the rules are complex, the student may get little out of the explicit instruction.

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However, little is known about which teaching modes better promote particular language aspects and this is due to the scarce research in this area. Dekeyser (2003, p.331) claimed that:

A modest number of studies have made comparison between implicit and explicit learning for every specific structures (e.g. English dative alternation in Robinson, 1977; French relative pronouns and subjunctive forms in Scott, 1989; Welsh consonant mutation in Ellis, N. 1994). These studies give an idea of the range of structures that might be better learned explicitly than implicitly

Thus more research is needed to investigate the teaching of various language forms under different conditions (instruction types and different tasks) to better inform curriculum planners on the mode of teaching to adopt when teaching specific language structures (Ellis, R. 2008). Mac Whinney (1997, p.280) put it more strongly by suggesting that ‘*we will need to replace the simple dichotomy of explicit and implicit learning with a fuller model that looks at the detailed mechanics of second language learning of particular target structures*’. In what follows we mention some of the studies carried out on the explicit and implicit instructions in relation with simple and complex structures.

For example, Andrews (2007) used implicit and explicit treatments in grammar with two groups comprising college students for a 2-month period. The explicit treatment was a teacher-directed, formal-teaching of the rules; the implicit treatment was a task-based, grammar discovery of the same rules. The treatments covered two grammatical structures: simple (subject-verb agreement) and complex (relative clause). Findings of this study suggest that methods do not matter for simple rules but make a difference when it concerns complex rules since explicitly-taught groups achieved significantly higher scores over complex rules. On the contrary, as Larsen-Freeman (2015) noted participants in studies by DeKeyser (1997) and Robinson (1996) showed that students learned simple morphosyntactic rules (e.g., optional subject-verb after adverbials) better under conditions of explicit-deductive learning and more complex rules (e.g., pseudo-clefts of location) better under implicit-inductive conditions. Larsen-Freeman (ibid) has also observed that a number of studies have

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examined the efficacy of inductive and deductive approaches but neither approach has been consistently favoured.

In fact, we have more data about the kind of the learning mode (explicit or implicit) which is more appropriate for learning more complex structures from artificial grammar experiments. In artificial grammar, non-grammatical strings of letters are used to measure the effect of the implicit and explicit instruction on memorization of the underlined rules. Reber's experiment (1976, in Robinson (1996)) showed that giving adult subjects instructions to search for the rules that underlie exemplary letters from a synthetic language has generally a detrimental impact on their ability to learn about the structure. The subjects who were asked to discover the rules underlying the structures performed poorly on learning the structures compared to those who were just asked to memorize the letter strings. This result runs counter to the dominant argument in the literature where instructions to search for rules are beneficial. Rather it supports the argument that the underlying rule of a complex structure is effectively acquired implicitly through memorization (not through searching for rules). Brooks (cited in Reber et al, 1980) achieved similar results using artificial languages in that subjects encouraged to search for rules performed more poorly on a discrimination of grammaticality task than subjects not instructed to search for complex rules.

In another study, Reber et al (1980) used 'salience' as a variable in their research to find out the effect of explicit instruction on complex structures. Salience means making the underlying patterns obvious. For one explicitly instructed group salience was low and for another explicitly instructed group it was made high. In the low-salience format, the order of letters was determined randomly. In the high-salience format, the letters were arranged in a highly structured way to render the rules obvious. Reber et al (ibid) found that explicit instruction is beneficial when the stimuli are made salient.

In another experiment, Reber et al (ibid) examined the interactive functioning of explicit and implicit modes of learning more complex structures. They were

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particularly interested in finding out: when during the course of observing exemplars does explicit information have its great impact? Before observing exemplars or after? The findings suggested that learning is more effective when the explicit information is presented at the outset of the exemplars observation than if it is presented at the end. Thus, Reber et al concluded that the best combination of explicit and implicit training procedure is the one which begins with explicit information about the grammatical structure followed by extended series of examples generated by it. A similar study by Dank and Gans (cited by Reber et al (ibid)) reported the same findings. They found that the learning of the rule system was optimized by showing subjects the rules early in the training. They also found that merely informing subjects that there were rules but without concrete information about their nature had no facilitative effect on performance. Thus we can say that findings of studies on artificial grammar seem to favour the explicit instruction which is followed by a rich set of exemplars, in which elements are made salient (well-structured and/or frequent) to enhance their noticing and acquisition.

To summarize, most studies seem to favour the explicit instruction of rules over the implicit one (Norris et al, 2000; Pica, 1983). However, other studies yielded a different result. For example, Macaro et al (2006) found no benefit for explicit instruction and in other studies it has been shown that implicit instruction is more beneficial (Herron et al, 1992; Mohamed, 2001; Pesce, 2008). It should be noted also that studies reporting a better advantage for explicit instruction used a discrete-point test as a measure, and rule learning and memorization (for artificial experiments). In what follows, we first present studies dealing with the implicit and explicit instruction in relation with context of instruction (in isolation or in integration)

Integrated or Isolated FFI

More recently, research has noticed the use of isolated (explicit) and integrated (implicit) FFI terms. Spada et al (2008) compared the effects of these two types of instruction on L2 ability. In integrated FFI attention to form was embedded within communicative practice; in isolated FFI it was separated from communicative practice.

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Two groups of adult learners of English as a second language (ESL) received 12 hours of integrated or isolated FFI on the ‘passive’ construction. Learners’ progress on a written grammar test and an oral communication task indicated no significant differences between the instructional groups over time. However, some advantages were observed for integrated FFI on the oral production task and for isolated FFI on the written grammar test. The researchers call for more research on when to use FFI and that until that is clear, teachers should combine both integrated and isolated FFI. Following exactly the same design and focusing on the same grammatical target (Passive), Spada et al (2014) found the same results, i.e., advantage was observed for integrated FFI on the oral production task and for isolated FFI on the written grammar test.

Ellis, R. et al (2001) investigated incidental integrated FFI in relation with learner uptake occurring in 12 hours of communicative ESL teaching. Learner uptake was generally high and successful. Uptake was higher and more successful in reactive focus on form and in student-initiated focus on form than in teacher-initiated focus on form. The level of uptake was also influenced by whether meaning or form was negotiated and by the complexity of an episode. This study indicates also that the great majority of the FonF involved the negotiation of form as opposed to the negotiation of meaning. Thus, attention to form in these lessons reflected a concern for code rather than meaning and that focus on form can occur without disturbing the communicative flow of a classroom.

In reviewing studies about the FFI in general, we found very few studies comparing isolated and integrated FFI, but the few results we obtained indicate a positive effect for both types with the integrated FFI influencing better the oral skill and the isolated FFI being more effective in written grammar test (Spada et al, 2008; Spada et al, 2014). Other studies dealing with explicitness/implicitness of instruction involved the kind of corrective feedback (direct/indirect) imparted to students and its effect on learning as discussed in the following section.

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Providing Feedback

In the past, research on feedback was mainly about whether to provide or not feedback. In the light of FFI instruction, the question is whether to give an explicit direct feedback or an indirect implicit feedback. Direct or explicit feedback occurs when the teacher identifies an error and provides the correct form, while indirect strategies refer to situations when the teacher indicates that an error has been made but does not provide a correction, thereby leaving the student to diagnose and correct it (Bitchener et al, 2005). In what follows we present first studies which compare feedback-based and non-feedback-based treatments followed by studies comparing different types of feedback effects.

An example of studies which shows that FonF (reactive feedback) has a positive effect on learners' interlanguage development is the study of Lightbown et al (1990 in Doughty et al (1998)) which investigated the effect of FonF on four intact classes of adolescent French learners of English. The observation data (obtained with the COLT scheme) revealed that FonF was reactive to errors or to students' requests. Most importantly, the researchers found that learners in the class who received the most of the FonF were most accurate in the use of the progressive *-ing* and at a higher developmental level in the use of possessive determiners *his* and *her*.

Similar results were found by White (1991, in Doughty et al (1998)) who compared performance by two intact classes receiving formal instruction in questions formation with three uninstructed classes in a period of two weeks. Instructed groups received explicit rules on the use of some auxiliaries (can, be and do) and question words (what, when and where) and corrective feedback on errors. Immediate post-test scores on a sentence-correction activity showed higher accuracy for instructed learners and misuse of subject-verb inversion in forming questions by uninstructed learners. Delayed post-tests (5 weeks after the end of instruction) using oral communication and written tasks revealed significant gains in accuracy (in the use of the auxiliaries and question formation) for the instructed group over the uninstructed one.

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However, in some studies the delayed post-tests did not reveal the durability of the grammar accuracy gains after a FonF instruction. One example is the study of Harely (1989). Harely (ibid) compared immersion classes who were exposed for an eight week period to an experimental set of teaching materials with other immersion classes who did not receive the experimental treatment on the ability to make a functional distinction between *imparfait* and the *passé composé* in French. Findings indicated that at the end of eight weeks, the experimental classes outperformed the comparison classes on two out of three immediate post-test measures. The researcher, however, found that this advantage was not maintained after 3 months.

In the following studies the concern is not whether to provide a FonF (feedback) or not but it is which type of feedback to provide. Ellis, R. et al (2006) investigated the effects of two types of corrective feedback (explicit and implicit) on the acquisition of past tense. They used two experimental groups and a control group of ESL students. The students completed two communicative tasks during which they received either recasts (implicit feedback) or metalinguistic explanation (explicit feedback) in response to any utterance that contained an error in the target structure. Acquisition was measured by means of an oral imitation test (designed to measure implicit knowledge) and both an untimed grammaticality judgment test and a metalinguistic knowledge test (both designed to measure explicit knowledge). Pre- and post-tests were administered. The post-tests showed a clear advantage for explicit feedback over implicit feedback (the recast) for both the delayed imitation and grammaticality judgment post-tests. Thus, the results indicated that metalinguistic explanation benefited implicit as well as explicit knowledge.

Some studies examined the effect of the two types of feedback on writing accuracy. Different studies yielded different results. Sheen et al (2009) examined the effect of direct focused corrective feedback (CF) and indirect unfocused feedback on the accurate use of grammatical forms by adult ESL learners in writing. Direct focused CF is the explicit correction of forms given to students, whereas indirect focused CF refers to the indication of errors but without correction. The results of this study revealed that unfocused CF is of little pedagogical value whereas focused CF can

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contribute to grammatical accuracy in L2 writing. In fact, Sheen et al argue that this research is a challenge to the claim of some researchers such as Truscott (1996) who believe that grammar correction has no effect on the development of L2 writing. However, they noticed that little similar research exists in the literature. A better advantage for the indirect feedback was found in the study of Ferris et al. (2000, in Bitchener et al (2005)). The researchers have investigated the effects of different treatment conditions on both text revisions and new pieces of writing. Findings of the study revealed that direct error correction led to more correct revisions (88%) than indirect error feedback (77%). Over the course of the semester, however, it was noted that students who received indirect feedback reduced their rate of errors substantially more than those who received direct feedback.

A great deal of research has also been carried out on the most implicit type of feedback which is 'recast'. Lyster et al (1997) (one of the most cited study on feedback), identified seven different types of feedback during extensive classroom observation of French immersion classrooms. They found that the most used type of feedback was recast but that it was ineffective in inducing student-generating repair. The explicit types of feedback such as metalinguistic feedback led to student-generated repair more successfully and are thus able to initiate what the authors characterize as the negotiation of form. Lyster et al (ibid) also concluded that learners did not seem to perceive recasts as corrective feedback and that they went unnoticed. In fact, this is one type of FFI which has been considered as too implicit so as not to make forms salient and thus may not be learned (Loewen, 2002)

To summarize, as with explicit instruction of rules explicit feedback has also been found to be more effective than no feedback (Lightbown et al, 1990; white, 1991) and even better than implicit, indirect feedback (Ellis, R. et al, 2006; Sheen et al, 2009; Ferris et al, 2005). However, in one study this advantage has not been found durable (Harley, 1989). And Ferris et al (2000, in Bitchener et al, 2005) found that in the long term the indirect feedback has proven more effective.

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The following sections will be dealing with another type of FFI studies which concerns the effects of input saliency on learning.

1.6.2.2 Input-Based FFI Studies

A growing number of researches are concerned with saliency of input such as input enhancement, input flood and input processing. The most investigated ones are textual input enhancement and input processing. Some studies deal with each strategy in a separate way and some others compare between two or more strategies.

Input Enhancement

Studies investigating input enhancement FFI vary greatly in their findings. For example Jourdenais et al (1995) compared two groups of college Spanish students. One group was exposed to enhanced texts (highlighted verb forms) and the other group did not receive any enhanced text. Think-aloud protocols revealed that the enhanced group attended more frequently to Spanish verb forms than the non-enhanced group. Other positive effects of enhanced input are found in the study of Lee (2007). Lee compared groups exposed to enhanced texts with groups exposed to texts with familiar topics and then tested the students' ability to identify and correct English passive errors. The findings revealed that while enhancement did not aid comprehension nevertheless the enhanced input groups were significantly better at identifying and correcting errors. Always in relation with both learning forms and comprehension of the enhanced texts, Labrozzi (2016) found that one type of textual enhancement was better than others and that, contrary to what Lee found, comprehension was not hindered by enhancement, regardless of enhancement type. Jahan et al (2015) explored the impact of textual enhancement on EFL learners' noticing and grammatical awareness of expressing future plans and intentions. The study was conducted over five weeks with a pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test research design. The results revealed that exposure to textually enhanced input facilitated the development of metalinguistic knowledge of the 'be going to' construction, as well as the learners' controlled use of the construction 'will' for expressing future plans and intentions.

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However, Winke (2013), replicating the same design as Lee (2007) found totally different results: (1) enhancement did not significantly increase form correction gain scores, nor did enhancement significantly detract from comprehension. Thus, according to Winke, input enhancement had ‘no trade-off effect’. Leow (2001) also found a negative effect for enhancement: no significant benefits of written input enhancement over unenhanced written input for (1) the amount of reported noticing of Spanish formal imperatives, (2) readers' comprehension or (3) reader's intake. In fact, Lee et al (2008) carried out a meta-analysis in which they compared 16 studies on input enhancement. The results indicated that second language learners provided with enhancement-embedded texts barely outperformed those who were exposed to unenhanced texts with the same target forms flooded in them.

Thus, as far as input enhancement is concerned very different findings were obtained: While some studies found a positive effect of enhanced texts on learning (Jourdenais et al, 1995; Lee, 2007; Labrozi, 2016; Jahan, 2015) other studies found no difference in effects between enhanced and non-enhanced texts (Winke, 2013; Leow, 2001; Lee et al, 2008). Other input-based FFI studies involved input processing. These are discussed in the following section.

Input Processing

VanPatten et al (1993) compared traditional form-focused instruction and processing instruction. Traditional instruction involved explanation and output practice of a grammatical point. Processing instruction involved explanation and practice/experience processing input data. Pre-test and post-test measures involved both a sentence-level interpretation (comprehension) task and a sentence-level production task. Results revealed significant gains in both comprehension and production for subjects who experienced processing instruction. For those experiencing traditional instruction, significant gains were made in production only. Similarly, Van Patten et al (1996) investigated the effects of processing instruction on a group of intermediate-level students studying Spanish. Participants were divided into three groups. One received explicit explanation of rules, one received

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contextualized activities, and one received both explicit explanation of rules and contextualized practice activities. They found that those who received only explicit explanation of rules retained the fewest grammatical rules; the other two groups achieved significantly higher scores on post-treatment tests.

A conflicting result to the superiority of input processing to traditional grammar comes from the results of a study done by Pawlack (2007) who claimed that the results did not mirror those of VanPatten (e.g. 1993 and elsewhere), which indicate the unquestionable prevalence of Processing Instruction over traditional output practice. In Pawlack's study it was found that neither of the approaches proved to be more advantageous. In fact, the subjects in both groups appeared to benefit from the intervention, although the extent of improvement depended also on the learners' overall command of the target language as well as the type of tasks they were required to engage in. Pawlack (ibid) concluded that a combination of the two approaches, perception-oriented and production-based, constitutes the most advantageous solution to the problem of grammar instruction in the foreign language classroom.

Thus, it seems that conflicting results are obtained in studies which compared processing instruction with traditional teaching. VanPatten et al (1993) and VanPatten et al (1996) found a better advantage for the use of input processing while Pawlack (2007) found no difference between the two types of instruction.

Another trend of studies about FFI deals with saliency of output and its effect on learning. Some of these studies are referred to in the following section.

1.6.2.3 Output-Based FFI Studies

In this section, we review first studies that deal with the impact of output on learning and then studies which compare effectiveness of input- and output-based treatments separately and the effectiveness of their combination.

Output Noticing Effect

Among the studies that examined the effects of output on language learning and found relative positive effects are studies of Izumi et al (1999) and Izumi et al (2000)

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and Leiser (2008). Izumi et al (1999) attempted to test Swain's (1995) output hypothesis which stresses that the activity of producing the target language may, under certain circumstances, prompt L2 learners to recognize some of their linguistic problems and bring to their attention something they need to discover about their L2. Two research questions were posed: (a) Does output promote noticing of the linguistic form? and (b) Does output result in improved performance on the target form? In treatment phase 1, participants reconstructed a short passage after being exposed to it, followed by a second exposure to the same input material and a second reconstruction opportunity. In phase 2, participants wrote on given topics, followed by the presentation of a model written by a native speaker. Participants wrote a second time on the same topic. The control group was exposed to the same input materials but was not required to produce any output. The results showed that although phase 1 tasks resulted in noticing and immediate incorporation of the target form, the post-test performance failed to reveal their effects. In contrast, phase 2 tasks resulted in improvement on post-test 2. The researchers, then, concluded that their study provided partial support for the output noticing hypothesis suggesting that in order for output to lead to final intake, it would be necessary for the task not to place heavy cognitive demands on the learners when they engage in output activities.

In another study, Izumi et al (2000) also examined the noticing function of output (the activity of producing the target language that may prompt L2 learners to recognize their linguistic problems and bring relevant aspects of the L2 to their attention). Before completing (a) essay-writing tasks and (b) text reconstruction tasks, two groups of ESL learners received the same input containing numerous examples of the target form, the past hypothetical conditional in English. One group was given opportunities for output whereas the other group engaged in comprehension-based activities. Although the results indicate no unique effects of output, extended opportunities to produce output and receive relevant input were found to be crucial in improving learners' use of the grammatical structure. However, it is important to note that the researchers did not find that output always succeeded in drawing the learners' attention to the target form and this is due to both learner and linguistic factors. They

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invite further research to more precisely specify the noticing function of output and derive effective uses of output in L2 teaching.

Similarly, Leaser (2008) reported positive effects of pushed output to noticing and learning of the targeted forms. Following Swain's hypothesis which maintains that learners' pushed output promotes L2 development, Leaser examined the effects of learners' production (i.e., *pushed* output) during a multi-stage reconstruction task on learners' noticing of Spanish past tense morphology, aural text comprehension, and development of preterit/imperfect usage in writing. One group of learners (+output) listened to a series of passages and engaged in text reconstruction tasks. The other group (-output) listened to the same texts but answered multiple-choice comprehension questions instead of reconstructing the texts. Learners' notes during the listening phase of the tasks served as a noticing measure, and writing tasks were used as pre- and post-treatment measures. Results revealed that the plus output group (a) reported more noticing of words overall, but not of past tense forms; (b) comprehended more information from the text; and (c) showed evidence of past tense development in their writing.

Thus, while Izum et al (1999) and Izumi et al (2000) provide partial support for output, Leaser (2008) found better results for those who produce output than those who do not. But what is interesting in all these studies is that output has positively an effect on learning. Other studies compared effects of output to effects of input on learning as discussed in the coming section.

Effects of Output Versus Effects of Input Noticing

Some researchers have compared the effects between input-based FFI and output-based FFI. The most important comparative study with this regard is the meta-analysis study of Shintani et al (2013). The researchers compared 35 research studies which studied effects of input or output on both comprehension and production. Findings revealed (1) that, overall, both types of instruction were effective in developing receptive knowledge, but the input-based instruction proved more effective than the output-based instruction although its superiority was not clearly sustained

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over time, and (2) in the short term both instructions were similarly effective in developing learners' productive knowledge. But the output-based instruction led to more durable productive knowledge than input-based instruction. Shintani et al's main conclusion is that the results of their meta-analysis do not allow them to propose that instruction be based either on input or output alone. But noticing that course materials in language textbooks tend to emphasize input-based activities, they suggest that course designers and materials writers might give greater emphasis to the use of output-based practice in future.

An example of those comparative studies is the study of Benati (2001). Benati compared output-based FFI with input processing FFI and the yielded results were in favour of input processing FFI. Benati (ibid) investigated the possible effects of the two types of form-focused instruction on the acquisition of the Italian future tense. Processing instruction involved grammar explanation and comprehension practice directed at altering the way second language learners process input and make correct meaning-form connections. The output-based instructional treatment consisted in the explanation of grammar rules followed by written and oral practice which was directed at altering the way L2 learners produce the target language. Three tests were developed for this study and consisted of an aural interpretation task, a written completion text and an oral limited response production task. The results obtained in this research provide some evidence that processing instruction has positive effects on the acquisition of Italian verbal morphology than instruction of the output-based type. The superiority of input processing to output instruction and even to traditional grammar was found by Benati in a further study (2005). Following the same design, Erlam (2003a), however, found different results from a study in which he compared the relative effects of structured-input and output-based instruction on students' ability to comprehend and produce direct object pronouns in second language French. Students were assessed on listening comprehension, reading comprehension, written production, and oral production tasks. Overall, the results showed greater gains for the output-based instruction group

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In a different and particular design, Shegar et al(2013) instructed EFL adult students using a series of FFI strategies, including input, output and recast techniques, to measure effects on the learning and the spontaneous use of the 3rd person singular 's' morpheme and do/auxiliary/wh-questions. The researchers named the used design as the input-output mapping practice task which comprised a series of activities that are CR, production and recast. Results revealed that input-output mapping had a significant and lasting impact on the target structures. In another experiment, Izumi (2002) has shown that (a) learners who engaged in output-input activities outperformed those exposed to the same input for the sole purpose of comprehension in learning gains; (b) those who received only visual input enhancement failed to show measurable gains in learning, despite the documented positive impact of enhancement on the noticing of the target form items in the input. The advantage of combining input-based and output based FFI is also confirmed by Pawlack (2007) who claimed that data collected in two of his experiments clearly indicated that both output- and input-based approach affected the learners' performance both in terms of production and reception of targeted forms. This is in line with Shintani et al'(2013) s suggestion, in their meta-analysis, that a combination of input and output FFI has a better and durable effect.

To summarize, some studies found that both input-based and output-based instructions are equally effective with a durable effects for output-based instruction (Shintani et al, 2013). Some studies found that input-based instruction has a better effect (Benati, 2001; Benati, 2005). Other studies found a better effect for output-based instruction (Erlam, 2003a) and other studies found that there is a better effect when the two types of instructions are combined than when they are used solely (Izumi, 2002; Pawlack, 2007 & Shegar et al, 2013).

In the second part of this chapter, we discuss the importance of grammar instruction to writing accuracy enhancement. We present views which are in favour and those which are against grammar instruction and also some researchers' new proposed alternatives to teach grammar mainly in the light of the new FFI approach.

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Part Two

1.7 Effects of Grammar Teaching and Feedback on Writing Accuracy

In reviewing literature about grammar pedagogy and writing in SLA, we find scarce studies about the effect of grammar on writing except when it concerns the debate on typology of feedback to address written errors. In addition, most of theories and methods concerning writing development, which are mainly imported from L1 research, are remote as if the field of writing seems not to be affected by any theoretical or pedagogical revolutions that have occurred in the field of grammar. In fact, there has been a ‘divorce’ between writing and grammar caused by the famous report of Braddock et al in the 1963’s and since then grammar has lost favour. Not surprisingly then that literature is poor of research on the effect of FFI on L2 learners’ written production. Nevertheless some researchers are calling for the use of a more integrative grammar in the light of the new FFI approach. In what follows we review two important views on grammar instruction for and in writing. We especially focus on the transfer of learned grammatical knowledge to writing in terms of accuracy.

There are two important views concerning the teaching of grammar and writing improvement. The first discounts grammar as a tool of teaching because learners do not transfer the grammatical knowledge to writing or speaking. The second one favours the teaching of grammar as a means to develop writing. Those who are in favour of grammar instruction are split into those who stand by explicit, analytical grammar and those who stand by non-analytical grammar and favour other methods of grammar treatment for writing. Here we consider focus on grammar as being grammar instruction or grammar correction either in grammar course or in writing as well as content courses.

1.7.1 Studies Rejecting Grammar Teaching Effectiveness on Writing

All the disagreements against grammar teaching during the 1970’s were mainly due to the analysis of students’ errors in writing and which revealed significant

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shortfalls in the use of grammar. It was argued that though students cope well on discrete grammar tests, they fail to demonstrate grammar knowledge in writing with verb forms presenting a major difficulty as shown in Murrow (2004).

The big shift began in 1963 with the Braddock et al's report--a result of the research of Richard Braddock, Richard Lloyd-Jones, and Lowell Schoer- who claimed that formal grammar did not improve writing. Hillocks (1986, p. 10) explains that by "formal grammar" Braddock et al meant:

The traditional school grammar which identifies a noun as the name of a person, place, or thing and which requires the identification of several (usually eight) parts of speech, their functions in sentences, certain types of phrases and clauses, three kinds of sentences (simple, compound, and complex), and so forth

In fact, Braddock et al's report seemed to start a trend in the field of writing instruction research, being followed by the works of others like Neuleib (1977) and Kolln (1981) all of whom helped to swing the pendulum of grammar instruction to the left, away from the formal grammar.

These scholars, especially Braddock, had a direct effect on writing instruction: They spurred the switch from "product" writing to "process" writing. In other words, the focus in the writing classroom was no longer on the end product (i.e., the paper) but on the process by which the paper came to be. Barbier (1999 in Martinsen (2000, p.6) explains that grammar is a feature of product and the process approach emphasizes invention so "*grammar has no place in writing instruction*". Similarly, Kroll (1990, in Kim (2014)) argued that writing is basically a matter of arrangement, of fitting sentences and paragraphs into prescribed patterns. Thus this new perspective of writing led theorists to agree on the fact that focus on correctness was ineffective and studying grammar does not lead to improved writing (Hillocks, 1986).

Others claim that focus on accuracy causes stress to students who in turn will shorten and simplify their texts in order to avoid correction (Truscott, 1996). Elbow (1981, in Mayhill et al (2012, p.140)) argues even that "*nothing helps [student] writing so much as learning to ignore grammar*". Hillocks et al (1991, in Mulroy (2003,

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p.20)) also argued against teaching grammar saying that: “*Research over a period of nearly 90 years has consistently shown that the teaching of school grammar has a little or no effect on students.*”

Hillocks (1986) reviewed studies about the teaching of grammar and concluded that the studies do not provide any support for teaching grammar as a means of improving writing. Hillocks (1986, p.138), thus, argues that:

If schools insist upon teaching the identification of parts of speech, the parsing or diagramming of sentences, or other concepts of traditional grammar (as many still do), they cannot defend it as a means of improving the quality of writing

Several studies of those reported by Hillocks (ibid) examined the effects of teaching traditional school grammar as opposed to the effects of teaching no grammar: White (1965) with seventh-graders, Whitehead (1966) with high school students, Bowden (1979) with sixth-graders, and Sullivan (1969) with college students. All of them found no significant differences between the two treatments. Other researchers like Neuleib (1977) and Kolln (1981) reached the same conclusion. They respectively studied five and six research works on the relationship between the teaching of formal grammar and writing and concluded that there is no relationship between grammar instruction and correct grammar use in writing.

Mulroy (2003), though being against any exclusion of grammar, purports that studies showing that grammar instruction does not dramatically benefit writing are founded. One of these studies is that of Elley et al (1976). In this study, students were divided into three groups, one studying generative grammar, one studying traditional grammar and one studying no grammar. After three years, there was no significant difference among the three groups. Thus the researchers concluded that grammar had no effect on writing.

Frantzen’s (1995) study showed no greater effects of grammar instruction over non-grammar instruction on writing. Frantzen (ibid) compared two groups of Spanish students enrolled in a content course: one group was supplemented with grammar

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instruction and grammar correction, and the second was not. She used two written pre- and post-tests, one grammar-focused and one integrative (an essay). The results revealed that both groups exhibited improvement in accuracy over a semester on both instruments. The plus-grammar group outperformed the non-grammar group only on grammar-focused test and not on the integrative one. This indicates that a content course by itself without any focus on form (instruction or correction) can promote grammar accuracy in writing. In addition, the fact that the advantage enjoyed by the plus-grammar group on grammar-focused test did not appear on the integrative tests supports Krashen's (1982) claim that the grammar that is known consciously is not necessarily acquired (Frantzen, *ibid*). Supporting this view, Holden (1994) carried out a study comparing the effect of an approach that deemphasizes grammar (process approach) and another which relies on formal grammar and found that process approach to teaching writing, which deemphasizes formal grammar instruction, may be more effective in improving students' knowledge of grammar than formal grammar instruction.

Frantzen (*ibid*) also makes reference to two similar studies that came out with the same conclusion. These are the study of Edwards et al (1984) and of Lafayette et al (1985) which have shown that grammar instruction may not be necessary for improvement in language proficiency to occur. They proved that students could improve their grammar without grammar being taught and without receiving error correction feedback. In fact, the subjects in both studies performed as well or better than students enrolled in classes where the object was learning grammar by actually studying it.

As far as grammar correction is concerned, Truscott (1996, p.360) maintains that teachers should abandon it and focus more on extensive reading and writing because as he said:

Correction does not help students' accuracy, and may well damage it, simply abandoning correction will not have harmful effects on accuracy (or anything else) and might improve it. In other words, teachers can help students' accuracy at least as much by doing nothing as by correcting their grammar.

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Özbek (1995 in Murrow (2004)), however, though recognizing that students are unable to make use of grammar they know in composition courses, does not relate incorrect grammar in writing to grammar teaching itself but to the way grammar is taught. Similarly, Ferris (1999) argues that correcting errors is not harmful and that what makes grammar effective is the way it is corrected.

In the next section, we look at the counter arguments to the extreme view which considers grammar teaching and error correction as non-beneficial and detrimental to writing.

1.7.2 Studies Supporting Grammar Teaching Effectiveness on Writing

Ferris et al (2005) and Frodesen et al (2003) maintain that process-oriented pedagogies have greatly enhanced the outcomes of both L1 and L2 composition instruction. However, although students may perform well at idea generation, student's papers may nonetheless contain excessive grammatical inaccuracies. In addition, there is a high demand on high level of formal accuracy. Because of these realities, instructors need to help their students develop and improve their accuracy.

Both Ferris et al (2005) and Frodesen et al (2003) pointed out that before the advent of process-oriented instruction in ESL composition, there was an 'over focus' on language forms, so often, that feedback was notably unsuccessful in helping to reduce error frequency in subsequent student writing. However, as process-oriented practices, with their emphasis on student writers' ideas and individual writing processes, achieved widespread acceptance, some instructors swung to the opposite extreme, giving little or no attention to grammatical accuracy of students' final products. Frodesen et al (ibid) argue that this swing is due to Krashen's (1982) monitor model which stipulates that learning grammar rules does not necessarily translate into correct production of those forms in actual language use. They (Frodesen et al, ibid) maintain that even when a grammatical feature has been covered and practised,

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students may not use it accurately in their own writing. This is what mainly pushed instructors to question the value of grammar.

However, some L2 scholars (Eskey, 1983; Horowitz, 1986 in Ferris et al, (2005)) found that students' errors do not disappear as the sure result of a process view of writing and that their own students fail the course exit exam and the university's writing proficiency exam. Thus, instructors in the late 1980s and early 1990s began seeking better answers about techniques and strategies to help students improve the accuracy of their writing while working within a process-oriented paradigm. This led to carry out more research on the effects of error correction, grammar instruction, and strategy training on writing accuracy improvement. This new era began with Truscott's (1996) famous article '*The Case Against Grammar*' in which he argued that grammar instruction and error correction have no effect on writing. The appearance of Truscott's article led to a published debate in 1999 in the *Journal of Second Language Writing* between the two scholars Ferris and Truscott.

This debate has since spurred new research efforts that are still ongoing. Ferris et al (ibid) argue that even if the debate continues and that no conclusive research results are offered till now, teachers know that L2 student writers have gaps in grammar and that the resulting errors students make in their writing may seriously affect meaning and irritate the readers. Thus, students need help in improving the linguistic accuracy of their texts. Thus, there was mainly a call to a comeback to traditional grammar. Here we mean by traditional grammar both the teaching of grammar in isolation and error correction.

1.7.2.1 Studies Supporting Traditional Grammar as an Aid to Writing

There are scholars who still consider that to improve grammar accuracy in writing nothing more than grammar instruction and especially traditional grammar is more effective (McCarthy, 1995; Vavra, 1996; Kim, 2014). In fact, Mellon (2001 in Hadley (2007, p.242)) had issued a stern challenge to the Braddock's report, which

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condemns grammar effectiveness, calling it “*one part true and two parts false*”. Mellon (ibid. in Hadley (2007, p.3)) strongly criticized the Braddock statement’s wholesale dismissal of grammar study, saying that traditional grammar is “*a method of teaching that has worked . . . throughout the history of education*”.

Frodesen et al (2003) answered to Krashen’s statement that learning does not transfer to use by pointing out to the fact that those who adopted his noninterventionist position have underemphasized an important aspect of the monitor model: namely, that when learners have time they can apply the rules to their output. This is not true for speaking but holds true for writing.

Throughout literature most scholars defending traditional grammar evoke the non-validity of research that shows that grammar instruction is non-beneficial. Tomlinson (1994, p.20) was the first researcher who tried to show that grammar instruction has its place in the curriculum and that it enhances writing by showing that studies which concluded the reverse were flawed. He argues:

For many years now, opponents of grammar in the classroom have been able to shut down debate by saying that scientifically rigorous studies have repeatedly shown grammar teaching to have absolutely no effect on developing writing skills. They are mistaken. I am one of the few who actually search out and read the studies, as opposed to simply taking on board the conclusions, and so far I have not seen one that stands up to critical examination

Similarly, Vavra (1996) referred to research of the early 1970’s and notably to that of O’Hare and Mellon who made a claim that students learn grammar simply by writing and that more writing results in less error making. Vavra (ibid) rejects this claim on the basis that the research is not valid and that the researchers themselves did not believe in their findings as they made it obvious in one of their writings. Moreover, no research study has shown that more writing will automatically overcome grammatical problems (Vavra, ibid).

One of the most frequently cited studies which show the benefits of the traditional grammar is the one of Bateman et al (1966). The investigators developed a method based on the generative approach of Chomsky (1965, in Bateman et al

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(1966)) in order to teach the process of sentence formation in relation to writing. In their study, they used an experimental and a control group. The experimental group was taught generative grammar and the control group studied no formal grammar. The researchers reported that the students in the experimental group did increase the proportion of well-formed sentences they wrote; they did write increasingly more complex sentences, and they did so without sacrificing grammaticality. The study is very often referred to in literature. In fact, it is an exemplary study both for its time of duration (2 years) and quantity of writing analyzed (first six and last six compositions of every student). Bateman et al (ibid) reported that the improvement in writing of the experimental group was statistically significant in all three areas under investigation: quality of sentences written, complexity of sentences and decrease in errors. They concluded that the persistent tendency of researchers to conclude that knowledge of grammar has no significant effect on writing should certainly be re-examined.

Kolln (1981, p.4) objected to Braddock (ibid) and blamed him for the harmful effect that his report has had on today's students by saying:

That famous statement [of Braddock] has probably had a more harmful effect on our students these past . . . years than all the time spent memorizing rules and diagramming sentences ever had

Claiming that even at the time of Hartwell's article, there was serious opposition to the anti-grammar position. But nowadays, as we also felt in reviewing the literature, '*the matter of grammar seems to have settled and the debate is over*' (Kolln, 1981, p.5).

In the same vein, Williams (2012, p.280) defends grammar and considers it as the first building block to writing arguing that:

Many people resist the conclusion that grammar instruction fails to improve writing because it seems to fly in the face of common sense...Common sense, tells us that writing instruction should follow a ... bottom-up approach, with grammar being the building block for sentences and paragraphs, just as the alphabet is the building block for words and reading

Mc Cleary (1995) argued that grammar teaching is making a comeback in the composition classroom. This comeback is due to the redefinition of 'grammar'.

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Mellon (in Hadley (2007) claimed that grammar in the past was seen just as avoidance of errors and that seeing it as more than error avoidance would allow us to have a more useful view of grammar. This useful grammar has been underlined in some major publications from the 1990's on, namely: *Grammar and the Teaching of Writing* (R. Noguchi, 1991), *The Place of Grammar in Writing Instruction* (R. Hunter & S. Wallace, eds., 1995), *Image Grammar: Using Grammatical Structures to Teach Writing* (H. Noden, 1999), *The War Against Grammar* (D. Mulroy, 2003), and *English Grammar for Writing* (M. Honegger, 2005) as mentioned by Hadley (ibid) and we can add *Image Grammar: Teaching Grammar as part of writing process* (H. Noden, 2011).

This focus on grammar within writing reflects a belief that grammar has a role to play in composition and that working on grammar does not sacrifice meaning (Mc Clearly, ibid). Barton (1989, p.56) also claims that working with grammar does not mean sacrificing literature because “*Shakespeare and Dickens and Jane Austen seemed to cope with being taught grammar and still be creative*”. Barton (1999) proposed that learners should first know the fundamentals of grammar at different levels-text, sentence, word and punctuation- and then examine how grammar is used to create texts.

Einarson (1999, p.1) asserted that formal grammar knowledge is essential for writing because awareness of language leads to improved writing but rejects the error-based grammar as he explains:

There are in the second half of the twentieth century, two competing views of the subject known as "grammar." In one view, which could be termed the "errors-based view of grammar," grammar is synonymous with rules for correct writing. It is rules to follow and errors to avoid. However, this is an extremely limited and prescriptive idea of grammar. It is also the cause of much of the collapse of grammar among students and teachers. In the more holistic view, grammar is seen as the study of language ...to look for the underlying principles and patterns that make language work. But grammar today has become overshadowed by the "errors-based view" that we find now in almost every handbook.

In the view of Einarson (ibid) errors should be tolerated on the ground that writing is a skill that is beyond grammatical correctness.

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However, some scholars persist in considering that grammar accuracy is important and that grammatical errors are seen today as harmfully affecting writing. Janopoulos (1992, in Hadley (2007)) discovered that even though errors occurring at the sentence level may not necessarily affect overall comprehension within an extended piece of discourse, such errors can result in irritation because the reader's expectations are not met. Moreover, errors influence to a great extent judgment about writing quality than fluency or syntactic complexity (which turned to be more important in writing at a given time) because "*it is relatively easier to spot surface or mechanical errors in writing than to analyze deeper issues of complicated syntax*" (Huot, 1990 in Hadley (2007, p.8)). In fact, despite of the strong reaction in the 20th century against the heavy emphasis on grammatical correctness in writing "*the enforcement of standards of mechanical correctness is not . . . a tradition that can—or should—die out of composition instruction. . . .*" as Connor (1985, in Hadley (2007, p.30)) argued. Similarly, Raims (1985) and Eskey (1983) (both cited in Kim, 2014) argued for formal instruction of grammar first because neglecting focus on accuracy can result in non-acceptable academic writing, and second because accuracy cannot be gained only when focus is on fluency. Manley et al (1987) found that the majority of university students studying French perceived explicit grammar as valuable in learning to write better composition

Perhaps the debate on accuracy and reaction to errors is most heated between the two scholars Truscott (1996) and Ferris (1999) who keep counter reacting to each other in their different articles. Ferris (1999) presents counter arguments to those presented by Truscott and others who believe that correction is harmful, and encourages teachers to attend to their students' errors and use effective ways to correct them. First, while she agrees on the fact that poorly done error correction will not help student writers and may even mislead them, she affirms that error correction which is selective, prioritized, and clear does help at least some student writers. Thus, the debate is not whether to provide correction or not but which errors to correct and how. Second, Ferris pointed to the argument presented by Truscott in his review of previous studies on error correction by showing to a serious flaw which consists in the

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fact that the author has overstated findings that support his thesis and understated those which counter it. In fact, FFI approach proposes different strategies as to which errors teachers should react and in which way (Ellis, R. 2002; Spada et al, 2008).

Fathman et al (1990) studied revised products of their ESL writers and discovered that when the students rewrite their papers with content feedback only, they tended to make more grammatical errors even if their content improved. They also found that identification of errors have a greater effect on grammar accuracy improvement. Yim (1998, in Kim, 2014)) also found that students' language proficiency in writing improves significantly after grammar instruction.

Finally, one can admit that in spite of the pedagogical revolutions in the teaching of grammar the traditional grammar held sway for so long. We quote Hughes et al (1998, p.283) who, recognize some benefits for grammar and admit that they should not:

Throw the grammatical baby out with the bath water...there are good reasons why traditional pedagogic grammar has held sway...A sentence, particularly a written sentence, is a manageable thing .., it is amenable to rules of form and presentation....A sentence is also a manageable item in the classroom: Sentences can be written on the board, analysed and unpicked, rewritten, and commented on...Decontextualisation can be a benefit for attention or learning load. 7

Hughes (ibid), recognizes that traditional grammar lends an air of security for the teacher and a framework that fits more analytical learner and for these reasons it still survives as a teaching option and a learning strategy despite claims that it is not beneficial for improving writing.

So far we have reviewed two extreme opinions about grammar, one seeing that it has no effect on writing, the other seeing it as crucial to improve writing. In fact, Hartwell (1985) views that at the basis of the discussion of either side is the question 'what does educational research tell us?' about the grammar issue but not how to resolve the issue. In addition, the conclusions of the two sides are either about abandoning grammar or keep to it. A moderate opinion considers that grammar 'should be neither abandoned nor worshipped but appropriately placed within the

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discipline of English. But the question is, then, how do we do this?’ (Martinsen, 2000, p.14).

In what follows, we present arguments supporting new ways of grammar instruction as an aid to writing.

1.7.2.2 Studies Supporting New Ways of Grammar Instruction as an Aid To Writing

In this section we present arguments against the traditional practices of grammar and then present other arguments and research in support of non-traditional ways for dealing with it.

Weaknesses of the Traditional Grammar

Weaver (1996, p.17) argues that traditional grammar has little transfer to writing and claims that the main cause is the fact that

We have simply taken for granted that behaviouristic ideas that practice makes perfect and that skills practised in isolation will be learned that way and then applied as relevant

Widdodo (2006, p.123) argues that this view of grammar is shared by EFL teachers who despitefully continue to teach grammar in isolation from text and context. He says that:

Many teachers think that teaching of grammar separately is not favourable to learners since learners only learn the way language is constructed, and very often when they are given rules, the learners work well on such cases. However, when they write or speak, the learners make grammatical mistakes...Therefore, teachers of the context of EFL can benefit from learning some alternative approaches for teaching grammar so that they can integrate grammar...into other language skills...

Van-Zalingen (1998, in Martinsen, (2000)) notes that most teachers teach grammar rules, then make the students do exercises out of a grammar book, thinking and believing this to be an application of grammar to writing, contrary to what

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Widdodo (ibid) claimed above. De Beaugrande (1976 in Neuleib (1977) attacks rules learning and makes a claim against the traditional grammar textbooks saying that they teach neither grammar nor writing and that they are written by and for grammarians who find the concepts easy. Van-Zalingen (ibid) argues that this type of teaching is not enough and that teachers must take their instruction one step further and apply grammar to the students' writing by forcing students to take the rules of grammar and use them in their own writing. Van-Zelinger (ibid. in Martinsen (2000, p.125) recognizes that this is a hard task but as she claims:

Not only do we owe it to our students to put their interests first, but we also owe it to ourselves to accept the challenge of extending beyond our comfort zones in search of what is truly effective in improving our students' writing...[it] is easier simply to grade an exercise and leave it at that-and when those error-laden papers start rolling in, throw our arms up and exclaim that our students don't know how to write.

Vavra (1996) admits that there have been many studies speculating on why there is no link between grammar instruction and students' writing, but teachers blame the students. He claims that unless teachers help students overcome such difficulties they may as well "keep silent". Murrow (2004) carried out a research in which 54 written exercises of Japanese advanced students were error analyzed. As part of their assessment, the students were asked to write ten lines on a familiar topic. Analysis of students' errors revealed a wide range of grammatical errors of usage which handicapped the students from writing freely on a familiar topic. Murrow, not blaming students for that, suggests that it is teachers' role to provide class time to revise grammar that the students know and offer opportunities to use the rules for communication.

Similarly, Mclaughlin et al (1983 in Murrow (2004)) argue that if explicit grammar is not carried over into communicative reality, the effort is wasted. Thus grammar is an important component for developing communicative skills. However, teaching grammar separately is not effective and that it should be integrated within a skill. Dunn et al (2003, p.16) call for the teaching of grammar together with writing saying that 'many of us enjoy the study of grammar, but that in and of itself is simply

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not enough to justify it as a necessary part of English, particularly in the absence of any evidence that direct grammar instruction does anything to improve our students' literacy skills.' Neuleib et al (1987) claims that researchers need to define the term 'grammar' because 'formal grammar' means grammar without application and this kind of grammar might not transfer to writing. Neuleib et al (ibid) suggest that practice of forms improves usage whereas memorization of rules does not. Thus, recently there has been a tendency to move away from the traditional grammar practices to look for new effective ways to teach grammar.

Alternatives to Traditional Grammar

In recent years, some researchers stressed the need to focus on form (Long, 1991; Doughty et al, 1998; Ellis, R. 2002), but not in the 'old' or 'traditional' sense of decontextualized grammar (Frodesen, 2003). Frodesen (2003, p.148) claims that

Form-focused instruction remains an essential component in ESL writing curricular. Nonetheless, the themes that the literature has tended to focus on reflect a limited notion of the role that grammar can play in ESL composition, claiming that editing and error feedback are grammar instruction. A more comprehensive perspective would view grammar instruction as an opportunity to build writers' linguistic resources for academic literacy and to create understanding of the relationship between language form and written message

Frodesen et al (ibid) pointed to the importance of using tasks that raise students' attention to focus on form. In this vein, they propose text analysis and text production tasks to enable students notice grammatical forms (Rutherford et al, 1988) and focus on the gaps in their output (Swain, 1995). According to the authors, text analysis activities ask learners to notice how certain structures are used in extended discourse. For example, they might identify contexts in which writers use passive verbs. This noticing heightens students' awareness of language features for later productive tasks. Students can also notice language structures in the texts of their classmates in peer response activities. Students then might practise these structures productively. Productive practice can be in the form of a dictogloss (Swain, 1995), in which learners reconstruct an extended text that has been dictated to them. Productive tasks are

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important because they *'provide opportunities for students to transfer their newly gained knowledge in language output'* (Frodesen et al, 2003, p. 20).

Frodesen et al (ibid) also advocate the use of both reactive and proactive approaches in dealing with grammar. They note that generally writing instructors favour the reactive approach (react to errors as they arise in class) rather than proactive (predetermine the forms to focus on). Shaughnessy (1977, in Neuleib et al (ibid)), for example, developed a method which aims at helping students with writing by using grammar. This method has since been called error analysis. It suggests that students work only on the errors in their own writing and not on rules external to that writing. Shaughnessy offers an approach to error excluding formal grammar instruction, but including grammar at every step. In fact, this method is a reactive approach to errors (Ellis, R. 2002) in which teachers react to incidental errors that occur in a communicative activity by giving different types of feedback. However, Frodesen et al (ibid) maintain that the use of reactive approach only is insufficient to improve writing. The authors suggest that teachers should also include the proactive approach to grammar in planning the syllabus. For example, teachers may include lessons focused on particular verb tenses that they predict the students will need to work on. As the class progresses, reactive lessons may surface in answer to students' questions or in response to observed patterns of error in students' drafts.

Chin (2000) argues that research strongly suggests that it is more effective to teach punctuation, sentence variety, and usage in the context of writing than to approach the topic by teaching isolated skills. This improves students' command of grammar in writing. It is better also if students' writing is taken as a basis for the design of the grammatical lessons. Teachers should provide instruction on the grammatical elements that most affect their students' ability to write effectively. This process helps students make immediate applications and see the relevance of grammar to their own writing. Moreover, Chin (ibid) suggests that grammatical terminology should be incorporated within the revising, editing, proofreading processes. Teachers can help students understand and apply grammar purposefully to their own writing using

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strategies that integrate grammar and writing such as partnership writing and grammar mini-lessons.

Similarly, inspired by the new era of consciousness-raising, Celce-Murcia (1990) argues that in this era of focus on form in context (Rutherford et al, 1988), there is a call to incorporate grammatical consciousness-raising into communicative language teaching. Thus, there is a need to analyze vigorously the interaction of grammar and discourse, and then teach both discourse and grammar in appropriate ways to second-language learners. Celce-Murcia (1990) goes further claiming that we must teach all of English grammar at the discourse level in order to be able to teach students rules of grammar that will serve them when they read and write English for academic or communicative purposes. She maintains that only few rules are context-free such as subject-verb agreement. She argues that the majority of EFL teachers still conceive of grammar, and thus teach grammar, as a sentence-level phenomenon and that this state-of-affairs reflects a rather counterproductive view of grammar. Celce-Murcia (1990) argues also that most grammar textbooks reflect this notion of grammar as a sentence-level phenomenon. She (1990, p.149) maintains that:

If we teach grammar without reference to discourse, our students will fail to acquire the discourse competence so vital for developing effective reading and writing skills. Conversely, if we teach discourse (i.e., meanings and functions) without reference to grammar, our learners will ... write logically organized and coherent texts but with such a high number of morphosyntactic errors that [they become] difficult, if not impossible, to read and understand

To show the context-boundedness of grammar, Celce-Murcia (ibid) mentioned a discourse-based study carried out by Williams (1988) on the constructions exhibiting indirect object alternation such as the following:

Peter gave the book to Alice.

Peter gave Alice the book.

The researcher concluded that indirect object alternation is determined at the discourse level by the relative degree of 'given' or 'new' information in the two object

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constituents. The more established or 'given' constituent tends to occur directly after the verb while the constituent expressing newer (or emphatic) information tends to occur later as the second object (i.e., as a direct object or the object of a preposition). Then, it is suggested that teachers should work towards an interactive model of grammar and discourse, one that demonstrates the necessity and importance of both levels of language to the language learning process and to the attainment of communicative competence. Tomlin (1994) also argues that pedagogical grammar should take into account discourse when teaching grammar. She observed that many learners gain a high degree of facility in manipulating linguistic forms but cannot determine when it is most appropriate to use one form over its alternatives. A phenomenon also observed by Williams (2012) who maintains that most students' errors are not due to 'bad' grammar but to 'bad' usage as a result of the way grammar is taught. He suggests more indirect approaches to teach grammar in discourse such as using reading activities. He (2012, p.290) maintains that:

Discussions of reading inevitably involve questions of meaning as students and teacher explore what a given author means in a text...and questions of "what" lead naturally to questions of "how," which is where issues of structure and usage come in. This strategy can be enhanced, at any grade level, when teachers read aloud to their students and make comments that focus student attention on a particular word or phrase. This indirect approach to grammar usage reinforces concepts in ways that direct instruction cannot.

Hinkel (2013), in his turn, suggests a different alternative practice and which consists in prioritizing the grammatical items to teach in relation with their relevance to academic writing. Hinkel (ibid) maintains that the objective in teaching grammar is mostly to prepare students for academic writing and hence teachers should prioritize the type of grammatical structures directly relevant to academic text. This selection is useful mainly because some of the structures that appear in the handbooks have almost completely disappeared from use in Standard American and Standard British English. For example, past perfect progressive or the future perfect passive (e.g., The car will have been washed by 3 o'clock) is hardly ever found in today's English, and the teaching of noun clauses as sentence subjects (e.g., That she called today is very important) is not the best use of class time. Hinkel (ibid) mentioned some studies

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(e.g., Hinkel, 2002; Shaw et al, 1998) which found that L2 writers often employ informal language features in formal and academic contexts. In addition, learners do not develop register differentiation skills. Thus, as Hinkel (2013, p.4) put it

Teaching the whole gamut of English grammar when a great deal of it is patently useless to students may be one reason that explicit grammar teaching is often seen as a tedious exercise. For example, English simple past and present tenses are required in both speaking and writing. Most written text requires gerunds, infinitives, the passive voice in the simple or progressive tenses, or adjective clauses. In light of the fact that all class time is limited, prioritizing grammar structures to teach is one of the fundamental steps in all course design. ...teachers [need to] identify the grammar constructions that must be taught and those that can be simply skipped in the interests of time and teaching effectiveness.

In addition, Hinkel (ibid) maintains that grammar for writing cannot take place in isolation from the lexical and discourse features of text: e.g., the verb tenses in academic prose are determined by the type of context in which they are used. So he proposes the types of structures that are required for different contexts. What follows is an example of one type structure (tense) that is relevant for some writing contexts.

This is what needs to be taught:

- *Contextual functions and uses of verb tenses in discourse*
- *The simple present tense and the simple past tense (for case studies and examples) and subject-verb agreement*

(Hinkel, 2013)

Hinkel explains that progressive tenses are very rare in academic prose and that their use may impart a somewhat conversational flavour to academic writing. In formal academic writing, simple present (and occasionally simple past) tenses can be much more effective and easier for students to use.

One kind of research which relates writing to practice of forms is the sentence-combining research which revealed significant results on methods that relied on practice with forms. Sentence-combining is a method of teaching grammar without explicit grammar instruction (Neuleib et al, 1987). It favours practising of forms as

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opposed to the learning of rules. Sentence-combining is a range of practical techniques for moving from existing sentences and elements of sentences to compound and complex sentences. An example is given by Andrews et al (2006). Two simple sentences like:

'The government is seeking more research evidence' and

'It thinks that such evidence will inform its policy-making'

can be combined in a number of ways:

a) with a connective:

'The government is seeking more research evidence as/because it thinks that such evidence...'

b) With a semi-colon:

'The government is seeking more research evidence; it thinks that such evidence ...'

c) Using subordination:

'Because the government thinks research evidence will inform its policy-making, it is seeking more such evidence.'

d) Embedding:

'The British government is seeking more and better research evidence as it thinks such evidence, if appropriately transformed, will inform its previously hit-and-miss, short-termist policy-making.'

(Andrews et al, 2006)

The embedding and sentence-combining processes can work in reverse, by simplifying complex, or ill-structured sentences. The main point that distinguishes sentence-combining and its associated techniques from traditional formal grammar teaching is that the former is practical: a technique used in specific situations. The latter is abstracted from practice and usage, formulated into rules, and then 'applied'.

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Andrews et al (ibid), however do not claim that teachers of writing may not need to know about formal grammar, but suggest that they need to draw on such knowledge in order to help learners make appropriate choices in the act of composing.

This method revealed that students progressed in writing, including surface structure and punctuation without any instruction except sentence-combining and essay writing. Hudson (2000, in Andrews et al (2006)) argues that sentence-combining exercises are more successful than traditional grammar activities because they are exercises in the production of language and more specifically in the production of written language. Andrews et al (ibid) reviewed most important studies dealing with the effect of grammar teaching and sentence-combining on accuracy and quality in written composition. Findings revealed first, that the teaching of syntax (as part of a traditional or transformational/generative approach to teaching grammar) appears to have no influence on either the accuracy or quality of written language development. Second, the teaching of sentence-combining appears to have a more positive effect on writing quality and accuracy.

May be the most outstanding research which studied the effects of embedded grammar instruction on writing improvement is the study of Mayhill et al (2012). The research is exemplary in that it is the first large-scale study (744 students in 31 schools in England), and it does not compare the effects of discrete grammar instruction on writing but investigates whether contextualized teaching of grammar within writing improves student outcomes in writing and in metalinguistic understanding. Two groups were used in this study: an intervention group (taught with integrative writing) and comparison group (not taught grammar). The statistical results indicate a positive effect for the intervention in terms of improvement in writing attainment. The mean outcome of the intervention group was 11.52 % which contrasts with a mean outcome of 6.41 for the comparison group. According to the researchers this represents the first robust statistical evidence for a beneficial impact of the teaching of grammar in students' writing attainment.

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In another study, Fearn et al (2007) compared traditional grammar instruction *for* writing and functional instruction *in* writing using high-school students. They used a five-week treatment using treatment and control groups. The control group was taught a traditional grammar that focuses on identification, description and definition (IDD). The treatment group was taught a functional grammar that featured what words do in sentences rather than what words are called and how they are named. For example, instead of defining the verb as being ‘a word that describes an action or state of being’, the teacher can lead the students to find out about the function of words in sentences as follows:

The investigator wrote the following sentence on the board: *A horse is running around the track* and asked the students ‘what is the verb’?

Student: “Running”

[The investigator then wrote another sentence on the board: *Our new running track is rubberized* and asked for the verb.]

Student: “Running”

Investigator: What kind of track is around the new football field?

Student: “rubberized”

[In order to get the students know the different words, the investigator carries on with more questions.]

Investigator: What people do on the track?

Student: kids run on it.

Investigator: that would make it a running track. So what kind of word is track’

Student: Noun

Investigator: So what kind of word describes that noun?

Student: “Running”

Investigator: What we call a word that does what “running” does in that sentence?

Student: An adjective

Investigator: So if “running” is an adjective what would be the verb?

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Student: it has to be 'is'

(Fearn et al, 2007)

Fearn et al (ibid) claim that function in the above example identifies verbs as they occur in sentences, not in lists. For example, 'Running' is an adjective in the sentence because it does what adjectives do. Students did not recognize verbs and adjectives because they depended on definitions.

Students then were asked to write sentences using verbs in different positions and each time they were required to extend sentences. A test including grammar application and writing followed treatment. The results revealed that students in treatment group demonstrated enhanced writing performance, while students in both groups (control and treatment) showed no difference in their grammatical knowledge in the testing situation. In other words, the grammar-driven writing instruction enhanced writing performance while traditional grammar teaching separate from writing instruction, did not influence writing performance. Fearn et al (2007, p.78) concluded that:

Grammar instruction influences writing performance when grammar and writing share one instructional context. The field of situated cognition rests on the proposition that the context in which something is learned is fundamental for its application...When grammar is taught and learned in a define-and identify context, that becomes the context in which the grammar can be applied. So we find students who can identify and define verbs but do not use verbs adroitly when they write because they did not learn verbs in sentence thinking and writing

More recently a more comprehensive study was carried out by Barrot (2014) who investigated the effect of FonF instruction on productive skills. Actually, it is very rare to encounter studies which relate FonF, per se, to writing performance. Some studies, however, may assume some forms of FonF (implicit/explicit) in their designs (such as planned corrective feedback in Kim, 2014), but these studies do not explicitly state if the intervention is of the FonF type or not. Barrot (ibid) investigated the use of two FonF types on both speaking and writing namely isolated and integrated FFI. To recall, isolated FonF occurs when attention to form is separate from meaning-based portion of the lesson (after or before a communicative activity). It is separate

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from traditional grammar because it draws learners' attention to form within a communicative-based practice. Integrated FonF occurs when attention to form is embedded within a communicative practice (e.g Ellis' incidental and planned FFI). Barrot's participants were 41 college students who were enrolled in an 18-week communicative course (meaning-based course). They were divided into a treatment group which was supplemented with FonF (integrated followed by isolated FonF instruction relying on techniques such rich input, structured input and noticing), and the control group which did not receive any FonF but was taught traditional grammar with the PPP model (FonFs). Though the study targeted both speaking and writing skills, we are more interested in findings about the effects of treatment on writing. In fact, the findings suggest that FonF (with its two types: implicit/explicit) significantly improved students' writing who outperformed those who received traditional grammar (FonFs) as an aid to their overall proficiency level in English. This study, thus, supports the current views that the FonF is a valuable alternative to TG and that its use leads students to improve their writing.

Another type of FFI that relates attention to language and writing is the collaborative writing. Although group and pair work are now used widely in the language classroom, getting students to compose in pairs is a fairly novel strategy (Storch, 2005). It is believed that collaborative writing activities encourage learners to focus their attention on language and to collaborate in the resolution of their language-related problems in ways that facilitate learning (Dobao, 2014). Collaborative writing tasks are tasks, such as dictogloss, jigsaw, text reconstruction, and composition tasks, in which learners are required to work together and produce one jointly written text (Swain, 2001). The joint authorship and shared responsibility for the final written product is what encourages learners to talk about the language they are using and how best they use it. Some studies have analyzed the potential benefits of collaborative writing tasks by comparing collaborative and individual tasks. These studies (Storch, 2005), have shown that learners writing in pairs or groups are able to make more correct decisions about the language to be used in their written texts than learners writing individually. As a result, collaboratively written texts tend to be linguistically

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more accurate than individually written texts (Storch, 2005; Nassaji et al, 2010; Dobao, 2012, 2014).

Storch (2005) for example, examined the effectiveness of collaborative pair work when students produced a written text either in pairs or individually. The results showed that the collaborative pair work led to many opportunities for exchanging ideas and peer feedback. The results also showed that students who produced the text collaboratively wrote shorter but grammatically more accurate and more complex texts in comparison to those who produced them individually. However, due to the short length of produced texts and the small sample the author calls for more research in this direction. Another study worthwhile mentioning is that of Dobao (2014) which examined the opportunities that a collaborative writing task completed in pairs and in small groups offers for attention to form (Spanish Past tense). One finding of this study indicates that both groups and pairs focused their attention on form relatively often, but learners working in groups of four focused their attention on past tense morphology more often than learners working in pairs, produced a significantly higher number of past tense and were also more successful at solving problems related to it. As a result, their texts were more accurate. Dobao (2014) concludes that collaborative writing involving groups provides enhanced opportunities for second language learning.

In spite of all the above arguments in favour of grammar instruction, there is still a fear that content might be sacrificed if there is a 'return' to focus on form (Frodesen et al, 2003). To counter argument the claim that focus on accuracy endangers fluency, Kim (2014) tried to prove the non-inhibiting effect of form-focused instructions in ESL writing. She was concerned with formal correction during the revising stage of the writing process. She used a case study to find out how ESL students would respond in two different rewriting situations: (a) when there is no explicit expectation for them to produce grammatically correct text, and (b) when this expectation was present. The protocol analysis and interviews with the participants showed that explicit direction to focus on grammar in revision did not lead the participants to concentrate on grammar and mechanics but they concentrated on

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building up their content and produce texts that are complex and rich in ideas. The study showed also that focus on grammar is still necessary for helping ESL students to improve writing. Kim (ibid) suggested that ESL teachers can provide both content and grammar instruction effectively by addressing grammatical errors in students' writing by using students' real writing samples as much as possible, by emphasizing both process and product in the syllabus and by providing students with certain grammar instruction right before the rewriting activity.

Thus, the views and the research which support the new ways of teaching grammar presented in this section highlight new strategies of grammar teaching that compensate for the traditional drill and practice. These new strategies consist mainly in teaching grammar within writing relying on discourse and functional grammar, using students' samples as a starting point for lessons, prioritizing structures, working on the errors that arise in students' writing, provide feedback before revising and editing processes and use collaborative writing. In fact, these strategies reflect well the principles of FFI with its two types implicit, integrated and explicit isolated treatments. There is also a call to draw students' attention to forms through text analysis (Celce-Murcia, 1990; Frodesen et al, 2003; Williams, 2012, Barrot, 2014), and productive practice such as collaborative writing ((Frodesen et al, 2003; Storck, 2005; Kim, 2014; Dobao, 2014).

This survey of literature (in the two parts of this chapter) shows that on one hand many scholars came to believe that what is learned cannot be applied and many studies have given support to such a belief proving, especially, that learning grammar does not transfer to writing. On the other hand, Braddock's report has discredited grammar altogether and subsequently made research on grammar *in* or *for* writing very scarce. But, in the new millennium, grammar is 'making a comeback' because its value is recognized. This is marked by the advent of FFI which stresses focus on form in meaningful context or tasks. However, very few of FFI studies have been concerned with the effect of FFI on writing. This study situates within this gap with the aim to bridge the gap between grammar and writing. In addition, most grammar-writing studies deal with the issue of teaching grammar in composition classes, but this

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study deals with writing primarily in grammar class. Moreover, most FFI studies are concerned with input alone or with output alone, but this study combines both input enhancement and output enhancement with the aim to enhance writing. There is thus justification for this study, which will bring an additional aspect to our knowledge of whether, and under what circumstances, the teaching of grammar can help to improve student writing specifically in terms of accuracy.

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Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology used to investigate the teaching approaches used by grammar teachers and which compares the effectiveness of the focus-on-forms and focus-on-form approaches in grammar learning and grammar application in writing. We present the research questions, the participants involved in the study, the various data collection tools we used, the procedure we followed in the study and the data analysis procedures. In the forthcoming section, we present the research questions of the study.

2.1 The Research Questions

Questions such as which method is best for teaching grammar and how to integrate grammar into a communicative approach remain at the heart of unresolved debates (Ellis, R. 2006). First, there are a number of controversial matters concerning the choice of teaching procedures. Numerous options exist in the literature ranging from teaching instructions which focus more on the target structures and the rules underlying them to instructions which take as their cornerstone the use of the structures in a meaningful context without explaining the rules. Nowadays, some teaching strategies are recommended such as the use of meaningful activities which are based on purposeful and interesting content, and discourse-based activities which incorporate discourse rather than separate sentences (Celce-Murcia, 2007). One model of instruction which seems to be very attractive in SLA literature is the focus-on-form (FonF) (Ellis, R. 2012), an approach to grammar teaching which is based on the focus on forms (grammatical structures) in a meaningful activity rather than on forms alone.

However, according to some researchers (Sheen, 2002; Pawlack, 2007) the focus-on-forms (FonFs) approach (based on a more traditional system and a sequential coverage of grammatical structures) still has its place and relevance. Thus, regarding the grammar instruction trends present in the literature and all the available

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options the teachers can choose from, we are wondering about what really happens in the classroom or what teaching practices teachers use. Borg (1999) claims that describing teachers' practices during formal instruction should complement research to provide a picture of what happens in the classroom with the aim to know what works best for learning. This leads us to look first at the teaching grammar practices in the English Department of UA2, and address the following first research question:

1. Do the teachers of grammar in the department of English use a focus-on-forms or a focus-on-form approach?

The aim of this research question is to identify the types of instructional strategies the teachers use in class. In particular, we would like to know if the teaching strategies are more traditional in nature and based on a FonFs approach, or rather based on a FonF approach which makes them less traditional. Identifying the type of teaching strategies used to teach the grammar unit is important, but what is more important is to know which of the type of strategies works best for learning grammar. This is what we try to investigate in our second research question.

Our second research question seeks to investigate the outcomes of the two types of teaching strategies (FonF & FonFs). In particular, we would like to know if implicit teaching approaches are more or less effective than explicit approaches in terms of grammatical knowledge gains (demonstrated through grammar-problem solving). This issue is based on the distinction between focus-on-form and focus-on-forms approaches to grammar instruction. According to Burgess et al (2002), focus on forms adopts the structuralist approach to language and the focus is on forms rather than on meaning, instruction is mainly based on a deductive approach of learning. Focus on form, in contrast, includes drawing the students' attention to grammatical forms in a communicative context, thus the instruction is more inductive. We would like to compare outcomes of the inductive (implicit) and deductive (explicit) instructions to find out whether learning grammar could be affected by the instructional approach or not. Thus, we address the following research question:

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2. Do focus-on-forms and focus-on-form approaches have different learning outcomes in terms of grammatical competence?

A number of studies (e.g., Shuman, 1991; Herron et al, 1992; Robinson, 1996; Patterson, 1999; Ehrenworth, 2003) have examined the effectiveness of the inductive and deductive instructions and they yielded divergent results. This led us to carry out our own research to have more insights about whether the traditional direct instruction method (presenting the structure, describing and exemplifying it, and giving rules for its use) results in different or similar gains (in terms of grammatical knowledge about the target structures) in comparison to the indirect, implicit instruction (usually consisting of communicative exposure to the target form). Our research would be more insightful if the gains in terms of knowledge are also extended to the appropriate and accurate use of the learned structures in writing.

In fact, our third research question seeks to find out whether a particular approach to teaching grammar enables students to use grammar appropriately and correctly in their written production. An effective approach should guarantee that what is learned is also used effectively in a product mode (speaking or writing); this is why we would like to know which method of grammar instruction leads to the use of the learned structures correctly and appropriately in writing. We are particularly interested in such an issue because we want to know why students make grammatical errors in writing despite being taught grammar. Would it be because there is no relationship between teaching formal grammar and writing competence? Such an issue as regards the relationship between grammar teaching and grammar application in writing motivated us to address the following question:

3. What effects do the focus-on-forms and focus-on-form approaches have on grammatical accuracy in writing?

Some studies (Tomlinson, 1994; Frantzen, 1995; Leow, 1996; VanPatten, 1996; VanPatten et al, 1993; Benati, 2005) demonstrate that focus on the grammatical features of the L2 is beneficial to developing the interlanguage of a learner and his language performance. However other research (Elley et al, 1976; Frantzen, 1995;

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Murrow, 2004) claims that there is no relationship between formal grammar instruction and performance on measures of writing production. Thus, this controversy led us to examine the outcomes of the FonF and FonFs approaches in terms of grammar application in writing. In fact, the FonFs instruction teaches grammar in isolation from discourse and the type of context in which it is used (Conrad, 2010; Cortazzi, 2007; Hinkel et al, 2002), whereas the FonF approach is discourse-based. Thus, it would be highly insightful to know the effects of the two approaches on the transfer of the gained grammatical knowledge to students' written product. So far, we discussed effects of either of the two approaches on grammatical knowledge gains and use of such knowledge in a communicative context (written production) in general, but we wonder about the effects of the two approaches as regards more particular structures would be.

Thus, our fourth and last research question looks at the relationship between the teaching approaches and the forms to be taught. The second and third questions are important when we consider learners' grammatical ability as a whole or from a top-down perspective; however, we wonder if we can make any generalisation to all separate aspects of grammar as addressed in the fourth question. This fourth issue is important for our research because we seek to find out if complex structures such as those related to verb forms are learned or are "not learnable" as argued by Krashen (1982) who suggests that grammar teaching should be limited to a few simple and portable rules such as 3rd person-s and past tense-ed that can be used to monitor output only. Thus, in the fourth question we look at whether a teaching approach is effective or not to teach particular structures. By 'effectiveness' we mean whether the forms are learned or not when taught with different teaching approaches. Such an issue led us to address the last question:

4. What effects do the focus-on-forms and the focus-on-form approaches have on learning specific verb forms in terms of grammatical competence and accurate use in writing?

Some research has shown that the implicit instruction works best for clear, simple structures and instruction in complex rules is counterproductive (Bialystock, 1979;

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Krashen, 1982; Green et al, 1992). However, other research has shown the opposite, i.e, complex rules are best taught with a direct explicit instruction (Robinson, 1996; Van De Boss et al, 2008). Thus, it seems that there is a relationship between the kind of rules to teach and the kind of instruction needed to be used in teaching specific rules. Thus, in our research we will attempt to get insights about which structures are best learned when taught with the implicit FonF instruction and which ones are best learned when taught with the explicit FonFs strategy.

2.2 Context of the Study

In what follows, we present the setting and the participants of the study.

2.2.1 Setting

The study was carried out in the department of English, UA2, in a period between the beginning of October 2016 to the beginning of March 2017. Eight out of sixteen First Year LMD classes of grammar have been selected for our research. Four classes of the Grammar course were selected for classroom observation with the aim to identify the teaching approaches used by the teachers, two classes of grammar were involved in the treatment which was based on the implicit FonF and two other classes were used as control groups which followed the traditional explicit FonFs instruction. The two groups following two different treatments were used so as to identify the effects the different teaching approaches could have on learning grammar.

2.2.2 Participants

The sample of the participants includes both first year students and teachers of grammar.

(a) Teachers

Seven teachers of first year grammar were involved in our research. They were handed out written questionnaires and were interviewed. Four of these teachers were observed when teaching grammar in class during 12 hours per class. We chose to

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observe four teachers out of seven because as argued by Cohen et al (2007, p.52) it is '*workable in practice*', i.e., it is more manageable to observe fewer classes.

(b) Students

When we carried out the study there were 500 new first year students in the Department. Out of this number, we randomly selected 400 new students distributed in 8 classes with each class including 50 students. We included 200 students in the treatment groups and 200 others in the observed groups. Thus, we included nearly half of the total number of the students for treatment and also for observation. Since we employed a quantitative study which uses statistics, such a large sample was needed to increase statistical significance and reliability of the findings. Borg and Gall (2000 in Cohen et al (2007)) suggest that experimental methodologies require a sample of no fewer than fifty cases in each group and that a survey research requires no fewer than 100. We should also point out that for the three tests preceding and following the treatments we retained about 160 cases instead of 200. These were those who performed on both pre- and post- tests. Those who were absent on either tests were excluded.

The instructed groups (200 students) were used as one experimental group (including 100 students of two classes) and one control group (including 100 students of two other classes). The two groups received instruction in grammar as follows: the experimental group was taught with an implicit inductive method (FonF), and the control group followed an explicit deductive method (FonFs). The 200 students of the observed classes were handed out questionnaires.

2.3 Data collection tools

To answer our research questions, we used multiple research instruments. To answer the first research question [RQ1] which seeks to find out about the grammar teaching approach(es) used by teachers, we used classroom observation to identify instructional strategies. Classroom observation was immediately followed by written

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questionnaires (for both teachers and students) and oral interviews (with teachers) for triangulation. To answer the following two research questions [RQ2, RQ3] which seek to investigate the effect of different teaching approaches on grammar learning (RQ2) and writing (RQ3), we used two instructional treatments preceded and followed by pre- and post-tests. The first treatment consists in the use of traditional focus on forms (FonFs) (a traditional method we as a teacher very often use in the Department) and the second is the use of the implicit focus on form type (FonF). We used three different treatments which concerned (1) present/past tenses, (2) future and (3) modals. To assess learning outcomes, the treatments were preceded and followed by written pre- and post-tests. The students of the observed classes were not involved in the tests because we could not know in advance if the other teachers were going to cover all the structures which were taught to our instructed groups, and on which our tests were based. To answer the fourth research question [RQ4] which seeks to investigate the effectiveness of the teaching approach as regards the particular grammatical structures, the students' errors on both grammar and writing measures were analysed to find out the structures (among the 40 ones which were taught) which were learned and those which were not and this under different conditions (FonFs and FonF instructions). The study was carried out during the semester in which verb forms (tenses and modals) were taught.

What follows is a detailed description of the research instruments that were employed in this study.

2.3.1 Classroom Observation Scheme (Appendix 1)

In order to identify the methodology used and the type of approach (FonF or FonFs) followed in teaching grammar at the department of English, a regular classroom observation was conducted with four grammar classes (3 hours per week during four weeks with each class). This data collection tool seeks to answer research question one [RQ1]. The choice of the number of classes to be observed is a matter of practical feasibility. Dornyei (2007) argues that classroom research is laborious and therefore researchers use a 'manageable' number of participants. According to

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Dornyei (ibid., p.127) “*a qualitative study requires relatively small number of respondents to yield...rich data to understand the phenomenon under focus*”.

Observation was carried out when the teachers covered the part of the programme which deals with the verb forms. This was done on purpose so as to make data more congruent with the data to be obtained from grammar ability tests on this same grammatical area. We used a highly structured observation scheme with concrete observation items based on different features of the deductive FonFs and inductive FonF teaching. It involves completing a 9-category observation scheme. Each category includes items which are classified using small letters (a, b, c,..etc). The nine categories are divided into 4 categories (from 1 to 4) which deal with features of teaching during the presentation stage and 5 others (from 5 to 9) are concerned with features of teaching during the practice stage. The four categories of the presentation stage are: 1) rule presentation, 2) contextualization of grammar presentation, 3) authenticity of materials in presentation and 4) focus of teaching. The other five categories which are related to the practice stage are: 1) meaningfulness of practice, 2) contextualization of activities, 3) authenticity of materials in practice, 4) classwork pattern and 5) focus of practice. Observation is one of the basic data sources because it provides direct information (Dornyei, 2007).

Our observation scheme is principally based on the characteristics of two grammar teaching approaches which have long been debated by specialists of the grammar teaching field. These are the deductive, more explicit and forms-focused (traditional grammar) and the inductive, more implicit and form-focused (current trend) instructions. Most researchers stand either by the former or the latter or by both of them. This is to say that our choice for using the two approaches as a source of inspiration for our categories is due to the popularity of such trends in the field of pedagogical grammar. In what follows is a description of our categories followed by a theoretical rationale on which they are developed. A scheme sheet is presented in appendix 1.

Since the nine categories of the observation scheme discussed above (see appendix 1 for more details) reflect the principles underlying two opposite methods of

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teaching then each category includes items which reflect both features of the traditional focus-on-forms and the implicit focus-on-form teaching options. Specifically, six dimensions of instruction were investigated and these are summed up in the table below:

Number	Dimensions investigated	categories in the observation scheme
(1)	Rule presentation (deductive or inductive)	Category 1
(2)	Contextualisation of grammar presentation and activities (sentence-based or text-based)	Categories 2 & 6
(3)	Authenticity of the materials (real or adapted language)	Categories 3 & 7
(4)	Meaningfulness of practice (mechanical or meaningful)	Category 5
(5)	Classwork patterns (individual or collaborative class work)	Category 8
(6)	Focus of teaching and practice (focus on grammatical forms or their communicative functions)	Categories 4 & 9

Table 2.1: Dimensions Investigated in the Observation Scheme

A rationale for these teaching features is given below:

Our observation scheme is based on the most frequently mentioned dimensions that characterise the deductive/explicit and the inductive/implicit methods of teaching and their variant models (Eisenstein, 1987; Ellis, N. 1994; Scott, 1999; Dekeyser, 1997; Norris et al, 2000, Erlam, 2003b). These features also relate to the theories of implicit and explicit learning. We should note that these features reflect different but related models. For example, some inductive methods do present rules (Erlam, 2003b), but some others (exclusively implicit instructions) exclude the use of grammatical terminology (Herron et al, 1992). Thus, our observation guide contains different aspects we observed in different varieties or models of both the deductive and

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the inductive instructions developed by researchers. In what follows we describe the categories in the light of theoretical and pedagogical distinctions between the deductive, explicit and inductive, implicit learning. We rationalize the 9 categories in relation to the previously mentioned six dimensions of teaching; namely, rule presentation, contextualization of grammar and activities, authenticity of materials, meaningfulness of the practice, the classwork patterns and the focus of teaching and practice.

(1) Rule Presentation

This teaching dimension is investigated through **category 1** referred to as ***Rule presentation***. It reflects the first and most important difference between the deductive and the inductive instructions which is the rule(s) presentation. **Item 1b**, reflects more the deductive teaching while sub-items **1a, 1c & 1d** reflect the inductive teaching. According to Thornbury (1999), in a deductive teaching rules are presented first. On the other hand, in an inductive teaching examples are first presented. It is claimed that giving the rules right from the beginning of the lesson is time-saving and prevents learners from making wrong hypotheses (Eisenstein, 1987). On the other hand, discovering the rules by the learners themselves is more efficient and develops learners' autonomy (Sharkey, 1995). Generally, proponents of the deductive instruction argue that adults are mature enough to work with rules (Richards et al, 2001). On the other hand, proponents of the inductive instruction claim that learners should not see rules as the ultimate goal of the lesson, so rules can be deemphasised, postponed or even excluded (Doughty et al, 1998).

(2) Contextualization of Grammar Presentation and Activities

This dimension is investigated through **category 2 & category 6** respectively referred to as ***Contextualization of grammar presentation*** and ***Contextualization of practice***. These two categories deal with the degree of contextualisation of the new structure when it is presented in the lesson (category 2) and also when it is practised (category 6). According to Norris et al (2000), what makes instruction less explicit is that learners focus on structures used in context (**items 2c, 6b, 6c & 6d**). This is the case

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in the inductive teaching where structures are presented and practised in a more meaningful language (text/discourse). On the contrary, in the deductive teaching, the new structures are presented and practised in one or separate sentences in which focus is on the structures and not on any context of its use (**items 2a, 2b & 6a**).

(3) Authenticity of Materials

This dimension is investigated through **category 3 & category 7** referring respectively to *Authenticity of materials in presentation* and *Authenticity of materials in practice*. These two categories deal with the authenticity of the materials used in class. Examples of authentic materials are newspapers, magazines, novels or audiovisuals which expose learners to native language. Authenticity refers to the “*real language and its use in its own community*” (Rogers et al, 1988, p. 41). Authenticity is not relevant to the traditional deductive teaching which relies heavily on adjusted, simplified materials of the textbooks (**items 3a, 3b, 7a & 7b**); but it is one important aspect in the inductive teaching in that it helps learners discover how language functions in a natural setting (**items 3c & 7c**). It is believed that abundant exposure to natural input in the classroom may result in acquisition (Krashen et al, 1983). However, as Richards (2001, p. 4) points out, the authentic materials contain difficult language and are ‘*culturally biased*’.

(4) Meaningfulness of Practice

This dimension is investigated through **category 5** referring to *Meaningfulness of practice*. This category seeks to find whether practice is provided in the form of mechanical exercises (**item 5A**) or in the form of meaningful activities (**item 5B**). In fact, the traditional deductive teaching relies much on mechanical drills. According to some researchers this is an economical and more organised way to cover many grammatical structures (Eisenstein, 1987). On the contrary, the inductive methods rely on meaningful interactive activities. Some researchers claim that in order to acquire the taught structures, the learners need to use the target language point meaningfully (Dekeyser, 1997). Contrariwise, if learners do not engage in a meaningful practice (conveying meaning through using language in communicative activities) their learned

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knowledge will become inert, i.e., not activated in spontaneous use (Whitehead, as cited in Larsen-Freeman (2014)).

(5) Classwork Patterns

This dimension is investigated through **category 8** referring to *Classwork pattern*. Classwork pattern is another differentiating factor between traditional deductive and inductive implicit teachings. What most characterizes the traditional teaching is the individual work (**item 8a**) in contrast with the collaborative (pair or group) work (**items 8b & 8c**) which is more a feature of a communicative teaching (Storck, 2007; Brandl, 2008). We mean by collaborative work the techniques used by the instructor for helping learners work effectively in groups (Jacobs et al, 2002). We do not consider any collaborative work that is not structured by the teacher. Individual and collaborative practices are rooted in the theories of autonomous learning and social learning. Autonomous learning requires learners to become independent of their teachers and become lifelong learners whereas social learning recognizes social interaction as an important factor which contributes to learning. The latter stresses the point that individuals learn more from their peers (Slavin, 1996).

(6) Focus of Teaching and Practice

This dimension is investigated through **category 4 & category 9** referring respectively to *Focus of teaching* and *Focus of practice*. **Category 4** deals with the role of the teachers and the way they try to help learners internalise the rules. In the deductive model, the teacher is the authority in the classroom. S/he enhances learning through explaining the rules using the grammatical terminology then directs the learners to apply the rules in exercises (**item 4a**). This model, though abundantly criticised, remains very often used. Some researchers indicate that metalinguistic information is suitable for mature adults (Eisenstein, 1987) and helps acquisition (Ellis, N. 2008). In the inductive model where learners discover the rules of grammar out of meaningful contexts, the teacher may avoid the use of metalanguage (Shaffer, 1989) (**item 4b**). One argument against metalinguistic analysis of language is that the use of grammatical terminology might be confusing for learners as it leads them to focus on

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the terminology rather than using the language properly (Robinson, 1996). **Category 9** is about the practice focus. It seeks to know if during the activities focus is on the grammatical structures on the expense of meaning and use (**item 9a**) or on the communicative functions of the structures (**item 9b**). This reflects the distinction made between Focus on Forms and Focus on Form. According to Burgess et al (2002), the structuralist approach to language adopts the Focus on Forms teaching where focus is on the grammatical forms in isolation. More communicative approaches to language, in contrast, adopt the Focus on Form teaching which draws learners' attention to grammatical forms while focus is on meaning.

As mentioned earlier the categories cover two stages according to a general teaching procedure: (1) rules presentation stage and (2) practice stage. In each stage, principles of the two methods (traditional FonFs and current FonF) are presented. The coding used in the scheme is based on a frequency count. We used a mark (a tick) each time an event occurred. For example, if an interactive activity was used in the class and on two occasions, we marked the activity twice. In addition, time allotted to each event was reported in order to know how much time was spent on each lesson event or step. The following is the content used in the observation scheme (including 9 categories) according to grammar presentation and grammar practice:

Stage one: Grammar Presentation

Category 1. Rule presentation

- a. The teacher presents the structure and explains the rule.
- b. The teacher provides rules without examples
- c. The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules
- d. The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules

Category 2. Contextualization of grammar presentation.

- a. The structure is presented in one sentence
- b. The structure is presented in more separate sentences

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- c. The structure is presented in text (discourse)

Category 3. Authenticity of materials in presentation

- a. Non-real materials are used
- b. Simplified (adapted) materials are used
- c. Real-life materials are used

Category 4. Focus of teaching

- a. The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology
- b. The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology

Stage two: Grammar Practice

Category 5. Meaningfulness of practice

A/ Mechanical drill exercises

- a. fill in the gaps
- b. multiple choice answers
- c. sentence completion
- d. Sentence transformation
- e. sentence matching
- f. substitution
- g. error identification and correction

B/Meaningful activities.

- a. Story telling

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- b. Story reconstruction in writing
- c. writing letters and exchanging them
- d. introducing oneself orally
- e. writing/talking about personal events
- f. using oral interviews
- g. using information-gap tasks

Category 6. Contextualization of activities

- a. Sentence level exercises
- b. Dialogues
- c. Paragraphs
- d. Two or more paragraph text

Category 7. Authenticity of materials in practice

- a. Non-authentic materials
- b. Simplified (adapted) materials
- c. Authentic materials

Category 8. Classwork pattern

- a. Individual practice
- b. Peer practice
- c. group practice

Category 9. Focus of practice

- a. Activities focus on the forms in decontextualized exercises
- b. Activities focus on content in meaningful activities

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In addition, each item is followed by an open-ended question (‘others’) to obtain more information.

2.3.2. Questionnaires

In addition to the use of classroom observation, we used two questionnaires which were administered to both grammar teachers and their students. We handed similar questionnaires to both teachers and students but the students’ questionnaire was more simplified in terms of the language used. We were induced to simplify the students’ questionnaire after piloting it. The piloting of the questionnaire revealed that some students had difficulty in understanding the wording of some items as compared to the teachers, for this we decided to add examples in some items to eliminate ambiguities encountered by students.

2.3.2.1 The Teachers’ Questionnaire (Appendix 2)

The questionnaires were administered to all teachers of grammar (including those whose classes were not observed) at the end of the study. The items of the questionnaires reflect the 9 categories of the observation scheme and probe the same six teaching dimensions investigated with classroom observation which are the characteristics of the two investigated methods (deductive & inductive) as discussed in the previous section. These six dimensions (as already mentioned) are presented in the following table:

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Number	Dimensions investigated	Items in the questionnaires
(1)	Rule presentation (deductive or inductive)	items 1 & 2 (part 1) and item 21 (part 3)
(2)	Contextualisation of grammar presentation and activities (sentence-based or text-based)	items 3&4 (part 1), items 12 &13 (part 2) and items 22& 26 (part 3)
(3)	Authenticity of materials (real or adapted language)	items 5, 6 (part 1), 14 & 15 (part 2) and item 23& 27 (part 3)
(4)	Meaningfulness of practice (mechanical or meaningful)	items 10 & 11 (part 2) and item 25 (part 3)
(5)	Classwork patterns (individual or collaborative class work)	items 16 & 17 (part 2) and item 28 (part 3)
(6)	Focus of teaching and practice (focus on grammatical forms or their communicative functions)	items 7 & 8 (part 1), items 18 & 19 (part 2) and item 24&29 (part 3)

Table 2.2: Dimensions Investigated in the Questionnaires

Thus, we hold the same rationale for both observation' and questionnaire's items. This rationale is presented in the previous section (section 2.4.1). What follows is the content and format of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire consists of 30 items: 29 items grouped into 3 parts and a last item (Item 30) is about respondents' additional comments. The first part deals with the teaching features during the presentation stage which is referred to as *How is grammar taught in class?* The second part deals with the teaching features of the practice stage referred to as *How is grammar practised in class?* The third part covers the same content as in part 1 & part 2 (teaching features of the presentation stage (of Part 1) & teaching features of the practice stage (of Part 2)). However, the questions

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in Part 3 of the questionnaire are formulated in a different way. This third part is used just to ensure consistency of responses.

The first part in the questionnaire contains 8 Likert scale questions (items from 1 to 8) investigating the way grammatical structures are presented, and one open question (question 9) about any additional comments. The second part contains 10 Likert scale questions (items from 10 to 19) investigating the way the new structures are practised in class, and one open question (question 20) for any additional comments. The third part consists of 9 questions (question 21 to question 29) which are used to check responses on Part 1 and Part 2 in order to obtain consistency of responses. Thus, though they are formulated in a different way from the items of Part 1 & Part 2, they cover the same content. In this third part, each question is about two dichotomous items given in Parts 1 & 2. For example, Question 21 in Part 3 investigates the way grammatical rules are presented in class and this is the aim of Items 1 & 2 in Part 1 (see Items in the Questionnaire in table 2.2). At the end of the questionnaire respondents are offered the possibility to add further comments (Question 30).

Four types of response options are used: **Likert Rating Scale** wherein participants are required to rate their responses in a frequency scale from always to never (Part 1 & 2), which is appropriate for our questions since teachers can use a mix up between the two researched methods (See appendix 2 & 3), **Order Ranking** in which participants are required to put in a frequency order pre-selected options (Part 3, Item 21), **Multiple Choice Questions** in which respondents have to choose one or more answers (Part 3, Items 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28 & 29) and **Open-Ended Questions** ('other' option & questions 9, 20, 30) which allow respondents to add more qualitative content which the researcher might not think of

To check the empirical validity of the questionnaires, we compared between the questionnaires' responses with responses to the same questions on an oral interview instrument (Appendix 4) used with the same population (teachers of grammar). To achieve concurrent validity, we administered the written questionnaires used with teachers to their students to compare between teachers' responses and students'

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responses. For reliability, we asked the same questions in a different part in a slightly altered form. This is the third part of the questionnaire which checks consistency of responses of the previous two parts as already explained.

2.3.2.2 The Students' Questionnaire (Appendix 3)

The students' questionnaires were handed out to the students in the four classes we observed. They were handed out similar questionnaires to those given to their teachers. However, and as mentioned in the previous section, some items were made simpler to students mainly by omitting some words/phrases which proved unclear for students during the piloting phase such as 'discourse' in item 14 and 'real- or unreal-life materials' in items 5, 6, 14 & 15. For example, item 14 in the Teachers' questionnaire contains the word 'discourse', but in the Students' questionnaire types of discourse are given and which are a) paragraphs & b) conversations. Another example is with item 15. Item 15 in Teachers' questionnaire includes the phrase 'real spoken/written English', but in Students' questionnaire the same item includes examples of materials based on real spoken/written English which are a) newspapers, b) magazines, c) novels & d) tapes and videos.

In addition, the wording of an item may differ in the two questionnaires because sometimes we address the teacher in Teachers' questionnaire and the student in the Students' questionnaire such as in items 9, 20 and all questions in Part 3. For example, in item 9 the students are asked about the way they are taught and the teachers about the way they teach.

Thus, except from these minor differences, the two questionnaires are the same in form and include the same type of information and hence we hold the same rationale for items/questions of both questionnaires.

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2.3.3 Follow-up Interviews with the Teachers of Grammar (Appendix 4)

In order to validate teachers' responses on the written questionnaires, we used a follow-up interview with all the first year grammar teachers (a number of 7 teachers) using the same questions. Thus the questions (a total of 9) bear on the six dimensions researched in this study (see table 2.1 and table 2.2) which are: 1) rule presentation, 2) contextualization of grammar presentation and activities, 3) authenticity of materials in presentation and practice, 4) focus of teaching and practice, 5) meaningfulness of practice, and 6) classwork pattern. Here we present what each question reflects:

Category	Question number
(1) Rule presentation (e.g deductively or inductively)	Q1
(2) Contextualization of grammar presentation (e.g sentences or text)	Q2
(3) Authenticity of materials in presentation (e.g authentic or unauthentic)	Q3
(4) Focus of teaching (e.g grammatical terminology or function of the structure)	Q4
(5) Meaningfulness of activities (e.g mechanical or meaningful)	Q5
(6) Contextualization of activities (e.g sentence-level or discourse-level)	Q6
(7) Authenticity of activities (e.g authentic or simplified)	Q7
(8) Classwork patterns (e.g individually or in groups)	Q8
(9) Focus of practice (e.g on the form or on meaning)	Q9

Table 2.3: Dimensions Investigated in the Interview

All the interview questions are open-ended questions which sought more qualitative data.

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2.3.4 Instructional Treatments (Appendixes 5 & 6)

The aim of this study is not only to get insights about grammar teaching practices, but its purpose is also to measure the effects of instruction on learning outcomes in terms of learned grammar and its use in writing [RQ2, RQ2 & RQ3]. We specifically aim at measuring the effects of both deductive focus on forms and inductive focus on form teaching on grammar learning and grammar use in writing. Towards this purpose, we used two teaching treatments with two groups (experimental & control). The experimental group (100 students) was taught with an inductive focus on form method and we refer to it as FonF group. The control group (100 students) was taught with a deductive FonFs method and we will refer to it as FonFs group.

2.3.4.1 Treatment Length

The treatment was used during a whole semester of the first year, four months (16 weeks). It took place during the normal grammar class. Each lesson was taught during 3 hours per week. Thus, the total number of hours taught for each group (FonF & FonFs groups) was 48 hours. The first semester was chosen because it dealt with the verb forms.

2.3.4.2 The Structures Which Were Taught

The two treatments were used to teach 40 functions of selected grammatical verb structures. We chose to work on verb forms first because they are part of an area that is considered to be the most confusing and difficult for FL students. This is reflected in the high number of errors used by students in this area as reported by many researchers (e.g., Murrow, 2004). In fact, it is our students' grammatical errors in writing which mainly motivated us to research classroom practices and measure their effect on grammar learning and its use in writing. All the functions selected (a total of 40 functions) were explicitly presented to the deductively taught group (as shown in Appendix 5). However, fewer functions (a total of 25 usages) were focused on during practice with the inductively taught group. The other functions were shown to them (FonF group) in highlighted characters (in bold) within texts but without any focus in practice. Limiting focus to a small number of functions to be taught to the FonF group

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allowed us devote class time to much practice and production. Our selection of a reduced list of the functions (25 functions out of 40) to be more focused on in practice (with the FonF group) is based on the prioritization of the most important, frequent and/or difficult structures. Such prioritization is based on our own experience of teaching these grammatical items.

The structures taught to the two groups are part of the official programme. These structures are presented as follows:

1. Present simple and present continuous
2. Present perfect and past simple
3. Past simple, past continuous and past perfect
4. Future with Will and going-to forms
5. Future continuous and future perfect
6. Modals of ability and possibility
7. Modals of advice and expectation
8. Modals of necessity and deduction

The distribution of these structures in terms of the 40 functions which were taught and number of weeks allotted to teach each of them is presented in appendix 5.

2.3.4.3 Treatment Procedure

We used two different methods of teaching: a deductive method with the FonFs group (control group) and an inductive one with the FonF group (experimental group). The FonFs group taught with the deductive method (with being given rules) was taught following the **PPP** (Present_Practise_Produce) model using the most commonly used grammar textbook in our Department: namely, *Advanced Grammar in Use* (Hewing, 1999). It is based on the presentation of rules of usage followed by sentence-level exercises. At the **Presentation stage**, students were given all the rules of usage for a single structure. At the **Practice stage**, they practised through sentence-

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based exercises (from *Advanced Grammar in Use*). The students practised with four exercises of the following types: fill in the gaps, completion, matching and error identification. At the **Production stage**, they were involved in limited production of sentences using the learned structures. The students in this group were free in choosing to work individually or in groups.

With the FonF group taught inductively (without being given rules), the procedure followed was **EEE** (Explore_Express_Explain) model and using a variety of communicative activities taken from different textbooks which focus on meaningful communication and these are: *Grammar Practice Activities* (Nunan, 1988), *Use of English: Grammar Practice Activities* (Jones, 1985) and *English Grammar for Communicative Exercises* (Devitis et al, 1989). We refer to communicative activities as being the activities which require students to use English and interact with others. For example, in Activity 2, Unit 1 (see Appendix 6) students were required to look at a picture and guess at what people were doing; the purpose was to make them use the present continuous. In another activity (Activity 2, Unit 2, Appendix 6), the students were required to act a dialogue about someone's diary of daily events; the purpose was to use the past simple with specific points of time. In addition to the use of the communicative activities, the FonF group was presented with many texts (at the Explore phase) which were taken from real materials in the internet such as the electronic press like the *Telegraph*, 2016 and the *Daily Mail*, 2016. These texts contain real materials written for the native speakers; the purpose in selecting such materials was to expose the students to authentic input.

The EEE model was used as follows: at the **Explore phase**, students were given three or more texts taken from pedagogic and real materials. The structures to be learned were highlighted. The students read the texts and answered some comprehension questions. At the **Express phase**, they practised the new forms in meaningful activities (see Appendix 6). The activities were designed to fit each individual structure. The activities involved the students in communicative interaction between and among students and engaged them in collaborative writing. The activities were mainly in the form of information-gap tasks which involved written exchange of

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genuine information (i.e., students exchanging true information about themselves). For example, in Activity 3, unit 1 students were required to write about their daily activities and then exchange their texts with partners who described their partners' habits orally. During practice, students were given implicit feedback in the form of recast in order to be faithful to the implicit nature of the teaching approach. The students then wrote paragraphs in groups. The paragraphs were read by the instructor who reformulated the flawed output concerning the focused structures in a correct form (recast). At the **Explain phase**, end of the lesson, students were required to write about what they mainly noticed and what they understood during the lesson. But again, no rule was explicitly mentioned by the instructor.

In the following table, we sum up the two teaching techniques used in the two treatments according to the following teaching aspects: teaching method, contextualisation, authenticity, students' work patterns (individual or group work) and teaching focus.

Teaching aspects	FonFs	FonF
Method	Rules are given by the teacher then used by the students in practice	Rules are inferred by the students from given texts, and they are not stated by the teacher
Practice and production	Practice with decontextualised exercises and limited production at the sentence level.	Practice with meaningful communicative activities such as acting out dialogues, describing pictures and producing written texts (paragraphs).

Table 2.4: Summary of FonFs and FonF Teaching Characteristics

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Materials	Pedagogic materials	Pedagogic and real-life materials taken from websites such as electronic press (e.g Daily Mail, Telegraph...etc)
Exercises	Sentence-based	Text-based
Learners' work pattern	Individual	Collaborative
Teaching focus	Focus on the structures in decontextualised exercises	Focus on structures in multiple texts (pedagogical or real) and meaningful activities (such as those requiring exchanging true personal information among students like in Activity 3, unit 1 in Appendix 6)

Table 2.4: Summary of FonFs and FonF Teaching Characteristics (Continued)

2.3.5 Test (Appendix 7)

Three Pre- and post- tests were designed to measure the testees' grammatical ability in using the appropriate structures according to the 40 functions taught. The pre- and post-tests have the same content. The students were given one hour and a half to complete each of the tests. The pre-tests were used to check the students' grammatical ability before treatment so as to compare their achievement before and after treatment in relation to the 40 structures which were taught during treatment. We mean by grammatical ability students' knowledge of linguistic forms and their use that is applied to linguistic and communicative purpose. Students apply their grammatical knowledge to *“answer questions, write illustrative examples, combine sentences, correct errors, and write paragraphs and so forth. To know a language [means] to be able to apply the rules. In this approach, knowledge of grammar [is] assessed by*

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having students apply the rules to language in some linguistic context” (Purpura, 2004, p. 2). In this study, grammatical ability is measured by having students select an appropriate form from several options on multiple-choice questions (in sentences and passages), recognize appropriate meanings of a form, identify and correct errors and write paragraphs.

2.3.5.1 Content of the Tests

As the number of the grammatical functions which were taught was large (40 functions), they could not all be included in one test. Thus, we divided the pre- and post-tests into three pre- and post-tests. The first dealt with the appropriate use of present and past simple tenses, the second dealt with the appropriate use of future, and the third dealt with the appropriate use of modals. Each pre-and post-test was administered prior to and after the teaching of the structures under focus. Here is the content of each pre- and post-test in terms of the structures covered:

Pre- and post-test 1: Present simple and present continuous

Present perfect and past simple

Past simple, past continuous and past perfect

Pre- and post-test 2: Future with ‘will’ and ‘going to’ forms

Future continuous and future perfect

Pre- and post-test 3: Modals of ability and possibility

Modals of advice and expectation

Modals of necessity and deduction

The three pre- and post-tests have the same components and format. Each test contains 32 items divided in six parts. In the following section a description of the six parts of the tests is presented.

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2.3.5.2 Components and Format of the Tests

In our research, knowledge of grammar was inferred from the ability to select an appropriate form from several options on multiple-choice questions, recognize appropriate meanings of a form, identify and correct errors and write paragraphs. Thus different abilities were targeted: recognition, judgement and production. Each test consists of six parts: Four parts on grammar knowledge and two parts on writing. Thus, the six parts are:

a. Grammar knowledge which contains four parts:

Part 1: the first part is a *multiple-choice recognition task*. Multiple-choice items are well suited for testing discrete items of grammatical knowledge. It consists of 10 sentences which contain a set of options. The testees are asked to choose the correct answer from the options given. In this part, test takers' ability of recognizing the correct use of verb forms is targeted.

Part 2: The second part is a multiple-choice recognition task in the form of passage or a dialogue. This item involves, the testees - in order to select the right answer- have to attend to the meaning of the text. The number of answers in this part is the same as in part 1.

Part 3: This part includes a *discrimination task*. This task presents examinees with language input along with response choices that contrast in some way. The examinee selects the response that is best expressed by the language input. This task is designed to check testees' recognition of verb meanings in discrete sentences. The testees have to fully understand the meanings of the verb forms to fulfil the task effectively. This part consists of 10 sentences with two paraphrase sentences. The students are asked to choose the appropriate paraphrase sentence.

Part 4: This part is a *grammatically-judgement task*. This kind of task is used as a means of measuring learners' internalized knowledge (Ellis, N. 1994). In this part, test takers are asked to identify what is wrong with the use of verb forms in 10 discrete sentences and correct mistakes. Not only test takers' ability of recognition and

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judgement of the right structures are addressed but also their capacity of reproduction is required in this task. Thus, students need to use their grammatical knowledge to analyse and then apply in the task.

b. Writing which contains two parts:

Part 5 and part 6 are about writing activities which are used to assess the use of the grammatical knowledge in writing. These parts were handed to the subjects by their teachers of writing in order to eliminate any bias. If written assignments were given by the grammar teacher, the students' attention might have been directed to the targeted forms which were required to be used; in this way the students' use of verb forms was tested in a situation that was not controlled.

Part 5: This part consists of two limited-production tasks. We used two tasks in order to elicit as many verb form functions as possible. One task is a text completion with verb forms, and the other task is a text writing (from given notes and given verb forms). The limited-production tasks are useful in getting the testees use the appropriate verb forms from limited options without having to guess about the options. In addition, by giving information and verb forms to be used we minimize the factor of avoidance: therefore, responses are scored objectively.

Part 6: This part consists of two extended-production tasks. In these tasks the topics chosen were suited to the use of some specific structures. This kind of task is particularly well suited for measuring the examinee's ability to use grammatical forms to convey meanings in instances of language use such as writing (Purpura, 2004).

The tests items are selected or adapted from different pedagogical grammar handbooks which are the following:

- (1) Understanding and Using English Grammar Workbook (Azar, B.T. &Azar, D.A.,1990)
- (2) Developing Grammar in Context (Nettle, M., 2002)
- (3) How English Works: A Grammar Handbook with Readings (Raims, A.,1998)

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(4) Fundamentals of English Grammar (Azar, B.T, 2000)

(5) Advanced Grammar in Use (Hewings, M., 1999)

(6) Exploring Grammar in Context (Carter & Hughes, 2000)

2.3.5.3 Scoring Procedure

Scoring the grammar ability tasks: The maximum score on the tests is 80. For the form and use of the structures in the recognition tasks (Part 1 & 2) one point is awarded to each correct answer, and no point for incorrect answers, for a total of 20 points for each of the two tasks (Part 1 & 2). If some items contain two questions, half a point is awarded for each correct answer in the same item. For the meaning recognition task (Part 3), two points are awarded for each correct answer, for a total of 20 points. For the judgement task (Part 4), the maximum score for each sentence is two points. One point is given for identifying the error and one point for correcting it. This part has 20 points in total.

Scoring the writing tasks: The maximum score on the writing tasks is 80 points. For the limited writing task, 2 points are awarded for each correct use of the verb form, for a total of 40 points (on 2 topics), i.e., each paragraph is scored out of 20 points. Concerning the free writing task, the students are required to write on two topics and production is limited to writing ten sentences on each topic (for easiness of correction & application of an analytic scoring). This task is awarded a total of 40 points (on 2 topics). Each topic is corrected out of 20 points on a scale of an analytic scoring used as follows:

1. Use of appropriate verb forms scored out of 5
2. Use of correct forms of the verbs scored out of 5
3. Use of correct sentences scored out of 5
4. Use of the kind of information required scored out of 5

We also used a letter grading system which ranges from A to F. This is a worldwide grading system used by many educational institutions in the United States public high schools. The following is one scale of the grading system most used in

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U.S high schools according to the High School Transcript Study, Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics (referenced in bibliography as *How is Grade Average Calculated? (2011)*)

Number Grade Conversion	
Numeric grade	Standard grade
90-100	A
80-89	B
70-79	C
60-69	D
Less than 60	F

Table 2.5: A grading Scale for Subjects' Scores Obtained on the Post-Test Treatments

We adopted such a scale to convert our numerical grades, which range from 1 to 160 (160 is the total score of grammar & writing tasks) into letter grades from A to F as follows:

1. A (Excellent): it represents a total score between 140-160 out of 160
2. B (very good): it represents a total score between 120-139 out of 160
3. C (good): it represents a total score between 100-119 out of 160
4. D: (average): it represents a total score between 80-99 out of 160
5. F: (below average): it represents a total score below 80 out of 160

The scores were analysed using the statistical software SPSS 23 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). We ran the following statistical analyses: the scores means and the standard deviation with the aim to conduct comparisons and search for means differences.

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2.3.6 The Analysis of Students' Grammatical Errors after Treatment

In order to answer the fourth research question which investigates whether different verb forms are learned differently or equally under different conditions (FonF or FonFs instruction), students' errors were analysed after treatment. We analysed the errors made in relation to the 40 functions which were covered in the treatment. Both grammar knowledge and writing tasks of the post-tests were used to analyse students' errors in order to get specific information about the learned grammar and the type of structures which were not correctly used. Errors are referred to by Richards (1984, p. 6) as developmental errors which *“reflect the learner's competence at a particular stage.... Their origins are found within the structure of English itself, and through reference to the strategy by which a second language is acquired and taught”*. In the same vein, Gass et al (2001) refer to errors as red flags which provide windows onto a system and give evidence of the state of a learner's knowledge of the L2. The focus on errors is with interest to pedagogical implications (Gass et al, *ibid*). Richards (1984) claims that learner's errors are significant because they inform about how far towards the goals the learner has progressed. In this study, we focused on students' errors in relation with the teaching strategies which were used to enable the students learn grammar. In other words, we are concerned with drawing a relationship between the students' competence (grammar knowledge and use) and the teaching strategies (FonF & FonFs) with the aim to discover whether the teaching method affects the learning of specific grammatical structures both in terms of knowledge and use.

To sum up, in order to answer our research questions we employed multiple data collection tools. To answer the first research question which aims at getting insights about grammar teaching practices in the department of English (UA2) a classroom observation using a highly structured scheme was carried out, followed by written questionnaires administered to both teachers (all first year grammar teachers) and students, and also interviews conducted with all first year grammar teachers. The three research tools (observation, questionnaire and interview) researched the same content knowledge. The research was also based on an intervention instruction concerning three grammatical areas. Each intervention was preceded and followed by

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tests and the post-tests were error analyzed. The intervention, the test, and analysis of errors were particularly used to answer the second, third and fourth research questions which tried to seek whether learning occurs after instruction [aim of RQ 2], whether the method matters for improving writing [aim of RQ 3] and whether the efficacy of a method is related to types of structures [aim of RQ 4].

2.4 Data Collection Procedure

As a starting point, we conducted the treatment at the beginning of October, 2016. We used treatment with our own four grammar classes. The treatment in the 40 functions lasted four months (16 weeks) with 3 weekly hours (without including the time of the pre- & post-tests). We administered the first pre-test about present and past tenses at the beginning of the treatment (first week of October), and then both FonF and FonFs groups were taught the structures under focus during six weeks (second week of October to third week of November). At the end of this period (by fourth week of November) a post-test followed. We followed the same procedure with the use of treatment with future and modal forms. Both treatments started with a pre-test and ended with a post-test and treatment lasted four weeks (from the fourth week of November to the second week of January) for the future forms and six weeks (from the third week of January to the first week of March) for the modals. The treatment ended by the beginning of March because of the winter break by mid-December. As far as the tests were concerned, the students were told that these were part of an on-going evaluation and in fact the results obtained on those tests were factored into the mid-term test grades of the students. In addition, students were not at all aware of this experimental study. This was done on purpose with the aim to increase their involvement. During the experiment, we were very strict about absences and we tried to comply with the Department's regulations which sanction class missing. Being made aware of that, students were very rigorous and very few of them were missing class. So we obtained around 40 regular students out of 50, which could have been less if we had not been controlling absences. Students' regular

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attendance was vital for the validity of the tests' results and actually we took into account only the scores of the regular students.

After correcting the post-test papers, we analysed them for the errors they contained to categorize and count the number of errors on each taught structure both in grammar knowledge tasks and in writing activities. Since there were four tasks that tested grammar knowledge and four tasks which tested such knowledge in writing we marked errors which were systematic. In our analysis we considered an error to be systematic when at least it occurred twice. For example, if a participant made an error with *present simple* only in one task but used it correctly in the other three tasks about grammar knowledge, so we did not consider it as an error. Same procedure was followed when categorizing and counting errors in writing activities.

While we were using treatment in four grammar classes during twice a week, we were also observing four other classes during the remaining days. We were observing each class for 3 hours weekly during one month. Thus, each class was observed four times. Next, both teachers and students of the observed classes were administered the written questionnaires. The teachers were given one week to complete the questionnaires and return them, and the students filled them out in class for one hour to increase responsiveness.

Finally, follow-up interviews were conducted with the observed teachers to have more qualitative data on the researched areas of the written questionnaires. We then used the same interview with all the other grammar teachers of grammar to have a more global view of what happens in grammar classes. All the teachers allowed us to record them during the interview, so integral interviews were transcribed.

In what follows, we describe the way the collected data were analysed.

2.5 Data Analysis Procedure

After collecting the data, different analysis procedures were used. First, data from classroom observation were both quantified and content analyzed. Since we observed

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four classes for four weeks, thus we quantified the number of times an event occurred (entered with using ticks onto the observation schemes) in relation with the different observation items during the four classroom sessions with each class. Then we summarized all data obtained from the observation of the four classes. The data obtained were content analyzed in relation with the teaching dimensions mentioned in section 2.4.1 (see section 3.1)

After collecting the questionnaires we summarized data by quantifying the number of teachers in relation to the use of each teaching aspect presented in the questionnaire. We also content analyzed responses obtained on open-ended questions. Then we summarized data with regard to the teaching dimensions mentioned in section 2.4.1 (see section 3.2)

Then, after recording and transcribing the interviews conducted with the seven teachers the data obtained were content analyzed according to the interview questions reflecting the 9 themes (which stand for the 9 categories of the observation scheme and also reflect the teaching dimensions presented in section 2.4.1). Then data were summarized according to the main themes which emerged from the interviewees' responses (see section 3.3)

The questionnaires of the students (180 questionnaires) belonging to the four observed classes were analysed. Data (in terms of frequency of events) were quantified using percentages and data obtained from open-ended questions were content analyzed. Then data were summarized according to the teaching dimensions referred to in section 2.4.1 (see section 3.4).

The SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) was used to quantitatively analyse the scores obtained on the pre- and post-tests. Scores means were run to measure the progress of each group after treatment (overall progress, progress in grammar and in writing) and to compare the two groups (FonF & FonFs groups) in terms of their scores on the post-test. The two groups were compared on the basis of their overall post-test scores and their scores in grammar and in writing. These

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statistical analyses were used after each post-test in the three grammatical areas, namely, the present/past simple, the future and the modal verb forms (see section 3.5).

Finally, students' post-tests papers were analysed for errors concerned with the appropriate use of the forms (40) in both grammar tasks and writing tasks. Percentages were used with errors made with each of the 40 functions taught in treatment. Then, data were summarized in terms of effectiveness of the two approaches (FonF & FonFs) on the learning of the 40 structures both in knowledge and use (see section 3.6). In addition, during data analysis some interesting data emerged, but were not anticipated in the research questions. These were related to errors of form (spelling) related to the structures which were taught in treatment. Thus, these errors were analyzed in relation to their frequent occurrence in the post-tests tasks of both FonFs and FonF groups.

2.6 Pilot Study

Pilot studies refer to pre-testing of particular research instruments (Polite,2000et al cited in Teijlingen Van et al (2001)). The advantage of using a pilot study is that it might warn the researcher about whether the proposed instruments are complicated or inappropriate (Teijlingen Van et al, 2001). Unfortunately, pilot studies details are not reported in the literature and if reported, researchers comment that “*they had learnt from the pilot study and made necessary changes without offering the reader details about what exactly was learnt.*” (Teijlingen Van et al, 2001, p. 3). Such details may help other researchers undertaking the same kind of research to avoid mistakes and obstacles of previous researches.

Piloting has always been used to try out the tests, the questionnaires and the oral interviews with the aim to check the clarity of the items, instructions and layout and eliminate ambiguities or difficulties in wording, to correct typing mistakes and omissions, and to check the time taken for answering. Thus, we used a pilot study before undertaking the main study to pre-test our research tools in order to make necessary changes or refine them. The tests, the interviews, the questionnaires and the

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observation scheme were piloted as follows: two teachers were handed out questionnaires and were then interviewed. Their classes were also observed once and their students were handed out questionnaires as well. Some of the first year students of grammar classes whom I personally taught undertook the three tests. After piloting our instruments we were compelled to make some necessary changes:

After piloting the pre- and post-tests, we were induced to change the wording of some items, to correct mistakes and omissions, to eliminate ambiguities and even change the format of some tasks. The most important changes we brought to the tests from minor to major ones are mentioned below.

1. Insertion of the symbols for marking the correct options such as the symbol (✓) before the verb 'tick'. This has been done because some students did not understand the meaning of the verb 'tick'.
2. Replace some options which can have two correct answers. This anomaly is mainly due to the fact that some items were adapted and transformed according to our tests' requirements. For example, both past simple and past continuous are possible in some examples. Thus one tense was eliminated from the list of the options.
3. Reduce the number of the options for the sake of a perfect scoring. For example, if the score of an item is out of 10, we need to have ten answers to correct or any number that can be calculated out of ten.
4. Reduce the number of options in the paragraphs because those which are overwhelmed with options were found very confusing by students. Some students either abandoned answering or missed some questions. So overloaded items were made easier to answer.
5. Reformulating some instructions by making them more specific mainly with writing activities. For example, in limited-production of writing activities, it was specified that only given information was to be used in the paragraphs.
6. The format of some of the limited-production writing activities was also made more salient for students. An example about writing a sentence from given information to write a dialogue follows:

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'Peter thinks that Mary will love the present' is changed into *'Suzan: Mary/ to love/ the present/'*(see appendix7)

This has been done in order to obtain the same required verbs and tenses. In addition, the format is less confusing. The new format was tried out and the result was that the activity was completed by students without any issues raised.

7. Another encountered issue concerned the scoring of free writing activities. Some students wrote very long paragraphs and some others wrote very short ones. This did not allow us to evaluate different paragraphs in length on the same basis. Thus in order to maximize objectivity in scoring, we have required students to write a fixed number of sentences on the other paragraphs. The number of sentences the students were required to write was ten. The scoring of ten-sentence paragraphs was considered much easier, fair and objective.
8. One criterion among the four criteria chosen for correction in written production has been changed. Thus, instead of having subject-verb agreement as one main criterion in the scoring scheme, we have chosen a more general criterion which is sentence correctness in terms of the order of its constituents and agreement among them. This criterion seems relevant because the grammatical structures are presented in well-formed sentences so we expect students to write correct sentences even if the aim in class is particularly the teaching of individual structures (verb forms).

Piloting the questionnaires and interviews with two teachers revealed that the questions were well understood and relevant to their teaching practices. The questions of the interview are so direct that teachers answered in much less time than expected. The interviewed teachers were also asked to give us feedback about the questions of both interviews and questionnaires and were welcomed to recommend any better wording so that questions become clearer and well understood. We were informed by those teachers that questions were direct and very easy to answer.

However, the questionnaire administered to students needed adjustments. We have observed some students when filling in the questionnaires and noticed that they were stuck on the term 'real' in 'real materials' and 'real English'. Thus, we decided to

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omit this word from the questionnaire and paraphrase it so that it becomes unambiguous. Thus instead of saying the following:

‘The examples are not taken from real materials (like newspapers, magazines, audiovisuals)’

We have chosen the following paraphrase:

‘The teacher brings examples from newspapers, magazines, ...etc, and makes you listen to conversations of native speakers and/or watch videos of native speakers.’

We have also decided to retrieve the word ‘web’ from the questionnaire because students consider any material taken from the internet as real material. In fact, materials of the web are not necessarily real or authentic. We can find many pedagogical exercises on the net.

We have also noticed that some students had difficulty in understanding what they were required to do on Question 21 (part 3) of the questionnaire; thus, we have decided to change its format. Thus, instead of having students circle the right order of grammar teaching stages, it was better to make them circle the most frequent tasks and rank them in a table to indicate the order. In what follows, we show the previous and old formats of Question 21.

Old format

Part 3: Please circle the right option. One answer should be given. In which order are you taught grammar?

- a. 1/the teacher gives the rule2/then gives examples about the grammar point3/then students apply the rule in the exercises.
- b. 1.the teacher gives examples about the grammar point2/then the students analyse the examples 3/then the students give the rules
- c. 1/the teacher gives practice2/then the students use the new grammar point in activities3/then the teacher gives the rule

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- d. The teacher gives examples about the grammar point with never giving the rules/then students practice.

New format

21./Look at the following tasks and select the ones that occur most often in your class. Then rank the three most outstanding tasks into order of frequency using the table beside.

- A./ The teacher presents rules without examples
B./ The teacher gives examples about the new grammar structure and gives the rules
C./ The teacher presents examples but never gives rules
D./ The students analyse examples and infer (give) the rules
E./ Students apply the rules in exercises
F./ The students produce (speak and/or write)

Order	Task symbols
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

The pilot study was extremely beneficial in repairing technical deficiencies of the research tools and in getting insights about the expected outcomes. It was also important because it enabled us to more carefully plan our research procedure and direct our attention to other types of important data that eventually we could pay more attention to (such as looking at all types of mistakes).

Conclusion

How to teach grammar has always motivated research in applied linguistics. Basically two modes of teaching have been competing for years. These are the traditional explicit, deductive option and the communicative implicit, inductive one which has been in vogue since the 1980's. The traditional method of grammar teaching suggests that grammar should be taught explicitly with focus on forms and this method still survives in most EFL settings around the world until now. This

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traditional method for grammar teaching has received much criticism during the 1980's mainly with the appearance of Krashen's (1982) acquisition theory which stipulates that teaching grammar explicitly is useless. According to Krashen such 'unusefulness' of direct grammar teaching is due to the fact that learners fail to use the language correctly even after being instructed the rules. Thus, grammar teaching during the 1980's became questionable and even got abandoned mainly in SLA settings. In such a context, the communicative teaching of grammar emerged and became in vogue as an alternative to the traditional grammar teaching. The teaching of writing was very much affected by the new principles of the communicative teaching in that there was a call for eradicating grammar teaching and correction as an aid to writing improvement. Truscott (1996) was one important scholar who spurred the abandoning of grammar teaching and grammar correction arguing that both of them are more damaging than helpful to writing.

In this study, we investigated the effects of an extremely explicit teaching approach (FonFs) against an extremely implicit one (FonF) on grammar learning and its accurate use in writing in order to give evidence or to counterargument the claims about the effectiveness or non effectiveness of grammar teaching (explicitly or implicitly) in learning grammar itself and also in using knowledge of grammar in writing. This followed an investigation into the grammar teaching practices in class which aimed at identifying whether grammar instruction is of FonFs or FonF type.

To do so, we addressed four research questions. Our first research question sought to find out the approaches followed by the grammar teachers with the aim to see if they are explicitly- or implicitly-oriented. Particularly, we sought to find out 1) how much explicitness or implicitness in terms of rules explanation is used by the teachers, 2) how often contextualization or decontextualization is used, 3) how often authenticity or pedagogical materials are relied on, 4) how often learners work individually or in groups and 5) whether focus is on teaching and learning rules or on inferring rules and using language. Our second research question sought to find out if different instructional strategies result in same or different outcomes. For this, we compared the instructional effects of two instructional strategies: one is extremely

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explicit (traditional focus-on-forms) and the other is extremely implicit (communicative focus-on-form). The focus-on-forms instruction is the method which has always been followed by teachers of the English Department until the year of this study; on the other hand, focus-on-form encapsulates the main teaching principles called for by the new LMD system and the grammar syllabus. Particularly, we tried to know how much the communicative teaching is possible and worthy to apply.

Our third research question was set to investigate the effects of the two different form-focused instructions on appropriate and accurate use of grammar in writing. This is a pertinent question since the teaching of grammar is not only for itself and needs to be impactful in terms of language use and correct use of grammar in discourse. For many years, grammar was criticized on the ground that learning the rules does not guarantee writing improvement (Krashen, 1982), thus this third question tried to seek whether failure in using grammar correctly in writing has a relationship with the non-transfer of learned grammar to writing or with the kind of instructional approach followed. The fourth research question in this study went deeper in investigating any superior advantage of one approach to another. It particularly sought to examine the relationship between the forms for teaching and the teaching approach to see if forms can be learned under different conditions (implicit or explicit) or not. This question is important because when we look closely at many particular structures we can have a large reliable data base on which we can make any generalization concerning the better effect of one strategy to another.

We carried out the research in the department of English, Algiers 2 University. In order to address our research questions, we used multiple data collection instruments: classroom observation, teachers' and students' questionnaires, teachers' interview, interventionist treatment, pre- and post-testing and analysis of errors. 7 teachers and 400 students were involved in this research. As far as teacher participants are concerned, 4 teachers' grammar sessions were observed and 7 teachers (including the four whose sessions were observed) were handed out questionnaires and then were interviewed. Concerning student participants, 200 students belonging to the four classes which were observed were handed out questionnaires with the aim to

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crosscheck data obtained from classroom observation and teachers' questionnaire and interview. 200 other students were involved in grammar treatment during a semester. They were pre- and post-tested prior and at the end of treatment. The post-tests were error analyzed to seek which teaching option (FonFs or FonF) could be more effective than the other when it comes to learning grammar and applying it correctly in writing. To sum up, we used classroom observation, questionnaire and interview to address the first research question [RQ1] which sought to find out about the teaching approaches adopted by the teachers in the department. Treatment, testing and analysis of errors were used to specifically address the three other research questions, i.e, RQ2, RQ3 and RQ4 which concerned the effect of the FonF and FonFs approaches on learning grammar (RQ2), the effect of the FonF and FonFs approaches on using grammar in writing (RQ3), and the effect of the FonF and FonFs approaches on learning particular grammatical forms (RQ4).

This chapter presented the context of the study, discussed the six research tools (classroom observation, questionnaires and oral interview, treatment, pre- and post-intervention tests, and analysis of errors) which were applied to inform the research questions, discussed the data collection procedure and the data analysis procedures and finally discussed the pilot study.

The following chapter will present the data obtained from classroom observation, questionnaires and interviews.

Chapter 3: Results of Observation, Questionnaires & Interviews

Chapter Three: Results of Observation, Questionnaires and Interviews

Introduction

This chapter reports and analyses the first part of results obtained from this research. It is divided into results obtained by means of three instruments, namely, classroom observation, questionnaires and interviews. These instruments were used to identify grammar teaching practices in class. Thus, we present results about the seven teachers' teaching methods (4 teachers were observed, interviewed, handed out questionnaires as well as their students, and 3 teachers were only interviewed and handed out questionnaires).

3.1 Results of the Classroom Observation Sessions

Classroom observation was used to address our first research question which was used to investigate the teachers' practices during instruction to provide a picture of what happens in the classrooms of the English Department of UA2. In what follows we summarize all the data collected in terms of types of grammar teaching methods used by four teachers in the classroom during four observation sessions. The numbers in each column in the following table refer to frequency of use of a particular item by any given teacher (see appendices 8 & 9). Thus if we look at item 1A (in the table below), it was used 4 times by T1, 3 times by T2, 4 times by T3 and 1 time by T4. As a reminder, the investigated strategies were strategies which the teachers used during two stages: grammar presentation (stage one) and grammar practice (stage two) as shown in the following table. The categories (9 categories) and their items used in this table are the ones we used in the observation scheme and which reflect the six teaching dimensions discussed in chapter 2 (see table 2.1). These dimensions are: (1) rule presentation, (2) contextualization (in presentation & practice), (3) materials, (4) meaningfulness of practice, (5) classwork patterns and (6) focus (in teaching & practice). We shall refer to the teachers as follows: T1 (stands for Teacher 1), T2 (stands for Teacher 2), T3 (stands for Teacher 3) and T4 (stands for Teacher 4).

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STAGE ONE : Grammar Presentation				
1. The way the teacher presents the lesson	T1	T2	T3	T4
A. The teacher presents examples and explains the rule	4	3	4	1
B. The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules		4	2	
C. The teacher provides rules without examples	1	1	1	
D. The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules				
Answers to the open-ended questions:				
E. The teacher elicits previous knowledge of rules from students	2			1
F. The teacher asks students to read rules from handouts		1		1
g. The teacher provides rules followed by examples				3
2. Context of the new structure presentation	T1	T2	T3	T4
A. The structure is presented in one sentence	4	3	4	2
B. The structure is presented in more separate sentences				1
C. The structure is presented in text				
Answers to the open-ended questions:				
D. The structure is presented in words	2	1	2	
E. The structure is presented in a diagram	2			
F. The structure is presented within no context				2
3. Type of materials used in presenting the new Structure	T1	T2	T3	T4
A. Non-real life materials	4	4	4	4
B. Real-life materials are used				
C. Simplified (adapted) materials are used				

Table 3.1: Summary of the Data of Classroom Observation

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4.The focus of the teaching of the new structure	T1	T2	T3	T4
A. The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology	4	4	4	4
B. The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology				
STAGE TWO: Grammar Practice				
5.Type of the exercises	T1	T2	T3	T4
A. Mechanical drill exercises				
a. Fill in the gaps	4	2	4	4
b. Multiple choice answers	2	2	1	
c. Sentence completion		1		
d. Sentence transformation		1		
e. Sentence matching		1		
f. Substitution				
g. Error identification				
Answers to the open-ended questions:				
h. Classification	1		1	
j. Justification of answers on gap-filling exercises				1
A. Meaningful activities				
a. Story telling				
b. Story reconstruction				
c. Writing letters and exchanging them		1		
d. Introducing oneself orally				
e. Writing/talking about personal events				
f. Using oral interviews				
g. Using information-gap tasks				

Table 3.1: Summary of the Data of Classroom Observation (continued)

Chapter 3: Results of Observation, Questionnaires & Interviews

6.Type of context	T1	T2	T3	T4
A. sentence-level exercises	3	4	4	4
B. Dialogues	1	1		
C.Paragraphs	3	2		
D. Two or more paragraph text				
Answers to the open-ended questions:				
E. words	1	1		
7.Type of materials	T1	T2	T3	T4
A. Real-life materials (authentic)		1		
B. Non-real life materials (non-authentic)	4	4	4	4
C. Simplified (adapted)				
8.Classwork pattern	T1	T2	T3	T4
A. Individual practice	4	4	4	4
B. Peer practice		1		
C. Group practice				
9.Practice focus	T1	T2	T3	T4
A. Activities focus on the forms in decontextualized exercises	4	4	4	4
B. Activities focus on content in meaningful activities				
Answers to the open-ended questions:				
C. Focus on forms in meaningful activities		1		

Table 3.1: Summary of the Data of Classroom Observation (continued)

Data from classroom observations show that the traditional grammar teaching (FonFs), which consists mainly in focus on rules explanation and practice through decontextualized exercises, was the most prevailing teaching method. Nevertheless, when it comes to rule presentation and context of the exercises most teachers (T1, T2 & T3) presented rules inductively very often, and some teachers (T1 & T2) contextualized a few of the exercises they used in class. In what follows, we look in a more specific way at what characterized the teaching of grammar.

First, in terms of rules and as just mentioned, three teachers (T1, T2 & T3) used the inductive approach (by presenting examples first) more than the deductive teaching

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and only one teacher (T4) relied always on providing rules deductively. Concerning the deductive approach, different strategies were used by the four teachers to explicitly teach the structures under focus such as giving directly the rules, using diagrams, checking learners' previous knowledge about the rules, letting students read rules from textbooks or even dictating the rules from a textbook (see appendix 8). What was noticeable was the fact that half of the class time was devoted to teaching a great number of rules of usage (different contexts where one verb form is used) such as the case of T3 (See appendix 8). In terms of the context of rules presentation, we observed that all teachers used decontextualized language to highlight the forms under focus. They presented the forms most of the time within isolated sentences, sometimes in words but sometimes the examples were not provided at all. The sentences or words which contained the forms for teaching were generally taken from textbooks or improvised by the teachers. Real-life materials (not designed for a teaching purpose) were not used in class. Concerning the teaching focus, we noticed that during the presentation phase the focus was exclusively on the explanation of rules and the use of the grammatical terminology. This was also true even when students were given examples to infer the rules; right after one learner uttered the rule, the teachers re-explained it in more details.

Concerning the way grammar was practised in class, our results show that most teachers (T1, T3 & T4) used only non-meaningful mechanical exercises most often in the form of fill in the gaps in disconnected sentences (see appendix 8) in addition to multiple choice, substitution, classification and error identification exercises. Moreover, we noticed that only one teacher (T2) used meaningful activities though not as often as the non-meaningful ones. This teacher used writing activities about real-life experiences. In terms of contextualization of practice, we found that the contextualized exercises were less used than the decontextualized ones. Concerning the practice materials, we found that all the teachers relied heavily on the pedagogical materials. In fact, three of the teachers (T1, T3 & T4) never used any authentic material (written/spoken materials designed to native speakers) during our observations, and one teacher (T2) used one authentic material during our third observation of this teacher's class and which consisted in a puzzle taken from the

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internet. Concerning the way learners interacted in the classroom while doing the activities, the results revealed that collaborative work was never required by most of the teachers and only one teacher (T2) used a peer practice but only on one occasion. In fact, the activities used in class did not require any collaborative work. Even when students were given a meaningful activity, they were not required to work together. Most teachers exclusively focused on answering correctly on mechanical exercises rather than getting learners involved in meaningful, interactive activities where the focus is on language use. In what follows we present more data as regards the teachers' instructional approaches and which were obtained from questionnaires handed out to the teachers whose classes were observed (T1, T2, T3 & T4) and also to three other teachers of grammar (T5, T6 & T7).

3.2 Results of the Teachers' Questionnaires

Seven grammar teachers were handed out the questionnaire; four of these teachers were observed and these are referred to as T1, T2, T3 & T4. The others (T5, T6 & T7) were not observed. The questionnaire was used to crosscheck data of the classroom observation tool. It probed the way grammar was taught and practised in different classes by different teachers. Thus our analysis of the data will follow the categories used in the questionnaire and which are divided into 1) how grammar is taught, and 2) how grammar is practised. Given that every two questions cover a specific point (e.g. both Q1 & Q2 deal with the way rules are presented), Thus, we shall discuss them in pairs. We will be interpreting the Likert-scale by grouping responses into more frequent (which represents the sum of number of occurrences of Always, Often and Sometimes) and less frequent (which represents the sum of the number of occurrences of Sometimes, Rarely and Never). The sum of number of occurrences of *Always*, *Often* and *Sometimes* is referred to in the following table as 'Total of occurrences for high frequency', and the sum of number of occurrences of *Sometime*, *Rarely* and *Never* is referred to as 'Total of occurrences for low frequency'. The maximum number of occurrences is 7. The analysis is structured according to the three parts of the questionnaire.

Chapter 3: Results of Observation, Questionnaires & Interviews

PART ONE: HOW GRAMMAR IS TAUGHT IN CLASS

	Q1: The rules are given by the teacher							Number of occurrences
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	
Always				√				1
Often	√							1
Sometimes		√	√			√	√	4
Rarely					√			1
Never								0
Total of occurrences for high frequency								6
Total of occurrences for low frequency								1
	Q2: The rules are discovered out of examples by the students themselves							Number of occurrences
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	
Always		√						1
Often			√		√	√	√	4
Sometimes	√			√				2
Rarely								0
Never								0
Total of occurrences for high frequency								7
Total of occurrences for low frequency								0
	Q3: The grammar point is presented in one or more separate sentences							Number of occurrences
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	
Always			√	√				2
Often		√			√	√		3
Sometimes	√						√	2
Rarely								0
Never								0

Table 3.2: Summary of Responses to Part 1 in the Teachers' Questionnaire

Chapter 3: Results of Observation, Questionnaires & Interviews

Total of occurrences for high frequency								7
Total of occurrences for low frequency								0
Q4: The grammatical point is presented in a text								Number of occurrences
T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7		
Always								0
Often							√	1
Sometimes	√	√	√	√	√			5
Rarely						√		1
Never								0
Total of occurrences for high frequency								6
Total of occurrences for low frequency								6
Q5: The grammar point is presented in using the teachers' own examples or examples from the text book written on the board or on handouts. The materials are not taken from real-life materials (like magazines, newspapers...)								Number of occurrences
T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7		
Always		√	√					2
Often	√				√	√		3
Sometimes	√				√			2
Rarely								0
Never								0
Total of occurrences for high frequency								7
Total of occurrences for low frequency								0
Q6: The grammar point is presented using examples from real-life materials like newspapers, web pages, airport notices and so on.								Number of occurrences
T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7		

Table 3.2: Summary of Responses to Part 1 in the Teachers' Questionnaire (continued)

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	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	
Always								0
Often							√	1
Sometimes	√				√	√		3
Rarely		√						1
Never			√	√				2
Total of occurrences for high frequency								4
Total of occurrences for low frequency								6
	Q7: Much class time is spent on explaining the rules							Number of occurrences
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	
Always				√		√		2
Often		√	√		√			3
Sometimes								0
Rarely	√							1
Never							√	1
Total of occurrences for high frequency								5
Total of occurrences for low frequency								2
	Q8: Much time is spent in letting students discover the rules out of exposure to plenty of examples							Number of occurrences
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	
Always								0
Often		√	√				√	3
Sometimes	√					√		2
Rarely				√				1
Never					√			1
Total of occurrences for high frequency								5
Total of occurrences for low frequency								4

Table 3.2: Summary of Responses to Part 1 in the Teachers' Questionnaire (continued)

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Concerning the presentation of the rules, answers to Q1 & Q 2 indicate that the inductive teaching of rules occurred slightly more frequently than the deductive teaching of rules (7 occurrences for the inductive teaching against 6 occurrences for the deductive one). More specifically, six teachers answered that they taught rules deductively by giving themselves the rules more frequently and all teachers answered that they taught the rules inductively by letting students themselves infer the rules more frequently. This means that the teachers used both the inductive and the deductive presentation of rules but the inductive teaching was slightly more frequent than the deductive one. But, insofar as the four teachers we observed, the results indicate that they used equally the two strategies (4 occurrences for the inductive teaching and 4 for the deductive one).

As far as contextualization of the presentation of the new grammatical structure is concerned, answers to Q3 & Q4 show that all teachers used more frequently one or more separate, disconnected sentences to present the new grammatical point than short texts (discourse) (7 occurrences for decontextualized presentation of rules against 6 occurrences for high frequency for contextualization of the presentation of rules). This suggests that the use of decontextualized language in presenting a grammatical item was slightly more used than the contextualized language. This is also true for the teachers who were observed in that most teachers answered that they often (T2) or always (T3 & T4) used the decontextualized sentences but sometimes they (T1, T2, T3 & T4) used texts.

Concerning the materials the teachers used to present the new grammatical structure, answers to Q5 show that all teachers relied more frequently on textbooks when teaching the new grammatical structure. On the other hand, answers to Q6 show that the use of real-life materials to present the new grammatical point was less frequent (6 occurrences for low frequency). This means that the use of the textbooks for teaching the new structure was more frequent than the use of the real-life materials. This is true even if we consider only the four teachers we observed.

Concerning the teaching focus during the presentation stage, answers to Q7 show that most teachers (5 out of 7) spent much time on explaining the rules more

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frequently (5 occurrences). On the other hand, answers to Q8 show a balance between highly frequent and less frequent focus on students' inference of rules out of exposure to plenty of examples. These results suggest that focus on the explicit grammatical knowledge was more frequent than the implicit inference of such knowledge through enough exposure to input. This is true also if we look only at the four teachers we observed. These teachers (T1, T2, T3 & T4) focused very often on the grammatical knowledge and there was only one teacher (T2) who focused sometimes on providing the students with enough input to let them infer the rules by themselves.

In what follows, we give more qualitative data on the first part of the questionnaire and refer to the major themes which emerged and which were obtained from the following open-ended question:

Q9: Do you have other comments or suggestions with regards the way you teach grammar

Responses	Themes
T1 answered that <i>“Different lessons require different teaching strategies and a different input, i.e, an eclectic approach.”</i> Similarly T5 argued: <i>“Teaching grammar is not easy on the ground. As a teacher I have to vary methods and materials but I often present the course in the form of separated sentences then let the students deduce the rules. After that, learners practise.”</i>	[1. Eclectic teaching depending on lessons and due to grammar teaching difficulty].
T2 answered that <i>“Grammar should be taught in context but the lack of resources is sometimes an obstacle”</i>	[2. Awareness of the importance of teaching grammar in context].

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Teacher 4 answered by saying:

“First of all I give examples, I explain them. I let the students discover the rules, but if they cannot, I help them in order to avoid waste of time. I use sentences because students do not understand well when it is in a paragraph. Generally speaking, I use the PPP method to teach grammar. I present the rules, ask questions and then I give the students the floor to practise. Sometimes, at the end of the semester, I ask them to produce a written paragraph in which all the grammatical points will be mentioned.”

[3. Deductive teaching as alternative]

[4. Use of PPP with delayed production]

In what follows, data obtained from the second part of the questionnaire and which deals with the way grammar is practised in class is presented.

PART TWO: HOW GRAMMAR IS PRACTISED IN CLASS

	Q10: Exercises in which you give a correct answer without any true information are used (e.g. fill in the gaps, multiple choice answers, completion with the correct form, errors identification, substitution and so on).							Number of occurrences
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	
Always				√				1
Often	√	√	√			√		4
Sometimes								0
Rarely					√			1
Never							√	1
Total of occurrences for high frequency								5
Total of occurrences for low frequency								2

Table 3.3: Summary of Responses to Part 2 in the Teacher’s Questionnaire

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	Q11: Activities in which students use language to communicate true information like in story-telling, writing letters to others, introducing oneself and so on are used.							Number of occurrences
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	
Always								0
Often		√			√		√	3
Sometimes						√		1
Rarely	√		√					2
Never				√				1
Total of occurrences for high frequency								4
Total of occurrences for low frequency								4
	Q12: Exercises that contain a number of separate, unconnected sentences are used							Number of occurrences
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	
Always				√				1
Often		√	√					2
Sometimes					√	√	√	3
Rarely								0
Never	√							1
Total of occurrences for high frequency								6
Total of occurrences for high frequency								4
	Q 13: Exercises having the form of discourse							Number of occurrences
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	
Always								0
Often		√	√				√	3
Sometimes	√			√	√	√		3
Rarely								0
Never								0

Table 3.3: Summary of responses to Part 2 in the Teacher's Questionnaire (continued)

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Total of occurrences for high frequency								6
Total of occurrences for low frequency								3
	Q14: The exercises are based on unreal spoken/written English (from textbooks)							Number of occurrences
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	
Always			√	√				2
Often		√				√	√	3
Sometimes								0
Rarely					√			1
Never	√							1
Total of occurrences for high frequency								5
Total of occurrences for low frequency								2
	Q15: The exercises are based on real spoken/written English (sources are mentioned if you find them in textbooks)							Number of occurrences
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	
Always							√	1
Often								0
Sometimes	√	√			√			3
Rarely			√	√		√		3
Never								0
Total of occurrences for high frequency								4
Total of occurrences for low frequency								6
	Q16: Students are made to work alone on the exercises							Number
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	
Always				√	√			2
Often	√	√	√					3
Sometimes						√		1
Rarely								0

Table 3.3: Summary of Responses to Part 2 in the Teacher's Questionnaire (continued)

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Never							√	1
Total of occurrences for high frequency								6
Total of occurrences for low frequency								2
	Q17: Students are made to work in groups							Number of occurrences
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	
Always								0
Often	√	√	√				√	4
Sometimes					√	√		2
Rarely								0
Never				√				1
Total of occurrences for high frequency								6
Total of occurrences for low frequency								3
	Q18: Focus is on the correct use of the new grammatical point in different exercises							Number of occurrences
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	
Always		√	√	√			√	4
Often	√				√			1
Sometimes						√		1
Rarely								0
Never								0
Total of occurrences for high frequency								6
Total of occurrences for low frequency								1
	Q19: Focus is on making students speak/write in English and interact with others							Number of occurrences
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	
Always		√					√	2
Often	√							1
Sometimes					√	√		2
Rarely			√	√				2

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Never								0
Total of occurrences for high frequency								5
Total of occurrences for low frequency								4

Table 3.3: Summary of Responses to Part 2 in the Teacher's Questionnaire (continued)

Table 3.3 shows different sets of data insofar as the way grammar was practised in class. Answers to Q10 indicate that most teachers (5 out of 7) used mechanical exercises very frequently. But answers to Q11 reveal equal occurrences between the highly frequent use and the less frequently use of the meaningful activities (4 occurrences for each). This suggests that the mechanical exercises were highly used by most teachers, but meaningful activities were highly used only by some teachers and less used by others.

Concerning the contextualization of practice, answers to Q12 reveal that most teachers (6 teachers out of 7) most frequently used separate, disconnected sentences in the exercises (6 occurrences). Similarly, answers to Q13 show that most teachers (6 out of 7) used contextualized practice highly frequently (6 occurrences). This means that there was a balance between the use of contextualized and decontextualized practice.

As far as the type of materials is concerned, answers to Q14 show that most teachers (5 out of 7) used more frequently pedagogical materials for practising the new grammatical point. On the other hand, answers to Q15 show that most teachers (6 out of 7) used less frequently the real-life materials. This suggests that pedagogical materials were more used than the non-pedagogical ones.

Insofar as the classwork pattern is concerned, answers to Q16 show that most teachers (5 out of 7) assigned individual classwork more frequently. Likewise, answers to Q17 indicate that most teachers (6 out of 7) assigned group work more frequently. This means that both classwork patterns were highly frequently used.

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Concerning the focus of practice, answers to Q18 reveal that most teachers (6 out of 7) focused more frequently on the grammatical knowledge. Answers to Q19 show that most teachers (5 out of 7) focused highly on making students use language and interact with others. This suggests that focus on knowledge of grammar was slightly more frequent than focus on use (6 occurrences for the former against 5 occurrences for the latter). We should underline also that as far as the teachers who were observed (T1, T2, T3 & T4) are concerned the results indicate that two of them (T1 & T2) highly focused on language use and two others (T3 & T4) had such a focus less frequently.

In what follows we add more qualitative data which were obtained from the following open-ended question:

Q20: Do you have any other comments on the way you make your students practise grammar?

Responses	Themes
<p>T1 claimed that <i>“Classroom should focus on interactive and realistic practices for both teacher’s input and students’ output. The exercises which enable students learn the new grammatical point also enable them to speak and write in English.”</i> In the same vein T5 added: <i>“In the activities I do not focus only on the grammar use in a correct way, but also on the accuracy and fluency in speaking and writing”.</i></p>	<p>[1. Awareness of the importance of the interactive & meaningful practice]</p>
<p>T6 said: <i>“I sometimes ask students to create their own sentences, dialogues or paragraph to check whether they have understood or not. I also expose my students to the authentic language by using audiovisual devices”.</i></p>	<p>[2. Use of authentic materials]</p>
<p>T 7 argued:</p> <p><i>“Grammar is meant to help students speak and write accurately and fluently in English. As a matter of fact, it would be better if teachers are provided with authentic materials in the classroom in order to make students</i></p>	<p>[3. Awareness of the</p>

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*aware of the grammatical points and then use them in real life situations. I prefer also to teach **grammar in context and through cooperation with my student**. It means I try to act as a mediator and a guide. Hence, I suggest the **use of authentic materials** in the classroom in order to help students understand how the grammatical units are being used as well as make a distinction and reflect upon the choice of a given form in order to construct more complex sentences and then paragraphs and essays.”*

importance of both accuracy & fluency in using English].

In what follows we analyze the third part of the questionnaire which seeks to crosscheck results of the two previous parts.

PART THREE:

Q21: Look at the following tasks and select the ones that occur most often in your class. Then rank the three most outstanding tasks in order of frequency using the table beside:

A./ The teacher presents rules without examples

B./ The teacher gives examples about the new grammar structures and gives the rules

C./ The teacher presents examples but never gives rules

D./ The students analyse examples and infer (give) the rules

E./ students apply the rules in exercises

F./ The students produce (speak and/or write)

Order	Task symbol
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

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Tasks symbols	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7
A							
B				1			
C							1
D	1	1	1		1	1	2
E	2	2	2	2	2	2	3
F		3			3		

Table 3.4: Summary of Responses to Q21 in the Teacher's Questionnaire

Table 3.4 shows that the most frequent teaching method used by teachers was the inductive teaching of rules followed by the application of the rules in exercises (D E). It is followed by the method which is called PPP in which teachers present the rules and then students apply them in exercises and then produce language (DE F). Two teachers referred to two other different methods: T4 said that she gave the rules explicitly and let students apply them in exercises (B E) and T7 said she never stated the rules and let students themselves infer them and do exercises (C D E). The responses obtained on this question (Q21) are congruent with the responses obtained on Q1 & Q2 of Part 1 which indicate that the inductive teaching of rules, which consists in letting students infer the rules first, was more used than the deductive teaching.

Q22: How do you often introduce the new grammar point? Please circle one or more options:

- A. Within one sentence example.
- B. Within multiple separate sentences.
- C. Within a paragraph.
- D. Within a dialogue.

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	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	Number of occurrences
A.	√	√	√	√	√	√		6
B.	√							1
C.	√						√	2
D.	√		√					2

Table 3.5: Summary of Responses to Q22 in the Teacher’s Questionnaire

Table 3.5 shows that presenting the new grammatical point in one-sentence example was the most frequent context used for teaching grammar (6 teachers out of 7). This is congruent with responses obtained from Q3 & Q4 of Part1.

Q23: What kind of language do you often choose to present a new grammatical point? Please circle one or more options:

- A. Authentic/true language written for or used by native speakers.
- B. Pedagogical/simplified language adapted for foreign language learners levels.

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	Number of occurrences
A.	√				√		√	3
B.	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	7

Table 3.6: Summary of Responses to Q23 in the Teacher’s Questionnaire

Table 3.6 shows that all teachers relied on pedagogical books for teaching the new point but few of them (T1, T5 & T7) relied on both pedagogical language and real-life language addressed to English speakers (not to learners). This is in vein with responses yielded by teachers on Q5 & Q6 in Part 1.

Q24: What is most important in your teaching? Please circle one or more options:

- A. That students understand grammatical terminology.
- B. That students notice how language functions and discover rules.

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	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	Number of occurrences
A		√	√	√	√	√		5
B	√	√	√				√	4

Table 3.7: Summary of Responses to Q24 in the Teacher's Questionnaire

Table 3.7 shows that there was not a significant difference of frequency in terms of focus on explicit understanding of grammar and its implicit inference through exposure to numerous examples. The table shows also that few teachers (T2 & T3) could focus on both. This is congruent with responses yielded on Q7 & Q8 in Part 1 which indicate that focus on terminology understanding was just slightly more frequent than the focus on letting students infer the rules out of exposure to plenty of language.

25: Which type of exercises do you often select for practice? Please circle one or more options:

- A. Mechanical exercises such as those taken from textbooks.
- B. Communicative activities which involve students in interaction.

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	Number of occurrences
A	√	√	√	√		√		5
B		√			√	√	√	4

Table 3.8: Summary of Responses to Q25 in the Teacher's Questionnaire

Table 3.8 shows that there was not a significant difference of frequency in terms of types of exercises (mechanical or meaningful) used by the teachers. It shows also that few teachers used both of them very often. This is in line with responses obtained from Q10 & Q11 in part 2.

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Q26: Which form do your exercises most often take? Please circle one or more options:

- A. A number of separate sentences.
- B. A paragraph
- C. A multiple paragraph text
- D. A dialogue

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	Number of occurrences
A		√	√	√	√	√		5
B	√	√					√	3
C								0
D	√		√		√	√	√	5

Table 3.9: Summary of Responses to Q26 in the Teacher’s Questionnaire

Table 3.9 shows that exercises/activities in the form of separate, disconnected sentences in addition to dialogues were the most frequently used types of exercises. This is congruent with responses obtained from Q12 & Q13 which indicate that there was a balance between decontextualized and contextualized exercises.

Q27: Which of the following sources do you often use? Please circle one or more options:

- a. Grammar textbooks.
- b. Magazines, newspapers, novels, audiovisuals and so on

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	Number of occurrences
A	√	√	√	√		√	√	6
B					√		√	2

Table 3.10: Summary of Responses to Q27 in the Teacher’s Questionnaire

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Table 3.10 shows that most teachers (6 out of 7) used pedagogical books for practice. This is in vein with responses gained from Q14 & Q15 in part 2.

Q28: How do you make students practice more often? Please circle one or more options:

- A. Individually.
- B. Collaboratively
- C.

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	Number of occurrences
A	√	√	√	√		√		5
B	√	√	√		√	√	√	6

Table 3.11: Summary of responses to Q28 in the Teacher’s questionnaire

Table 3.11 shows that there was not any significant difference in terms of frequency between individual or group work. It can also be observed that most teachers (4 teachers) used both patterns of classwork. This is consistent with responses obtained from Q16 & Q 17 in Part 2.

Q29: What kind of exercises do you often opt for? Please circle one or more options:

- A. Those which enable students learn the new grammatical point.
- B. Those which enable students speak in English and write in English.

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	Number of occurrences
A	√		√	√	√	√	√	6
B	√	√			√		√	4

Table 3.12: Summary of Responses to Q29 in the Teacher’s Questionnaire

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Table 3.12 shows that the focus in practice was more frequently on consolidating the grammar knowledge than on language use, though some teachers (3 teachers) focused on both. Only one teacher (T2) focused more often on language use in practice. This is in vein with responses yielded from Q18 & Q19 in Part2.

Concerning Q30 which is designed to have other comments on the part of the teachers, we obtained no response from most teachers and few of them repeated the same comments given to Q9 and Q20.

3.3 Summary of the Results from the Teachers' Questionnaires

Data obtained from the teachers' questionnaires show a certain balance between using aspects of grammar teaching and some aspects of some communicative teaching features represented by the use of the inductive presentation of rules, the use of real-life materials and meaningful and interactive practice; though the traditional aspects of grammar teaching were more frequent. The comments also revealed teachers' awareness of the importance of teaching grammar meaningfully, contextually, interactively using authentic materials as T1, T2 and T7 claimed (see theme 2 in answers to Q9, theme 1 in answers to Q20 & theme 3 in answers to Q20). However, some teachers admitted that in practice they lacked resources and adequate materials to teach grammar meaningfully as claimed by T2 (see theme 2 in answers to Q9)

More specifically, the results show a high frequency of the inductive teaching of rules which was lightly more frequently used than the deductive teaching; but if we consider only the four teachers we observed, we notice that the inductive teaching was as often used as the deductive one. Actually, the deductive strategy was used by some teachers as an alternative as T4 testified (see theme 3 in answers to Q9). The results show also that contextualization of rules was just slightly more frequent than decontextualization of the forms under focus during the presentation stage. However, some teachers found that decontextualization was preferred because it made rule-learning easier as claimed for example by T4 (see theme 4 in answers to Q9). Concerning the use of teaching materials when presenting the rules, all the teachers

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used more frequently pedagogical materials. As far as the focal point in teaching is concerned, it appears that there was a certain balance between time spent in the explanation of the rules by the teacher and time given to students to notice the forms in examples and work out the rules by themselves. But focus on metalanguage prevailed slightly more than focus on language use. This kind of balance between strategies of traditional grammar teaching and communicative grammar teaching could be explained by the fact that different lessons and the difficulty of grammar teaching needed different teaching options as argued by T1 & T5 (see theme 1 in answers to Q9). However, T5 admitted that the teaching which consisted in presenting the course by means of separated sentences and then let the students deduce the rules and practise was very widely used in class(see answers to Q9).T4 called this strategy the PPP as she referred to in her comment(see answers to Q9). The PPP refers to the traditional teaching of grammar when first rules are presented in isolated sentences, then learners practise with mechanical exercises and then produce language including the new forms. But T4 said she postponed this stage of the free production until the end of the semester (See theme 5 in answers to Q9).

Concerning practice in general, the results revealed that both meaningful and non-meaningful activities were used by most teachers (5 Teachers), but the non-meaningful activities were more used than the meaningful ones. But if we consider only the four teachers we observed we found that only one teacher used meaningful activities and this happened rarely. In terms of practice contextualization, there was a balance between the use of contextualized and decontextualized activities with six teachers using the former and six teachers using the latter. As far as the teaching materials used in practice are concerned, data show that the pedagogical materials were frequently used by the teachers and that the real-life materials were less frequently used and this holds true even if we consider only the four teachers we observed. As far as classwork pattern is concerned, we notice that there was a balance between the use of individual and collaborative practice. This holds true also if we consider responses of the four teachers we observed. In terms of practice focus, the teachers highly focused on giving correct answers in exercises as mentioned by all the teachers and with most teachers also focusing highly on language use as illustrated by

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T5 (see theme 2 in answers to Q20). T6 also claimed that she relied on authenticity and creativity (see answers to question Q20). T7 is the teacher who seemed to be much in favour of communicative teaching and mainly of the use of authenticity, contextualization and the interactive use of English in class as she argued (see Themes 3, 4 & 5 in answers to Q20). As far as the teachers whose sessions were observed (‘T1, T2, T3 & T4), the data we obtained suggest also that consolidating the grammatical knowledge imparted to the students was the main focus of the practice, but it appears also that two teachers (T1 & T2) also focused on interactive language use.

More qualitative data were obtained from these teachers on oral interviews conducted with them. The following is the analysis of the transcribed interviews.

3.4 Results of the Teachers’ Interviews

The interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim as presented in Appendix 10. The interviews were analyzed qualitatively. Here we present the Teacher’s responses in the interview. The main categories which emerged in their responses are highlighted and enumerated. This is followed by a summary in the form of a table containing these categories.

1. How do you present the rules?

- In their responses to the first question, all teachers except one (T4) mentioned that they first **(1) let students infer the rules out of examples** and that they explicitly provided the rules only when students failed to infer them. For example T2 said: *“I try to let my students deduce the rules. I try to guide them but it is up to them to find the rule... after analyzing the examples if they do not really manage to get properly the rule, I help them about it and explain it”*. Another common method used for presenting the rules is through **(2) testing the students’ previous knowledge of grammar**. This is reported to be used by T1, T3, T4, T5 & T6. For example T4 said: *“I ask the students questions about their previous knowledge about the new grammatical structure. From*

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their answers we build the general rule and then I write it on the board or on handouts". Another way teachers could use to introduce the rules in class was through **(3) drawing diagrams to explicitly explain them**. This method was less common and used by only one teacher (T1). This teacher argued that he taught the rules through diagrams because as he said "*something visual is better for making things explicit. They [students] understand it better when they see it on a diagram rather than just using words. With a diagram they could perhaps precisely imagine what I mean*". Another less common method used by teachers was **(4) giving directly the rules right at the beginning**. This method was used by T4 who said: "*I start with the rule first, at the beginning of the lesson, then move to practice*". Another rare method reported to be used was **(5) starting with practice as a way to let students continuously understand the underlying structures**. This was used only by T7 who mentioned:

"I generally give the students exercises which I write on board or give on handouts. Then I ask them to reflect on the questions, then ask them about what they understood. I teach grammar inductively; I do not give them the rules directly. I mean I teach grammar indirectly. I give the rules at the end of the lesson."

2. In which form of language do you present the new structure?

- Responses to this second question are categorized into the uses of decontextualized sentences and contextualized texts in the form of passages or dialogues from grammar textbooks. All teachers except T7 reported to use **(1) sentences from textbooks** more often when introducing the new grammatical point because they were easier for beginners. For example, T2 argued: "*Like this is their first year and haven't been introduced to paragraphs I prefer to stick to sentences and perhaps next semester we will try to introduce paragraphs*". However, T1, T5 and T6 argued that though they used more often sentences they could also use **(2) paragraphs** if the topic required so. For example, T1 said: "*We could have it in different forms. We could have it in the form of (3) conversation if a structure is perhaps better investigated through a*

conversation such as with tense. Or why not through prose I mean a passage and they have to identify different tenses...” The only teacher who never used decontextualized sentences as she said was T7. This teacher claimed: *“I do not give sentences in isolation, but I give texts”*.

3. Which materials do you use when presenting the rules?

- Answers to this question revealed that all the teachers used pedagogical sources such as **(1) grammar books** as a primary source in their teaching. For example T2 argued: *“My sentences are taken from books generally I do not invent them but go and select the most obvious ones to them [students] from books”*. T5 relied on her previous lectures she received in a training using a data show. Other teachers referred also to other materials including more authentic language such as **(2) magazines** (T1), the **(3) internet** (T3), **(4) videos& data show** (T5), **(5) teachers’ own examples** (T6) and **(6) authentic texts** (T7).

4. What do you focus on when teaching the new grammatical structure?

- In their responses to this question, all teachers except T7 mentioned that **(1) understanding the rules** was their priority when teaching. For example, T1 said: *“I focus on (2) usage of course, how to use a given structure...on exactness of course...”*. T3 added: *“I focus on how the system works and also on respecting the system. For example, I insist on teaching them to respect the order of the parts of speech”*. In the same vein T4 argues: *“My intention is to distinguish between (3) the meanings of forms. For example, students have to distinguish between present simple and present continuous”*. However, one teacher (T7) focused on another different aspect. She argued: *“I try to make them [students] understand that they do not learn grammar for just learning the rules but to (4) link grammar to other language skills such as writing and speaking.”*

5. Which kind of exercises/activities do you use?

- According to teachers’ responses to this question, we categorized the type of exercises/activities into **(A) mechanical exercises** (which were more frequent)

and **(B) meaningful activities** (which were very scarce). The most commonly used mechanical exercises were **(1) ‘fill-in-the-gaps’** and **(2) ‘identification/correction of mistakes’**. Other mechanical exercises mentioned by teachers consisted in **(3) true/false exercises**, **(4) sentence completion**. T1 argued that such exercises were ‘*Practical*’ because as he said “*we [teachers] can move from a piece of information missing in a sentence to something more and more detailed*”. T2 added that these exercises selected from grammar books were ‘*the easiest ones*’ which ‘*show students tips and tricks to understand the rules and perhaps to get over the problems*’. T3 and T4 mentioned that these exercises allowed students to justify their answers. For example T4 argued: “*For me, justification is more important than the rule itself*”. The only two teachers who reported to use some meaningful activities were T3 & T6. For example, T3 mentioned the use of **(5) letters writing** and T6 mentioned that she required students to give their own examples with the new form, **(6) write and act out dialogues**.

6. What is the format of the exercises that you generally use?

- Answers to this question revealed three types of exercises format used by teachers. These could be in the form of disconnected sentences, texts or conversations. Actually, many teachers (T3, T4, T5 and T6) said that they used **(1) sentence-based exercises**. T5 hinted to the fact that this type of exercises fitted beginners better by saying: “*I always use sentences, and to be sincere I do not use paragraphs or texts with the first year students*”. More contextualized exercises in the form of **(2) texts and (3) conversations** were reported to be used by most teachers (T1, T2, T4, & T7 said they used texts and T4, T5 & T6 used conversations). Some teachers argued that the format of the exercises depended on the type of structure to teach. T1 said: “*Normally typology of exercises is vast so it depends on which kind suits a type of structure, of rule or lesson. For example, a tense is better practised through a conversation; if it is more related to prose we try to have it through writing, in a passage. It depends on the lessons*”. T2 added that: “*Paragraphs are good with this grammatical point [articles] because there is*

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reference before like nouns so they [students] can easily find the appropriate let us say determiners, for example.”

7. Where do you select the exercises from?

- Four types of sources were revealed to be important sources from which the teachers selected their exercises. These were **(1) grammar books** (T1, T3, T4, T5 & T6), **(2) grammar books based on authentic materials** (T7), **(3) magazines** (T1) and **(4) the internet** (T2). Some teachers explained their use of such sources. For example, T2 argued: *“I use some websites like the British Council. It is good because it is very simplified so whenever I want to start with an exercise I first use this website and then I increase the difficulty”*. T6 added *“I use some of the grammar books available in our library”*.

8. How do you make your learners work in class?

- It was revealed through answers to this question that teachers could use one or more of the following classwork patterns: **(1) individual** (T2, T3, T4 & T6), **(2) pair** (T2, T6 & T7), **(3) group work** (T5) or **(4) as students like** (T1). The teachers justified their use of classwork patterns by giving different arguments. T1 argued: *“They work as they like. If they [students] feel able enough to do it individually, so they can do it. If they feel would do it in association with other learners in pairs or in groups so much the better”*. T4 and T5 claimed that group work was too noisy. For example T4 argued: *“I dislike group work because of noise”*.

9. What do you most focus on during the exercises/activities?

- Responses to this question showed that all teachers, except T6, focused on rules understanding and their application in exercises. The teachers advanced different arguments for such a focus. T1 argued that: *“we are supposed to teach something in grammar so they have to catch the point. They should be practising it correctly otherwise we can't say they have got it”*. T2 added:

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“I prefer to focus on [1] drilling exercises, repeating the rule all the time to make it like well-established in their mind. So my aim is when they leave class is actually not need to go to their copybook at least for ten days, they should remember it. They have the rules, they practise with it until they learn it naturally. Or if when they make a mistake I want them to have like something that triggers a self-correction.”

T3 added: *“I see if students (2) give correct answers. If they give wrong answers, it means that they haven’t understood the rules. In this case, I give them more feedback”*. T4 gave another argument and said: *“When they [students] select a form, they have to (3) justify their choice”*. T5 mentioned also that in addition to focus on rules she focused also on pronunciation. T6 also said that she insisted on doing the exercises and providing correction but also encouraged students to **(4) make conversations, write and act short dialogues**. Finally, T7 mentioned that her focus was to **(5) make the present lesson linked to the previous ones**.

3.5 Summary of the Results of the Interviews

What follows presents the main themes that emerged from the whole interviews with their occurrence according to the seven teachers. The table is structured following the nine interview questions.

Themes covered in the interview	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7
1. Rules presentation							
(1) Let students infer the rules out of examples	√	√	√			√	
(2) Check previous grammar knowledge of learners				√	√	√	
(3) Drawing diagrams to explicitly explain rules	√						
(4) Giving the rules right at the beginning				√			
(5) Start with practice as a way to let students continuously understand the rules.							√
2. Context of rules presentation							
(1) Sentences from textbooks		√	√	√	√		
(2) Texts from textbooks	√						√

Table 3.13: Summary of the Interviews Data

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(3) Dialogues from textbooks	√						
3. Materials							
Themes covered in the interview	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7
(1) Grammar books	√	√	√	√			√
(2) Magazines	√						
(3) Internet			√				
(4) Videos and data show					√		
(5) Teacher's own examples						√	
(6) Authentic materials							√
4. Teaching focus							
(1) Understanding rules		√	√				
(2) Usage and Exactness	√			√	√		
(3) Form and meaning						√	
(4) Linking grammar to writing and speaking							√
4. Types of exercises							
(A) Mechanical							
(1) Fill in the gaps	√	√		√		√	
(2) Identification/correction of mistakes		√		√			√
(3) True/false exercises					√		
(4) Sentence completion							√
Themes covered in the interview	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7
(B) Meaningful			√				
(5) Writing letters							
(6) Writing dialogues and acting						√	
5. Context of exercises							
(1) Sentence-based exercises			√	√	√	√	
(2) Conversations				√	√	√	
(3) Texts	√	√		√			√

Table 3.13: Summary of the Interviews Data (continued)

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6. Source of materials							
(1) Grammar books	√		√	√	√	√	
(2) Grammar books based on authentic language							√
(3) Magazines	√						
(4) Internet		√					
7. Classwork pattern							
Themes as covered in the interview	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7
(1) Individual		√	√	√	√	√	√
(2) Pair		√				√	√
(3) Group					√		
(4) As students like	√						
8. Practice focus							
(1) Drilling and repeating the rules		√			√		
(2) Give Correct answers on exercises	√		√				
(3) Justifying answers with reference to rules				√			
(4) Speaking through acting out dialogues						√	
(5) Linking previous knowledge to new information							√

Table 3.13: Summary of the Interviews Data (continued)

Results from interviews conducted with teachers confirmed the previous data obtained from classroom observation and teachers' questionnaires in that the most prevailing grammar teaching approach in the Department of English is still traditional in nature with some communicative aspects added but only by few teachers.

More specifically, the results revealed that, in terms of the way rules were taught, most teachers used the inductive presentation of rules, i.e., they let students notice the forms under focus in examples with the aim to infer the rules. This is also true for the teachers we observed: except from T1 all the other three teachers relied on the inductive teaching of rules. In fact, rules were explicitly given, as an alternative, by the teachers only when students failed to work them out as expressed by T3:

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“Generally, I do not teach the rules directly but I give the students examples and let them discover the rules by themselves. If they do not do it, I give them the rules.”

Moreover, there was one teacher who said that she taught inductively but postponed the presentation of rules until after practice (T7). She described her teaching as being an ‘indirect’ teaching of grammar. Other few teachers said they presented rules explicitly (T1, T4 & T5). Actually, T1 used both inductive and deductive presentation of rules, but T4 & T5 used only the explicit teaching. T1 said she gave explicitly the rules directly through diagrams, and T4 & T5 taught the rules explicitly through eliciting prior knowledge.

Concerning the form of language and materials used to make learners notice the forms under focus, most teachers said to favour isolated sentences taken from ‘available’ pedagogical books or even sentences invented by teachers or students themselves. T2 and T5 argued that their preference for using sentences to present the new structures was due to learners’ lack of experience with discourse in English. Some of these teachers even used their own or their students’ sentences for simplifying the language as T6 explained: *“I give my own examples and also ask students to give their own ones. I, of course, rely on grammar books but prefer using my own examples so that I can simplify them and adapt them to the level of my students. Grammar books are a bit difficult...”* However, some teachers seemed to be eclectic when it comes to the context of rules presentation. For example, T1 said: *“we could have it in different forms. We could have it in the form of conversation if a structure is perhaps better investigated through a conversation such as with tense. Or why not through prose I mean a passage and they have to identify different tenses”*. T5 said that she used also videos to make learners notice the forms under focus and she said that it was beneficial because it could save time. Another teacher, the one who mentioned that she taught grammar ‘indirectly’ (T7), said she used only texts (authentic or pedagogic) found in pedagogical books for introducing new forms because she claimed that grammar needed to be taught in context. If we consider only the four teachers we observed we hold the same conclusion in that the use of decontextualized sentences from textbooks was more frequent than the use of contextualized presentation of rules from authentic materials.

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Concerning the focus of teaching, most teachers agreed that learning the rules and applying them correctly was the most important focus in class as T1 explained; “*I focus on... how to use a given structure, on exactness of course...*”. However, two teachers (T6 & T7) asserted that they focused on both form and meaning and linked grammar to speaking and writing. One of the two teachers (T7) gave arguments about why she focused on meaning by saying that she tried to make learners ‘*understand that they do not learn grammar for just learning the rules but to link grammar to other language skills such as writing and speaking*’. Insofar as the teachers we observed are concerned, all of them referred to the exclusive focus on the explicit grammatical explanation of rules.

Concerning practice, results from the interview (table 3.13) show the use of the mechanical types of exercises by all the teachers. T1 described these exercises as being ‘*practical*’ as they had one ‘*piece of information missing in a sentence*’. Most of these exercises were gaps-filling and errors identification/correction types of exercises which teachers used to reinforce rules learning. These exercises were described by T2 as being ‘*easiest*’ and that they ‘*show [students] tips and tricks to understand the rules*’. Other teachers did not limit themselves to just supplying correct forms in exercises but required learners to justify any single response they gave in correcting exercises with reference to rules. T4 asserted that: “*[students] need to justify of course... .For me, justification is more important than the rule itself*”. Similarly T5 said that she used exercises in which learners ‘*need to justify their answers*’. Two other teachers (T3 & T6) evoked the use of meaningful activities in class and these consisted in writing letters and texts and writing dialogues to act them out in class. But as far as the four teachers observed (T1, T2, T3 & T4) are concerned, only one teacher referred to using meaningful activities.

As far as the context of the exercises is concerned, all teachers referred to the use of both contextualized and decontextualized exercises. T1 explained this mixture by saying: “*typology of exercises is vast so it depends on which kind suits a type of structure, of rule or lesson. For example, a tense is better practised through a conversation; if it is more related to prose we try to have it through writing, in a*

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passage. It depends on the lessons.” In the same vein, T2 explained that she could use paragraphs when they were more suitable to teach a grammatical point such as articles. She said that *“Paragraphs are good with this grammatical point because there is reference before like nouns so [students] can easily find the appropriate determiners, for example.* “However, some teachers seemed to keep only to one form of language that was sentence-based because as they claimed they were more suitable for freshmen students. For example, T5 said: *“I always use sentences, and to be sincere I do not use paragraphs or texts with the first year students”*. Concerning the teaching materials used in class, the results from the interviews show that the most important source of the exercises the teachers use in class remained the textbook. Even those who said that they used the internet, they actually looked for pedagogical courses. For example, T5 said: *“I use the internet; I use some websites like the British Council. It is good because it is very simplified so whenever I want to start with an exercise I first use this website...”* One of the teachers who said she taught with the grammar books (T6) claimed that she used whatever book was available in the department’s library. But another one (T7) claimed that she used only grammar books that were based on teaching grammar in context. Concerning the teachers we observed, most of them (T1, T3 & T4) reported that they relied on the pedagogical books and only one teacher (T2) mentioned that she used the internet as a source for her practice materials. Another teacher (T1) mentioned that he used magazines (authentic material) in addition to textbooks. But anyway, the pedagogical materials were more frequently used than the non-pedagogical materials by these teachers.

If we consider the way the teachers make learners work in class, we find that the majority of teachers let students work individually, one of the teachers said that he asked them to work as they wished and few others made them work in pairs. Some of those who said to prefer individual work argued that group work created too much noise in work. For example T3 said: *“I dislike group work because of noise.”* Similarly, T5 argued: *“I refuse to hear any noise in class. So I make them work individually”* The teacher who said not to care so much about the classwork pattern (T1) argued that as far as there was production so the way it was produced mattered little. This teacher said:

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It is my way to ask them to work the way they like it. If they feel able enough to do it individually, so they can do it. If they feel they would do it in association with other learners in pairs or in groups so much the better. I accept all ways to share energies provided there is some production.

The teachers who used pairwork claimed that the type of classwork depended on the type of activities (T2). Similarly, T6 claimed that she used pairwork because she usually required learners to write dialogues and act them out. Thus, pairwork fitted this kind of activity. If we consider the responses of the teachers we observed, we find consistent results in that the individual work was more frequent in class than the collaborative work.

Finally, results from the interviews showed that what most teachers seemed to focus on was the grammatical knowledge either in the form of ‘*giving correct answers on exercises*’, ‘*drilling and repeating the rules*’, ‘*answering with justifying with reference to the rules*’ and ‘*linking new knowledge to previous learned knowledge*’. Only one teacher mentioned a different practice focus. This teacher (T6) seemed to focus on performance in the form of acting. One of those who said to focus on grammar knowledge (T1) argued that: “*We are supposed to teach something in grammar so they have to catch the point. They should be practising it correctly otherwise we can’t say they have got it*”. In the same vein T2 argued that she insisted on rules internalization by saying:

My aim is when [learners] leave class is actually do not need to go to their copybook at least for ten days, they should remember it. They have the rules, they practise with it until they learn it naturally. Or if when they make a mistake I want them to have like something that triggers a self-correction.

3.6 Results of the Students’ Questionnaires

The students in the four classes observed (referred to as C1, C2, C3 and C4), and who we refer to as Ss1, Ss2, Ss3 & Ss4, answered a questionnaire which probed the way they were taught grammar and the way they practised it in class. At first, we handed out 200 questionnaires, but we kept 180 questionnaires for analysis because 20

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others were either not properly filled or not filled at all. More precisely, the total number of respondents in C1, C2, C3 and C4 respectively was 42, 40, 50 & 48. In what follows, we give an account of quantitative and qualitative analysis of students' questionnaires. For the numerical description, we use percentages representing the number of responses by students of each teacher's class and we also present the total percentage (Total/T) representing the number of responses of mixed classes, i.e., responses yielded by the 180 students. The most significant percentages are presented in bold. This account is then followed by a summary in which we highlight the aspects of teaching which more characterized the teachers' practices according to the students. We will be referring to two percentages: a percentage of a high frequency (stands for the sum of the percentages of always, often and sometimes) and another percentage of a low frequency (stands for the sum of the percentages of sometimes, rarely and never)

PART ONE: HOW GRAMMAR IS TAUGHT IN CLASS

A = always O = Often S = Sometimes R = Rarely N = Never

Q1: The rules are given by the teacher					
	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total in %
A	44%	45%	26%	66%	45%
O	12%	30%	24%	25%	23%
S	20%	20%	6%	10%	13%
R	4%	4%	0%	0%	2%
N	16%	0%	0%	0%	3%
Q2: The rules are discovered out of examples by the students themselves.					
	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total in %
A	0%	4%	0%	4%	4%
O	24%	20%	28%	8%	20%
S	28%	50%	40%	37%	38%

Table 3.14: Summary of Responses to Part 1 in the Students' Questionnaire

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R	0%	20%	20%	35%	19%
N	0%	4%	0%	14%	4%
	Q3: The grammar point is presented in one or more separate sentences				
	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total in %
A	50%	40%	24%	10%	30%
O	24%	45%	36%	50%	39%
S	2%	12%	20%	18%	14%
R	0%	0%	0%	6%	1%
N	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
	Q4: The grammatical point is presented in text				
	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total in %
A	0%	0%	0%	6%	1%
O	8%	4%	4%	4%	4%
S	12%	22%	16%	29%	20%
R	20%	24%	30%	29%	26%
N	60%	50%	50%	18%	43%
	Q5: The examples of the teachers are presented on the board or on a handout. The examples are similar to those found in grammar books.				
	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total in %
A	70%	55%	28%	33%	45%
O	24%	35%	32%	41%	33%
S	2%	10%	24%	22%	16%
R	0%	0%	0%	4%	1%
N	0%	0%	0%	2%	0.5%
	Q6: Students are given examples from newspapers, magazines, etc and /or made to listen to conversations of native speakers and/or watch videos of native speakers.				
	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total in %
A	0%	0%	0%	4%	1%
O	8%	6%	4%	2%	4%

Table 3.14: Summary of Responses to Part 1 in the Students' Questionnaire (continued)

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S	8%	16%	12%	20%	13%
R	8%	20%	24%	25%	19%
N	80%	58%	60%	43%	59%
	Q7: Much class time is spent on explaining the rules and giving examples				
	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total in %
A	44%	50%	40%	37%	42%
O	20%	42%	40%	37%	34%
S	0%	8%	10%	25%	11%
R	0%	0%	0%	2%	0.5%
N	0%	0%	8%	0%	2%
	Q8: Much time is spent in letting students discover the rules out of exposure to many examples.				
	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total in %
A	0%	8%	4%	0%	3%
O	12%	4%	4%	2%	6%
S	12%	40%	24%	20%	24%
R	16%	30%	24%	37%	27%
N	50%	18%	40%	35%	39%

Table 3.14: Summary of Responses to Part 1 in the Students' Questionnaire (continued)

Table 3.14 shows that concerning the presentation of the rules answers to Q1 & Q2 indicate that both the inductive and the deductive presentation of rules were highly frequently used in class with the a total percentage of **62%** for the inductive teaching and **71%** for the deductive one. We notice also that the inductive teaching was more frequently used by T2 than by the other teachers with a total percentage of **74%** and the deductive teaching was more frequently used by T4. It is true that findings from classroom observation, Teachers' questionnaires and oral interview indicate that the inductive presentation of rules was slightly more frequent than the deductive teaching in general, and that findings from Students' questionnaires indicate the contrary (i.e., the deductive teaching being slightly more frequent than the inductive one) but we notice that both methods for presenting rules were highly frequent in class and that their frequency varied from one class to another. These findings also corroborate

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findings from both classroom observation and Teachers' questionnaires which indicate that T2 was the teacher who relied the most on the inductive teaching and that T4 was the one who relied the most on the deductive teaching of rules.

As far as contextualization of the presentation of the new grammatical structure, answers to Q3 show that the use of separate, disconnected sentences to present the new grammatical point was more frequently used by all teachers with a total percentage of **83%**. On the other hand, answers to Q4 show that the use of texts (discourse) to present the new grammatical point was less frequent with a highest percentage of **89%**. This suggests that the use of decontextualized language in presenting a grammatical item was more used than the contextualized language and this confirms also teachers' answers on the questionnaire and results obtained from classroom observation and oral interview.

Concerning the materials used to present the new grammatical structure, answers to Q5 show that the use of textbooks was highly frequently used by all the teachers with a total percentage of **87 %**. On the other hand, answers to Q6 show that using real-life materials to present the new grammatical point was very less frequently used by the teachers with **91%**. This means that the use of textbooks for teaching the new structure was more frequent than the use of real-life materials as already revealed through the three other data collection tools.

Concerning the teaching focus during the presentation stage, answers to Q7 show that all teachers spent much time on explaining the rules more frequently with **87%**. Answers to Q8 show that it was less frequent that teachers spent much time in letting students infer the rules out of exposure to plenty of examples with a percentage of **66%**. T2 is the teacher who appeared to have such a focus more than the other teachers with 52%. This confirms her (T2) response on the questionnaire. But in general, responses to Q7 & Q8 suggest that focus on the explicit grammatical knowledge was more frequent than the implicit inference of such knowledge as also confirmed with data from the three other tools.

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In what follows, we give more qualitative data on the first part of the questionnaire and which were obtained from the following open-ended question:

Q9: Do you have other comments or suggestions with regards the way you are taught grammar?

The main themes which emerged from responses to this question (answered by 84 students out of 180) concern the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of students with their teacher's method as shown below.

Responses	Themes
<p>One of the students of C1 claimed that: <i>“the way they are taught grammar is good for them because it helps understanding grammar”</i>. This can be explained by another student's (Ss1) comment about the fact that grammar <i>“is easier than before because the explanation is given with all the details, starting by rules then practising with exercises to see if we [students] had understood the lesson”</i>. More satisfaction was conveyed by students of C2 (22 students out of 40) who appreciated their teacher's method because as one of them said: <i>“The teacher gives us more than ten sentences/examples to really understand the grammatical point and makes sure we learned it by heart”</i>. Another one (from C2) claimed that the way they were taught was <i>‘perfect’</i> for them</p>	[1. Satisfaction].

However, some other students (55 Ss out of 160) did not seem to consider rules learning as the most important aspect the teacher should focus on.

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One student (from C1) said: “*We are focusing only on grammatical rules without focusing on speaking. It’s better to focus more on speaking and writing*”. In the same vein another student (from C1) claimed that “*students do not like the method of the teacher*”. Actually, more criticism came from students of C4 who expressed wishes on how they would like to be taught grammar. A student (from C4) described the way grammar was taught as ‘*always with explaining rules and then exercises*’. In fact, the students (Ss4) complained about the number of rules they were given and the speed with which they were taught. One of them said: “*I think the way we study grammar is bad because we have too much information that we cannot deal with*” Another student (from C4) added: “*It would be better if we study it in a less speed way and with more examples*”. Another student (from C4) complained: “*In many times we do not get the chance to ask questions when the teacher is explaining because when [the teacher] starts talking she never stops and in many times we have three or four things at the same time and that’s difficult and boring*”

Thus, according to the above comments some students considered the method which consisted in giving more details and explanations about the rules was more advantageous for them. Others were also satisfied due to the number of examples they were given by their teacher to discover the rules. However, other students did not perceive the way they were taught grammar (more traditional) as beneficial for them because of the heavy focus on rules, the amount of information imparted, the speed of teaching and lack of students’ involvement in learning.

In what follows, we present data obtained from the second part of the questionnaire and which dealt with the way grammar was practised in class.

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PART TWO: HOW GRAMMAR IS PRACTISED IN CLASS

	Q10: Exercises in which the teacher gives a correct answer without any true information are used (e.g. fill in the gaps, multiple choice answers, completion with the correct form, errors identification, substitution and so on).				
	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total in %
A	40%	50%	40%	31%	40%
O	40%	34%	32%	39%	37%
S	8%	16%	24%	10%	14%
R	0%	0%	4%	6%	3%
N	2%	0%	0%	4%	2%
	Q11: Activities in which the students use language to communicate true information like in story-telling, writing letters to others, introducing oneself and so on are used.				
	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total in %
A	0%	0%	4%	0%	1%
O	0%	12%	8%	6%	7%
S	2%	40%	12%	16%	17%
R	20%	12%	24%	31%	22%
N	70%	38%	52%	39%	49%
	Q12: Exercises that contain a number of separate, unconnected sentences are used				
	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total in %
A	35%	40%	32%	18%	31%
O	55%	40%	36%	35%	41%
S	10%	12%	32%	31%	22%
R	0%	4%	0%	4%	2%
N	0%	4%	0%	4%	2%

Table 3.15: Summary of responses to Part 2 in the Students' Questionnaire

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Q 13: Exercises used have the form of :																						
a) Paragraph										b) Dialogues												
	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	T	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	T		Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	T		Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	T
A	20%	8%	8%	20%	14%	0%	8%	0%	6%	3%		0%	8%	0%	6%	0%		0%	8%	0%	6%	3%
O	20%	24%	4%	25%	18%	2%	0%	6%	0%	2%		2%	0%	6%	0%	2%		2%	0%	6%	0%	2%
S	30%	50%	48%	43%	43%	40%	56%	60%	25%	45%		40%	56%	60%	25%	45%		40%	56%	60%	25%	45%
R	10%	12%	20%	4%	13%	30%	30%	16%	33%	27%		30%	30%	16%	33%	27%		30%	30%	16%	33%	27%
N	12%	0%	20%	2%	9%	20%	8%	12%	27%	17%		20%	8%	12%	27%	17%		20%	8%	12%	27%	17%
Q14: The exercises are based on:																						
a) Sentences taken from grammar books										b) Texts taken from grammar books												
	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	T	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	T		Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	T		Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	T
A	30%	46%	70%	47%	33%	8%	6%	3%	11%	7%		8%	6%	3%	11%	7%		8%	6%	3%	11%	7%
O	40%	20%	24%	35%	30%	10%	5%	8%	12%	9%		10%	5%	8%	12%	9%		10%	5%	8%	12%	9%
S	25%	34%	4%	8%	17%	50%	41%	35%	47%	43%		50%	41%	35%	47%	43%		50%	41%	35%	47%	43%
R	0%	0%	0%	2%	0.5%	30%	25%	45%	60%	42%		30%	25%	45%	60%	42%		30%	25%	45%	60%	42%
N	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2%	13%	9%	11%	9%		2%	13%	9%	11%	9%		2%	13%	9%	11%	9%
Q15: The materials of the exercises are taken from:																						
a) Newspapers					b) Magazines					c) Novels					d) Tapes, videos							
	Ss 1	Ss 2	Ss 3	Ss 4	T	Ss 1	Ss 2	Ss 3	Ss 4	T	Ss 1	Ss 2	Ss 3	Ss 4	T	Ss1	Ss 2	Ss 3	Ss 4	T		
	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4			2	3	4			
A	0	0	0	0	0%	0	0	0	0	0%	0	0	0	0	0%	0%	0	0	0	0	0%	
	%	%	%	%		%	%	%	%		%	%	%	%		%	%	%	%			
O	2	0	0	0	0.5	0	0	0	0	0%	0	0	4	0	1%	1%	0	0	0	0.2		
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%		%	%	%	%		%	%	%	%			
S	7	8	8	12	9%	2	0	4	6	3%	0	4	4	14	6%	1%	0	8	6	4%		
	%	%	%	%		%	%	%	%		%	%	%	%		%	%	%	%			
R	11	8	20	18	15	8	20	16	25	17	8	12	16	14	13	8%	16	4	20	12		
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%		
N	80	84	72	47	70	90	80	80	52	75	92	82	88	52	78	90	82	92	60	81		
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%		

Table 3.15: Summary of Responses to Part 2 in the Student's Questionnaire (continued)

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Q16: The students are made to work alone on the exercises					
	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	T
A	50%	38%	68%	70%	58%
O	40%	42%	16%	16%	28%
S	8%	18%	16%	10%	13%
R	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
N	0%	0%	4%	0%	1%
Q17: The students are made to work in groups					
	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	T
A	0%	0%	4%	2%	2%
O	8%	20%	4%	0%	7%
S	20%	38%	52%	43%	39%
R	40%	42%	28%	33%	36%
N	30%	0%	8%	22%	16%
Q18: The teacher's focus is more on the correct use of the new grammatical point in different exercises					
	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	T
A	60%	78%	60%	47%	60%
O	38%	22%	32%	33%	32%
S	0%	0%	4%	14%	5%
R	0%	0%	0%	2%	1%
N	0%	0%	4%	2%	2%

Table 3.15: Summary of responses to Part 2 in the Students' Questionnaire (continued)

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Q19: The teacher's focus is more on making students speak/write in English and interact with others					
	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	T
A	8%	16%	16%	16%	14%
O	0%	8%	6%	16%	8%
S	20%	48%	20%	20%	26%
R	40%	4%	50%	29%	32%
N	32%	4%	16%	14%	17%

Table 3.15: Summary of Responses to Part 2 in the Student's Questionnaire (continued)

Table 3.15 shows different sets of data insofar the way grammar was practised in class. Answers to Q10 revealed that the use of mechanical exercises was more frequent with **91%**. Contrariwise, the use of meaningful activities was less frequently used with **88%** as revealed from answers to Q11. This is not in line with teacher's responses which rather suggested a balance between the use of the mechanical and meaningful activities but are in line with results from classroom observation and oral interview. Actually, during the observation session we found out that meaningful activities were used only by one teacher (T2) though very rarely and this was also revealed in Students' questionnaires with a percentage of 52%. In addition, teachers' responses on the interview indicated that teachers' favourite types of exercises were the mechanical ones.

Concerning the contextualization of practice, answers to Q12 indicate that the use of separate, disconnected sentences in the exercises was more frequent with **94%**. Answers to Q13 show that the use of contextualized practice was also highly frequent with **65%** for the use of paragraphs and **50%** for the use of dialogues. This means that the use of decontextualized exercises was slightly more dominant than the contextualized exercises. This is in line with previous results obtained from the other data collection tools.

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As far as the type of materials used is concerned, answers to Q14 show that the use of sentence-level exercises from pedagogical materials was more frequent with **84%**. The use of contextualized exercises from pedagogical materials was less frequent with **94%**. On the other hand, answers to Q15 indicate that real-life materials were less frequent with very high percentages as follows: **100%, 95%, 97%** and **97%** respectively for newspapers, magazines, novels and audiovisuals (tapes & videos). This suggests that pedagogical materials were more used than the non-pedagogical ones and that the pedagogical decontextualized materials were more used than the contextualized ones. This confirms teachers' responses on the questionnaires and also results from classroom observation and interviews. However, it appears that the use of real-life materials was even scarcer according to students.

Insofar as the classwork pattern is concerned, answers to Q16 reveal that the individual classwork was more frequently used by all teachers with a percentage of **99%**. Answers to Q17 show that the use of groupwork was less frequent with **91%**. This means that the individual work was more frequent in class. This is also in vein with the results from the classroom observations and the interviews which showed that individual work was more frequent than the collaborative one. However, this is slightly different from teachers' responses on the questionnaires which rather indicate a balance between the two classwork patterns in terms of frequency.

Concerning the focus of practice, answers to Q18 show that focus on the grammatical knowledge was more frequent with **97%**. On the other hand, answers to Q19 show that teachers focused less on language use with **75%**. The exception was with T2 who also, according to students, focused on language use with **72%**. But in general, focus on knowledge of grammar was more frequent during practice than focus on use. These results are confirmed by results obtained from classroom observation, Teacher's questionnaire and oral interview and which indicate that focus on knowledge of grammar was more important in class than the use of language communicatively and the exception was with T2 who also seemed to focus very often on language use besides the grammatical knowledge.

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In what follows we add more qualitative data which were obtained from the following open-ended question:

Q20: Do you have any other comments on the way you practise grammar in class?

The main themes which emerged from responses to this question (answered by 122 students out of 180) deal with students' needs. In fact, all the students who answered to this question referred to lack of practice and lack of interaction.

Responses	Themes
For example all students of C3 asked for more exercises as one of them claimed: " <i>we need to have more activities that allow us to understand more</i> ". The same claim was made by students of C4 as one of them expressed: " <i>It would be great if the teacher gives us more exercises because there are not many of them</i> "	[1. Claim for more activities]
Students of C2 greatly expressed their satisfaction with the way they were taught grammar but some of them also would like to have more meaningful activities to do in class as one student claimed: " <i>I really prefer using grammar to learn how to talk and interact with others because I've noticed that most of the students don't know how to use the right verbs in their right form and tense and that's a shame</i> ".	[2. Claims for using grammar communicatively]
A student from C3 claimed for more meaningful activities also by saying: " <i>I think if we apply the rules of grammar in writing, we will evolve our language</i> " In the main vein, students of C4 asked for more activities and mainly the ones that involved them in speaking as one of them expressed: " <i>I prefer that the teacher focuses more on making students speak, write in English and interact with others</i> "; an another one added: " <i>We need to practise it by making conversation</i>	[3. Claims for more meaningful activities].

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with each other to use the rules we have learned". Actually some students of C4 perceived lack of students' involvement in learning and lack of practice as a rejection. For example, a student said: "The teacher doesn't care if we understand grammar or practise it".

Thus, the comments above converge on the fact that students were less satisfied with the amount of practice and demanded meaningful activities which call for interaction and transfer of rules to writing and speaking. So they claimed for more involvement and collaboration in class.

In what follows we analyze the third part of the questionnaire which sought to crosscheck results of the two previous parts in the questionnaire (Part1 & Part2).

PART THREE:

Q21: Please look at the following tasks and say which ones occur most frequently. Then rank the three most outstanding tasks into order of frequency using the table beside:

- A./ The teacher presents rules without examples
- B./ The teacher gives examples about the new grammar structure and gives the rules
- C./ The teacher presents examples but never gives rules
- D./ The students analyse examples and infer (give) the rules
- E./ The students apply the rules in exercises
- F./ The students produce (speak and/or write)

Order	Task symbol
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

To analyze the responses obtained for this question, we first present percentages of frequency of each task then we group the tasks according to the most frequent combinations, i.e. tasks occurring together. For example, most students who selected Task A also selected Task E, thus we shall call such a combination as

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Pattern AE. In addition, the tasks in the patterns are also given in the order of frequency as indicated by the students in the table beside the tasks. Four patterns (in terms of tasks) emerged from responses to Q21. These are A E - B E- DE -D E F.

The table below presents the percentages of frequency of the tasks:

	Ss1	Out of 42	Ss2	Out of 40	Ss3	Out of 50	Ss4	Out of 48	Total In %	Total Number out of 180
A	9%	3	5%	2	21%	10	42%	20	19%	35
B	85%	35	22%	9	87%	44	45%	21	59%	109
C	2%	1	3%	2	0%	0	0%	0	1%	3
D	40%	16	85%	34	28%	14	26%	12	44%	76
E	98%	41	100%	40	99%	49	100%	48	99%	178
F	11%	4	37%	14	6%	3	5%	2	14%	23

Table 3.16: Summary of Responses to Q21 in the Student's Questionnaire (Frequency of Tasks)

Table 3.17 below presents the percentages of frequency of the combinations of tasks

Patterns	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total
A, E	8%	3%	11%	35%	15%
B, E	57%	7%	62%	40%	43%
D,E	30%	66%	25%	24%	36%
D, E, F	5%	34%	2%	1%	10%

Table 3.17: Summary of Responses to Q21 in the Student's Questionnaire (Patterns of Tasks)

The table above shows that the most frequent teaching method used by teachers was the deductive teaching of rules followed with the application of the rules in exercises (B E) with **43%**. It is followed by the inductive teaching with application of rules in exercises (D E) with **36%**. The responses obtained on this question (Q21)

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are congruent with the responses obtained on Q1 & Q2 of Part 1 which indicate that both the deductive and the inductive teaching of rules were highly used in class with a slight more frequent use of the deductive teaching. These results confirm teachers' responses which also indicate that both deductive and inductive presentation of rules were highly frequent except that teachers' responses indicate that the inductive teaching was slightly more frequent than the deductive one, which is also in vein with results of the classroom observation and the interview.

Q22: How is the new grammatical point often presented? Please circle one or more options:

- A. Within one sentence example.
- B. Within multiple separate sentences.
- C. Within a paragraph.
- D. Within a dialogue.

	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total
A.	60%	40%	62%	72%	59%
B.	22%	40%	32%	25%	29%
C.	10%	9%	5%	7%	8%
D.	8%	11%	3%	4%	6%

Table 3.18: Summary of Responses to Q22 in the Student's Questionnaire

Table 3.18 shows that presenting the new grammatical point in one-sentence example was the most frequent context used for teaching grammar with 59% for always. This is congruent with responses obtained from Q3 & Q4 of Part1.

Q23: What kind of language is often chosen to present a new grammatical point? Please circle one or more options:

- A. The kind of English you find in grammar books (simplified language adapted to your level of understanding)
- B. The kind of English you read in newspapers or hear on TV (language used by native speakers that might be difficult for you).

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	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total
A.	90%	96%	99%	100%	96%
B.	10%	40%	15%	8%	18%

Table 3.19: Summary of Responses to Q23 in the Student's Questionnaire

Table 3.19 shows that pedagogical books for teaching the new point were more frequently used by teachers. T2 apparently relied also on real-life materials with **40%**. This is in vein with responses yielded on Q5 & Q6 in Part1.

Q24: What is most important for your teacher? Please circle one or more options.

- A. That students understand grammatical terminology.
- B. That students notice how language functions and discover rules.

	T1	T2	T3	T4	Total
A	66%	94%	85%	98%	87%
B	24%	38%	20%	15%	23%

Table 3.20: Summary of responses to Q24 in the Student's questionnaire

Table 3.20 shows that focus on explicit understanding of grammar was highly more frequent than the implicit inference of rules through exposure to numerous examples. The table shows also that T2 focused on language use more often than the other teachers.

25: Which type of exercises is often selected for practice? Please circle one or more options:

- A. Mechanical exercises such as those taken from textbooks (e.g. fill in the gaps with a correct form)
- B. Communicative activities which involve students in interaction (e.g. tell a real story).

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	T1	T2	T3	T4	Total
A	93%	85%	96%	98%	93%
B	7%	47%	10%	5%	16%

Table 3.21: Summary of Responses to Q25 in the Student’s Questionnaire

Table 3.21 above shows that the use of mechanical exercises was more frequent than the use of meaningful activities with T2 using them more frequently than other teachers. This is in line with responses obtained from Q10 & Q11 in part 2.

Q26: What is the usual form of the exercises? Please circle one or more options:

A/ A number of separate sentences.

B/ A paragraph

C/ A multiple paragraph text

D/ A dialogue

	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total
A	90%	86%	77%	95%	87%
B	18%	30%	30%	38%	29%
C	2%	6%	3%	2%	3%
D	30%	50%	42%	45%	42%

Table 3.22: Summary of the Responses to Q26 in the Student’s Questionnaire

Table 3.22 shows that exercises/activities in the form of separate, disconnected sentences were more frequently used than the contextualized exercises. Dialogues were the most used among the other types of contextualized exercises. This is congruent with responses obtained from Q12 & Q13 which indicate that decontextualized exercises were more frequently used than the contextualized ones.

Q27: Which source(s) are the exercises most often taken from? Please circle one or more options;

A/ Grammar textbooks.

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B/ Magazines, newspapers, novels, audiovisuals and so on

	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total
A	100%	89%	100%	99%	97%
B	5%	15%	14%	11%	11%

Table 3.23: Summary of the Responses to Q27 in the Student's Questionnaire

Table 3.23 shows that pedagogical books were more frequently used for practice than real-life materials. This is in vein with responses gained from Q14 & Q15 in part 2 and with results of the other data collection tools.

Q28: How does the teacher make students most often practise? Please circle one or more options:

A/ Individually.

B/ Collaboratively.

	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total
A	97%	72%	100%	98%	95%
B	20%	50%	32%	40%	30%

Table 3.24: Summary of the Responses to Q26 in the Student's Questionnaire

Table 3.24 shows that the individual work was more frequent than the group work. This is consistent with responses obtained from the teachers who were observed. Other teachers who answered to the questionnaire (T5, T6 & T7) indicated a slight balance between the two classwork patterns in terms of frequency.

Q29: What kind of exercises are often used in class? Please circle one or more options:

A/ Those which enable students learn the new grammatical point.

B/ Those which enable students speak in English and write in English.

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	Ss1	Ss2	Ss3	Ss4	Total
A	98%	80%	92%	99%	92%
B	4%	25%	15%	7%	10%

Table 3.25: Summary of the Responses to Q29 in the Student's Questionnaire

Table 3.25 shows that the focus in practice was more frequently on consolidating the grammar knowledge than on language use. This is not in vein with responses provided by teachers' responses which rather indicate a more considerate focus on language use.

Concerning Q30 which was designed to collect additional comments on the part of the students, it was answered by none.

In the following discussion, we recapitulate data obtained from students' questionnaires and also crosscheck these data with the data obtained from classroom observation, teachers' questionnaires and interviews.

3.7 Summary of the Results from the Students' Questionnaires

The data obtained from the students' questionnaires showed that students were taught grammar in a more traditional way through a PPP model (but with no production) where rules were presented deductively or inductively and students practised with decontextualized, non-meaningful, non-interactive exercises selected from grammar books. This traditional method of teaching grammar (FonFs) lays a focus on the grammatical knowledge and the internalization of rules. However, all the teachers incorporated occasionally some features of the communicative teaching, most of which was the inductive teaching of rules which was as often used as the deductive one. Other communicative aspects that were used in class within the traditional practice of grammar were attempts to use sometimes contextualized exercises and make students work in groups or even, though rarely, allow them use the language meaningfully. It was revealed, according to students' answers, that T2 was the teacher who tried to incorporate communicative teaching components to a great extent through

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sometimes giving opportunity to learners to practise in meaningful activities. Actually, the students of this teacher praised her greatly for the way she taught them grammar as reported in their comments. However, students of the other teachers complained about the amount of information taught, the speed of teaching, lack of meaningful practice, lack of using English in speaking and writing. In fact, most of the students of the four groups had one common claim, as they reported, which was having more activities and interaction in class. Those who seemed to be satisfied with the traditional teaching of grammar expressed that this method was ‘good’ for them because it enabled them to understand the rules.

More specifically, concerning the stage of presentation, the results show high frequency of the use of both inductive and deductive techniques for presenting the rules with the deductive technique being slightly more frequent. Actually, it was T2 who used more frequently the inductive presentation of rules than the others and T4 was the one who relied the most on the deductive teaching. In fact, students’ comments to Q9 show that students of T2 were satisfied with the method used by their teacher when presenting rules because as they said she used to give them plenty of examples so that they could understand one grammatical point. On the other hand, students of T4 complained about the amount of information they were given in terms of the number of rules of usage and found it ‘boring’. The results show also that rules were very frequently presented within decontextualized language in all the classes. In addition, the material which was highly frequently used to present the new grammatical point was the textbook, thus real-life materials which display how grammar functions in real discourse were rarely used in class. Concerning the teaching focus, the results show that talking about rules was highly frequent in this first stage. Actually, students’ comments revealed that those who were satisfied with such a great focus on rules in class admitted that it was ‘good’ because they could understand well the rules. However, other students complained about the heavy focus on rules because they saw more benefits in focusing on speaking and writing.

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Concerning practice in general, the results revealed that mechanical exercises were more frequently used than meaningful activities. The only teacher who occasionally used meaningful activities was T2. Concerning the context of the exercises, the results show that decontextualized exercises in the form of separate sentences were the most dominant, but the use of contextualized exercises in the form of paragraphs and dialogues were also frequently used. As far as the teaching materials are concerned, it appears that the use of the textbook was the material that was most often used and that the use of real-life materials for practice was scarce. As for classwork pattern, students answered that they were more frequently set to work individually than collaboratively. For the practice focus, the results show that knowledge of grammar was highly focused on in the practice stage, but students of T2 revealed that this teacher focused also highly on language use. But in general, the students (of all the classes) in their responses to Q20 complained about lack of practice and claimed for more meaningful activities which make them write, speak and interact.

In the next chapter, results obtained from tests and error analysis measures are reported. The SPSS was used to quantify data generated out of use of both instruments.

Chapter Four: Results of Tests & Analysis of Errors

Chapter Four: Results of Tests and Analysis of Errors

Introduction

This chapter reports and analyses results obtained from pre- and post-tests and those obtained from analysis of students' errors. We present first results concerning the outcomes of our treatments (FonF & FonFs instructions) which were measured by post-treatment test and analysis of post-treatment errors.

4.1 Results of the Pre- and Post-Tests

The pre- and post-tests prior and following an intervention were used specifically to address our second and third research questions. The tests were used with the aim to measure the outcomes of two teaching approaches on (1) learning grammar (aim of RQ1) and (2) application of grammar in writing (aim of RQ2). More specifically, we expected from the use of the tests to get insights about whether more implicit approaches were more or less effective than explicit approaches in gaining grammatical knowledge and applying it in writing production. As a reminder, we used two different treatments, to cover forty grammatical functions, with two groups: the first (experimental FonF group) followed an implicit, communicative instruction and the second (control FonFs group) followed a traditional teaching of grammar. The two groups were given a test on both grammar knowledge and writing ability prior to intervention. A similar test in content was administered at the end of intervention which lasted one semester. We used three treatments into three areas of verb forms which were: 1) Present and past verb forms, 2) future verb forms and 3) modal verb forms. Thus, we used three pre- and post-tests. In fact, we used three pre- and post-tests because the number of the grammatical functions which were taught was large (40 functions), thus they could not all be included in one test. The tests contained four tasks about grammar knowledge (a sentence-based multiple-choice recognition task, a text-based multiple-choice recognition task, a discrimination task & a grammatically-

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judgement task) and four tasks about the application of grammar in writing (two limited-production and two-extended writing tasks). The tasks were scored as follows:

Test on Grammar knowledge (out of 80 points)

- Part 1 (a sentence-based multiple-choice recognition task) out of 20
- Part 2 (a text-based multiple-choice recognition task) out of 20
- Part 3 (a discrimination task) out of 20
- Part 4 (a grammatically-judgement task) out of 20

Test on application of grammar knowledge in Writing (out of 80)

- Part 5 (a limited-production task) out of 20
- Part 6 (a limited-production task) out of 20
- Part 7 (an extended writing task) out of 20
- Part 8 (an extended writing task) out of 20

Thus, the total score of the tests is 160 points (80 points for the test on grammar & 80 points for the test on grammar application in writing production)

All data obtained from the pre- and post-tests were entered into SPSS. First, we compared post-test gains in general and in grammar and its application in writing in particular after the treatments for both FonF and FonFs groups. Second, we compared the two groups in terms of overall post-test scores and post-test scores in grammar and grammar in writing. We present our data in the following tables by including the means (\bar{x}), the number of participants (N) and the standard deviation (Sd). We present the means of the total post-test scores which are out of 160, the means of the scores obtained on grammar knowledge (out of 80) and the means of scores obtained in the implementation of grammar in writing (out of 80). We should make it clear that we mean by writing the correct and appropriate use of the grammar in writing. Concerning the number of participants which was 100 in each group (FonF & FonFs), we considered only the number of participants who were regularly attending class during treatment and who took both the pre- and post-test. Thus, the number of participants in each group was 80 participants in treatment in the area of present/past verb forms, 84 participants in treatment in the area of future verb forms and 87 participants in

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treatment in the area of modal verbs. We should also mention that we purposefully retained the same number of participants who took the pre- and post-tests in both control and experimental groups (FonF & FonFs) to maximize power of analysis, i.e, a design with equal numbers of subjects in each sample or group generally increases reliability of the results more than the unbalanced or unequal-allocation design.

4.1.1 Results of the Pre- and Post-Tests with Present and Past Verb Forms

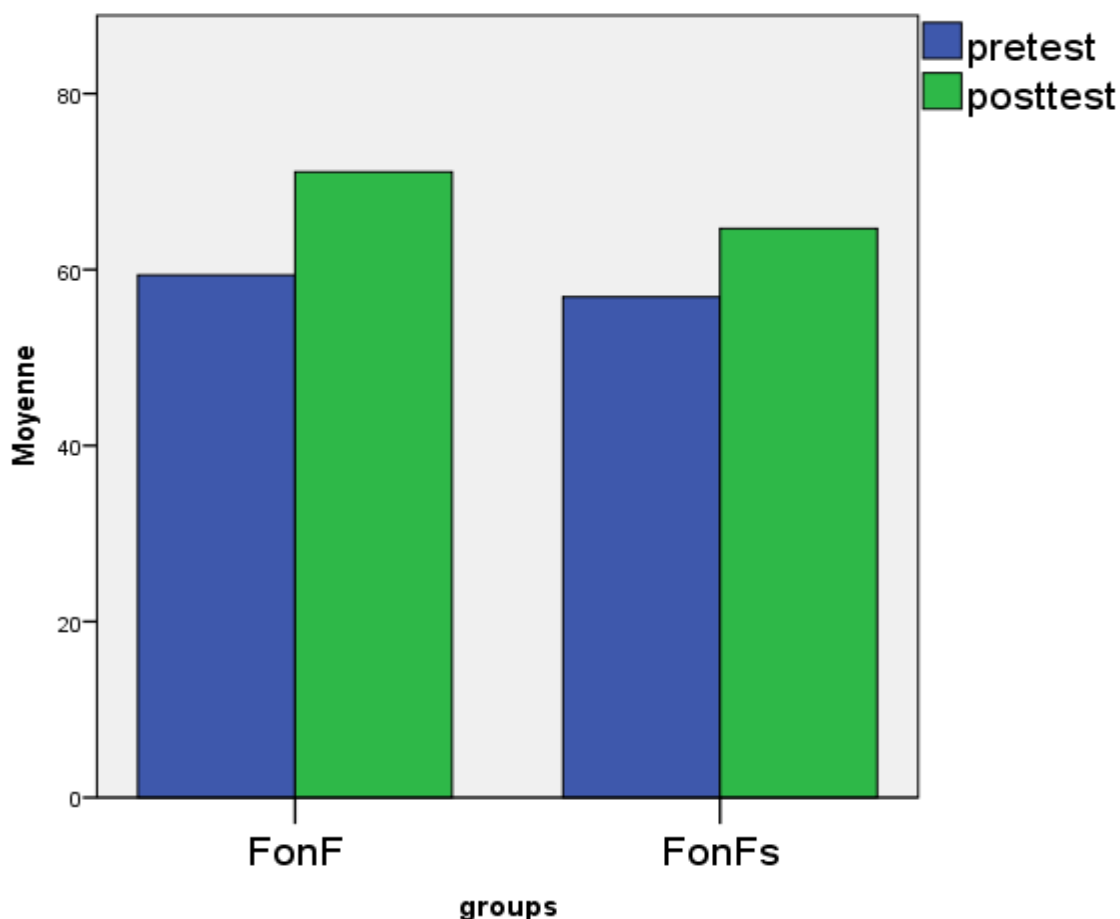
We administered the first pre-test about present and past tenses at the beginning of the treatment, and then both FonF and FonFs groups were taught the structures under focus during six weeks. The structures taught were *present simple* and *present continuous*, *present perfect* and *past simple*, *past simple*, *past continuous* and *past perfect* (see appendix5).At the end of this treatment a post-test followed.

In what follows we present and analyse data obtained from the pre- and post-test about present and past verb forms. ‘N’ refers to the number of participants in each group.

The following table shows the overall pre- and post-test scores of both FonF & FonFs groups with the aim to measure improvement of each group after treatment and compare between the two groups.

N= 80			
		Mean (out of 160)	Sd
FonF	Pre-test	59	19.20
	Post-test	71	21.31
FonFs	Pre-test	56	18.13
	Post-test	64	19.02

Table 4.26: Summary of Data of the Pre-Test-Post-Test Total Scores on Present/Past Verb Forms



Graph1: Pre-Test and Post-Test Means in Present/Past Verb Forms

The means of pre-test scores and post-test scores of both FonF and FonFs groups were compared to measure any improvement created by treatment. The results above reveal that FonF group scored higher on the post-test as the means indicate (59 on pre-test & 71 on post-test). The results also reveal that the FonFs group scored higher on the post-test (56 on pre-test & 64 on post-test). Therefore both groups (FonF & FonFs) scored higher on post-tests. But comparison of the overall post-test means of the two groups revealed that the FonF group scored higher than the FonFs group (FonF:71, FonFs:64). The results indicate also that there is a high difference between the means and that the standard deviation values are also high. This accounts for the fact that some students obtained very high scores which have pulled the values up. Actually, this statistical difference in means and standard deviation was recurrent in the three post-tests on the different grammatical areas (i.e past/present, future & modal verb forms). We infer also from the results above that though there was improvement on post-test scores the means (71 for the FonF & 64 for the FonFs) are under the average of the total test score which is 80. This means that though there is immediate

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and important improvement for both groups after treatment the scores in general remain low (below the average which is 80 out of 160).

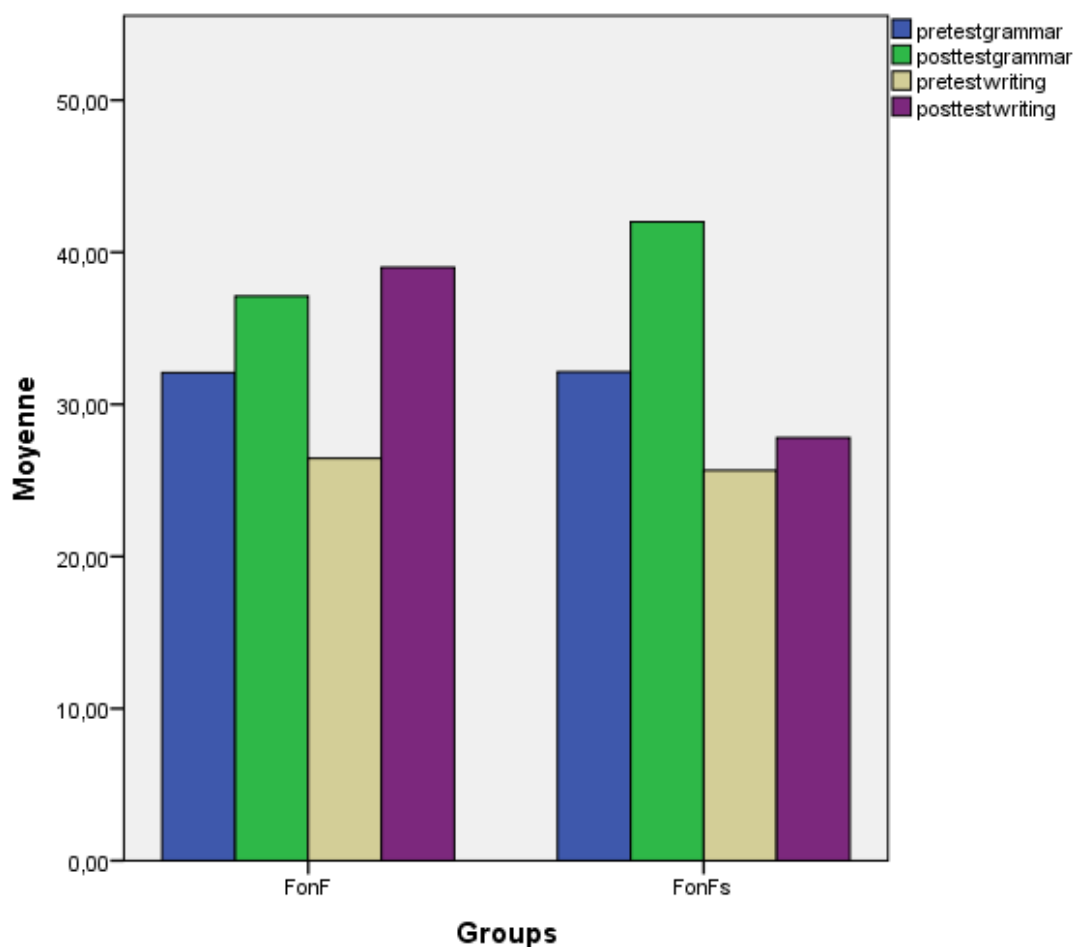
The following tables show the means of the pre- and post-tests in both grammar and its implementation in writing with the aim to measure the effect of treatments in these areas (with relation to present/past verb forms) for each group and also to compare between the two groups in terms of achievement after treatment in both grammar and grammar implementation in writing.

N= 80			
	Mean (out of 80)	Sd	
FonF	Pre-test grammar	32	10.08
	Post-test grammar	37	10.16
FonF	Pre-test writing	26	12.90
	Post-test writing	39	13.41

Table 4.27: Summary of Data of the Pre-Test-Post-Test of Present/Past Verb Forms in Grammar Knowledge and Writing of FonF

N=80			
	Mean (out of 80)	Sd	
FonFs	Pre-test grammar	32	9.08
	Post-test grammar	42	24.16
FonFs	Pre-test writing	25	10.90
	Post-test writing	27	10.41

Table 4.28: Summary of Data of the Pre-Test-Post-Test of Present/Past Verb Forms in Grammar Knowledge and Writing of FonFs



Graph 2: Pre-Test and Post-Test Means in Grammar and Writing In Present/Past Verb Forms

A comparison of the means of the pre-test and post-test scores of the two groups in both grammar and its implementation in writing shows that the FonF group scored higher in both grammar and writing post-tests (pre-test:32, post-test:37 in grammar; pre-test:26, post-test:39 in writing). For FonFs, the results indicate that the increase is higher in grammar but not in writing (pre-test:32, post-test:42 in grammar; pre-test:26, post-test:27 in writing).

A comparison of the means of both FonF and FonFs groups in grammar and writing after treatment shows that the FonFs group achieved better results than the FonF group in grammar(FonF:37/FonFs:42) and the FonF group did better than the FonFs in implementing grammar in writing (FonF:39, FonFs:27).

Thus, as far as treatment in the present/past verb forms with the two groups is concerned, results on the post-test revealed that on the whole (total scores of both

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grammar & writing) both FonF and FonFs groups improved their scores after treatment with the FonF group scoring better than the FonFs group. More specifically, the FonFs group scored better than the FonF group in grammar, and the FonF group scored better than the FonFs group in the implementation of grammar in writing. This means that in terms of knowledge both methods (FonF & FonFs) had a positive effect on learning the past/present verb forms with a slight better effect for the FonFs instruction. Concerning the implementation of grammar in writing, it is the FonF instruction which proved to be much better than the FonFs instruction in leading the students to correctly and appropriately use grammar in writing.

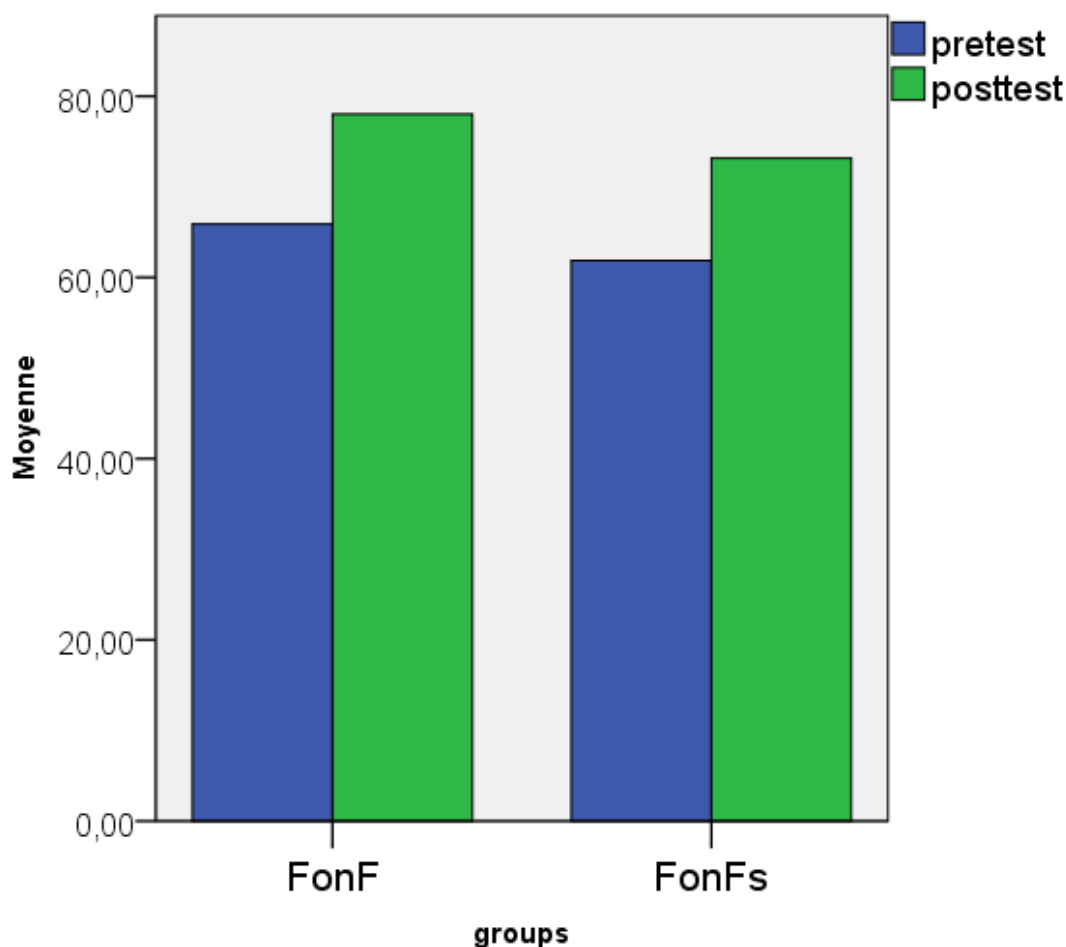
4.1.2 Results of the Pre- and Post-Tests with the Future Verb Forms

We administered the second pre-test about the future tense at the beginning of the treatment in future verb forms, and then both FonF and FonFs groups were taught the structures under focus during four weeks. The structures taught were *future with 'will'* and *'going to'* and *Future continuous* and *future perfect* (see appendix 5). At the end of this treatment a post-test followed. In what follows we present and analyse data obtained from the pre- and post-test about future verb forms.

The following table presents the overall pre- and post-test scores of both FonF & FonFs groups with the aim to measure improvement of each group after treatment and compare between the two groups

N= 84			
		Mean (out of 160)	Sd
FonF	Pre-test	65	22.42
	Post-test	78	23.53
FonFs	Pre-test	61	19.11
	Post-test	73	19.14

Table 4.29: Summary of Data of the Pre-Test-Post-Test Total Scores on Future Verb Forms



Graph 3: Pre-Test and Post-Test Means in Future Verb Forms

We compared the means of pre-test scores and post-test scores with both groups to measure any significant difference created by treatment. The results above reveal that the FonF group scored higher on the post-test (pretest: 65, posttest: 78). The results also show that the FonFs group scored higher on the post-test (pretest: 61, posttest: 73). Therefore both groups (FonF & FonFs) improved after treatment. The results also indicate that the FonF group slightly scored better than the FonFs group when it comes to the overall post-test scores (FonF: 78, FonFs: 73). It should be noted also that though there was improvement after treatment with two different instructions (FonF & FonFs), the improvement in general was below the average (80) as clearly shown in Graph 3.

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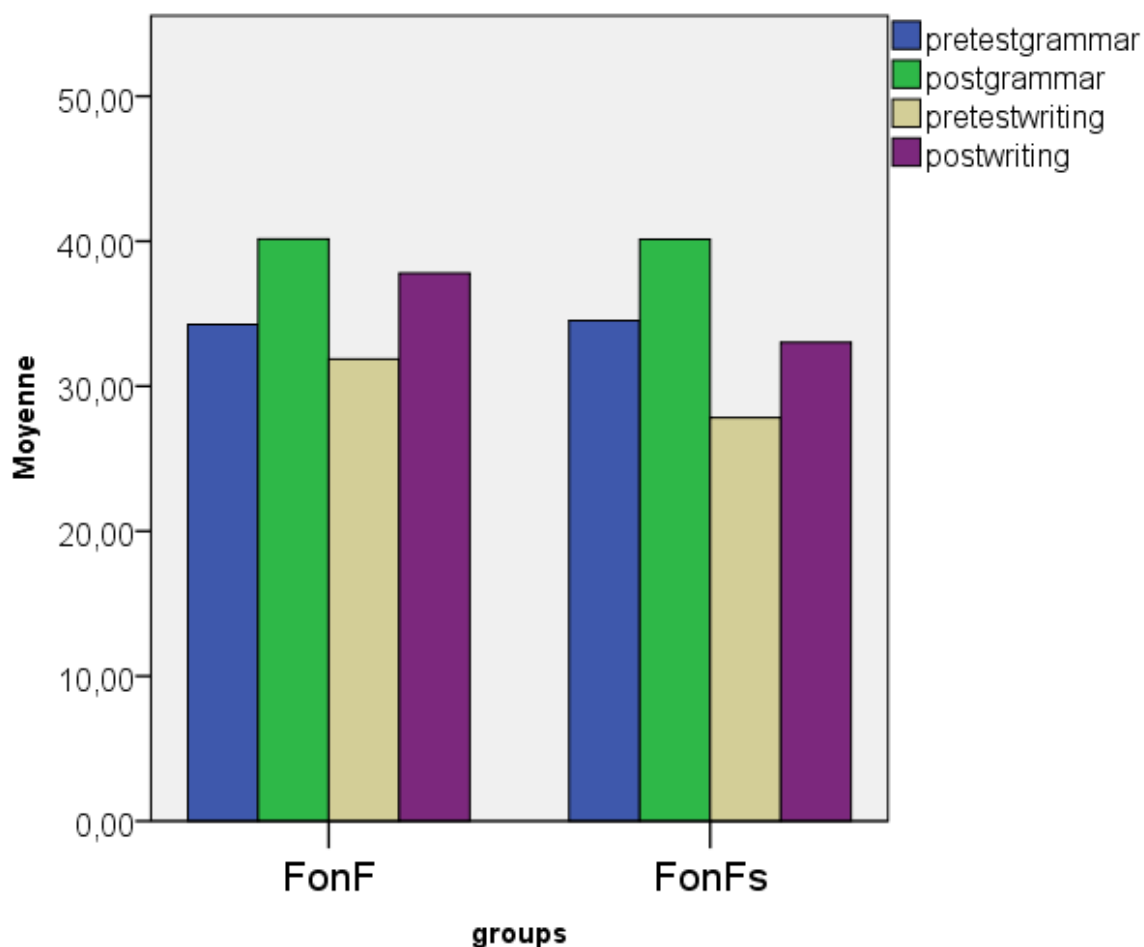
The following tables present the means of the pre- and post-tests in both grammar and its implementation in writing with the aim to measure improvement in these areas (with relation to future verb forms) for each group and also to compare between the two groups in terms of achievement after treatment in both grammar and its correct and appropriate use in writing.

N=84			
		Mean (out of 80)	Sd
FonF	Pre-test grammar	34	9.06
	Post-test grammar	40	10.18
FonF	Pre-test writing	31	14.62
	Post-test writing	37	14.61

Table 4.30: Summary of Data of the Pre-Test-Post-Test of Future Verb Forms in Grammar Knowledge and Writing of FonF

N= 84			
		Mean (out of 80)	Sd
FonFs	Pre-test grammar	34	10.12
	Post-test grammar	40	11.12
FonFs	Pre-test writing	27	12.39
	Post-test writing	33	11.27

Table3.31: Summary of Data of the Pre-Test-Post-Test of Future Verb Forms in Grammar Knowledge and Writing of FonFs



Graph 4: Pre-Test and Post-Test Means in Grammar and Writing in Future Verb Forms

We compared the means of pre-test and post-test scores in both grammar and its implementation in writing with both FonF and FonFs groups. The results indicate that the FonF group scored higher on both grammar and writing in the post-tests (pretest: 34, posttest: 40 in grammar; pretest: 31, posttest: 37 in writing). For FonFs, the results reveal also that the increase was important in both grammar and writing (pretest: 34, posttest: 40 in grammar; pretest: 27, posttest: 33 in writing)

Comparison of the scores of both FonF and FonFs groups in grammar and writing after treatment reveal that there was no difference between the two groups concerning achievement in grammar (FonF:40,FonFs:40). Concerning the post-test in writing, there was a slight difference in performance on writing between the two groups with the FonF group scoring slightly better (FonF: 37, FonFs: 33).

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Thus, as far as treatment in the future verb forms with the two groups is concerned, results on the post-test show that the difference between the overall means of the two groups was very slight. Concerning grammar, results indicate no difference in performance between the two groups. As far as writing is concerned, the results showed that the FonF group scored very slightly better than the FonFs group.

4.1.3 Results of the Pre- and Post-Tests with Modal Verb Forms

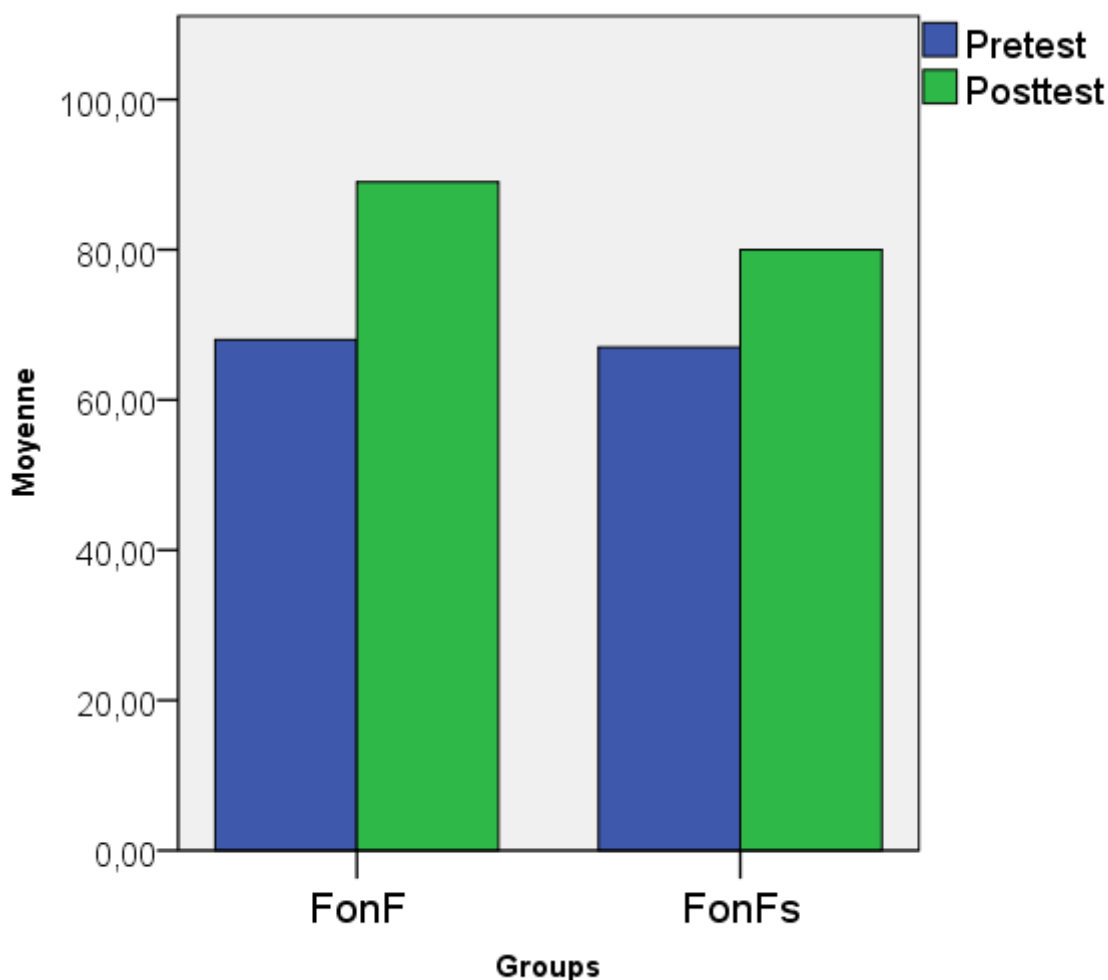
We administered the third pre-test about the modal verbs at the beginning of the treatment in modals, and then both FonF and FonFs groups were taught the structures under focus during six weeks. The structures taught were *modals of ability and possibility*, *modals of advice and expectation*, and *modals of necessity and deduction* (see appendix 5). At the end of this treatment a post-test followed

In what follows we present and analyse data obtained from the pre- and post-test about modal verb forms.

The following table presents the overall pre- and post-test scores of both FonF & FonFs groups with the aim to measure improvement of each group after treatment and compare between the two groups after treatment as well.

N= 87			
		Mean (out of 160)	Sd
FonF	Pre-test	68	20.21
	Post-test	89	21.28
FonFs	Pre-test	67	16.82
	Post-test	80	18.98

Table 4.32: Summary of Data of the Pre-Test-Post-Test Total Scores on Modal Verb Forms



Graph 5: Pre-Test and Post-Test Means in Modal Verb Forms

We compared the means of pre-test scores and post-test scores with both groups to measure any improvement created by treatment. The results above show that the FonF group scored higher on the post-test and the difference between pre- and post-test scores in terms of the means is very high (68 on pre-test & 89 on post-test). The results also reveal that the FonFs group scored higher on the post-test (67 on the pre-test & 80 on the post-test). Therefore both groups (FonF & FonFs) scored higher on post-tests. Comparison of the overall post-test means of the two groups indicates also that the FonF group scored much higher than the FonFs group (FonF: 89, FonFs: 80).

The following tables present the means of the pre- and post-tests in both grammar and writing with the aim to measure improvement in these areas (with

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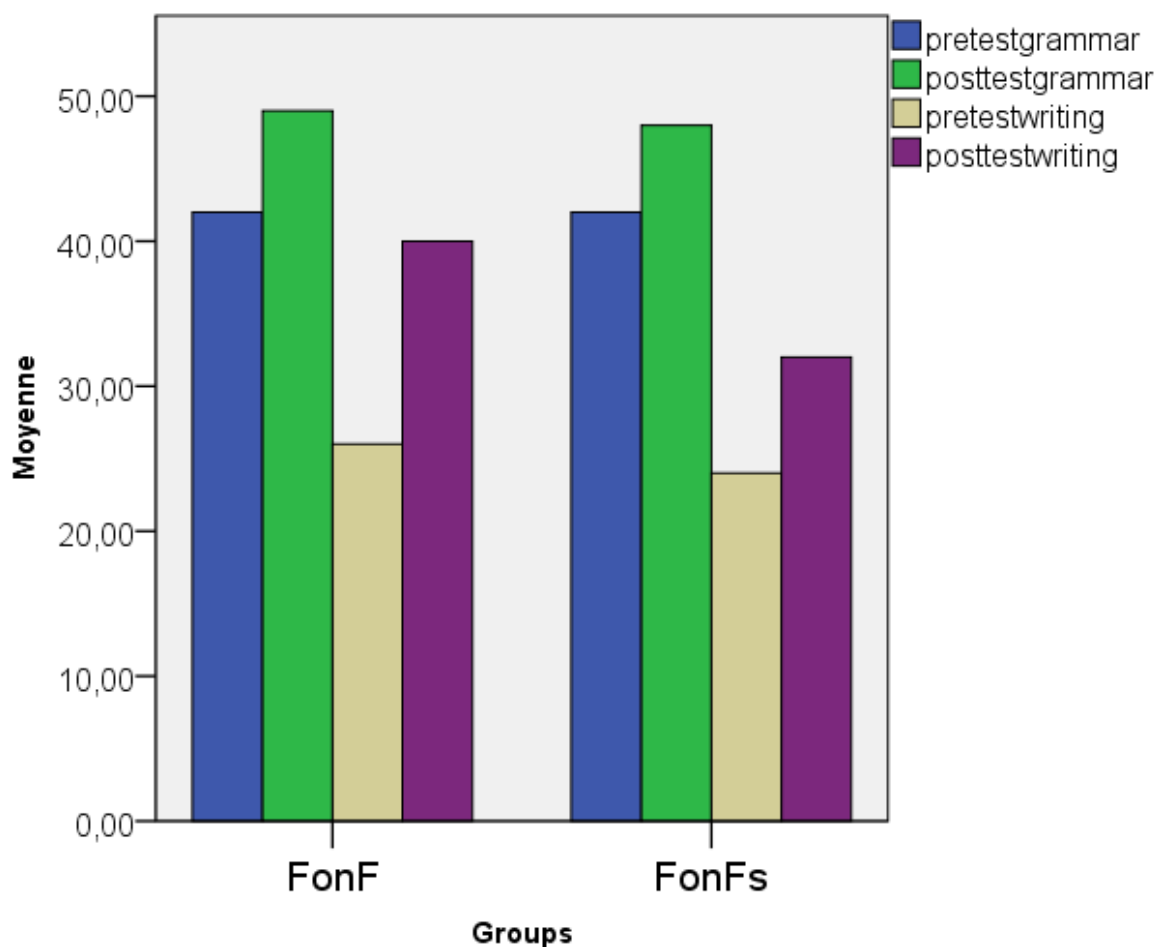
relation to modal verb forms) for each group and also to compare between the two groups in terms of achievement after treatment in both grammar and writing.

N= 87			
		Mean (out of 80)	Sd
FonF	Pre-test grammar	42	11.01
	Post-test grammar	49	9.86
FonF	Pre-test writing	26	13.12
	Post-test writing	40	14.31

Table 4.33: Summary of Data of the Pre-Test-Post-Test of Modal Verb Forms in Grammar Knowledge and Writing of FonF

N= 87			
		Mean (out of 80)	Sd
FonFs	Pre-test grammar	42	9.53
	Post-test grammar	48	10.78
FonFs	Pre-test writing	24	11.16
	Post-test writing	32	11.05

Table 4.34: Summary of Data of the Pre-Test-Post-Test of Modal Verb Forms in Grammar Knowledge and Writing of FonFs



Graph 6: Pre-Test and Post-Test Means in Grammar and Writing in Modal Verb Forms

We compared the means of pre-test and post-test scores in both grammar and writing with both FonF and FonFs groups. The results show that the FonF group scored much higher on both grammar and writing post-tests (pretest: 42, posttest: 49 in grammar; pretest: 26, posttest: 40 in writing). For the FonFs group, the results indicate that this group also highly improved in both grammar and writing (pretest: 42, posttest: 48 in grammar; pretest: 24, posttest: 32 in writing).

The Comparison of the scores of both FonF and FonFs groups in grammar and writing after treatment reveal that there was no great difference between the two groups with regards grammar (FonF:49, FonFs:48). Concerning post-test in writing, there was a high difference in performance on writing between the two groups with a better score for the FonF group (FonF: 40, FonFs: 32)

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Thus, as far as treatment in the modal verb forms with the two groups is concerned, results on the post-test showed that the difference between the overall means of the two groups was important and indicated that the FonF group better improved as compared to the FonFs group on the whole. However, there was no important difference between the two groups as regards their performance on grammar. However, it has been shown that the FonF group performed much better than the FonFs in implementing correctly and appropriately grammar in writing.

In what follows, we present results of the analysis of the incorrect use and the correct use of all the 40 functions taught to the FonF and FonFs groups. This analysis was made to find out whether different verb forms were learned differently or equally with different instructional strategies (FonF and FonFs)

4.2 Results of the Analysis of Errors

We analyzed students' errors to answer the fourth research question which aims at finding out which of the structures taught were most difficult and which of them were better learned under either of the teaching conditions: FonFs or FonF or maybe both. After treatment in the three grammatical areas (present/past, future and modal verb forms), we analyzed the students' errors made on the tasks of the post-treatment test. We analyzed errors made with each structure (of the forty functions taught) and which we categorized into errors of grammar and errors of writing (application of grammar in writing). Since there were four tasks that tested grammar knowledge ability and four tasks which tested such ability in writing, we quantified the errors as follows: we noted an error when at least it was repeated twice by one student. For example, if a participant made an error with 'present simple' only in the sentence-based recognition task but used it correctly in the three other tasks, i.e., text-based recognition, meaning discrimination and error identification tasks, thus we did not consider it as an error. A same procedure was followed when categorizing and quantifying errors in the writing activities (which consist also in four tasks).

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In what follows, we present data related to the frequently occurring errors made with each of the structures taught during treatment. We quantified errors made in tasks about grammar and errors made in writing tasks (for applying the learned grammar). The percentages used in the following tables refer to the number of students who erred on a particular grammatical function.

4.2.1 Frequency of Errors with Verbs in Present and Past Tenses

In the following table, we present numbers and percentages of the students (from both FonF & FonFs groups) who made errors in grammar tasks in relation with the structures of the present and past verbs taught in class. The percentages are highlighted when errors are made by a high number of students.

N	Functions of verb forms	FonF (80 students)		FonFs (80 students)	
		Grammar Test		Grammar Test	
		N	%	N	%
1	Present simple for permanent actions	9	12%	28	35%
2	Present simple with state verbs	0	0%	25	32%
3	Present continuous for ongoing actions around speaking	11	14%	4	5%
4	present continuous indicating speaker's irritation	80	100%	32	40%
5	Present continuous for temporary actions	25	32%	32	40%
6	Present perfect with repeated actions	56	70%	25	32%
7	Present perfect with actions connected to the present	41	52%	80	100%
8	Present perfect continuous with focus on the activity	25	32%	8	10%
9	Past continuous with past long actions	48	57%	17	22%
10	Past simple for brief actions	65	82%	53	67%
11	Past simple with finished actions	64	80%	37	47%
12	Past simple with specific points of time	33	42%	60	75%
13	Past perfect with earlier past events	28	35%	73	92%

Table 4.35: Summary of the Errors Made in Present/Past Verb Forms in Grammar

From table 4.35 we observe the following:

Observation 1: Most structures (structures 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 11, 12 & 13) were difficult for both groups of students (FonF & FonFs) according to the high number of students

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who made errors with such structures. In addition, if we compare the percentages of students who made errors in the two groups, we find that both students had more difficulty with four of the structures mentioned above (the eight most difficult structures): the FonF had more difficulty with structures 4, 6, 10 & 11 whereas the FonFs group had more difficulty with structures 7, 10, 12 & 13. In addition, the FonF students made no error with 'present simple with state verbs' compared to FonFs students.

Observation 2: On the whole, there were seven structures (the highlighted ones) which were more difficult for the students of the FonF group than the FonFs' (3, 4, 6, 8, 9, 10 & 11) and six structures which were more difficult for the students of the FonF group (1, 2, 5, 7, 12 & 13). The most difficult structures for the FonF students were the 'present continuous indicating speaker's irritation' (N4) with 100%, 'past simple for brief actions' (N10) with 82%, 'past simple with finished actions' (N64) and 'present perfect with repeated actions' (N6) with 70% while the structures which were difficult for the FonFs students were 'present perfect with actions connected to the present' (N7) with 100%, 'past perfect with earlier events' (N13) with 92% and 'past simple with specific points of time' (N12) with 75%.

Thus, concerning present/past verb forms, we conclude that the students of the FonFs group made fewer errors than the FonF students in tasks about grammatical knowledge of present/past verb forms. Nevertheless, in terms of the most difficult structures both groups had difficulty with the same number of structures (4 structures).

In the following table, we present the number and percentages of the students who made errors with present/past verb forms in the writing tasks:

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	Functions of verb forms	FonF (80 students)		FonFs (80 students)	
		Writing Test		Writing Test	
		N	%	N	%
1	Present simple for permanent actions	0	0%	0	0%
2	Present simple with state verbs	0	0%	2	3%
3	Present continuous for ongoing actions around speaking	5	7%	37	47%
4	present continuous indicating speaker's irritation	Not used	0%	Not used	0%
5	Present continuous for temporary actions	8	10%	45	57%
6	Present perfect with repeated actions	Not used	0%	Not used	0%
7	Present perfect with actions connected to the present	20	25%	60	75%
8	Present perfect continuous with focus on the activity	Not used	0%	Not used	0%
9	Past continuous with past long actions	0	0%	13	17%
10	Past simple for brief actions	0	0%	4	5%
11	Past simple with finished actions	45	57%	69	87%
12	Past simple with specific points of time	1	2%	49	62%
13	Past perfect with earlier past events	25	32%	64	80%

Table 4.36: Summary of the Errors Made in Present/Past Verb Forms in Writing

Observation 1: Students of both groups had difficulty in using appropriately two structures in the writing tasks: the first was the 'past simple with finished actions' (N11) and the second was the 'past perfect with earlier events' (N13). In addition, the FonFs students considerably outnumbered the FonF students in terms of number of errors made with these two structures mainly with the structure N 13.

Observation 2: If we consider the difficult structures in terms of use for each group, we find that the students of the FonFs group had difficulty with six structures (N3, N5, N7, N11, N12, N13) whereas the students of the FonF group had difficulty only with the structures N11 and N13. We should note also that the FonF students made no error in using the structures 'present simple for permanent actions' (N1) and the 'present simple for formal schedule' (N2) in the writing tasks.

Observation 3: If we compare errors made in grammatical tasks with errors made in written production, we find that most errors were made in tasks about grammar knowledge and not in tasks of writing (out of 13 structures:8 difficult structures in

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grammar against 2 in writing). Sometimes an error on grammar tasks completely disappeared in writing tasks such is the case for ‘present with permanent actions’ (N1). Both groups showed zero errors in writing activities in relation to this form, though on grammar knowledge tasks errors were detected.

Thus, concerning the use of present/past verb forms in the writing tasks, we conclude that very few errors were made by the FonF students in applying the grammatical knowledge in writing as compared to the FonFs students. In addition, a comparison between the errors made in grammar test with those made in writing test showed that errors in tasks about knowledge of grammar were more numerous than those made in tasks about the application of the grammatical knowledge in writing.

4.2.2 Frequency of Errors with Verbs in Future

In the following table, we present number and percentages of the students (from both FonF & FonFs groups) who made errors in grammar tasks in relation with the structures of the future tense taught in class.

N	Functions of verb forms	FonF (84 students)		FonFs (84 students)	
		Grammar Test		Grammar Test	
		N	%	N	%
1	Present in formal future schedule	1	1%	19	19%
2	present continuous for near future	53	64%	78	94%
3	<i>Will</i> for prediction based on opinion	2	2%	5	6%
4	<i>Going to</i> for prediction based on evidence	33	40%	42	50%
5	<i>Will</i> for spontaneous decision	28	34%	46	55%
6	<i>Going to</i> for planned decision	33	40%	49	59%
7	Future continuous for plans	25	30%	42	50%
8	Future continuous for present continuous actions occurring elsewhere	50	60%	67	80%
9	Future perfect for completion of actions before a future point of time	25	30%	52	63%
10	Future perfect for actions that we know they happened but elsewhere	23	28%	43	52%
11	Future continuous for future actions in progress	12	15%	37	45%

Table 4.37: Summary of the Errors Made in Future Verb Forms in

Grammar

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Observation 1: If we consider the highly frequent errors commonly made by both groups of students, we find that most structures (N2, N4, N5, N6, N7, N8& N9) were difficult for the students of both FonFs and FonF groups. There were only two structures which were correctly used by students of both groups and these were ‘present in formal future schedule’ (N1) and ‘*will* for prediction based on opinion’ (N3). Moreover, the table above reveals that the students of the FonFs group outnumbered those of the FonF group in relation with errors made with all the structures.

Observation 2: If we consider errors made with the two groups separately, we find that the FonFs students had difficulty with nine structures and the FonF group had difficulty with seven structures, which means that most structures of future tense were difficult for both of the groups. The FonF students were better (made fewer errors) with ‘future perfect for actions that we know they happened elsewhere’ (N10) and ‘future continuous for future actions in progress’ (N11).

Thus, concerning the future verb forms used in the grammar tasks, we conclude that both FonFs and FonF students made a great number of errors with most future verb forms, though the students of the FonFs group made greater errors than those of the FonF group.

In the following table, we present the number and percentages of the students who made errors with future verb forms in writing tasks

N	Functions of verb forms	FonF (84 students)		FonFs (84 students)	
		Writing Test		Writing Test	
		N	%	N	%
1	Present in formal future schedule	0	0%	21	26%
2	present continuous for near future	0	0%	23	28%
3	<i>Will</i> for prediction based on opinion	1	2%	2	3%
4	<i>Going to</i> for prediction based on evidence	Not used	0%	Not used	0%
5	<i>Will</i> for spontaneous decision	2	3%	21	26%
6	<i>Going to</i> for planned decision	26	32%	52	62%

Table 4.38: Summary of the Errors Made in Future Verb Forms in Writing

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7	Future continuous for plans	Not used	0%	Not used	0%
8	Future continuous for present continuous actions occurring elsewhere	50	60%	53	64%
9	Future perfect for completion of actions before a future point of time	47	56%	68	81%
10	Future perfect for actions we know that happened but elsewhere	42	51%	42	51%
11	Future continuous for future actions in progress	38	46%	78	93%

Table 4.38: Summary of the Errors Made in Future Verb Forms in Writing

(continued)

Observation 1: The table above shows that students of both groups (FonF & FonFs) had difficulty with the same future verb forms (N6, N8, N9, N10 & N11) in terms of use in writing. If we compare percentages of errors made by both groups of students in relation with these five difficult structures, we find that the students of the FonFs group made considerably a higher number of errors on three structures which were ‘going to for planned decision’ (N6) and ‘future perfect for completion of an action before a future point of time’ (N8) and ‘future continuous for actions in progress’ (N11).

Observation 2: The students of the FonF group showed no difficulty in using ‘present simple for formal scheduling’(N1) and ‘present continuous for near future events’(N2) compared to the students of the FonFs group , though not many, who made errors with such structures in the writing tasks.

Observation 3: If we compare the number of the difficult structures (according to the frequency of errors with each structure) found in both grammar and writing tests, we find that the number of the difficult structures found in the grammar test outnumbered the difficult structures found in the test of writing (7 difficult structures in the grammar test Vs 5 difficult structures found in the writing test). Sometimes the errors found in the grammar test completely disappeared in the writing test such was the case with the ‘present simple for scheduling’ and the ‘present continuous for near future’ (with FonFs students).

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Observation 4: The comparison of the difficult structures in both the grammar test and the writing test shows also that some structures were more difficult in doing the test about the grammatical knowledge than in using them when writing such was the case with the structures N9, N10 and N11.

Thus, concerning the use of future tense in the writing tasks, we conclude that students of both groups had difficulty with the same structures in terms of use in writing but with more students of the FonFs group making errors than students of the FonF group. However, we should note that the FonFs students did not have any practice in writing, neither feedback on errors made in written production contrary to the FonF students who received indirect feedback (recast) on their written production. In addition, we found that many students (in both groups) erred more in the grammar test and not in the writing test and this with the majority of the structures.

4.2.3 Frequency of Errors with Modal Verbs

In the following table, we present number and percentages of the students (from both FonF & FonFs groups) who made errors in grammar tasks in relation with the structures of the modal verbs taught in class.

N	Functions of verb forms	FonF (87 students)		FonFs (87 students)	
		Grammar Test		Grammar Test	
		N	%	N	%
1	<i>Managed to</i> for particular ability	17	20%	31	35%
2	<i>Could</i> for general ability	48	55%	53	60%
3	<i>Must</i> for strong possibility	32	36%	33	37%
4	<i>Must have+past participle</i> for strong past possibility	28	32%	37	42%
5	<i>May</i> for less certainty	31	35%	36	41%
6	<i>Might/could</i> for uncertainty	24	27%	42	48%
7	<i>Cant't</i> for negative strong possibility	8	9%	12	13%

Table 4.39: Summary of the Errors Made in Modal Verb Forms in Grammar

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8	<i>Couldn't have been</i> for negative strong possibility in the past	19	21%	38	43%
9	<i>Should</i> for general advice and expectation	25	28%	35	40%
10	<i>Should have+past participle</i> for expectation and advice in the past	25	28%	33	37%
11	<i>Ought to</i> for advice and expectation	29	33%	57	65%
12	<i>Ought to have+past participle</i> for advice and expectation	41	47%	57	65%
13	<i>Have to</i> for outside obligation	32	36%	32	36%
14	<i>Must</i> for obligation from speaker's point of view	24	27%	24	27%
15	<i>Do not need</i> for general absence of necessity	3	3%	4	4%
16	<i>Musn't</i> for prohibition	19	21%	32	36%

Table 4.39: Summary of the Errors Made in Modal Verb Forms in Grammar (continued)

Observation 1: The table above shows that except for the structure '*can't* for negative possibility' (N7) and '*do not need* for absence of necessity' (N15), all the other structures (11 ones) were incorrectly used by many of the students of the two groups. In addition, the FonFs students outnumbered the FonF students in making errors with nine structures (N2, N3, N4, N5, N6, N9, N10, N11, and N12) and equal them in erring with two others (N13 & N14).

Observation 2: The table above shows also that the FonFs students made errors with most structures (14 ones) and these were N1, N2, N3, N4, N6, N7, N8, N9, N10, N11, N13, N14 & N16. The students of the FonF group made many errors also with most of the structures (11 ones) which were N2, N3, N4, N5, N6, N9, N10, N11, N12, N13 & N14.

Thus, concerning using modals in tasks about grammar knowledge, the students of the FonFs group had difficulty with more structures than the FonF students had, though both of the groups had difficulty (according to the number of students who made errors with each structure) in using most of the modal verbs correctly in the tasks about the grammatical knowledge.

In the following table, we present the number and percentages of the students who made errors with modal verb forms in writing tasks

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N	Functions of verb forms	FonF (80 students)		FonFs (80 students)	
		Writing Test		Writing Test	
		N	%	N	%
1	<i>Managed to</i> for particular ability	24	31%	47	59%
2	<i>Could</i> for general ability	Correct or avoided	0%	Correct or avoided	0%
3	<i>Must</i> for strong possibility	Correct or avoided	0%	Correct or avoided	0%
4	<i>Must have+past participle</i> for strong past possibility	Correct or avoided	0%	Correct or avoided	0%
5	<i>May</i> for less certainty	44	55%	48	61%
6	<i>Might/could</i> for uncertainty	24	30%	24	30%
7	<i>Cant't</i> for negative strong possibility	Correct or avoided	0%	Correct or avoided	0%
8	<i>Couldn't have+past participle</i> for negative strong possibility in the past	Correct or avoided	0%	Correct or avoided	0%
9	<i>Should</i> for general advice and expectation	2	3%	10	13%
10	<i>Should have+past participle</i> for expectation and advice in the past	50	63%	34	43%
11	<i>Ought to</i> for advice and expectation	35	44%	51	64%
12	<i>Ought to have+past participle</i> for advice and expectation	61	77%	62	78%
13	<i>Have to</i> for outside obligation	29	37%	44	56%
14	<i>Must</i> for obligation from speaker's point of view	32	47%	40	51%
15	<i>Do not need</i> for general absence of necessity	1	1%	7	9%
16	<i>Musn't</i> for prohibition	1	1%	8	10%

Table 4.40: Summary of the Errors Made in Modal Verb Forms in Writing

Observation 1: table 4.40 shows that eight structures (half the total number of structures) were inappropriately used in the writing tasks by many students of the two groups (FonF & FonFs). These were structures N1, N5, N6, N10, N11, N12, N13, and N14. Five other structures (N2, N3, N4, N7 & N8) were used correctly by some students and avoided by others and this in the two groups. Three other structures (N9, N15 & N16) were correctly used by most of the students of the two groups.

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Observation 3: the FonFs group considerably outnumbered the FonF group in terms of number of errors made with all the structures in writing except in the correct use of ‘should have + past participle’ (with 63 errors for the FonF group and 43 errors for the FonFs group).

Thus, concerning the use of modals in the writing tasks, we conclude that the students of the two groups made more errors in tasks about the grammatical knowledge than in the tasks about the application of such knowledge in writing (11 against 8). In addition, despite the fact that the FonF students were not instructed rules about modals explicitly, they made fewer errors than the students of the FonFs group (who received explicit teaching) in the tasks about the grammatical knowledge.

4.2.4 Degree of Difficulty for the Various Grammatical Structures

In what follows we look at the errors made by students more globally by quantifying the number of all the students, in both groups, who made errors with the structures. Thus, we present, in the following tables, the total percentages of the students who made errors with all the forty structures in the two groups together to get insights about the nature of the difficult and easy structures (according to frequency of errors). The total percentages are presented in a decreasing order (from higher to lower percentages) showing, thus, structures from the most to the least difficult ones. We will consider percentages to be high if they range from 20 to 100% and to be low if they are below 20%. As already mentioned, we consider any structure to be difficult if it is inappropriately used by a high number of students; but in case a structure is used inappropriately by a fewer number or none of the students, thus it is considered to be easy. We first present the total percentages of the students who made errors in the tasks about grammatical knowledge then we present the total percentages of the students who made errors in tasks about writing. The shadowed boxes in the tables refer to the high percentages of students who made errors with some of the structures in the post-treatment test. ‘N’ refers to number of structure.

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N	Structures from most difficult to easiest in grammar test	FonF		FonFs		Total %
		N	%	N	%	
N1	present continuous for near future	53	64%	78	94%	78%
N2	Present perfect with actions connected to the present	41	52%	80	100%	75%
N3	Past simple for brief actions	65	82%	53	67%	73%
N4	Future continuous for present continuous actions occurring elsewhere	50	60%	67	80%	70%
N5	present continuous indicating speaker's irritation	80	100%	32	40%	70%
N6	Past perfect with earlier past events	28	35%	73	92%	63%
N7	Past simple with finished actions	64	80%	37	47%	63%
N8	Past simple with specific points of time	33	42%	60	75%	58%
N9	<i>Could</i> for general ability	48	55%	53	60%	58%
N10	<i>Ought to have+past participle</i> for advice and expectation	41	47%	57	65%	56%
N11	Present perfect with repeated actions	56	70%	25	32%	50%
N12	<i>Ought to</i> for advice and expectation	29	33%	57	65%	49%
N13	<i>Going to</i> for planned decision	33	40%	49	59%	48%
N14	Past continuous with past long actions	45	57%	17	22%	45%
N15	Future perfect for completion of actions before a future point of time	25	30%	52	63%	45%
N16	<i>Going to</i> for prediction based on evidence	33	40%	42	50%	44%
N17	<i>Will</i> for spontaneous decision	28	34%	46	55%	44%
N18	Future continuous for plans	25	30%	42	50%	40%
N19	Future perfect for actions that we know they happened but elsewhere	23	28%	43	52%	39%
N20	<i>May</i> for less certainty	31	35%	36	41%	38%
N21	<i>Might/could</i> for uncertainty	24	27%	42	48%	38%
N22	<i>Must</i> for strong possibility	32	36%	33	37%	37%

Table 4.41: Summary of the Total Errors Made with the Forty Structures in Grammar

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N23	<i>Must have+past participle</i> for strong past possibility	28	32%	37	42%	37%
N24	<i>Have to</i> for outside obligation	32	36%	32	36%	36%
N25	Present continuous for temporary actions	25	32%	32	40%	35%
N26	<i>Should</i> for general advice and expectation	25	28%	35	40%	34%
N27	<i>Should have+past participle</i> for expectation and advice in the past	25	28%	33	37%	33%
N28	<i>Couldn't have+past participle</i> for negative strong possibility in the past	19	21%	38	43%	32%
N29	Future continuous for future actions in progress	12	15%	37	45%	29%
N30	<i>Musn't</i> for prohibition	19	21%	32	36%	29%
N31	<i>Managed to</i> for particular ability	17	20%	31	35%	27%
N32	<i>Must</i> for obligation from speaker's point of view	24	27%	24	27%	27%
N33	Present simple for permanent actions	9	12%	28	35%	23%
N34	Present perfect continuous with focus on the activity	25	32%	8	10%	20%
N35	Present simple with state verbs	0	0%	25	32%	15%
N36	Present in formal future schedule	1	1%	19	19%	11%
N37	<i>Can't</i> for negative strong possibility	8	9%	12	13%	11%
N38	Present continuous for ongoing actions around speaking	4	5%	11	14%	9%
N39	<i>Will</i> for prediction based on opinion	2	2%	5	6%	4%
N40	<i>Do not need</i> for general absence of necessity	3	3%	4	4%	4%

Table 4.41: Summary of the Total Errors Made with the Forty Structures in Grammar (continued)

Table 4.41 indicates that except for a few structures, ‘present simple with state verbs’ (N35), ‘present in formal schedule’ (N36), ‘*can't* for negative possibility’ (N37), ‘present continuous for ongoing actions around speaking’ (N38), ‘*will* for prediction based on opinion’ (N39) and ‘*don't need to* for absence of necessity’ (N40), all the other structures of the three types of verb forms (present/past, future & modals) were associated with a significant high number of errors, i.e., most structures (34 out of 40) were inappropriately used by a high number of students and these were the

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structures from N1 to N35. This indicates that much of the grammatical knowledge that was taught was not immediately learned. The table above shows also clearly that with most structures more errors were made by the students of the FonFs group than by students of the FonF group. If we consider the nature of the structures which were associated with errors frequently, we find that most structures (1, 2, 4, 5, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 18, 19, 23, 25, 27, 28, 29, & 34) were complex tenses, i.e., consisted of an auxiliary and a past participle and/or a gerund. These complex forms of tenses put a burden on understanding the meaning of the functions of these structures. Other structures were not complex in form, i.e., consisted of one word but were associated with errors frequently (3, 7, 8, 17, 20, 21, 22, 24, 26, 30, 31, 32 & 33). The difficulty of these structures is due to the nuances in meaning between the structures such as between the ‘past simple’ (N6) and ‘past perfect’ (N5), ‘must’ (N32) and ‘have to’ (N24), ‘may’ (N20) and ‘might/could’ (N21), ‘managed’ (N31) and ‘could’ (N8).

We found that students made errors with such confusing structures and used one structure instead of the other inappropriately. For example, they used ‘managed to’ instead of ‘could’ to express a general ability and ‘could’ instead of ‘managed to’ to express a particular ability, which was incorrect. In addition, and according to errors identified in students’ test papers, the students confused between the multiple functions expressed by a same structure. For example, the structure ‘should + have + past participle’ can express past expectation or regret, the ‘future continuous’ can be used to talk about future actions in progress, or present actions in progress but distant in space. These different functions for a single structure confused students very much and mainly when the functions were not very familiar to students such is the case with ‘ought to + have + past participle for expectation’, ‘future continuous for actions in progress but elsewhere’ and ‘future perfect for actions that the speaker knows they happened but elsewhere’.

In the following table we present the total percentages of the students who made errors with the forty structures in the writing tasks.

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No	Structures from the most difficult to the easiest in Writing test	FonF		FonFs		Total %
		N	%	N	%	
1	<i>Ought to have+past participle</i> for advice and expectation	61	77%	62	78%	70%
2	Past simple with finished actions	45	57%	69	87%	71%
3	Future continuous for future actions in progress	38	46%	78	93%	69%
4	Future perfect for completion of actions before a future point of time	47	56%	68	81%	68%
5	Future continuous for present continuous actions occurring elsewhere	50	60%	53	64%	61%
6	Past perfect with earlier past events	25	32%	64	80%	55%
7	<i>May</i> for less certainty	44	55%	48	61%	52%
8	Future perfect for actions that we know they happened but elsewhere	42	51%	42	51%	51%
9	Present perfect with actions connected to the present	20	25%	60	75%	50%
10	<i>Ought to</i> for advice and expectation	35	44%	51	64%	49%
11	<i>Should have+past participle</i> for expectation and advice in the past	50	63%	34	43%	48%
12	<i>Going to</i> for planned decision	26	32%	52	62%	46%
13	<i>Have to</i> for outside obligation	29	37%	44	56%	41%
14	<i>Must</i> for obligation from speaker's point of view	32	47%	40	51%	41%
15	<i>Managed to</i> for particular ability	24	31%	47	59%	40%
16	Present continuous for temporary actions	8	10%	45	57%	33%
17	Past simple with specific points of time	1	2%	49	62%	31%
18	<i>Might/could</i> for uncertainty	24	30%	24	30%	30%
19	Present continuous for ongoing actions around speaking	5	7%	37	47%	26%
20	present continuous for near future	0	0%	23	28%	13%
21	<i>Will</i> for spontaneous decision	2	3%	21	26%	13%
22	Present in formal future schedule	0	0%	21	26%	12%
23	Past continuous with past long actions	0	0%	13	17%	8%

Table 4.42: Summary of the Total Errors Made with the Forty Structures In Writing

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24	<i>Should</i> for general advice and expectation	2	3%	10	13%	6%
25	<i>Musn't</i> or prohibition	1	1%	8	10%	5%
26	<i>Do not need</i> for general absence of necessity	1	1%	7	9%	4%
27	Past simple for brief actions	0	0%	4	5%	2%
28	Present simple with state verbs	0	0%	2	3%	1%
29	<i>Will</i> for prediction based on opinion	1	2%	2	3%	1%
30	Future continuous for plans	0	0%	0	0%	0%
31	<i>Could</i> for general ability	0	0%	0	0%	0%
32	<i>Must</i> for strong possibility	0	0%	0	0%	0%
33	<i>Must have+past participle</i> for strong past possibility	0	0%	0	0%	0%
34	<i>Cant't</i> for negative strong possibility	0	0%	0	0%	0%
35	<i>Couldn't have +past participle</i> for negative strong possibility in the past	0	0%	0	0%	0%
36	present continuous indicating speaker's irritation	0	0%	0	0%	0%
37	Present simple for permanent actions	0	0%	0	0%	0%
38	Present perfect with repeated actions	0	0%	0	0%	0%
39	Present perfect continuous with focus on the activity	0	0%	0	0%	0%
40	<i>Going to</i> for prediction based on evidence	0	0%	0	0%	0%

Table 4.42: Summary of the Total Errors Made with the Forty Structures in Writing (continued)

Table 4.42 indicates first that most structures (21 out of 40) were appropriately used by most students in the writing tasks. If we compare the structures which were less difficult for students in the grammar test (6 structures) with those in the writing test (21 structures) we find that there was only one structure which was not associated with errors frequently in the grammar test and turned out to be associated with errors frequently in the writing test. This structure was 'the Present continuous for ongoing actions around speaking' which was incorrectly used in the grammar test (N38) only by 9% of students and then was incorrectly used in writing (N19) by 26% of students.

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This also means that sixteen structures which were inappropriately used in the tasks about grammar knowledge by a high number of students were used appropriately in the tasks of writing. In fact, in the tasks about the grammatical knowledge the students were required to mainly choose a right verb form out of a set of option and this was confusing. This shows that the distinction between some structures and functions presented at a time (in the grammar test) was more difficult than giving no choice for students (in the writing test). We should also mention that the factor of avoidance played a little part in such results (with only few structures). For example, students used more often ‘going to’ for plans instead of the ‘future continuous’, thus we couldn’t know whether the students had difficulty or not with applying the structure in question (*future continuous* to talk about plans) appropriately.

We shall mention in passing that during data analysis, another type of data emerged in relation with errors. This kind of data deals with errors of form (spelling). We noticed that students made a high number of such errors (13) with modal verb forms in writing. So errors of forms when using modals were considerably very frequent than the errors made on present/past and future verb forms. The group which made these types of errors was the FonFs group. We found one kind of error in the writing of the FonF students. We list all the errors of form with modals in the following table

Errors	FonFs	FonF
1. I didn’t managed	√	√
2. Should to	√	
3. Couldn’t opening	√	
4. Can to	√	
5. Musn’t oblided	√	
6. Ought to built	√	
7. Can’t have been go	√	

Table 4.43 Types of Errors of Form in Using Modal Verb Forms in Writing

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8. Must have been take	√	
9. I would like to finished	√	
10. I must can't succeed	√	
11. I had to moved	√	
12. I must ignoring	√	
13. Must to	√	

Table 4.43 Types of Errors of Form in Using Modal Verb Forms in Writing (continued)

Table 4.43 shows that all the errors of form were made by the FonFs group in writing. Only one type of form error was found in some of the participants' written productions of the FonF group.

4.2.5 Effectiveness of the Approaches in Learning the Grammatical Structures

In table 4. 44, we sum up our findings in terms of approach effectiveness with each structure in terms of knowledge and use and this is in reference with table 3.41. This table shows very specifically the achievement of each group of students in relation with each structure both in grammar and writing. The presentation of our findings in table 4.44 helps to see clearly which of the two instructional approaches (FonF & FonFs) was more effective than the other. In our study, we consider that an instructional approach is effective or not with relation to the percentages of students who made errors with the structures in the post-treatment test. Thus, if most students (more than 50%) made errors with a particular structure, then we say that the strategy used to teach this structure was not effective. If most students did not err on a structure, we compare the percentages of the students making errors in the two groups to see which group made fewer errors: if the difference is more than 5% we say that either of the two approaches is more effective than the other. If the difference between percentages is less than 5% and that most students in the two groups used the tenses

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correctly, thus we say that both instructional options (FonF & FonFs) are effective. Thus, we have four cases: (1) the FonF instruction being more effective than the FonFs instruction, (2) the FonFs instruction being more effective than the FonF instruction, (3) both are effective or (4) no one is effective. Thus, the following table shows the effectiveness or lack of effectiveness of the FonF and the FonFs instructions with each structure in terms of knowledge and use. A tick in the box means that the structure was learned (by either the FonF group or by the FonFs group or by both groups) or not learned (by neither of the two groups). Thus, if a structure was learned only by students of the FonF group, we tick the structure in the column named ‘**FonF**’. If a structure was learned only by the students of the FonFs, we tick the structure in the column named ‘**FonFs**’. If a structure was learned by both groups, it is ticked in the column named ‘**Both**’. If a structure was not learned by neither of the groups, thus the structure is ticked in the column named ‘**None**’. We will refer to the number (N) of the structure as it is used in table 3.14.

N	Structures	Grammar				Application of grammar rules in writing tasks			
		FonF	FonFs	Both	None	FonF	FonFs	Both	None
1	Present simple for permanent actions (N33)	√						√	
2	Present simple with state verbs (N35)	√						√	
3	Present continuous for ongoing actions around speaking (N38)		√			√			
4	present continuous indicating speaker’s irritation (N5)		√					√	
5	Present continuous for temporary actions (N25)	√				√			
6	Present perfect with repeated actions (N11)		√					√	

Table 4.44: Approach Effectiveness on Grammar and Writing

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N	Structures	Grammar				Application of grammar rules in writing tasks			
		FonF	FonFs	Both	None	FonF	FonFs	Both	None
7	Present perfect with actions connected to the present (N2)				√	√			
8	Present perfect continuous with focus on the activity (N34)		√					√	
90	Past continuous with past long actions (N14)		√			√			
10	Past simple for brief actions (N3)				√			√	
11	Past simple with finished actions (N7)		√						√
12	Past simple with specific points of time (N8)	√				√			
13	Past perfect with earlier past events (N6)	√				√			
14	Present in formal future schedule (N36)	√				√			
15	present continuous for near future (N1)				√	√			
16	'Will' for prediction based on opinion (N39)			√				√	
17	'Going to' for prediction based on evidence (N16)	√						√	
18	'Will' for spontaneous decision (N17)	√				√			

Table 4.44: Approach Effectiveness on Grammar and Writing (continued)

Chapter Four: Results of Tests & Analysis of Errors

N	Structures	Grammar				Application of grammar rules in writing tasks			
		FonF	FonFs	Both	None	FonF	FonFs	Both	None
19	'Going to' for planned decision (N13)	√				√			
20	Future continuous for plans (N18)	√						√	
21	Future continuous for present continuous actions occurring elsewhere (N4)				√				√
22	Future perfect for completion of actions before a future point of time (N15)	√							√
23	Future perfect for actions we know that happened but elsewhere (N19)	√							√
24	Future continuous for future actions in progress (N29)	√				√			
25	'Managed to' for particular ability (N31)	√				√			
26	'Could'' for general ability (N9)				√			√	
27	'Must' for strong possibility (N22)			√					√
28	'Must have+past participle' for strong past possibility (N23)	√						√	
29	'May' for less certainty (N20)	√							√
30	'Might/could' for uncertainty (N21)	√						√	
31	'Can't' for negative strong possibility (N37)			√				√	

Table 4.44: Approach Effectiveness on Grammar and Writing (continued)

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N	Structures	Grammar				Application of grammar rules in writing tasks			
		FonF	FonFs	Both	None	FonF	FonFs	Both	None
32	'Couldn't have+past participle' for negative strong possibility in the past (N28)	√						√	
33	'Should' for general advice and expectation (N26)	√				√			
34	'Should have +past participle' for expectation and advice in the past (N27)	√					√		
35	'Ought to' for advice and expectation (N12)	√				√			
36	'Ought to have+past participle' for advice and expectation (N10)	√							√
37	'Have to' for outside obligation (N24)			√		√			
38	'Must' for obligation from speaker's point of view (N32)			√		√			
39	'Do not need' for general absence of necessity (N40)			√		√			
40	'Musn't' for prohibition (N30)	√				√			

Table 4.44: Approach Effectiveness on Grammar and Writing (continued)

Thus, Table 4.44 above shows that most structures were appropriately used under the FonF condition whether in grammar tasks or in writing tasks. Here we give data presented in the above table in percentages as follows:

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Effectiveness of approaches in learning grammar knowledge

- 57% of structures are better learned under the FonF condition
- 15% of structures are better learned under the FonFs condition
- 15% of structures are equally learned under both FonF and FonFs conditions
- 12% of structures are not learned under neither of the conditions

Effectiveness of approaches in appropriate use of grammar knowledge in writing

- 45 % of structures are appropriately used when taught under the FonF condition
- 2% of structures are appropriately used when taught under the FonFs condition
- 35% of structures are appropriately used when taught under both conditions
- 17% of structures are not appropriately used when taught under any of the conditions

In what follows all the results obtained in this research are summarized. The first summary concerns results obtained from classroom observation, questionnaires and interview (4.2.6); the second is about findings reached by means of pre- and post-tests (4.2.7) and the third concerns results of analysis of errors (4.2.8).

4.2.6 Summary of the Results from Classroom Observation, Questionnaires and Interviews

We first discuss all the findings about the teaching strategies (in presentation & practice stages) used in class in relation to the four classes observed (and which were obtained from classroom observation, teachers' interview and teachers' and students' questionnaires), then we look globally at the teaching strategies by including also data obtained from interviews and questionnaires used with the three teachers who were not observed. The teaching strategies are categorized into the nine items (around six dimensions) our instruments were based on (See Chapter 2).

If we consider the findings which were obtained from classroom observation, teachers' interviews and teachers' and students' questionnaires and which concerned the four teachers who were observed (T1, T2 T3 & T4) we conclude that:

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- (1) Most of the teachers we observed in class (3 out of 4) presented more often the rules inductively, i.e., by showing examples and then explaining the rules or let the students themselves infer the rules out of the examples. There was only one teacher (T4) who relied only on deductive teaching. Similar results were obtained from the teachers' interview and which also indicated that most teachers (T1, T2 & T3) taught the rules more often inductively than deductively except one teacher (T4). However, as far as the teachers whose sessions were observed are concerned, results from the questionnaires (Teachers' & Students') indicated that both inductive and deductive teaching of rules were equally used (no significant difference in terms of frequency). Actually, the Students' questionnaire indicated a very slight difference between the two strategies (inductive & deductive) with 62% for the inductive teaching and 74% for the deductive teaching and the Teachers' questionnaire showed a same number of occurrences of both strategies (4 occurrences for each). Thus, while the observation and the interview revealed that the inductive teaching was more frequent than the deductive one, the Teachers' and Students' questionnaires showed a balance between the two strategies.
- (2) The results showed also that in terms of contextualization of rules, the four instruments yielded results indicating that the decontextualized language in the form of sentences when presenting rules was widely used by the teachers. In fact, the results of our observations showed that the contextualized presentation of rules was never used by the teachers. The results from the other three instruments indicated that the decontextualized presentation of rules was more often used than the contextualized presentation.
- (3) Concerning the type of materials used to present the rules, data obtained from class observations showed that the teachers used only the textbooks and the results obtained from other instruments indicated a more frequent use of the grammar book than the use of authentic materials.

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- (4) In terms of teaching focus, the results of class observation and the interview showed that the teachers focused only on explaining rules. The results from Students' questionnaire data showed a high focus on grammatical knowledge and a very small focus on exposing students to plenty of examples to let them infer the rules. However, the Teachers' questionnaire data did not reveal such a great difference between the two kinds of focus but rather a balance between focusing on explanation of rules and exploring rules through enough exposure to examples.
- (5) If we consider the strategies used in the practice stage of the course that, in what concerns the type of activities used in class, data obtained from the four instruments used to probe the teaching strategies converge on the conclusion that the mechanical exercises (such as fill-in-the gaps) were always used in class with very scarce occasions for the use of meaningful activities (such as letter writing). More specifically, three teachers used only the mechanical exercises except T2 as indicated by the results from class observation, the interview and the Teachers' questionnaire. In addition, according to the students' answers to the questionnaire, 91% of students indicated that only mechanical exercises were used in class against 25% of students who referred to the use of meaningful activities.
- (6) As far as contextualization of practice is concerned, class observation data indicated that the use of the decontextualized exercises were more frequent than the contextualized ones and that two teachers out of four (T3 & T4) never gave (during our observation sessions) contextualized exercises. However, the results obtained from the other three instruments showed rather a balance between the two types of exercises in terms of contextualization and a high frequency of both of them. For example, according to the results obtained from students' questionnaire, 94% of students indicated that decontextualized exercises were used and 65% of them indicated that the contextualized ones were used.
- (7) As far as the practice materials are concerned, data derived from the four instruments used revealed that the pedagogical materials were much more

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often used than the authentic materials which are designed to be read/listened to by the native speakers. For example, during our observations there was only one teacher (T2) who used an authentic material (puzzle from internet) and this only once. According to responses to the Students' questionnaire, we obtained very high percentages representing the number of students who indicated the scarce use of real-life materials in the practice stage. The percentages were 100%, 95, 97 & 97 respectively for the non-use of newspapers, magazines, novels and audiovisuals.

- (8) As far as the classwork patterns are concerned, we found that data obtained from three instruments (observation, interview & Students' questionnaire) all converged on the conclusion that the individual work was more frequently used in class than the collaborative work. This was not in agreement with teachers' responses to the questionnaire and which indicated rather a balance between the uses of the two classwork patterns. Actually, during our observations we saw only one teacher (T2) who set her students to work in peers and this was only once. The responses of the students to the questionnaire showed that 99% of students indicated that they worked individually and 91% of students indicated that they scarcely worked collaboratively.
- (9) Insofar as the practice focus is concerned, the results from the four instruments which investigated the teaching strategies used in class converged on the conclusion that the teachers heavily focused on the forms within decontextualized language and rarely on using language meaningfully and interactively. More specifically, our observations showed that there was only one teacher (T2) who focused on the forms in a meaningful context (writing) but this occurred only on one occasion. This is in line with results obtained from the interviews and the Students' questionnaires. Results of the former indicated that drilling and justifying answers with reference to rules were main focal points of the practice. Results of the latter revealed that 79% of students indicated that the focus

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was on grammatical knowledge during practice and 75% of students indicated that there was no focus on language use; the exception was with T2. The teachers' responses to the questionnaire also yielded similar results but another teacher (T1) appeared to focus also on language use in addition to the focus on rules during practice.

Thus, in regard to the teaching strategies used by the four teachers, whose sessions were observed, the results obtained from the four instruments, namely, classroom observation, interview, Teacher' questionnaire and Students' questionnaire converged on the conclusion that teachers used more frequently the traditional teaching (FonFs) consisting mainly in the high emphasis on rules explanation and rules application in decontextualized exercises which called more for individual work. Nevertheless, teachers very frequently used the inductive teaching of rules so as to give students chance to infer the rules out of examples. In addition, teachers occasionally incorporated some communicative aspects in the practice stage and which mainly consisted in using meaningful activities, collaborative work and focus on language use and it was T2 who used such aspects more often than the other teachers (T1, T3 & T4). In fact, teachers recognized (in interviews) that they would like to teach grammar more communicatively if they had in hand appropriate resources.

If we consider the results of the teacher's questionnaire and the oral interview which were used also with three other teachers who were not observed and whom their students were not handed out questionnaires (T5, T6 & T7), we can hold the same conclusion which is that teaching grammar was generally more traditional in terms of focus on metalanguage and mechanical practice. However, according to the teacher's answers to the questionnaires and interviews, teachers T5, T6 and T7 seemed to use more communicative aspects in their teaching than the other four teachers who were observed (T1, T2, T3 & T4). For example, T5 used meaningful activities which required interaction in class such as acting out dialogues written by the students themselves. T6 used to expose the students to authentic materials through the use of videos. T7 exposed the students to plenty of contextualized language and never stated

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the rules until after practice so that her students, as she claimed, would not see grammar as rule learning. Actually, this was the teacher (T7) who seemed to teach grammar using the FonF approach or as she called it 'indirect' teaching of grammar. Thus, if we look at our results more globally (including the 7 teachers and the 180 students), we can say that though the grammar teaching approach was most often traditional (FonFs) in terms of the heavy focus on explaining rules and practice through mechanical exercises which consolidated the grammatical knowledge, some teachers incorporated, sometimes, some communicative teaching in the practice stage such as the use of contextualized exercises and meaningful activities which enhance collaborative work and interaction in class. The only teacher who usually seemed to teach with a FonF approach (focus on noticing grammar in discourse and use of meaningful activities with rules stated only after practice) was T7.

In what follows, a summary of the results from pre- and post-tests is given.

2.4.7 Summary of the Results from pre- and post-tests

Scores on the pre- and post-test in the area of present /past verb forms show that:

- (1) The FonF group scored higher in both grammar and writing post-tests (pre-test:32, post-test:37 in grammar; pre-test:26, post-test:39 in writing).
- (2) For the FonFs group, the results indicate that the increase is much more important in grammar than in writing (pre-test:32, post-test:42 in grammar; pre-test:26, post-test:27 in writing).
- (3) The FonFs group achieved better results than the FonF group in grammar (FonF:37/FonFs:42) and the FonF group did better than the FonFs in implementing grammar in writing (FonF:39, FonFs:27).

Thus, in terms of knowledge of rules both methods (FonF & FonFs) had a positive effect on learning the past/present verb forms with a slight better effect for the FonFs instruction. Concerning the application of knowledge of grammar in writing, it

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is the FonF instruction which proved to be much better than the FonFs instruction in helping the students to correctly and appropriately use grammar in writing.

Scores on the pre- and post-test in the area of present /past verb forms show that:

- (1) The FonF group scored higher on both grammar and writing in the post-tests (pretest: 34, posttest: 40 in grammar; pretest: 31, posttest: 37 in writing).
- (2) The FonFs group, scored higher also in both grammar and writing (pretest: 34, posttest: 40 in grammar; pretest: 27, posttest: 33 in writing)
- (3) There was no difference between the two groups concerning achievement in grammar (FonF:40,FonFs:40)
- (4) There was a slight difference in performance on writing between the two groups with the FonF group scoring slightly better (FonF: 37, FonFs: 33)

Thus, insofar as treatment in the future verb forms with the two groups is concerned, the scores on the post-test show that the difference between the two groups was very slight. Concerning grammar, results indicate no difference in performance between the two groups. As far as writing is concerned, the results showed that the FonF group scored just slightly better than the FonFs group.

Scores on the pre- and post-test in the area of modal verb forms show that:

- (1) The FonF group scored much higher on both grammar and writing post-tests (pretest: 42, posttest: 49 in grammar; pretest: 26, posttest: 40 in writing)
- (2) The FonFs group also highly improved in both grammar and writing (pretest: 42, posttest: 48 in grammar; pretest: 24, posttest: 32 in writing).
- (3) There was no great difference between the two groups with regards grammar (FonF:49, FonFs:48)
- (4) There was a high difference in performance on writing between the two groups with a better score for the FonF group (FonF: 40, FonFs: 32)

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Thus, concerning treatment in the modal verb forms, results on the post-test showed that the difference between the two groups was important and indicated that the FonF group improved much more than the FonFs group. However, no important difference was noted between the two groups in what concerns performance on grammar. Contrariwise, the FonF group performed much better than the FonFs in implementing correctly and appropriately grammar in writing.

In what follows, a summary of the results from analysis of students' errors is given.

4.2.8 Summary of the Results from the Analysis of Students' Errors

Here we summarize findings from analysis of errors in present/past, future and modal verb forms. Our analysis which consisted in comparing between the FonF and the FonFs groups in terms of errors made (separately by the two groups) in both grammar and grammar application in writing (see sections 3.7.1, 3.7.2 & 3.7.3) showed that:

- (1) The students of the FonFs group made a much higher number of errors as compared to the students of the FonF group and this with most of the structures except for seven structures in the area of present/past verb forms in grammar test ('present continuous for ongoing actions around speaking', 'present continuous indicating speakers' irritation', 'present perfect with repeated actions', 'present perfect continuous with focus on the activity', 'past continuous with past long actions', 'past simple with brief actions' & 'past simple with finished actions', in addition to the correct use of the complex modal 'should have + past participle' in writing (with 63 errors for the FonF group and 43 errors for the FonFs group). Knowing that during treatment all the forty structures were taught to the FonFs students and that only fewer structures were highly focused on in teaching the FonF students (the other structures were presented in texts but not practised), thus the FonFs students did not benefit much from the presentation of all the rules which apparently was rather a hindrance for learning. And it seems that the prioritization of the

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grammatical items taught to the FonF group was more beneficial for learning. In addition, time given to notice a structure and feedback provided on its production were very helpful teaching strategies for the FonF students to learn the structures. The FonF students were given plenty of time to notice the structures within discourse and practise mainly via writing with focusing on meaning. And more importantly, the students of the FonF group were given feedback on their errors which arose out of producing and not out of correcting mechanical exercises as was the case with the FonFs students, thus the two strategies (noticing & feedback) played a role in decreasing errors. However, we should note also that when it comes to the application of rules in the writing tasks, both of the groups had difficulty with nearly the same grammatical structures (mainly with modals) but with students of the FonFs group making more errors than the students of the FonF group. However, the FonFs students did not have any practice in writing, neither feedback on errors made in written production contrary to the FonF students. Thus, we conclude that the FonF instruction helped the students reducing errors in their writing as compared to the FonFs students but not in totally eradicating them to a great extent.

- (2) In addition, the students of the FonF group showed no difficulty in using ‘present simple with state verbs’, ‘present simple for formal scheduling’ and ‘present continuous for near future events’(Both in grammar and writing) as compared to students of the FonFs group. Actually, these structures were more focused on in the FonFs group and were compared to other structures to the point that students got confused. For example, the teaching of the verbs which could be ‘state’ or ‘action’ verbs added just more confusion to the FonFs group. In fact, the FonFs students used ‘ing’ with state verbs but the students of the FonF did not make such an error. Actually, the FonF group were given texts containing only state verbs and action verbs (but not verbs which could be state or action verbs depending on context); thus, the FonF students did not use the ‘ing’ with state verbs.
- (3) Moreover, we found that most errors were made in tasks about grammar knowledge and not in tasks of writing. Sometimes the errors made in the

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grammar tasks completely disappeared in the writing tasks such is the case with present with ‘permanent actions’, ‘present simple for scheduling’, ‘present continuous for near future’ and ‘*will* for prediction based on opinion’. Both groups showed zero errors in writing activities in relation to these forms, though on the grammar knowledge tasks errors were detected. In addition, there was only one structure that was difficult in terms of use and not in knowledge. This was ‘the Present continuous for ongoing actions around speaking’ which was incorrectly used in the grammar test (N38) by 9% of students and then was incorrectly used in writing (N19) by 26% of students. This shows again that it was very difficult for students to distinguish between the different structures when presented to them at a time in the grammar test because this was more harmful than beneficial and the fact that they used the structures in a correct way in the writing tasks proves that the errors found in the tasks about the grammatical knowledge were due to the confusion between the structures.

The analysis which consisted in looking at the errors more globally through quantifying errors made by all the students in the two groups together (see section 3.7.4) showed that:

- (4) Most of the structures (34 out of 40) were associated with errors made frequently by a high number of students in the grammar tasks, but fewer structures (19 out of 40) were inappropriately used by students in the writing tasks. There were only six structures which were not associated with frequent errors in the grammar tasks: ‘present simple with state verbs’, ‘present in formal schedule’, ‘*can’t* for negative possibility’, ‘present continuous for ongoing actions around speaking’, ‘*will* for prediction based on opinion’ and ‘*don’t need to* for absence of necessity’. In addition sixteen structures which were inappropriately used in the tasks about grammar knowledge by a high number of students were used appropriately in the tasks of writing. Actually, there was only one structure which was not associated with errors frequently in the grammar test and turned out to be associated with errors frequently in the

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writing test. This structure was ‘the Present continuous for ongoing actions around speaking’. Such results indicate that, with some structures, retrieving the knowledge which consists in distinguishing between the different rules was harder than applying the rules appropriately in the writing tasks. Concerning the nature of the structures which were associated with high percentages of errors, most structures were complex tenses (consisting of auxiliaries and/or gerund) such as tenses with perfect and perfect continuous forms. Other structures were confused with others because of nuances in meaning such as ‘high certainty’ and ‘low certainty’ which are respectively expressed by the modals of probability ‘may’ and ‘might’. In addition, confusion happened with structures having multiple functions such as ‘future continuous’ which can be used to talk about future actions in progress, or present actions in progress but distant in space.

The analysis which consisted in looking at the effectiveness or lack of effectiveness of the two instructional approaches as regards learning the forty structures (see section 3.7.5) showed that:

- (5) On one hand, most structures were appropriately used in the post-treatment test both in the grammar and writing tasks after being taught with the FonF instruction. On the other hand, the FonFs instruction was more effective than the FonF instruction only in seven structures: six structures in the grammar test and one structure (the use of ‘*should+have+past participle* for expectation and advice in the past’) in writing. Some other structures were learned by most students of both groups, so for these structures the kind of the instructional approach did not matter so much. There were also some structures which were highly associated with errors in both the FonF and FonFs groups, so no approach could be beneficial for learning such structures.

In the next chapter we discuss our results in the light of theories and research findings discussed in the first chapter.

Chapter 5: Interpretation & Recommendations

Chapter Five: Interpretation and Recommendations

Introduction

In this chapter we will interpret the collected and analysed data in order to find answers to our research questions. Moreover, on the basis of our results and discussion we will offer some recommendations for teachers. We also suggest in this chapter some research directions for further investigation.

5.1 Interpretation

In the following section we will try to address our first research question which seeks to find out about the approaches used in class by the grammar teachers of the Department of English. We will discuss the instructional options used by the teachers in the light of theoretical and pedagogical views about the effectiveness of the teaching strategies in enhancing general language proficiency.

5.1.1 Teachers' Approache(s) Used in Class

In this chapter we will be using the term 'option' instead of 'method' to refer to the set of strategies the teachers use in class to teach grammar. Ellis (2012) and Stern (in Ellis, R. 1992) maintained that the term 'option' is being more used than the term 'method' (see section 1.6.1). They refer to 'options' as being a set of strategies used by the teacher to help students acquire the language. Moreover, we do not use the term 'method' because the method of teaching grammar in our department is not a method per se. That is to say, it is not a method in the sense by which teaching strategies are clearly identified. Content is the only aspect that is identified in the syllabus. Today we speak more of FFI instruction with its different types (FonFs, FonF or MFI) as referred to by Loewen (2012) (see section 1.2 Fig. 1.1). Teachers may use a set of strategies to focus on form, or on meaning or on both. Thus, if we relate Ellis's 'options' to Loewen's different types of focus, we would then explain that FonFs is the teaching of grammar with the use of the traditional options (strategies) where focus is on explaining the rules, and that FonF is the use of

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meaningful options where focus is on meaning and form, while the MFI is the use of meaningful options to focus on meaning. The two types of teaching focus found in this study are FonFs and FonF. In what follows, we will discuss our findings in the light of some theories and hypotheses about the teaching practices which promote learning. More specifically, the discussion will focus on the way grammar is taught and the way it is practised in class.

Findings from classroom observation, teachers' interviews and questionnaires and students' questionnaires revealed data which are congruent and converge on the conclusion that most teachers of grammar (6 teachers out of 7) of the Department of English use more the FonFs with attempts to incorporate some aspects of the FonF teaching. Actually, the most frequent FonF aspect used in class is the implicit discovering of rules. For example, three of the teachers observed out of four relied more often on the inductive than on the deductive teaching of rules. Similarly, the Students' questionnaire showed that this inductive strategy is used at 62%. Other FonF teaching aspects are not very frequently used and they mainly consist in the moderate use of few contextualized exercises, rare meaningful practice and sporadic use of collaborative work in class. In addition, some teachers used more meaningful options than others as is the case with T 2 and T 6. Moreover, results from teachers' questionnaires and teachers' interviews revealed that one teacher (T7) used the FonF instructional strategies more than the FonFs options.

It is true that during classroom observation, we identified an extensive use of the traditional FonFs teaching of grammar, but data obtained from Teachers' questionnaires and interviews showed the use of other alternatives. Actually during classroom observation we identified the following traditional options of teaching: much focus on rules, decontextualized presentation, grammar books as the only source for teaching and practice, no meaningful, interactive practice (except in Class 2 where T 2 used more meaningful practice such as writing letters to exchange with peers and using games such as word search grids (see appendices 8 & 9). But as already reported, some of the teachers (2 out of 4) we observed found that the use of some meaningful options such as the use of discourse and authentic materials to deliver

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instruction was difficult with first year students, so they said to use them when the students got more experienced with the language. This might explain why we rarely noticed (during classroom observation) any use of discourse-based and/or real-life materials by the teachers who said they did use them.

All the data obtained from the different tools indicated that the traditional FonFs was the general rule. But, the interviews and questionnaires showed that the teachers ‘violated’ this rule or routine from time to time by varying their options (and by mainly incorporating communicative ones) according to the lessons they taught as claimed by some of them (T1 & T2). Thus, the interviews’ and the questionnaires’ data revealed a balance between some traditional options and some communicative options of teaching. For example, according to the teachers’ responses to the questionnaire, some teachers alternated between real-life and pedagogical materials (T1, T5 & T7), between mechanical and meaningful practice (T2 & T6), between individual and collaborative classwork patterns (T1, T2, T3 & T6), between contextualized and decontextualized activities (T1, T2, T3, T5 & T6) as clearly shown in Part 3 of the questionnaire. Some teachers (3 out of 7) explained this eclectic teaching to be due to many reasons such as the type of structures used as claimed by T1 & T2, and the need to focus on both accuracy and fluency as mentioned by T6. But as already said the traditional grammar was always dominant in class even when some communicative strategies were used by teachers. The exception to this rule was with T7 who said she ‘*tries her best*’ to teach grammar with FonF options in relation with speaking and writing. In what follows we discuss our findings according to the different teaching options used in class in terms of rule presentation, contextualization, authenticity of materials, and classwork patterns. In fact, these are the teaching dimensions on which we developed the categories for observation scheme, questionnaires and interview for data collection.

If we consider the teaching of the rules, we found that nearly all teachers (3 out of 4) taught several rules of usage during half of the class time (see appendix 8). But what was noticeable was that besides the number of the rules of usage (represented by a

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number of ticks in appendix 8) taught to the students, only three exercises were used in general to enable the students apply the rules as revealed by classroom observation data. Actually, the students reported (in the questionnaire) that they were used to be given too much information at a time and they expressed their despair towards the little provided practice. Here we should mention again a comment of one student who said: “*I think the way we study grammar is **bad** because we have **too much information** that we cannot deal with*”. Another student added: “*It would be **better** if we study it in **a less speed** way*”. Other students even made some harsh comments about their teacher’s way of teaching. For example, one student said:

*In many times we **do not get the chance to ask questions** when the teacher is explaining because when [the teacher] starts talking **she never stops** and in many times we have **three or four things at the same time** and that’s **difficult and boring***

These students’ opinions are really to be taken into account because as we observed there were too many rules given at a time and at a quick pace without even trying to check if each rule was understood or not. In addition, the great amount of information given did not only confuse students but also decreased their motivation as mentioned above by one of the students. Hinkel (2013) argues against the teaching of the ‘whole gamut’ of English grammar because a great deal might be useless and calls for prioritizing grammar structures to teach (see section 1.7.2.2.). Hinkel (ibid) encourages teachers to identify the grammar constructions that must be taught and those that can be simply skipped for the sake of time and teaching effectiveness.

Students’ comments also drew our attention to the fact that they did not want only to learn the rules in grammar class and that they preferred using it properly in writing and speaking. This opinion shows that spending much time on explaining the rules was ‘boring’ and students found it less important than using grammar in language meaningfully. Class time was not only excessively spent in explaining rules, but also in reading and dictating rules from handouts or grammar textbooks. This was the case with two of the four teachers we observed. T2 asked her students to read rules about the use of articles from a handout (in one class session) and T4 dictated the rules

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of the past tense and present perfect from a textbook (in two class sessions) (see appendix 8). Actually, the two teachers reported that understanding rules was their priority when teaching grammar and this is why they devoted much time for it. T2 reported that the students should have all the rules and memorize them and T4 said that students should learn well the rules in order to justify their grammatical choices in exercises. In fact, these practices waste a valuable time that could be spent more in practice, and this, in fact, justifies why students claimed that less time was spent on practice. So very often teachers were not teaching grammar but teaching about grammar. Because teaching grammar means letting students speak and write using grammar, and teaching about grammar means speaking or writing about it. Thus if students were dictated knowledge to write it down, they were not doing grammar but writing about grammar. However, one of the teachers (T7 who teaches grammar with FonF) argued that she tried to make students *‘understand that they do not learn grammar for just learning the rules but to link grammar to other language skills such as writing and speaking’*.

Moreover, two teachers (T2 & T3) tried to involve the students in learning by letting them infer the rules by themselves most often. However, we doubt whether all the students got the possibility to infer the rules. This is the process we observed: a teacher gives an example containing the form under focus then asks students about why a given form is used then one student speaks up the rule and the teacher directly and explicitly explains it. Thus, we wonder if all students were really given chance to infer the rules. It might be that only those who already knew the rules or those who were better at noticing and extracting rules who spoke them up. There was a possibility that the others could not infer the rules; this is perhaps why some students complained about the ‘speed’ of teaching. In fact, it was impossible to give time to all students to infer the rules giving the number of rules of usage the teachers present in class. One teacher claimed that *“First of all I give examples, I explain them. I let the students discover the rules, but if they cannot, I help them in order to avoid waste of time”*. This means that there is only little time given to students to enable them extract the rules.

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Moreover, sometimes some teachers asked the question about why a certain form was used and right away gave the answers without waiting a little more for students' answers. And yet these teachers claimed that they let the students infer the rules. One of the teachers (T3) we observed claimed: *“Generally, I do not teach the rules directly but I give the students examples and let them discover the rules by themselves”* Actually this teacher generally used to give one sentence and little time for students to infer the rule. The students then kept silent and the teacher explained the rule herself. Thus, if the students did not infer the rule, it might be due to the fact that they were not given enough examples to work out how the system works and not enough time to think and find out the rule. Thus, we really doubt whether this kind of inductive teaching really leads to noticing the rules given such conditions. In fact, most of the teachers who taught inductively in this way ‘rushed’ into explaining the rules before letting students notice plenty of examples and practise with using the new structures. In addition, we found out that all the teachers presented all of the rules (deductively or inductively) at the presentation stage except one teacher (T7) who said that she explained rules at the end of the lesson when the practice stage was over. Some researchers claim that giving the rules early in the lesson is time-saving and prevents students from making wrong hypotheses (Eisenstein, 1987) (see section 2.4.1). On the other hand, other researchers claim that by giving plenty of time to students so that they can discover rules by themselves is more efficient and develops students' autonomy (Sharkey, 1995) (see section 2.4.1). Generally, proponents of the deductive instruction argue that adults are mature enough to work with rules (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). On the other hand, proponents of the inductive instruction claim that students should not see rules as the ultimate goal of the lesson, so rules can be deemphasised, postponed or even excluded (Doughty & Williams, 1998) (see section 2.4.1). Actually, this is what T7 explained as a justification for her rule-postponing.

In fact, discovering the rules needs exposure to plenty of exemplars and this can take some time. In the new era of cognitive learning where noticing (Sharwood-Smith, 1980) has become a key factor in learning, there is a call to help students notice the cue and provide meaningful input that contains many instances of the same grammatical meaning-form relationship (Ellis, 2005) (see sections 1.2). This confirms

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our view about the fact that rule discovery as practised by some teachers might not induce students to notice the focused forms because of lack of examples and lack of meaningful, contextualized examples provided to notice the focused-forms and hence to infer the rules. For this reason, students keep silent when asked to infer the rules (as observed in some class sessions (C1, C3 & C4). Some students (84 out of 180) referred to this type of inductive teaching in their comments on the way they were taught grammar. For example, students of C2 (22 out of 40) praised the way their teacher (T2) was teaching them grammar and found it ‘perfect’ because as they said (and as we also observed) she used to give them many examples to make them infer and understand a rule. One student said: “*The teacher gives us **more than ten sentences/examples to really understand the grammatical point and makes sure we learned it by heart***”. Similarly, T7 revealed the importance of this type of inductive teaching and described her teaching as being an ‘indirect’ teaching of grammar. In fact, this teacher said she postponed the presentation of rules until after practice to give chance to students to deduce the rules and make them understand that teaching grammar was not only about rules as she reported.

Concerning the form of language used to present the new grammatical structures, we found out that students deduced the rules most of the time from separate, isolated sentences. In fact, the teachers expressed that they used decontextualized sentences because they were ‘handy’ and students could easily grasp the point or better notice the forms in sentences. They also expressed their choice for sentence-based materials for presenting the new structures as being due to lack of students’ maturity in English. Thus, decontextualization was preferred because it made learning easier; for example T4 said: “*Students **do not understand well when it is in a paragraph***”. Some teachers (2 out of 4) said that they ‘invented’ their own sentences to adapt them to their students’ level. One of these teachers claimed:

*Give my own examples and also ask students to give their own. I, of course, rely on grammar books **but prefer using my own examples so that I can simplify them and adapt them to the level of my students.** Grammar books are a bit difficult....*

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Nevertheless, some teachers sometimes used paragraphs or dialogues when presenting the rules. For example, T1 said that:

*We could have it in different forms. We could have it **in the form of conversation** if a structure is perhaps better investigated through a conversation such as with tense. Or why not **through prose** I mean a **passage** and they have to identify different tenses.*

The teachers also referred to the use of ‘available’ grammar books in the Department library. If we focus on the term ‘available’, first we understand that there is no selection and that teaching objectives are set by the grammar book that is available. Second, these books generally reflect the traditional FonFs instruction where forms are presented in disconnected sentences with a great number of rules at a time. This is the case of the grammar book ‘Advanced Grammar in Use’ (Hewings, 1999) which is a key reference in our Department and used by most teachers. Third, if we use only what is available we may run the risk of being cut from certain changes that occur in grammatical rules and grammatical use mainly if the library does not purchase recent grammar books which could be in line with the new theories and methodologies of language pedagogy. For example, in the past, the pronoun ‘that’ was used to refer back to a whole idea, but nowadays professional writers consider it as a mistake because grammatically speaking the pronoun ‘that’ replaces a noun and not a sentence. Another example concerns the antecedent pronouns when gender is indefinite. Nowadays, grammarians consider the use of the structure *she/he* as being odd and suggest rather the use of *their* (Hinkel, 2013). Hinkel, (ibid) (see section 1.7.2.2) claims that structures that appear in the handbooks have almost completely disappeared from use in Standard American and Standard British English. For example, past perfect continuous or the future perfect passive (e.g., *the car will have been washed by 3 o'clock*) is hardly ever found in today’s English, and the teaching of noun clauses as sentence subjects (e.g., *that she called today is very important*) is not the best use of class time.

If we consider also authenticity of materials used in class, we found out that during the presentation stage, at least concerning the teachers we observed, all of them used non-real life materials because they relied more on pedagogical books which

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contain simplified language. However, data from both interviews and questionnaires showed that two teachers (T5 & T7) used authentic materials. T5 said she used videos and T7 used authentic materials (texts from newspapers & magazines) found in pedagogical books based on teaching discourse such as ‘Developing Grammar in Context’ (Nettle, M., 2002).

Concerning practice, we can say that though teachers were faithful to the FonFs strategies; nevertheless it was at that stage that some teachers could deviate from the traditional teaching to allow themselves incorporate some of the meaningful strategies such as writing paragraphs, acting dialogues, using puzzles, games and texts with comprehension questions. The mechanical exercises that were most used consisted generally in ‘fill in the gaps’ and ‘mistakes identification and correction’ and most of the time they were sentence-based, but sometimes they were in the form of paragraphs and dialogues. During the exercises, the students in the four classes we observed were always required to justify the answers with reference to the rules. This means that practice was used to focus more on consolidating knowledge given in the presentation stage. Many teachers (6 out of 7) claimed that they focused on ‘exactness’, ‘repeating the rules’, and ‘linking old knowledge to new knowledge’ during practice.

The teachers used more often the mechanical exercises because as they argued they were ‘practical’, ‘easiest’ and ‘better’ for freshmen students. Actually, some students mentioned that they practised so that they ‘understand better’ the rules. So the focus of practice was on metalanguage and not on language use. One of the teachers (T1) claimed: “*We are supposed to teach something in grammar so they have to catch the point. **They should be practising it correctly** otherwise we can’t say they have got it*”. Another one (T2) added:

*My aim is when [students] leave class is actually do not need to go to their copybook at least for ten days, **they should remember it**. They have the **rules**, they practice with it until they learn it naturally. Or if when they make a mistake I want them to have like something that triggers a self-correction.*

But students of the teacher who used purely the PPP (T4) as she mentioned gave negative comments about their teacher concerning the heavy focus on rules and justification of answers during practice. One of them said that their teacher ‘does not

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care' if they understand or practise. These students expressed their need to using language as one mentioned: *"I really prefer using **grammar to learn how to talk and interact with others**"*.

Most students in the four classes we observed (122 Ss out of 180) complained about lack of language use in class. We found that the students taught by the teacher who used more meaningful activities (T2) and gave chance to students to produce writing in class, though not often, praised highly their teacher for this. Thus, a little of language use in practice results in students' satisfaction. Here we report again some of the students' comments on the great need to learn how to use grammar. For example, one of the students said: *"I prefer that the teacher focuses more on making students **speak, write in English and interact with others**"*. Another one claimed also: *"I think if we **apply the rules of grammar in writing**, we will evolve our language"*. In addition to lack of practice, all the students complained about the small number of activities they had to do in class as already reported. This is legitimate when we consider the number of rules they were taught (up to 16 rules of usage) and the little provided practice. In fact, three exercises as practice are really not enough to cover sixteen rules of usage. Moreover, sometimes (as it appears on observation schemes, appendix 8) one exercise could be done in only five minutes.

If we refer to the classroom observation data, we found that the model followed by all teachers was more often a 'PP' model and not even the PPP. The PPP model contains a stage for production. 'Produce' is the stage where students use the structure in a more extended, non-controlled form of practice. But in our classrooms, production is the great missing ingredient in the process of teaching and learning. In fact, the students in the classes we observed were given the rules, often practised through mechanical exercises but never produced. The exception was with some teachers who occasionally set their students to write about real-life experiences or write and act out dialogues with the aim to use the target structures. This 'PP' model is actually what one of the teachers (T4) referred to when she said:

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*Generally speaking, I use the PPP method to teach grammar. I present the rules, ask questions and then I give the students the floor to practice. **Sometimes, at the end of the semester, I ask them to produce a written paragraph in which all the grammatical points will be mentioned.***

The last 'P' was sometimes postponed until a semester ends to enable students use all the structures taught, in one semester, in a paragraph. This is 'production' in this teacher's words.

In fact, if PPP has been much criticized as a teaching model what we would say about a PP model which apparently is the model the teachers in our department use most often. But in fact, the very PPP model is criticized because it is not applied effectively generally in the form of oral or written tasks. In reality, the PPP is ineffective in achieving what is intended to do (Ellis, 1993 cited in Atkins (2000))(see section 1.4.1) and this is due to the controlled nature of the input that the students receive. Ellis (in Atkins, 2000, p. 3) claims that:

*We can do PPP until we are blue in the face, but **it doesn't necessarily result in what PPP was designed to do.** And yet there is, still, within language teaching, a commitment to trying to **control not only input but actually what is learned***

This means that if we apply this model with giving chance to students to produce with less control, this model can be successful.

It is true that Krashen (1982) considers that production ability emerges over time. But Krashen also advocates that teachers provide enough input: as the hearer, for example, hears and understands more input, speech will appear (see section 1.7.1). But in the case of our students, they are neither imparted the ability to speak or write nor exposed to enough input so that they use grammar correctly in speaking and writing. Actually, the students complained about lack of practice, and we can say that three exercises about up to sixteen rules are not enough to call it practice. The students do not practise because 'practice' means 'doing' and not 'knowing'. This practice where 'doing' is involved is called 'task'. Fotos et al (1991) explain that the aim of 'task' is increasing opportunities to engage in interactional communication (see section 1.4.2). Fotos et al (ibid) believe that it is interaction and not practice of the

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traditional method which ensures automatization or acquisition of the grammatical features.

Nowadays, scholars (Swain, 2001) see a role of output in acquisition (section 1.6.1.). It is maintained that production should be encouraged mainly at initial stages. It is maintained that the longer the delay between a cue and its outcome, the less likely their association is to be learned. Swain (ibid) proposed that some aspects of language performance can be planned from the start and that sufficient repetition of these utterances by means of productive practice results in fluency with the utterances themselves providing feedback as input to implicit knowledge. Moreover, Ellis (2005) maintains that if the output is flawed, feedback given in the form of recast that illustrates a more appropriate form of expression can optimize the forms for their acquisition (1.6.1.1). This is due to the fact that students 'notice' the gap between their own erroneous utterance and the recast. Recasts which represent feedback to output highlight the relevant element of the form at the same time as the desired meaning-to-be expressed is still alive.

Today, we should encourage our students to produce and not delay production on the basis that they are not 'experienced' with the language. They can notice the forms and infer the rules when they produce or when they see the gap in their interlanguage and then are corrected. This is the new meaning of practice in the light of the comprehensible output hypothesis of Swain (1991) (section 1.6.1). The comprehensible output hypothesis maintains that we acquire a new language when we attempt to produce a new message but our partner or reader has trouble understanding us. When we experience comprehension failure, we adjust our output and try a new version of the rule or item we are acquiring. Swain (1995, p. 93) claims that:

*The importance of output could be that **output pushes the students to process language more deeply**- with more mental effort- than does input. **With output, the learner is in control.** In speaking and writing, students can 'stretch' their interlanguage to meet communicative goals. To produce, students need to do something and in so doing, they discover what they can and cannot do*

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Now if we consider the form of the exercises used by the teachers, we can say that most teachers (6 out of 7) used decontextualized exercises most of the time, but sometimes they used exercises having the form of paragraphs and dialogues. Some teachers argued that the choice of the form of language used with activities depended on the structures. For example, one teacher (T1) said:

Typology of exercises is vast so it depends on which kind suits a type of structure, of rule or lesson. For example, a tense is better practised through a conversation; if it is more related to prose we try to have it through writing, in a passage. It depends on the lessons.

But not all teachers taught structures that were discourse-bound in context. For example one teacher claimed: “*I **always use sentences**, and to be sincere I do not use paragraphs or texts with the first year students*”. So teachers avoided the use of discourse because they thought that it was beyond the students’ level of comprehension.

Now if we consider the materials, authenticity of materials and classwork patterns during practice, we found that most of the time teachers kept to grammar books with simplified language and did not interfere really with the way their students worked in class. We found that one teacher (T7) only used always real-life materials which were based on discourse. But the others used them occasionally. Some teachers (2 out of 7) referred to the use of the internet but actually not for using authentic materials but for pedagogical websites which presented grammar in a simplified way. For example, T2 said: “*I **use the internet**; I use some websites like the British Council. It is good because it is **very simplified** so whenever I want to start with an exercise I first use this website...*”. This shows again that the priority of most teachers was making grammar simple and easy for students so that they could learn it.

But nowadays students use the internet every day; it is part of their life and much English is found on the internet so why do not teachers use internet materials in class to discuss some grammatical points. The internet is a very useful source of authentic and up-dated materials which can be used to teach grammar and to increase students’ interest and motivation. Teachers can do classroom research about what

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mainly catches the students' attention on the net for designing the adequate materials. We designed most authentic materials from websites when we prepared the different units to teach grammar communicatively in this study. Personally it was not a hard work to do. On the contrary, we felt pleasure in teaching grammar together with discussing some topics on current events such as 'Brexit' and 'Syrian War' in implicit-based grammar lessons (See appendix 6). We taught tenses using newspapers articles which dealt with such themes. We felt that we were teaching grammar meaningfully and our students were attentive and interested too. Many scholars propose that students should be exposed to a plethora of language patterns in numerous authentic contexts (section 1.4.2)

Doughty et al (2003) claim that input in classroom should be based on realistic samples of authentic discourse use (section 1.4.2). Authentic materials refer to texts, photographs, video selections and other teaching resources not prepared for pedagogical purposes. Examples of authentic audiovisual materials are announcements, conversations and discussions taken as extracts or as a whole from radio and television public broadcasting, real-life telephone conversations, messages left on answering machines, or voice mail (Brandl, 2008). There are many justifications for the use of authentic materials such as linking the students' needs to the real world. It is proposed that the information being presented must be clearly relatable to existing knowledge that the learner already possesses and of interest to them (Brandl, *ibid*) (see section 1.4.2). Meaningfulness has emerged as a primary principle of CLT and as a counter-reaction to audiolingual teaching, which was much criticized for repetitive drills with meaningless content. In addition, meaningfulness means that input should be of interest and usefulness to the learner. For example Lee et al (1995, in Brandl, (*ibid*)) claim that input must contain some message to which the learner is supposed to attend.

Not only authentic materials were not often used by the observed teachers, but group work was less used as well. Actually during our observation, we never noticed any collaborative work designed by the teachers. But the questionnaires and the interviews revealed that sometimes teachers set students to work in groups or in pairs.

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One teacher (T1) admitted that as long as answers on exercises were given, students were free to work as they liked. But what we found more striking was that some teachers (2 out of 7) avoided group work in class because they thought it was noisy. But we can have noise even in classes where students are put to work individually. In fact, classroom work, be it in a group or not, never prevents the talkative students to talk in class. Actually, classroom discipline depends more on how teachers are able to manage the classroom. We can give the students motivating, meaningful activities where they share true information about themselves using the structures under focus in order to keep them focused. Moreover, students' talk is not necessarily 'noise' because some students learn from their peers by 'negotiating meaning'. Thus, we find it odd to condemn group work because of noise. Many scholars consider interactive activities as very important in learning (See section 1.4.2).

In fact, Ellis (1991) makes reference to some studies which found that 'students produce more in pair/group work, use longer sentences, and do not speak any less grammatically than they do in teacher-fronted lessons (section 1.4.2). Students also negotiate meaning more, provided that the task requires information exchange. In the same vein, Swain's output hypothesis which is a complement to Long's interaction hypothesis (Ellis, 1991) suggests that interactional adjustments promote acquisition (section 1.6.1). It claims that students need the opportunity for pushed output in order to develop high level of grammatical competence. It maintains that even if students do not have the necessary resources to allow successful utterance building, their pushed output can bring to their attention the fact that they need to know something else before they can say what they want to say.

In the same vein, Johnson (1979 in Samuda et al (2008)) maintains that methodologies should not only be based on materials to focus on relevant language but also to engage the students to develop the skill in using it through tasks (see section 1.4.2). Thus, there is a call for both designing tasks and encouraging interaction in the class work. In fact, this is congruent with the students' needs as found in this study. The students in our study reported that they did not only want to know about grammar, but to interact among themselves to improve their communicative skills. So teachers

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should look for ways to develop such skills instead of looking for how to keep the class quiet.

One example of the tasks that involves pair or group work and which has been found very beneficial is collaborative writing (see section 1.7.2.2). Collaborative writing activities encourage students to focus their attention on language and to collaborate in the resolution of their language problems (Dobao, 2014). Students are required to work together and produce one jointly written text (Swain, 2001). The joint authorship and shared responsibility for the final written product is what encourages students to talk about the language they are using and how best they use it. Many studies compared individual and collaborative work in class using writing tasks (Storch, 2005; Nassajiet al, 2010; Dobao, 2012, 2014). These studies have shown that students writing in pairs or groups produce more accurate texts than those writing individually.

Storch (2005) maintains that collaborative work leads to many opportunities for exchanging ideas and peer feedback. It is also found that group work is even more effective than pair work and provides enhanced opportunities for acquisition (Dobao, 2014). Dobao (ibid) maintains that students working in groups of four in his study focused their attention on past tense morphology more often than students working in pairs, produced a significantly higher number of past tense and were also more successful at solving problems related to it. As a result, their texts were more accurate. Dobao (2014) concludes that collaborative writing involving groups provides enhanced opportunities for second language learning. Unfortunately this teaching strategy is not used in our classrooms where the traditional individual practice is more dominant.

We should note, however, that the teachers (4 out of 7) who, according to their comments, heavily relied on the traditional FonFs showed a great awareness of the importance of the interactive, task-based meaningful teaching of grammar though on the ground they seemed to stick to more traditional practices. For example, T1 said:

*Grammar needs to be taught in context, situations of natural use.
Classroom should focus on interactive and realistic practices for both*

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*teacher's input and students' output. The exercises which enable students learn the new grammatical point and also enable them to **speak and write in English**.*

Unfortunately this approach to teaching is not very common. Some teachers explained that they rarely taught grammar meaningfully because of '*lack of resources and adequate materials*'; for this, they used only the '*grammar books available in the Department's library*'. They also thought that the use of discourse was challenging for the students, that the mechanical exercises were '*more practical*' and feared the use of collaborative work because it '*creates noise*'. Only one teacher (T7) defied these challenges and broke the rule by trying to make grammar in the service of speaking and writing. We end this section with this teacher's opinion:

*Grammar is meant to **help students speak and write accurately and fluently in English**. As a matter of fact, it would be better if teachers are provided with **authentic materials** in the classroom in order to make students aware of the grammatical points and then use them in real life situations. I prefer also to **teach grammar in context** and through cooperation with my students. It means I try to **act as a mediator and a guide**. Hence, I suggest the use of authentic materials in the classroom in order to help students understand how the grammatical units are being used as well as make a distinction and reflect upon the choice of a given form in order to construct more complex sentences and then paragraphs and essays.*

Thus, even if most teachers were aware of the importance of the use of the FonF strategies to teach grammar, but in practice very few teachers tried to implement them in class by defying practical challenges (as is the case with T7).

After portraying the types of strategies used by grammar teachers and which consist mainly in the traditional FonFs with rare FonF strategies, in the next discussion we will answer our second research question which investigated the learning outcomes, in terms of grammatical knowledge, of the two instructional strategies, namely the traditional FonFs and the communicative FonF. To answer the second research question, we will discuss our findings obtained from two instruments: pre- and post-treatment tests and analysis of errors. Findings will be discussed in the light of the methodological approaches of grammar.

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5.1.2 The Effects of Different Teaching Approaches on Learning Grammar

Comparison of the students' general scores on pre- and post-tests (section 3.9) which preceded and followed the three treatments in three grammatical areas (present/past, future & modal verb forms) showed that the FonF approach proved to be more effective than the FonFs approach after treatments (present/past [FonF: 71, FonFs: 64], future [FonF: 78, FonFs: 73] & modal verb forms [FonF: 89, FonFs: 80] &). But as far as grammar knowledge alone is concerned, both approaches proved to be effective but with a better performance of the FonFs group on the grammar post-test concerning past/present verb forms (Present/simple [FonF:37, FonFs: 42], Future [FonF:49, FonFs:48] & modal verb forms [FonF:49, FonFs:48]). In fact, the subjects in both groups appeared to benefit from the intervention and improved their grammatical knowledge after the three treatments about present, past (treatment 1), future (treatment 2) and modal verb forms (treatment 3) because both groups scored higher on the three post-treatment tests (in grammar) as compared to their scores on the pre-tests in the three grammatical areas.

Thus, knowing that during treatments the students in the FonFs group developed their knowledge on the basis of explicit teaching of rules and explicit correction whereas the participants in the FonF group developed their knowledge on the basis of exposure and attention to form without being presented rules and with being given implicit feedback in the form of recast, the students taught implicitly, without any explanation of rules, showed similar knowledge of rules as the students who were taught explicitly (according to post-test treatment scores)

Thus, our findings are important because they showed that the students gained knowledge of rules without being taught them explicitly. In our study the forms were structured in a way to make them easy to notice and infer the rules; so we should highlight the fact that 'acquisition' in our study was pushed by 'enhancement' which put in evidence the structures. Our FonF approach might appear explicit but since no rule was given we consider it implicit as Ellis (2005) argues. For Ellis (ibid), an approach is explicit when rules are given either at the beginning of a lesson, after giving examples or even at the end of practice. In our study, rules were not at all

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mentioned, the students were directed to meaning and meaning was the focus of teaching but yet students developed knowledge; thus, we can say that they developed their knowledge via ‘noticing’. Actually, this noticing could happen because we highly structured exposure to form. Thus, our communicative FonF was effective because communication was not discredited and forms were enhanced. This is why our FonF group performed better than or as well as the traditionally taught students on overall post-treatment tests.

As we mentioned before, the fact that the students who were taught with the implicit FonF gained grammatical knowledge means that the type of teaching strategy used with this kind of students induced them to develop competence similar to that of the explicitly taught students. Rutherford et al (1985, in Gascoigne (2001)) claimed that the instructional strategies which draw the attention of the learner to language significantly increase the rate of acquisition over and above the rate expected from students acquiring that language under natural circumstances where attention to form may be sporadic (section 1.2). Schmidt’s (in Lee et al, (2008, p. 308)) offering a rationale for ‘enhancement’ claimed:

*For input to be processed for acquisition by L2 students, it must first be noticed. **Enhancing input using typographical techniques increases the chance that the visually prominent input will be noticed and will thus establish a trace in long term memory.***

At the level of research, our findings support part of the results of Norris et al (2000)’s meta-analysis (see section 1.6.2.1). In fact, this study, which is concerned with the measurement of the effectiveness of instructional types, is the most frequently mentioned study in the literature. In their meta-analysis study, Norris et al (ibid) examined studies comparing explicit and implicit teaching between 1980 and 1998. Norris et al (ibid) claim that instruction that incorporates a focus on form integrated in meaning is as effective as instruction that involves a focus on forms in terms of outcomes measured by discrete-point tests. Similarly, Pica (1983) who examined the effect of presenting input under different conditions (explicit and implicit instructions in Spanish) found that students in every group demonstrated substantial improvement from the pre-test to the post-test. Pica (ibid) also found that ‘noticing’ has a

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significant impact on intake which rather supports Schmidt's (1993) noticing hypothesis in that the group of participants who reported noticing of the target structure exhibited a substantial amount of intake on the post-test.

The study which seems to support also part of our results is that of Macaro et al's (2006) who did not find that an intensive explicit instruction brought about a better improvement in grammatical knowledge or a reduction in written production errors as compared to the implicit instruction (see section 1.2.6.1). Another study which revealed that the implicit instruction has a better effect on language improvement in general is the study of Herron et al (1992) (see section 1.6.2.1) who compared two groups of beginning-level American college students learning French. With one group, they used 'guided induction' method in which students were assisted to form hypotheses about how grammatical patterns work, but rules were never stated. With the other group, they used the deductive method where rules were explicitly provided before practice. The results revealed that the inductively-taught group learned better than the deductively-taught one.

Herron et al (ibid) commented also on the results of some other studies comparing inductive and deductive teaching of grammar, especially those which showed no significant difference between the two methods of teaching (like that of Shaffer, 1989), and draws our attention to the fact that in such studies students explicitly state the rules after discovering them which is not the case in Herron et al's inductive study. In fact, Ellis (2005) considers both inductive and deductive methods as explicit as far as rules are stated regardless of whether they are stated at the beginning or at the end of examples or lessons.

Our results support also findings of more recent studies reported by Ellis (2014) which revealed more positive effects of implicit instruction. Mohamed (2001, in Ellis (2014)) compared implicitly-instructed and explicitly-instructed students using two different types of tasks with each group. He found that gains of the implicitly-taught group were significantly higher than those of the explicitly-taught group in terms of explicit knowledge, thus concluding that the tasks accompanied with implicit instruction served both to develop explicit knowledge and provided students with

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opportunity for communication. A similar study was carried out by Pesce (2008, in Ellis (2014)) who compared teacher-instructed groups and self-discovery ones over the learning of Spanish past tenses via completion of tasks. The immediate post-test revealed that self-discovery groups outperformed the explicit group in both morphology and syntax.

We should also refer to some input-based research studies to support our view about the effectiveness of input enhancement which was a key strategy in our FonF approach (section 1.6.2.2). Among the studies which found positive effects of enhanced input is the study carried out by Jourdenais et al (1995). In this study, the researchers compared two groups of college Spanish students. One group was exposed to enhanced texts (highlighted verb forms) and the other group did not receive any enhanced text. Think-aloud protocols revealed that the enhanced group attended more frequently to Spanish verb forms than the non-enhanced group. Other positive effects of enhanced input are found in the study of Lee (2007). Lee (ibid) compared groups exposed to enhanced texts with groups exposed to texts with familiar topics and then tested the students' ability to identify and correct English passive errors. The findings revealed that the enhanced input groups were significantly better at identifying and correcting errors.

Another study worth mentioning and which confirms our results is the study of Jahan et al (2015) who explored the impact of textual enhancement on EFL students' noticing and grammatical awareness of expressing future plans and intentions. The study was conducted over five weeks with a pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test research design. The results revealed that exposure to textually enhanced input facilitated the development of metalinguistic knowledge of the 'be going to' construction, as well as the students' controlled use of the construction 'will' for expressing future plans and intentions.

Concerning the learning outcomes of our participants, we should note also that though there was significant improvement in grammar in both groups, but most of the students in both FonF and FonFs groups scored below the average on the post-tests following treatment and this with respect to the three grammatical areas investigated.

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In fact, many structures taught were not learned by many students and this is clear from the number of errors made in relation to these structures. We can mention, for example, the use of ‘past simple for finished actions’, ‘present perfect for actions connected to the present’, ‘*going to* for planned decision’ and ‘*managed to* for particular ability’. Though explaining this phenomenon is beyond the scope of our study but we might explain the non-learning of some specific structures to simplicity or complexity of rules.

In the literature, easier rules are termed simple, and difficult rules are termed complex, but there has been no agreement on the choice of features which make a structure either simple or complex (see section 1.6.2.1). For example, Green et al (1992) maintain that some rules have a fairly consistently high success rate (e.g articles) than others which have low success rate (e.g verb forms) which suggests that some rules are easier than others. Some considered structure saliency, i.e, the extent to which a structure is noticeable, a feature that makes a structure simple to acquire/learn (Ellis, R. 2005). Clashes et al (1983 cited in Pienmann, 1984) consider that elements which require the lowest degree of processing capacity are the easiest. Other researchers such as Reber (1993 in Robinson (1996)), Hulstijn et al (1994), Dubravac, (2013) and Ellis, R (2015) consider the pedagogical rules underlying language structures as a relevant feature in labelling a structure as simple or complex. For example, Hulstijn et al (1994) consider the scope of the rule (the number of cases covered by the rule) as an important feature for deciding about rule complexity.

We can say that success rate of rule, saliency of input, processing degree of the structure or the scope of the rule are the suggestions advanced in the literature to explain why some rules are simple and others are complex to learn. The participants in this study learned the use of simple verb forms such as simple present and future and encountered difficulty with modals and mainly complex modals. Actually, the most frequent errors were made with modals. In what follows we try to look closely at the structures which were difficult to learn by participants of this study.

In our study, we found that the difficult structures were of two types. First, some difficult structures were the verb forms which expressed different meanings. For

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example, the present continuous is used with 1) actions occurring around speaking, 2) actions that are temporary, and 3) speaker's irritation towards bad habits. Similarly, the past simple is used with 1) brief actions, 2) finished actions and 3) specific points of past time. Second, some of the verb forms which were found difficult were also the ones which were taught as dichotomous. For example, 'have to' which expresses outside recommendation and 'must' which expresses speaker's recommendation were taught in a dichotomous way. Another example is with 'managed to' and 'could' where the former is used with particular ability and the latter with general ability. We can also mention the contrast between 'may' and 'might' which we also found very tedious to teach because it deals with the degree of certainty; in this sense, 'may' is used when the speaker is more or less certain about something and 'might' is used when the speaker is uncertain.

It can be inferred that the two types of difficulty (multiple functions of a form & forms with nuances of meaning) are related to pedagogical rules as maintained above by Ellis, R. (2005) and more specifically this is in line with Hulstijn et al' (1994) s claim that the scope of a rule is an indicator of its simplicity/complexity. Ellis, R. (2005) maintains that structures that realise multiple functions are more complex than those which realise a single function and hence they are better learned through an implicit mode of teaching (see section 1.6.1.2) and this is congruent with the findings of this study as most of these difficult structures (mainly modals) were better learned under the FonF condition.

To conclude this section, we can say that on the whole, in terms of the general post-test scores (covering both grammar knowledge & its application in writing), the FonF instruction proved to be more effective than the FonFs'. However, if we consider gains in terms of knowledge of grammar only, we can say that both FonF and FonFs instructions benefitted grammar improvement (according to the post-test measure) with the FonFs instruction being slightly better for the learning of past and present tenses. Thus, we conclude that the strategy which is based on enhancing input via discourse and through exposure to plenty of examples is highly successful in promoting the learning of grammatical knowledge without explicitly teaching it and it

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can be as effective as the explicit instruction for the acquisition of rules. We do not mean by this that we should dismiss the FonFs instruction but the FonF instruction is successful at teaching forms and without any dismissal of meaning. It is also to be noted that though improvement occurred in both groups, but the post-treatment scores remained below the average. We argued that learning was constrained by some factors which might be the complexity of the rules which could be mainly due to the different meanings expressed by a single structure (e.g present continuous) or dichotomous structures expressing opposing meanings (e.g may/might). In what follows, we will try to discuss further the effects of the two approaches on the appropriate use of verb forms in writing. In the next discussion we will answer the third research question in the light of theories about grammar and writing acquisition.

5.1.3 The Effects of Different Grammar Teaching Approaches on Grammar Accuracy in Writing Production

Our findings showed that different approaches had different effects on grammar accuracy in writing. The comparison between the pre- and post-tests showed that the subjects of the FonF group scored higher than the FonFs group on post-treatment writing tests in relation with the grammatical areas investigated, namely: present, past, future and modal verb forms (Present [**FonF:39, FonF:27**], Future[**FonF:37, FonF:33**] & Modal verb forms [**FonF:40, FonFs:32**]). In addition, the analysis of grammatical errors indicated that most errors of verb forms made in writing were those associated with the accurate use of modals (spelling forms) and most of these errors were made by the subjects of the FonFs group; and, in fact, this type of data (about spelling problems) was not anticipated in our research questions. Actually, we were concerned more with the appropriate use of verb forms than their spelling forms. But when analysing grammatical errors, we unexpectedly found out such interesting data which were related to the morphological aspect of the verb forms and which was found to be influenced (in terms of learning) by type of instruction. Concerning the same

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type of modal spelling errors, the subjects of the FonF group made only one type of error in the writing tasks.

Thus, as regards such results, we can say that writing was improved when grammar was taught with the FonF instruction (implicitly with the use of writing tasks accompanied with implicit feedback in the form of recast). The students of the FonF group were given plenty of examples (in the form of texts) to notice the structures under focus and had opportunity to practise them collaboratively in writing and had feedback from their peers and their instructor (as recasts) while using the structures in the texts they produced. So, these students benefited from both contextualized practice and feedback on errors in context and this explains why they made fewer errors than the students of the FonFs group.

Our findings also indicated that most errors were made on the tasks about grammar (in which students had to choose one appropriate structure among others) and not on tasks of writing (in which students had to use the structure according to the context without being presented with the options) in relation to the verb forms investigated (Present/past [8 out of 13 structures were difficult in grammar test& 2 in writing test], Future [7 out 11 structures were difficult in grammar test& 5 in writing test]& Modal verb forms [11 out of 16 structures were difficult in grammar test & 8 in writing test]). Concerning the present, past and future verb forms, it was revealed that sometimes some of the errors found on grammar tasks completely disappeared in writing tasks such is the case with ‘present with permanent actions’, ‘present simple for scheduling’, ‘present continuous for near future’ and ‘*will* for prediction based on opinion’. Actually, both groups showed zero error in writing activities in relation with these forms, though on grammar knowledge tasks errors were detected.

It is to be noted also that our findings showed that few functions of verb forms appeared to be more problematic in terms of use and not in terms of knowledge such is the case with ‘future perfect for action completion in present and in future’, ‘future continuous for future actions in progress’, ‘managed for particular ability’, ‘*may* for small certainty’ and ‘*must* for speaker’s decision’. Upon such results, we can say that since most errors were related to knowledge of the rules and, as we previously found,

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that the main difficulty was in distinguishing between the different meanings (or functions) expressed by a single structure, thus we can argue that the problem in teaching grammar lies in the accumulation of the rules of usage to teach which makes their differentiation or even internalization difficult. The correct use of forms in writing which were used incorrectly in grammar-based tasks actually reinforces this argument which underlines that the differentiation among the different functions of the same structure is more difficult than using appropriately the structure in a given context. We can also say that it might be too hasty to attribute lack of accuracy in writing to non-transfer of knowledge when such knowledge is actually not accurately learned.

If we consider the errors of writing (which were not all automatically related to lack of knowledge) and the group which mainly made most of such errors (the FonFs group), we rather attribute poor performance in writing to the way grammar was taught and not lack of grammar knowledge. This is also shown through the improvement of the FonFs group on grammar knowledge and the improvement of the FonF group on writing in the post-tests; this indicates that students apply their knowledge in the way they learn it. Thus, in order to apply grammar appropriately and correctly in writing, grammar should be taught with the FonF instruction which contextualizes grammar. Our findings support the position held by advocates of contextualized grammar teaching who view that grammar should not be discredited but revisited in the way it is taught.

Our findings also support the position held by some researchers concerning the fact that the traditional grammar does not improve writing. We can say that the ‘divorce’ between writing and grammar caused by the famous report of Braddock et al in the 1960’s could be justified because since that time until the two last decades traditional grammar was found in many studies non-beneficial for writing. It was argued that students could cope well on discrete grammar tests, but failed to demonstrate grammar knowledge in writing with verb forms being the major area of difficulty as shown in Murrow (2004) (see section 1.7.1). Other researchers such as Hillocks (1986) view that focus on correctness is ineffective and studying grammar

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does not lead to improved writing. All the studies reviewed by Hillocks (1986) about the teaching of grammar concluded that grammar did not improve writing. Hillocks (ibid), thus, argues that we cannot defend grammar as a means to improve writing if it is taught in a traditional way. The same conclusion is reached by other researchers like Neuleib (1977) and Kolln (1981) after reviewing other studies on the relationship between the teaching of formal grammar and writing. The researchers found no relationship between grammar instruction and correct grammar use in writing.

Our results seem to be also partially congruent with the findings of Frantzen's (1995) study which showed no greater effects of grammar instruction over non-grammar instruction on writing. She compared two groups of students enrolled in a content course: one group was provided with grammar and correction of errors, the second was not. She used two pre- and post-tests, one grammar-focused and one integrative (an essay). The results indicated that both groups exhibited improvement in accuracy over a semester on both instruments. Moreover, the group which was taught with grammar outperformed the non-grammar group only on grammar-focused test and not on the integrative one. This indicates that a content course by itself without any focus on form (instruction or correction) can promote grammar accuracy in writing. In our study, however, we found that the group which received implicit grammar instruction scored as well as the explicitly taught group on grammar-focused tests in addition to its outperformance on writing tasks.

Similar results were found by Holden (1994) who carried out a study comparing the effects of an approach that does not focus on grammar and another which relies on formal grammar. The findings revealed that less focus on grammar is more effective in improving students' knowledge of grammar than formal grammar instruction. Same conclusions were reached by Edwards et al (1984) and Lafayet et al (1985) (cited in Frantzen (1995)) who after using similar comparative studies concluded that grammar instruction may not be necessary for improvement in language proficiency to occur. They proved that students could improve their grammar without grammar being taught explicitly and without receiving explicit error correction feedback.

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However, we do not agree with the view that students do not make use of grammar they 'know' in writing. For example, ÖZbek (1995 in Murrow) recognizes that students are unable to make use of grammar they know in composition courses because they do not relate the grammar they are taught to writing. But actually, the grammar which is taught is separate from what it is expected to be used for. We would rather condemn grammar if it is contextually taught and corrected and then not applied when tested via the same mode or context. Moreover, in our study, even the errors found in the subjects' writing were not similar to the ones found in the grammar-focused tests. The problem, then, is not in transferring knowledge to writing but in the way this knowledge is imparted. Thus, it is logical that the students who received knowledge through explicit instruction, decontextualized, sentence-based exercises and decontextualized practice showed poor performance on producing written discourse with appropriate grammar.

Thus the problem is not with grammar teaching but the way grammar is taught which in turn influences both knowledge and use. This means that for grammar to be used communicatively it should be taught with a focus on form in a meaningful context and be practised meaningfully and communicatively with feedback to contextualized output (production). This is in line with Fearn et al (2008) who examined the effects of traditional grammar instruction and functional contextualized instruction on writing. The results showed that students taught grammar in context demonstrated enhanced writing performance, while students in both groups showed no difference in their grammatical knowledge in the testing situation. The researchers concluded that grammar instruction improves writing performance when grammar and writing share one instructional context and this is due to the fact that context in which something is learned is fundamental for its application.

The successful and better achievements of the FonF group (in the absence of any explicit instruction of rules) in writing compared to the FonFs group in our study suggest that the subjects of the FonF group could make mental efforts to notice the input (in plenty of texts and meaningful practice) and turned input into intake via such a process. Thus our findings seem to be in favour with Schmidt' (1990) s noticing

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theory which stipulates that drawing attention to forms in a meaningful context results in learning. The noticing or enhancement theory was proposed by Schmidt (1990) as a reaction against Krashen's (1981) input hypothesis. For Schmidt (*ibid*), the noticed form is the 'intake' and Krashen does not distinguish between input and intake. Schmidt (*ibid*) explains intake or the noticed form as the registration of input in conscious awareness and its subsequent storage in long-term memory. Schmidt (*ibid*) argues that cognitive effort involving noticing is a necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input into intake in L2. According to Ellis, N. (2008) noticing is the process which facilitates acquisition. She assumes that 'noticing' the input that is structured in a way that students notice it and practise it meaningfully can be consolidated in a long term memory and retrieved in language use. Ellis (2005) suggests that high saliency of the input and many instances of it in meaningful contexts facilitate noticing. Ellis (2005) does not discredit the mechanical drill but lays focus on usage and output which receives feedback.

We also do not discredit drilling in the traditional way but not as the only form of practice, because practice that is based on production, use and implicit feedback seems to be more effective to draw students' attention to the input. This is what Long (1991) also highlights in his focus-on-form (section 1.3). He suggests that practice may involve 'time out' to focus on grammar but within a communicative procedure or while focus is on meaning and this is in line with our implicit FonF instruction which actually yielded better outcomes than the FonFs instruction. Thus, the explicit knowledge is no longer conceptualised in a behaviouristic theory of learning. The explicit knowledge is seen as the students' conscious effort to process input so that it becomes intake. Actually, this mental effort is triggered by different strategies such as input and/or output enhancement. The enhancement hypothesis was mainly motivated by research into effectiveness of the explicit and implicit L2 instruction. The most important one was the meta-analysis study of Norris et al (2000) which demonstrated that focused L2 instruction resulted in substantial gains of the focused forms than the implicit meaning-focused instruction.

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Our findings support also the findings of Swain' (2001) s study which indicates that noticing the gap in output facilitates intake. During the FonF treatment the subjects were encouraged to notice the forms under focus in their output during practice. When the subjects made errors in output they were supplied with implicit feedback (recast) in order to trigger mental efforts to repair the output themselves. The results of the study showed increased accuracy in writing in the FonF group. Swain (ibid), thus, concluded that noticing the gap in output and receiving feedback in the form of recast might have been an influential factor in improving grammar accuracy in writing. Swain (2001) claimed that early productive practice results in fluency with the utterances themselves providing feedback as input to implicit knowledge.

Following the same line of thought, Ellis (2005) maintains that if the output is flawed, feedback given in the form of recast that illustrates a more appropriate form of expression can optimize the forms for their acquisition. This is due to the fact that students 'notice' the gap between their own erroneous utterance and the recast. Recasts which represent feedback to output highlight the relevant element of the form at the same time as the desired meaning-to-be expressed is still alive. Swain (ibid) claims also that pushed output needs to be planned at early stages. He maintains that even if students do not have the necessary resources to build sentences, their pushed output can bring to their attention the fact that they need to know something else before they can say what they want to say. As Swain et al (1995) maintain, the students 'notice the gap' and as a result pay attention to those forms in subsequent input, with accompanying memorization, hypothesis formation and testing.

Given our findings, we favour Swain's Output Hypothesis which maintains that production needs to be urged and which is a counter reaction to Krashen'(1981)s Comprehensible Input. We believe that a combination of input noticing and pushed output together with feedback justifies a good pedagogical method to apply in teaching an L2. Swain's claim about the non-efficacy of comprehensible input comes from research on immersion programmes in French which revealed that in spite of seven years of comprehensible input in French, the written and spoken French of these

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students was flawed. Thus, Swain (1995) claims that output is important because it pushes the students to process language more deeply, with more mental effort, than does input. According to Swain (*ibid*) noticing the gap in one's knowledge may push also students to get solutions by turning to a grammar book or a dictionary or even ask their teacher or peers to get input.

The positive effects of output have been found in studies of Izumi et al (2000) and Leeser (2008). Izumi et al (2000), by examining the noticing function of output, found that extended opportunities to produce output and receive relevant input were found to be crucial in improving students' use of the grammatical structure. Similarly, Leeser (2008) examined the effects of students' production (i.e., pushed output) on students' noticing, comprehension and production by comparing groups which produced output with groups which did not produce output. The results showed that (a) the group which produced output reported more noticing of words (b) comprehended more information from the text and (c) showed evidence of past tense development in their writing.

Concerning feedback used in our study, we believe that the indirect, implicit feedback in the form of recast might also have contributed greatly in helping the FonF subjects to notice the gap in their output. Actually, we were moving about in class and reformulating students' sentences (if a task was written) or utterances (if a task was oral) using an appropriate/correct form. The efficacy of recasts was proven also in the study of Ferris et al (2000, in Bitchener (2005)). One of the aspects the researchers have investigated was the effects of different types of feedback on new pieces of writing. Findings of the study revealed that students who received indirect feedback reduced their rate of errors substantially more than those who received direct feedback. In our study we also found that most errors were reduced by the FonF group (who received indirect feedback as recasts) but not by the FonFs group (who received explicit direct feedback).

In our study, we assume that the implicit feedback has had a positive effect on accuracy improvement since the subjects receiving the FonF instruction were not given the rules at all. We, actually noticed that these subjects made many errors (and

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similar to those made by the FonFs subjects) during their performance in class but these errors were reduced on the post-treatment tests. Thus, implicit feedback provided in relation to flawed output might have well helped the subjects to deeply process the forms. In fact, our results give counter evidence to claims made by Truscott's (1996) concerning error correction in writing. Truscott argues that grammar instruction and error correction have no effect on writing. However, we agree with Ferris (1999) who counter reacted Truscott's view by encouraging teachers to attend to their students' errors and use effective ways to correct them through selecting and prioritizing errors to focus on. This is possible in a FonF instruction which has proved successful (in our study) in inducing students to eliminate many of the errors they made in class.

Our results give also counter evidence to claims made by some researchers which support the traditional grammar as being effective for reducing errors in writing as it has always been throughout history (Mellon, in Hadley, 2007). In fact, we did not find that the subjects who followed traditional grammar (FonFs) in our study improved significantly their accuracy in writing as it has been proven by some studies like that of Bateman et al (1966), a study which is often referred to in literature and which showed the benefits of the traditional grammar. Of course we do not try to dismiss the benefits of the traditional grammar altogether or 'throw the grammatical baby out with the bath water' as claimed by Hughes et al (1998), but we try to draw attention to the fact that grammar needs to be taught differently or as Widdodo (2007) claims EFL teachers can benefit from learning some alternative approaches for teaching grammar so that they can integrate grammar into other language skills.

The FonFs instruction is not the best strategy for improving the appropriate and accurate use of grammar in writing as our results showed and this is supported by many researchers. Van-Zalingen (1998, in Matinsen, *ibid*)) maintains that teaching grammar rules, then make the students do exercises out of a grammar book, is not application of grammar to writing. Neuleib et al (1987) also claim that this 'grammar' means grammar without application and this kind of grammar might not transfer to writing. Van-Zalingen (*ibid*) argues that students should be forced to write in class to

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apply the rules. He recognizes that using writing in grammar class is a hard task but as she claims this is the only way to improve students' writing. DeBeaugrande (in Neuleib, 1977) makes a claim against the traditional grammar textbooks saying that they teach neither grammar nor writing and that they are written by and for grammarians who find the concepts easy.

Other researchers like Vavra (1996) and Murrow (2004) (see section 1.7.2.2) claim also that it is teachers' role to help students see their grammatical mistakes in their own writing and help them overcome their difficulties. Similarly, McLaughlin et al (1983 in Murrow (2004)) argue that teaching grammar separately is not effective and that it should be integrated within a skill because if explicit grammar is not carried over into communicative reality, the effort is wasted. Dunn et al (2003) claim that it is not enough to teach grammar in and of itself particularly in the absence of any evidence that direct grammar instruction does anything to improve our students' literacy skills. Our own findings clearly enhance us to believe that grammar should not be taught for itself if we ever want to improve students' writing.

Our findings give support rather to the use of the FonF instruction in relation with texts and writing and this is in line with other similar views (see section 1.7.2.2). Frodensen et al (2003) claim that Form-focused instruction is the alternative approach to traditional grammar which views grammar instruction as an opportunity to improve writing and see the relationship between language form and meaning. Frodensen et al (ibid) propose text analysis and text production tasks to enable students notice grammatical forms and focus on the gaps in their output. According to the authors, text analysis activities ask students to notice how certain structures are used in extended discourse. For example, they might identify contexts in which writers use passive verbs. This noticing heightens students' awareness of language features for later productive tasks. Students can also notice language structures in the texts of their classmates in peer response activities. Similarly, Chin (2000) argues that research strongly suggests that teaching grammar in context improves students' command of grammar in writing because this teaching helps students make immediate applications and see the relevance of grammar to their own writing.

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Similarly, Celce-Murcia (1990) argues that there is a need to analyze vigorously the interaction of grammar and discourse, and then teach both discourse and grammar in appropriate ways to second-language students. Celce-Murcia (1990) claims that all grammatical structures should be taught at the level of discourse because there are only few rules which are context-free such as subject-verb agreement. In the same vein, Tomlin (1994) also argues that pedagogical grammar should be discourse-based because she observed that many students gain a high degree of facility in manipulating linguistic forms but cannot determine when it is most appropriate to use one form over its alternatives. Williams (2012) maintains that most students' errors are due to the way grammar is taught. He suggests more indirect approaches to teach grammar in discourse such as using reading activities. Hinkel, (2013) also maintains that grammar for writing cannot take place in isolation from the lexical and discourse features of text: e.g., the verb tenses in academic prose are determined by the type of context in which they are used. In addition, continuous tenses are very rare in academic prose and that they are more appropriate in informal discourse.

Moreover, among other options which are recommended to replace the traditional practice of rules is sentence-combining (see section 1.7.2.2). Hudson (2000, in Andrews et al (2006)) argues that sentence-combining exercises are more successful than traditional grammar activities because they are exercises in the production of language and more specifically in the production of written language. Andrews et al (ibid) reviewed most important studies dealing with the effect of grammar teaching and sentence-combining on accuracy and quality in written composition and found that the traditional practice has no influence on either the accuracy or quality of written language development and that sentence-combining has a more positive effect on writing quality and accuracy. Barrot (2014) also compared effects of a PPP teaching and a FFI instruction on writing accuracy. Findings suggest that FFI significantly improved students' writing that outperformed those who received traditional grammar as an aid to their overall proficiency level in English. Barrot's study, thus, supports the current views that FFI is a valuable alternative to TG and that its use leads students to improve their writing. There are many other

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researches that have shown benefits of embedded grammar in writing (see section 1.7.2.2).

As far as our study is concerned, it is clear that both output and feedback of our FFI instruction played a role in improving both competence and accuracy in writing, but actually, we cannot know exactly if the positive effect of our implicit FonF is due to one of the three options we used (input enhancement, pushed output in collaborative writing and recasts) or to the combination of the three. Nevertheless, we assume that it is the combination of the three which facilitated acquisition of the forms by the FonF group. This successful combination of input-based and output-based strategies has been proven more beneficial than if these strategies are solely used in many studies (Izumi, 2002; Pawlack, 2007 & Shegar, 2013) (see section 1.6.2.3). Shintani et al's (2013) meta-analysis indicated that the studies which used input-output design showed that a combination of input and output FFI has a better and durable effect.

Similarly, Shegar et al (2013) used a combination of FFI strategies, including input, output and recast techniques, to measure effects on the learning and the spontaneous use of the 3rd person singular 's' morpheme and do/auxiliary wh-questions. The researchers found that the combination input-output-recast had a significant and lasting impact on the target structures (see section 1.6.2.3). Similarly, in another study, Izumi (2002) has shown that students who engaged in output-input activities outperformed those exposed only to input and that those who received only visual input enhancement failed to show measurable gains in learning, despite the documented positive impact of enhancement on the noticing of the target form items in the input (see section 1.6.2.3). The advantage of combining input- and output-based FFI is also confirmed by Pawlack (2007) who concluded (after two experimental studies) that both output- and input-based approaches affected the students' performance both in terms of production and reception of targeted forms.

To summarize, the above discussion led us to conclude that the only approach which benefits students' writing is per se the FonF approach. The FonF group in our study outperformed the FonFs group in all the writing measures used in this study. We have shown that the reason behind the bad performance of the FonFs group in writing

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was mainly due to the way grammar was taught and practised (decontextualized) and not to lack of knowledge. In what follows, we will be looking closely to the effect of the FonF and FonFs instructions on specific grammatical structures both as rules and as knowledge use in writing activities. Thus, in the following discussion we will try to answer the fourth research question.

5.1.4 The Relationship Between the Effectiveness of an Approach and The Forms to be Taught

Our findings showed that most of the structures taught were better learned when taught with the FonF approach. This conclusion is based first on the total scores of post-treatment measures (section 3.9.2) which have shown a better performance of the FonF group over the FonFs group in the three areas of verb forms (Present/simple [**FonF:71, FonFs:64**], Future [**FonF:78, FonFs:73**] & Modal verb forms [**FonF:89, FonFs:80**]), and second on quantifying the number of learned structures (section 3.10.5) by both groups (FonFs & FonF groups) on both grammar-focused and writing-focused tests (in Grammar [**FonF:57%, FonFs:15%**] & in Writing [**FonF:45%, FonFs:2%**]). Now if we look at specific structures with reference to errors in grammar knowledge and grammar use in writing, we can have further details (see table 3.44). In terms of grammar knowledge we observed the following: first, 23 structures out of 40 were better learned under the FonF condition (57%). Second, 6 structures (15%) were better learned under both conditions (the structures were ‘*will* for prediction’, ‘*must* for strong possibility’, ‘*can’t* for negative strong possibility’, ‘*have to* for outside recommendation’ and ‘*don’t need to* for absence of necessity & ‘*must* for obligation from the speaker’s point of view’); third, 5 structures (12%) were neither better learned under the FonF nor under the FonFs conditions (these structures were: ‘Present perfect with actions connected to the present’, ‘past simple for brief actions’, ‘present continuous for near future’, ‘future continuous for present actions occurring elsewhere’, ‘*could* for general ability’).

As far as the use of grammar in writing we observed the following: first, 18 (45%) structures were better learned under the FonF condition against one structure

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(2%) which was better learned under the FonFs condition (the latter was '*should have+past participle* for advice and expectation'); second, 14 (35%) structures were better learned under both conditions (see table 4.44). Third, 7 (17%) structures were neither better learned with the FonF instruction nor with the FonFs one ('past simple with finished actions', 'present continuous indicating speaker's irritation', '*ought to have+past participle* for advice and expectation', 'future perfect for completion of actions before a future time', 'future perfect for present actions which we know have happened elsewhere' and 'future continuous for present actions occurring elsewhere', '*must* for strong possibility' & '*may* for uncertainty').

Thus, the results show that the FonF instruction was more effective in teaching most structures and it benefitted both grammatical knowledge and its use in writing. Only seven structures were found to be exclusively better learned when taught with the traditional FonFs than if taught with the FonF instruction. These were six structures in the area of present/past verb forms in terms of knowledge of rules ('*Present continuous* for ongoing actions around speaking', '*present continuous* indicating speaker's irritation', '*present perfect* with repeated actions', '*present perfect continuous* with focus on activity', '*past continuous* with long past actions', '*past simple* with brief actions' & '*past simple* with finished actions') and one structure in terms of use ('*should+have+past participle* for expectation'). In addition, very few structures were equally learned whether taught implicitly or explicitly and few others were neither well learned implicitly nor explicitly. Given that most structures were better learned under the FonF condition, this means that the implicit teaching was effective regardless of simplicity or complexity of the structures (simple & complex structures were dealt with previously).

Regarding the seven structures which were not well learned (as knowledge) by the FonF group (referred to above), the only structure which the students of this group practised was the '*past simple* with finished actions'; but the other six structures (e.g. '*future continuous* for present actions occurring elsewhere' and '*present continuous* for near future') were just enhanced (shown in bold to make them noticeable) in the texts during the Explore Stage of the course, but no practice followed in their

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concern. As a reminder, the students of the FonF group were given practice only on fewer structures (25 structures out of 40 were practiced & 15 others were just highlighted in texts) contrary to the students of the FonFs group who were instructed the rules and given practice on all the 40 structures covered in the treatment. We did this in order to devote more time to practicing the more important structures as explained in chapter 2. But given that six structures out of the 15 structures which were only enhanced were not well learned, it thus appears that enhancement without practice did not lead students of the FonF group to notice all the structures mentioned above.

Those unnoticed structures in our study explain why some studies did not find better effects for textually input enhancement as compared to non-enhanced texts as regards some grammatical structures. For example Winke (2013) argues that input enhancement has ‘no trade-off effect’. Similarly, Leow (2001) found a negative effect for enhancement both for the amount of noticing and intake. This is also largely supported by the meta-analysis of Lee et al (2008) which indicated that L2 students provided with enhanced texts barely outperformed those who were exposed to unenhanced texts with the same target forms flooded in them. But our study shows clearly that enhancement (used with the FonF group) was sufficient to learn most of the grammatical structures which were just enhanced in texts (12 out of the 15 enhanced structures) except six in the area of present/past verb forms (referred to in the previous paragraph)

Concerning the other structures like ‘*could* for general ability’, ‘present continuous for temporary actions’, which were practised by both groups, they were not used correctly in grammar-focused test by most subjects of both groups. So other reasons were behind the failure of both methods to teach effectively these three structures such as confusing between structures as it appeared in the tests. The students tended to confuse between some structures which were generally presented in a juxtaposed way such as ‘could’ for general ability and ‘managed to’ for particular ability, ‘present continuous’ for temporary actions and ‘present simple’ for permanent actions. Concerning the structure ‘future continuous’ to talk about present actions

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happening elsewhere, we can say that this structure might be complex because it was the only one structure which was found difficult by all the students both in terms of knowledge and use and with high percentages of errors. As already mentioned, there is no agreement among researchers concerning rules complexity but as Green et al (1992) maintain some rules have a high success rate than others (see section 1.6.2.1). Nevertheless, we may consider the last mentioned structure as complex because of its low frequency at least in the pedagogical books.

If we look at the structures which were successfully learned (correctly used in grammar-focused tasks) by the students in both groups, we find that these structures were simple (consist of one word) in forms such as ‘*will* for prediction’, ‘*must* for strong possibility’, and ‘*can ’t* for negative strong possibility’ (see table 4.44). We can say the same for the structures which were used correctly in the writing tasks by most students of the two groups such as ‘present simple for permanent actions’, ‘present simple with state verbs’ and ‘*will* for prediction based on opinion’. We can see that these structures are rather simple in forms, i.e., consist of one word.

When it comes to the implementation of grammar in writing, some of the six structures which the subjects of both groups failed to successfully learn as knowledge were not all the same structures which were misused in writing. Some of the very frequent errors with some structures identified in tasks about grammatical knowledge were not found in tasks about the implementation of such knowledge in writing tasks. For example, the structures ‘ ‘past simple for brief actions’ ‘present continuous for temporary actions’ and ‘*could* for general ability’ were all correctly used in writing by the subjects of both groups but misused in tasks about grammar knowledge. The subjects of the FonFs group failed in using correctly the ‘present continuous for temporary actions’. Only one structure among the seven most difficult structures for both groups (in terms of knowledge) was found to be also troublesome in writing and this as we mentioned above was the ‘future continuous for present actions occurring elsewhere’.

In addition to the last mentioned structure, we found that ‘future perfect for completion of actions before a specific point of time in future’, ‘future perfect to talk

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about actions we know they have happened elsewhere’, ‘*Must* for strong possibility’ and ‘*may* for uncertainty’ and ‘*ought to have + past participle* for advice and expectation’ were those which were particularly found difficult in terms of use by both groups of students. Thus, we can say that the most difficult structures for use were the ones which contained the perfect or continuous forms and that these structures could express different meanings of usage and/or are said to be ‘rare’ (Hewings, 2003). Concerning the structures which were similarly successfully learned under both conditions, we find that the structures learned as rules were not necessarily produced correctly or vice-versa except for two structures which were ‘*will* for prediction’ and ‘*can’t* for negative strong possibility’.

Our results indicate also another type of errors which is morphological. Thirteen errors of form in writing were frequently and highly used by the FonFs group against one error made by the FonF group concerning only modals (see table 4.43). Thus the high number of errors in writing on the part of FonFs group could be justified by the fact that modals were not learned or were not effectively taught. The students of the FonFs group (who showed improvement on writing in the post-test about modals) improved their writing in terms of other criteria such as generating ideas in relation with the topic or using well-formed sentences (the criteria we also used in scoring the written production) but not in using appropriately and correctly the modal verb forms as shown through the high number of errors related to such verb forms.

All in all, our results, discussed in this fourth section, yielded many important data. First, the use of implicit teaching with input enhancement, pushed output (production), collaborative writing tasks as practice and implicit feedback is the teaching strategy which resulted in the learning of most structures both as knowledge and use in writing. We have seen however that with few structures (four ones) which were just enhanced within texts without follow-up practice (with the FonF group) learning (in terms of grammatical knowledge) did not occur. These structures were ‘present continuous to express the speaker’s irritation’, ‘past simple with brief actions’, ‘future continuous for present actions occurring elsewhere’ and ‘present continuous for near future’, and one of these structures (‘future continuous for present

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actions occurring elsewhere) was not either appropriately used in the writing tasks. So this indicates that the combination of input- and output-based strategies is more effective than if only one strategy is solely used (at least for some structures). Second, there were two structures, ('will for prediction' & 'can't for negative strong possibility') which were learned (as rules and use in writing) whether taught with the FonF or with the FonFs instruction. So students in both groups learned and used these structures correctly after instruction. Third, one structure ('future continuous for present actions occurring elsewhere') remained very difficult to students regardless of the teaching strategy used either in terms of rule learning or rule using. Fourth, nearly all morphological errors were made by the FonFs group and they mainly concerned modals.

Given these findings we conclude that the FonF-based teaching is the most suitable for teaching most of the grammatical structures except for one in terms of grammar use ('should have+past participle' for expectation and advice in the past) and the few structures which could not be learned under the FonF condition were not learned under the FonFs neither. Thus, our results are highly in favour of the use of the implicit FonF teaching. Before trying to rationalize our results with similar findings from research, we should point out that there is no established hierarchy in terms of simplicity/complexity or easiness/difficulty of rules, but only some criteria are used to decide if a rule is simple or complex such as 'the scope covered by a rule', 'how a rule is held true' and 'frequency of forms' (Ellis, R. 2005). In addition, there is little research which investigates the effectiveness of methods in relation to different structures and most of it deals with artificial language (e.g. Reber et al, 1980). Actually, Ellis (2005) recognizes that more research is needed to investigate the teaching of various language forms under different conditions (instruction types and different tasks) to better inform curriculum planners on the mode of teaching to adopt when teaching specific language structures. MacWhinney (1997, p 280) put it more strongly by suggesting that '*we will need to replace the simple dichotomy of explicit and implicit learning with a fuller model that looks at the detailed mechanics of second language learning of particular target structures*'

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In our study we assume that the simple (easy) structures are those which were successfully learned by both FonFs and FonF groups and the ones which are complex (difficult) are the ones which were not successfully learned by any of the two groups. Actually, the simple rules are simple in their forms with little possibility to be confused with other forms in terms of usage and are more frequent. For example, ‘must’ used to express strong possibility was found easier than ‘must’ for speaker’s recommendation because we use only ‘must’ when we express strong certainty but for recommendation we use either ‘must’ or ‘have’ according to whether it is recommendation of outside authority or recommendation from the point of view of the speaker; thus, the subjects confused between the two modal forms in the test. In terms of simplicity of the form we found that most difficult forms consist in more than one word such as the perfect and continuous forms. Some structures were difficult for our subjects because of their rare frequency such is the case with ‘*ought to+past participle* for advice and expectation’, ‘future perfect with actions we know they have happened’ and ‘future continuous with present actions we know they are occurring’.

In relation with other findings from literature, we can say that our results are partly in line with the findings of Andrews (2007) s study. Andrews (ibid) found that effectiveness of methods depends on whether rules are simple or complex. Their two-month experimental study with one implicitly-taught group and one explicitly-taught group revealed that methods did not matter for simple rules but made a difference when it concerned complex rules. We also found in our study that the structures which were commonly learned as rules or correctly used in writing were structures of simple forms. However, our results are not congruent with those of Andrews in terms of which method is more effective for complex rules. Andrews found that explicitly-taught groups achieved significantly higher scores over complex rules. They claim that complex rules are better learned through an explicit mode. But we found that our implicitly-taught group was better than the explicitly-taught group over all the structures including the complex ones.

Our findings partly support Larsen-Freeman’ (2015)s view that students learn more complex rules better under implicit-inductive conditions; though in our study we

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found that both simple and complex rules were better learned under the implicit-inductive condition. Similarly, Ellis, R. (2008) claims that when the material to be taught is very complex with a large number of variables and when the important relationships are not obvious, then only implicit learning of that material is more effective provided there are sufficient instances of it. Similarly, MacWhinney (1997) argues that when the rules are complex, the student may get little out of the explicit instruction. These views support at least our conclusion that the FonF teaching is suitable for teaching the complex rules contrary to those (like Andrews et al, *ibid*) who find that the implicit teaching is limited only to few simple rules.

Our findings support Celea-Murcia's (1990) claim (section 1.7.2.2) that most grammatical structures are context-bound; hence they should all be taught at discourse level. We evidence this claim by illustrating two examples of two pieces of writing by two students who participated in our study, one belongs to the FonFs group and the other belongs to the FonF one. The two subjects were depicted according to their overall scores on a post-test measure about past/present verb forms. Both subjects obtained scores slightly below the average (grades E). The subjects were required to write about a topic which requires the use of past simple most often in addition to past continuous and present simple. Here is the first text produced by the FonFs subject. The subject wrote:

*I remember that day I was watching TV and I saw that the site web was disturbed. So I **was fear** that someone **change** our notes. Then my friend called me and I **pick up** my phone and screamed that she **has had** her bac [Baccalaureate]. I was so happy for her so I started crying, then I **check** my results and I got it so I **begin** to remember all the sacrifices, all obstacles, all the sleepless night that I passed studying and mourned. Then my sister came and **hug** me, I was happy to **made** my dady proud. And I **remember** that I got the first pass to go to Canada, I **realize** that I can reach the end of my dreams, but at that time I did not expect to learn English*

This piece of writing shows that most errors are related to verb forms. The student used present simple instead of the past simple for events that happened in the past time. This error does not indicate that the student did not know the rule about the use of past simple with past events because she used the past simple with some past events. The problem seems to rely in the fact that when the student tries to extend on a sentence, she switches to the use of another inappropriate tense. Thus, we might

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conclude that the sentence-based teaching (received by the writer of the text above) results in the correct use of a form at the level of sentence but not at the level of discourse. In what follows we present the text of the FonF subject. The student wrote:

One day I was coming out of a shopping centre, which was located in the centre of the town. It was sunny day morning, the place was very crowded. And every one was shocked because of the accident. In addition, it was a terrible accident. It was unforgettable. Everything had started on Sunday morning, while a bus was coming from the other side, a car was coming in the same side which the school bus was coming from. Just in few minutes, the two tracks crashed into each other. The result of the crash was 13 injured people all were students, but there were 2 death cases between the victims of the accident. The accident was very meaningful for me because when I will learn driving I won't drive fast. When I saw the mothers crying for their children I felt in that moment the pain that the accidents make every year. The biggest number of victims is in children and babies.

In the second text produced by a FonF student, we identified no error in relation with the verb forms. In addition, all the verb forms required by the nature of the topic were used, namely: past simple, past continuous and present simple. Moreover, the subject switches from one tense to another appropriately and when necessary. This piece of writing of the subject who received an implicit focus-on-form instruction supports the fact that noticing the forms in discourse and producing them within discourse in addition to receiving contextualized feedback on errors is necessary to produce such forms correctly in communication.

Here we illustrate the use of modal verbs in a letter. The tasks required the subjects to use three modals 'should have + past participle' to express regrets of actions not fulfilled in the past, 'could not' for general ability and 'managed to' for particular ability. The subjects separately belong to FonF and FonFs groups and obtained the same scores on the post-test about modals. Both subjects were good achievers since they obtained grade 'c' (above the average). The subject from the FonFs group wrote:

My dear grandchildren,

*When I **had** your age my life was too difficult, there **is** a lot of things that I couldn't do. I **couldn't have been studying** in school but I **have been studying** alone and I **could have been reading and writing** and this one of the things I*

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*never thought I could do it but I did it, but I have one regret is that I **should have been practicing** sport with my father but I didn't*

This text shows many errors with the verb forms. In addition, the subject did not use all the verb forms required in relation with the topic such as 'managed to' to talk about things she did not succeed to do. The errors reflect a kind of confusion between different structures. The teaching of many structures with sentence-based exercises could be the origin of such confusion as claimed by many researchers (like Hinkel, 2003). The following is the letter written by the subject of the FonF group. The subject wrote:

Dear grandchildren,

In the past I couldn't travel by myself and I also couldn't drive my father's car because I didn't manage to have a driving licence. I didn't manage to overcome many difficulties. For example, I didn't manage to succeed in my studies and didn't manage to find a job. For my regrets, I regret one thing which is I couldn't succeed in my studies and I had to respect the older people so you also should respect the older people.

This text does not show inappropriate use of verb forms, though the structure 'should+have+past participle' was avoided. Nevertheless, both modals of general ability and particular ability were used without any confusion. Thus again, we see that different types of verb forms are better learned through the FonF mode. This success also denies the argument which says that the implicit teaching is successful only with simple rules. For example the past simple with past events is very simple as a rule, but the subjects practising such a rule with decontextualized sentences do not succeed in maintaining the use of the past simple throughout the whole discourse. We assume also that the subjects of the FonF group reduced the number of their errors compared to the subjects of the FonFs group thanks to the FonF instruction in terms of implicit incidental (not planned) feedback given to the subjects when errors arose in their writing during the Express Stage (practice) in class.

In fact, we were reading, in class, all the texts produced collaboratively by the subjects and were providing implicit feedback, as recast, on errors. But in the FonFs group the students' errors were corrected explicitly while correcting together sentence-

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based exercises. There are only few studies which compared the effects of FonF instruction and the traditional FonFs on accuracy in writing. Among such studies is the study carried out by Barrot (2014). Barrot (ibid) compared a group taught with an integrated FFI (attention to form when it is embedded within a communicative practice) followed by an isolated FFI instruction (attention to form when it is separate from meaning-based portion of the lesson or FonF) relying on techniques such rich input, structured input and noticing in communicative-based course and a group which was supplemented by a traditional grammar with the PPP model (which we call FonFs). The findings suggest that the FonF group significantly improved students' writing that outperformed those who received traditional grammar as an aid to their overall proficiency level in English. Thus, the findings of such a study are congruent with our findings and consequently we strongly support the integrated FFI (implicit FonF).

To conclude, we can say that the FonF instruction which combines input enhancement, pushed collaborative output (production practice) with implicit (indirect) feedback is the teaching strategy which was highly effective in promoting the acquisition of the grammatical structures. As far as the FonFs option is concerned, it benefited knowledge of rules but not greatly the correct use of forms in a communicative task such as writing.

5.2 Summary

In the preceding sections, we tried to answer the research questions in relation with the main findings of this study and in the light of theoretical views and research findings. First, in terms of the teaching approaches, we identified the traditional FonFs as being the most prevailing teaching option used by most teachers and implicit FonF as being another option which was used by only one of them. Some teachers likened their teaching practice to the PPP model, but actually the production stage was not reached. The teachers also claimed that they used a rule discovery strategy to get students involved in learning, but in reality the teachers did not give enough examples

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of the input so that the students could notice it. In addition, time given for the students to infer the rules was too short and a rule was explained as soon as one student articulated it. Actually, in the new era of the cognitive learning ‘noticing’ has become a key factor in learning so there is a call to help students notice the cue and provide plenty of instances of the input. We should note also that the teachers who adhered to the traditional approach used also some aspects of the communicative teaching (e.g contextualized exercises and meaningful activities) in the practice stage but sporadically. These teachers were highly aware of the importance of a more meaningful communicative teaching but justified their practices as being mainly related to lack of resources and claimed that the traditional practice was ‘handy’ and avoided group work because it was ‘noisy’ and preferred pedagogical sentence-based materials which they found more adjusted to students’ proficiency level. The students, in turn, seemed unsatisfied with the traditional teaching which they found ‘boring’ and complained about the amount of knowledge they were given and asked for more involvement and interactive practice. We showed also how the aspects of the traditional teaching fell out of favour in literature (see section 1.7.2.2 in chapter 1) where there is a call for more meaningfulness, contextualization, authenticity and group work.

Second, in relation with the approach effectiveness in enhancing language proficiency, we have shown that the FonF approach was more effective in general. Actually, the FonF approach was more effective in teaching the present/past, future and modal verb forms according to the general post-test scores. However, concerning grammar-based tasks, it was found that the FonFs group outperformed the FonF on present/past post-test. Moreover, analysis of errors showed that the FonFs group displayed extremely a high number of morphological errors in the area of modal verbs. More specifically and in terms of the grammatical knowledge, we found that most of the structures were more efficiently learned under the FonF condition. Many researchers in the literature claim that all the grammatical forms are context-bound and thus need to be learned at the level of discourse. It is to be noted that the FonF group gained explicit knowledge of rules without being taught them explicitly and this could be explained by the fact that the verb forms were highly structured to make them easy

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to notice. However, it should be mentioned that many students in both groups (FonF & FonFs) obtained scores below the average on post-test measures. This actually suggests that the interlanguage of many students was not highly stretched after instruction. Perhaps, this was due to the complexity of the structures. In fact, most of the structures which were not learned, and hence we considered as complex, were those which expressed different meanings or were pedagogically presented as dichotomous to express opposing meanings.

Third, in relation with the efficacy of either of the two approaches on writing accuracy, our study has shown that the FonF approach is highly better than the FonFs one. The FonF group highly improved their grammar in writing (both in terms of appropriate use and accuracy of forms). This efficacy might be due to the enhancement of forms (input) within texts followed by collaborative writing tasks and implicit unplanned feedback given on mistakes that arose in students' written production (though we do not know exactly which of the three strategies could have had an influential role in learning). We have shown that there are some studies in the literature which favour the combination of input-based, output-based and recast strategies to promote general learning and improve productive skills in particular. Our study revealed also that most of the errors which were identified in the students' writing were related to the accurate use of modal verb forms and were all made by the FonFs group. In addition, we found that most errors were found on grammar-based measures and not in writing (with present, past and future verb forms). Actually, we found that the same errors found on grammar-based tests disappeared on writing measures with the same students. But we also found that some structures were correctly used in grammar-based tests but were used erroneously in writing (with modal verb forms). These results might suggest that since most errors were identified in grammar-based tests then we might say that the problem was not the non-transfer of rules to writing but to the non-learning of grammar itself which was mainly due to the confusing number of functions of a single structure and that errors on writing were due to the non-contextualization of practice. This is also confirmed by the fact that the FonF group highly reduced their errors and improved their grammar significantly in writing compared to the FonFs group. So the bad performance of the FonFs group in

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writing was mainly due to lack of contextualized practice and writing practice as a whole. We assume also that the reactive implicit feedback given to the flawed output of our FonF group helped the students to reduce their errors and improve their grammar in writing. This supports Swain's output hypothesis which maintains that the pushed output is important because it pushes students to notice gaps in their interlanguage and process language more deeply with more mental efforts and solicit feedback to fix flawed output.

Fourth, in relation with the efficacy of either of the approaches in teaching specific forms, we have shown that most of the forms (23 out of 40) were better learned as knowledge under the FonF instruction and seven structures (six structures as grammar knowledge and one structure in terms of use) were found to be better learned under the FonFs instruction than under the FonF instruction. Similarly, many structures (18 out of 40) were better used in writing by the FonF group except for one structure ('*should have + past participle* for advice and expectation in the past') which was better learned by the FonFs group. We found also that two structures ('*will* for prediction based on opinion' & '*can't* for strong negative possibility') were learned (both as knowledge & knowledge use) under both conditions (FonF or FonFs instructions) and these structures were simple in form (consisting of one word). We have also shown that there was one verb form ('future continuous to talk about present actions occurring elsewhere') which was not learnable (neither as a rule nor in its application in writing) under neither of the conditions (FonFs & FonF instructions) and this might be due to its low frequency in the pedagogical books the teachers (in the Department) use. We have also explained that some of the forms which were only enhanced within texts and without follow-up practice were not learned and this gives evidence to the efficacy of the combination of both input- and output-based strategies in addition to feedback given on production errors in enhancing noticing and learning. Generally, we can say that our study proved that all the structures (simple or complex) were better learned under the FonF condition whereas only the simple structures in form were effectively taught with the traditional FonFs.

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This discussion leads us to propose in the next section a set of strategies for teachers of grammar to use in class as an alternative to the traditional model which has proved to be less effective for enabling students to use grammar appropriately and even correctly in writing.

5.3 Recommendations

On the basis of our findings, we suggest different actions to perform. Our proposal starts from raising teachers' awareness to the benefits of a more implicit, meaningful and interactive approach.

5.3.1 Raising Teachers' Awareness

Our study revealed that teachers are highly aware of the great importance of the use of a communicative approach when teaching grammar but they do keep to the traditional method which consists in the heavy focus on rules and drills. It is true that this method has survived until now in the EFL contexts and that it has got some benefits, but teachers in our study seem to theoretically favour more the communicative teaching. They admit that lack of resources hinders the use of such an approach in class and induces them to use only the available grammar textbooks. On the other hand, students complain about their passivity and the amount of rules they are overwhelmed with at a time. So why teachers continue with such practices and teach in a way they know is unproductive. In addition, the curriculum does not impose any given approach to adopt in teaching the different courses. Thus, teachers have the flexibility of teaching grammar in a way that corresponds to their students' needs. So, we propose that the members of the Grammar Coordination Committee discuss the grammar curriculum from the point of view of the methodology used and evaluate the outcomes of the traditional teaching, which is mainly characterized by lack of production, in order to envisage a change.

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As a first step, the members of the Grammar Unit Coordination Committee can work in collaboration with those of the Writing Unit Coordination Committee to establish a syllabus based on the students' weaknesses in writing and the grammatical themes required in academic writing. As a member of the two committees I would even suggest the creation of a new teaching unit which will be devoted to deal with grammar for writing. This is important for reinforcing the writing skill and improving the students' grammar accuracy in writing. If doing so, we will have, then, a teaching unit devoted to the teaching of the grammatical knowledge (Grammar Unit), a unit which teaches the writing process (Writing Unit) and a third new one which will focus on grammar in writing and which we might call *Grammar in Discourse Unit*. In the latter, the teachers will supervise the students in their application of accurate and appropriate grammar in their own free production. But even if this would not be possible, at least the two different committees (of the Grammar and Writing units) can work towards improving the students' grammar used in writing. This collaborative work of course begins by establishing an appropriate content.

5.3.2 Prioritizing of Contents

This study has shown that teaching a great number of rules is useless because it is confusing and overshadows practice in terms of the amount of time spent about metalanguage. Thus, teachers can prioritize the items to teach; this can be done according to difficulty, frequency, errors or even importance of some grammatical items for writing. We propose that we first look at those which are important for writing and are highly troublesome for students in terms of use. We have seen for example in our study the confusing use of both past simple and present simple in a single setting by students. The two frequent tenses are important for writing but are highly confused in terms of use. So teachers of the Grammar Unit could work in collaboration with those of the Writing Unit to get insights about the most important errors which occur in their students' writing and which affect badly the quality of their writing. The teachers of Writing Unit can also establish a content which is based on the most important grammatical aspects more needed for writing and this is after

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taking down notes of the grammatical structures and mechanics which appear incorrectly used in students' productions. In this case the teachers of the Grammar Unit will work with a pre-established content of grammatical items viewed as most important or troublesome by the teachers of the Writing Unit; this is what Ellis, R. (2005) refers to as a planned FonF. But, teachers of the Grammar Unit can also focus on troublesome forms which spontaneously occur during their course and this is what is referred to as incidental FonF (Ellis, R. 2005). Thus, teachers of grammar can use both types of FonF so as to address the important grammatical items for writing.

5.3.3 Optimizing Sources of Authentic and Contextualized Materials

Teachers use, as shown in this study, most of the time the available grammar textbook they find in the Department library. Most of these books, such as *Advanced Grammar in Use* (Hewing, M. 2003), teach grammar in a decontextualized context with simplified language. Some teachers even further simplify the language of the textbooks to make it accessible for their students. But we know that students encounter real-life materials via the new media so why being afraid of using authentic materials on the basis that they are not understood. Authentic materials can raise interest and motivation in class. Our experience (in this study) with using texts from the internet concerning current events resulted in the high participation of the students in discussing the themes of the texts. So the use of authenticity alone is a means to generate output in class.

This differs from the tradition of discussing grammatical terminology which is always teacher-initiated and in which students are recipients of grammar knowledge. It is also important to keep updating the materials used for presenting the grammatical structures so that we keep the grammar class in touch with the real environment. We can rely very much on newspapers, movies, news TV channels, and on the new media (twitter, facebook, youTube...etc.) for extracting our materials and show how the structures are used by native speakers for real purposes. For example, the use of news has got many benefits because news programmes (TV, print or online versions) cover

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a wide range of subjects and connect students to the real world. In addition, studying current news can open up communication among students and between the students and the teacher. Thus, using the news in teaching grammar can offer opportunities for collaborative work, classroom discussions and debates.

After exposing students to an authentic material, we can then focus on a grammatical point. For example, I myself use the BBC News channel to teach the use of tenses. For example, I used a breaking news headline which said ‘Kaddafi has died’ to explain to students the use of the ‘present perfect’ to announce the main event when telling a story and the ‘past simple’ to give the details of the story. I found the rule in a grammar book which is based on the teaching of grammar in discourse then I used a real-life example to illustrate this rule. Thus, we can rely on grammar books which teach contextualized grammar as a starting point and look for more authentic materials to make teaching livelier. The advantage of using authentic materials is also in providing context in which very often a particular structure occurs contrary to using pedagogical materials which contain more often sentence-based examples where students cannot see the relationship of one structure with another. Actually, we have seen how students who learned, for example, the past simple within isolated sentences, failed to keep to the use of that tense throughout the discourse or switch appropriately between tenses. Thus, discourse-based teaching should replace the traditional sentence-based teaching of rules.

5.3.4 Enhancing Input Within Multiple Examples

Our study proved that highlighting the forms in different texts helps students to work out rules for themselves and saves time which is better invested in practice. Enhancing input can be done using the bold face to highlight the structures under focus and use comprehension questions to enhance again the same structures but with focusing on meaning. For example in the text entitled ‘How Syrian Families are Living?’ (Text 2, Unit1, appendix 6), the verb in *present continuous* is enhanced in the text and a question is addressed to push students use this tense as illustrated below:

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[Extract] *Syria's civil war is the worst humanitarian crisis of our time...Families **are struggling** to survive inside Syria. [...]* At times, the effects of the conflict can seem overwhelming. More than five years after it **began**...

[Question] How Syrians are risking their lives?

There are three important advantages in enhancing structures in the text mentioned above. First enhancement catches the students' attention to the structures under focus. Second the different structures which are presented; namely, the 'present continuous' and the 'past simple' are being contrasted within two different texts (Text 1 & Text 2, Unit 1 in Appendix 6) so that context of use becomes obvious. Third, the comprehension questions induce the students to repeat the sentences of the texts which contain the focused structures.

We propose the use of multiple texts to reinforce enhancement to make sure that 'noticing' occurs (See appendix 6). The difference between rule discovery in a traditional way and rule discovery within this FonF instruction is that there are plenty of contextualized examples for presenting two or three structures in the FonF instruction and fewer examples in the form of decontextualized sentences for presenting a great number of structures in one lesson. In addition, the students who follow a FonF instruction focus on meaning which is vehicled by the emphasized forms in the enhanced texts; while students who receive the traditional FonFs are directed to the form which is dissociated from meaning and context. Moreover, this input-enhancement strategy provides more time for students to discover the rules than the traditional presentation of the PPP where a rule is explained as soon as one student infers the rule without checking if other students do infer the rules or not. Another advantage of input enhancement is that students are encouraged to notice the forms but without forcing them to because they are not required to give the rules. Thus, if students do not notice the main features of a structure even after enhancement and practice, we can just choose to re-teach the same point another time. So we expose students to enhanced input and let them pick up as much as they are able to.

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5.3.5 UsingTasks

Many teachers use fill in the gaps and other mechanical exercises as they are ‘practical’ and ‘easy’. But do teachers ask themselves if good achievement over these mechanical exercises translates into success in using language in communicative situations such as in writing. To ascertain that students use successfully the rules, we should make them practise the structures in tasks which might be similar to real-life tasks such as talking about daily activities to each other, exchanging letters, sending emails, playing games, making interviews and so on. We suggest the use of tasks which are planned so that the forms under focus appear in students’ language. Actually, there are many scholars who designed tasks for pedagogical purposes. We can mention Samuda et al (2003) and Nunan (1988). We can also invent tasks so that they fit the objectives of our courses. For example, we can select pictures from the internet and ask students to describe them. We can direct them to describe the pictures so as to use some specific grammatical structure. For example, we propose the use of pictures when teaching the use of ‘will’ for prediction based on evidence and ‘going to’ for prediction based on opinion as we did in Unit 3 (see appendix 6). We find the following advantages for such tasks

1. Engagement of students in communication
2. Negotiation of meaning
3. Focus both on form and meaning
4. Enjoyable

In the traditional practice, the mechanical exercises do not allow for a meaningful interaction and focus is only on the form so the result is the passivity of the students.

5.3.6 Using of Collaborative Writing

The use of collaborative writing implies two important parameters: first, students are encouraged to work in pairs or in groups, and second writing is used as a means to enhance output and negotiate meaning and get feedback. As we mentioned

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in the literature review, many studies have shown the effect of collaborative writing on both language learning and improving writing, and other studies found that group work is even better than pair work in promoting learning. Actually, our findings support to a great extent such results because in the absence of any explicit rules, we assume that our FonF students got the most of their peers via collaborative work. A Writing task within a group gives opportunity to students to notice the gap in their interlanguage when they try to express language but fail to use forms to express their thoughts. To remedy to such a situation, students turn to their peers to get solutions and get input. In a collaborative writing, students are ‘forced’ to attend to input when they notice a gap in their interlanguage and receive feedback from their peers which forces them to notice input and modify their output. So this compensates for the lack of forcing input at the stage of input enhancement for input presentation. At the input enhancement stage, we let the students notice but without insisting upon getting the input; but, at the production stage, they can find the need to get such input if they did not take it before. In order to make sure that all the members of the group contribute to the task, we can divide the task into sub tasks. For example, in Activity 4, Unit 6 (see appendix 6) we give different instructions. Students first work individually on a sub component of the task and then they share their ideas with others. When the students propose their ideas, they give feedback to each other on flawed output. Another advantage to collaborative writing according to our own experience is that we can read all the texts produced by the groups as they are not too many of them and in turn we can give feedback on one produced text to benefit many students, so this is very practical in class. In the traditional practice, the teacher is in the front of the class at his/her desk and waits for individual students to give correct answers on exercises. The teacher cannot check all the individual works produced by about fifty students in class; hence s/he cannot know the difficulties of their students who may then miss the opportunity of being provided with feedback. Thus, group work and group feedback is an economical way for targeting students’ errors.

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5.3.7 Evaluating Written Production

We propose that teachers keep focusing on content when evaluating students' output to continue giving the feeling that the teachers of grammar are not only word editors but interest themselves in the ideas generated by their students. By the same occasion, the teachers indicate the errors in the written production by underlining them but not directly correcting them in order to give the students opportunity to modify by themselves the wrong output or even turn to a peer for help. At this stage, teachers can have a discussion with the students about what they have written and exchange information related to real life events. The teacher should use the structures under focus as often as possible so that the students notice again the forms in the authentic speech of the teacher. This is an indirect way to correct errors of use and spelling. During our treatment we had many group discussions with the students of the FonF group during the evaluation of their written products. We give an example of a discussion we held with one group of students during our pilot study and which we recorded to analyze our feedback (recast). The students wrote two sentences about some true things about themselves and two sentences about untrue things. They gave their sentences to their peers who tried to guess which was true and which was wrong. The task focused on the use of modals of probability. Here is the transcribed discussion:

Student 1: *No I do not think she is married because she has not a ring.*

[We have noticed that the student did not use the modal so we said the following:]

Teacher: *Neither I Miss I am sure she **can't** be married.*

Student 2: *She **can** be married because she told me about it.*

[We noticed that the second student used a wrong modal giving his knowledge of the fact]

Teacher: *Are you certain?*

Student 2: *Yes.*

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*Teacher: Oh, then she **must** be married.*

This is just part of a discussion where we negotiated meaning with students and implicitly corrected their wrong use of modals. We call this type of feedback recast. Recast is used for the sake of not compromising communication. In order to make sure that students perceive recasts as correcting feedback we can raise our intonation when uttering the focused form to draw students' attention to it. This discussion which is based on feedback differs from the way we give feedback in the traditional teaching. The two mechanisms are totally different in what teachers focus on and the way they try to repair errors. In the traditional teaching, teachers most of the time say 'no' or 'yes' to students' answers on a particular form. Content of the utterance is not evaluated and no chance is given to students to try to modify output through negotiation of meaning, but they are just informed that they are wrong. This correction might create frustration in students who might feel as if they are punished when they give wrong answers.

5.3.8. Delaying Explicit Explanation

It is true that in our study we did not provide the FonF subjects with any metalinguistic explanation during the treatment, but this was for the sake of eliminating any bias that could have influenced our results. Here we propose a way how rules can be explained. At the end of class, we can ask the students to write about the main structures which they studied. Teachers then read the rules their students come up with and see if the rules are right or not and decide if any explicit explanation is necessary to be provided or not. At this stage, the teachers who prefer the traditional teaching of rules can do it, but they will have found less difficulty in explaining them as the students will have walked nearly all the way towards getting the input. So the teachers need just to reinforce the input with more explicit information about the rules. There are many advantages for delaying the explicit teaching of rules until the end of the lesson. First, both teacher and students will be focused on meaning, interacting, exchanging and will have the feeling that grammar class is not a place for giving rules

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only but a place where content and production are also focused. Postponing the explanation of rules gives opportunity to students to get involved in their learning, to get more time and until the end of the lesson to discover the rules by themselves, to get more chance in practice and to get the lion's share of classroom talk. The teachers will be released from the burden of explaining the tedious rules and physically less tired from talking too much. Sometimes, we realize that our long talk is fruitless because the students' attention evaporates out of passivity, so better let them activate their brain to discover the rules and keep them alert and active in class.

5.3.9 Replacing the PPP Model by the EEEE Model (Explore, Express, Evaluate and Explain)

The traditional PPP model does not fit our proposal as it starts with presenting the rules right from the beginning, then practise with mechanical exercises. In reality, even this model is not used appropriately because the teachers often run short of time before being able to go to the production stage. This is what we noticed in the grammar classes during our observation sessions. Thus, our proposal which is based on using practice before explaining rules guarantees that production is done. Thus, we would rather sacrifice metalanguage and not language use. We got inspired by SySoyev's EEE model, which stands for explore, explain and express, for creating a framework for our model, but we incorporated within such a model the new FFI options which consist mainly in input enhancement, output enhancement, recasts and FonFs. We extended the three E's of Sysoyev to four E's. Our third E stands for *evaluation*. This is the teacher's intervention in providing feedback in the form of recast. We also built our model on theories of acquisition such as noticing theory, output hypothesis and incidental feedback discussed in Chapter 1. Thus, our model is a combination of different FFI options within a framework we call EEEE. It is a model which can integrate different strategies that fit input acquisition. Finally, we should note that this model can be used in writing course when teachers decide to focus on some forms that students do not use correctly. In what follows, we present the principles of our model and the stages of teaching.

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Aspects of the EEEE Model

Our model is based on principles of language acquisition, communicative learning and noticing. These are ten main principles of this proposed model for grammar teaching:

1. Providing many examples for the presentation of the structures for familiarization.
2. Limiting the lesson to two or three structures to focus on to avoid confusion.
3. Contextualization of the structures to show the co-occurrence of different structures.
4. Enhance input for self-discovery but without forcing it.
5. Use of real-life materials to raise interest, motivation and involvement.
6. Use of tasks for meaningful use of language and interaction.
7. Use of collaborative writing to apply grammar in writing and improve it.
8. Use of recasts as a way of feedback within communication.
9. Investing more time in language use than in meta-language discussion.
10. Delay the explicit teaching of rules so that students get more time to infer the rules.

In what follows, we present the different stages of this model for teaching grammar in class as an alternative to PPP.

Stages of the EEEE Grammar Teaching Model

1. **Explore:** during this stage, the students are provided with many discourse-based examples taken from real-life materials such as newspapers and TV channels. These materials show how the structures are used in reality. The teachers can choose to enhance the focused structures using any of the enhancement options referred to in the literature review. The students should analyze the authentic materials and discuss some important themes that occur in them. The use of comprehension questions can help such discussion.

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2. **Express:** during this stage students are provided with tasks or meaningful activities which require the use of the target structure. We use two-way tasks which involve pair and group work to increase opportunities of interaction in class. Though we use tasks to focus on forms, but completion of a task is more important. Focus should be kept on meaning.

3. **Evaluate:** during this stage, the teacher can intervene with providing implicit feedback in a discussion generated by students' written production. The teacher reads the written product of students and spots errors but rather than explicitly correcting them, the teacher tries to reformulate using the correct forms within a discussion in which there is a negotiation of meaning. We use thus a FonF within a communicative context which we call integrated FonF.

4. **Explain:** at this stage, we ask the students to write about the main structures they have noticed in the lesson. They are required to write rules. Teachers can look at their explanations and choose to interfere if the students make wrong hypotheses by giving them explicit rules. Teachers can decide not to go over the structures the students do not notice and try to integrate them next time with other structures in a different lesson where they might be more noticeable.

In what follows a graphic illustration of our model is presented:

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Strategies Stages

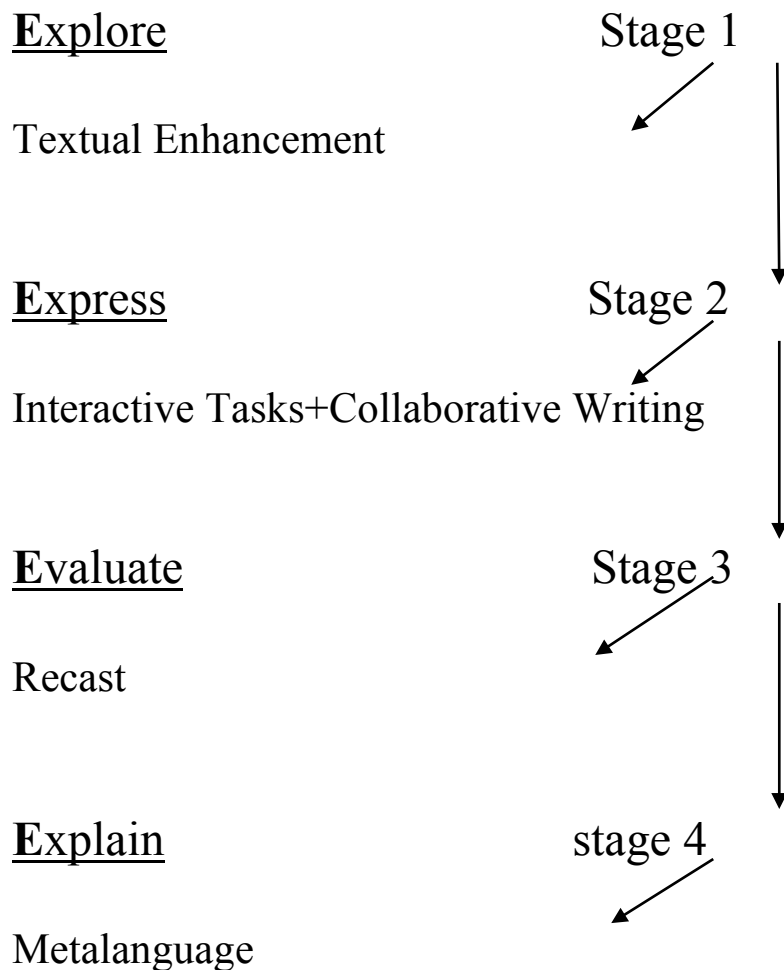


Figure 4.1: A Model for a FonF Grammar Teaching: EEEE

5.4 Suggestions for Further Research

This research yielded different questions which we suggest for further research:

1. We used a combination of strategies which we found was effective in promoting learning. Our study revealed that enhancement alone with some structures was not enough to enhance their learning. So further research is required to investigate whether the effectiveness of the instructional options we

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used was due to the combination of the different strategies or to some particular strategies.

2. In our study we did not go through the stage of explanation in order to keep our treatment implicit, thus we are wondering what would have been the effects of such a method if explanation of rules at the end of the lessons was added. So another study could be used to compare effectiveness of an implicit FonF with implicit FonF followed by explicit teaching of rules.
3. The focus of this study was purely on the application of grammar in writing. In another study we can use the same research design but with focus on speaking.
4. The same design can be used to research the effectiveness of the teaching options we used in this study on learning other grammatical areas such as determiners.
5. We limited feedback to recasts in this study, so we are wondering what would have been the effects on writing if students had been provided with explicit feedback.
6. Further research is needed for measuring real effects of the use of pair work and group work on improving writing.
7. Other research is needed to explore the way grammar is handled in writing classroom to measure effects on writing accuracy.
8. The most important aspect that handicapped our study is the non-use of a delayed post-test. A same design can be used with a delayed post-treatment test to see if gains are durable.
9. Other research is needed to investigate the relationship between enhancement alone and noticing using a think aloud protocol.
10. More research is required in the area of the implicit/explicit teaching in relation with simple/complex rules.

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The last decade has shown the rise of a new approach of teaching grammar which has marked the ‘renaissance’ of grammar thanks to the new teaching options of the ‘focus on form’. The role of teaching grammar has been revisited both in literature and experimental research after years of rejection which was particularly based on the belief that grammar teaching was not beneficial neither for the learning of grammar itself nor for using it correctly in writing. However, the literature about the role of grammar implementation in writing is scarce; besides, the negative view of scholars like Braddock et al (1963), Krashen (1982) and Hillocks and Smiths (1991) about the uselessness of grammar still prevails. Hillocks (1986, p.37) maintained that grammar “*ought to be dropped*” mainly because “*it has a harmful effect on improvement in writing*”. Many other researchers adopted this view (Holden, 1994; Frantzen, 1995 and Truscott, 1996) maintaining that teaching rules or correcting errors has no influence on the use of correct grammar in writing.

Such negative views about grammar teaching paved the path to the emergence of the communicative approach which is based on using language interactively with focus on meaning. This approach became in vogue as an alternative to the traditional grammar teaching. The teaching of writing was very much affected by the new principles of the communicative teaching in that there was a call for eradicating grammar teaching and correction as an aid to writing improvement. Truscott (1996) was one important scholar who spurred the abandoning of grammar teaching and grammar correction arguing that both of them were more damaging than helpful to writing. Truscott (ibid) claimed rather for the use of communicative strategies such as extensive reading to improve writing accuracy.

However, in recent years the communicative approach showed its limits because students who were immersed in communicative language-based classes did not develop competence in English. Thus just as the traditional approach, the communicative approach failed in leading students to develop both linguistic knowledge and communicative use of the language, In such a context, a middle ground approach to teaching grammar, namely the form-focused instruction, emerged as a

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kind of a revival of traditional grammar but with new visions. This new approach, form-focused instruction, highlights the importance of focusing on forms but within a communicative context. .

This new approach to teaching grammar is based on the cognitive theory of noticing (Schmidt, 1991) which stipulates that it is noticing which turns input into intake. Thus, students' attention should be drawn to the grammatical elements in a way to facilitate their acquisition. With the new 'revival' of grammar teaching, the question today is not whether to teach grammar explicitly or implicitly, but rather (1) how explicit the instruction should be and (2) how to focus on form while attention is on meaning. Accordingly, a plethora of FFI teaching options which range from more explicit to more implicit options are offered to practitioners (e.g., input flood (Nassaji et al, 2011); implicit feedback types (Ellis, R. 2002); input enhancement (Nassaji et al, 2011); input processing (VanPatten, 2002) and output enhancement (Swain, 2001)) with the aim to choose the teaching strategies which fit particular contexts and needs. However, the debate about which approach (the explicit- or the implicit- oriented one) is more beneficial to grammar learning is not yet settled in the field of applied linguistics.

In our study we aimed at finding out the approach which could lead our students to gain knowledge of grammar more efficiently and be able to apply such knowledge correctly in writing. To do this, we compared the effects of two approaches to teaching grammar on learning: one is an extremely explicit teaching approach (FonFs) and the other is an extremely implicit one (FonF). The explicit teaching characterizes the traditional practices (heavy focus on explicit rules and use of mechanical drilling), and the implicit teaching characterizes the communicative teaching (high focus on meaning and use of meaningful, interactive activities). It is to be noted that the new system, LMD, lays focus on the communicative teaching of the foreign languages in general and English in particular, so we hoped via our research to provide insights about the efficiency or non-efficiency of the implementation of this approach in our English grammar classes.

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Four research questions were asked to investigate (1) whether the grammar teaching approach(es) is/are based on focus-on-form or focus-on-forms orientation, and (2) compare the effects of the explicit focus-on-forms and implicit focus-on-form approaches on learning grammar and using it correctly in writing. The first research question sought to find out the approaches and practices followed by the grammar teachers with the aim to see if they use a focus-on-form or a focus-on-forms approach. The six teaching dimensions are: i) presentation of rules, ii) contextualization of presentation and activities, iii) authenticity of materials, iv) meaningfulness of practice, v) classwork patterns and vi) focus of teaching and practice.

Our second research question sought to find out if different instructional strategies result in same or different outcomes. For this, we compared the instructional effects of two instructional strategies: one is explicit (traditional focus-on-forms) and the other is implicit (communicative focus-on-form). There are different views concerning the effectiveness of the two instructional approaches in terms of learning outcomes. There are even claims for abandoning the explicit teaching of grammar because as Ehrenworth (2003) notes students do not learn grammar through the direct instruction method because this type of grammar instruction is confusing and filled with exceptions. Other researchers such as Herron et al (1992) found that the implicit, inductive instruction where rules are not given at all is even more advantageous than the traditional explicit instruction.

Our third research question was set to investigate the effects of the two different form-focused instructions on appropriate and accurate use of grammar in writing. This is a pertinent question since the teaching of grammar is not only for itself and needs to be impactful in terms of language use and correct use of grammar in discourse. For many years, grammar was criticized on the ground that learning the rules does not guarantee writing improvement (Krashen, 1982), so this third question tried to seek whether failure in using grammar correctly in writing has a relationship with the non-transfer of learned grammar to writing or with the kind of instructional approach followed by teachers.

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The fourth research question in this study was set to go deeper in investigating any superior advantage of one approach over another or draw a relationship between the students' competence (knowledge & use) and the teaching strategies (FonF & FonFs). It particularly sought to examine the relationship between the forms to teach and the teaching approach used to see if a teaching strategy (implicit or explicit) impacts the learning of specific verb forms or not. This question is important because when we look closely at many particular structures we can have a large reliable database on which we can make any generalization concerning the better effect of one strategy to another. Little research exists as regards the relationship between mode of instruction and language forms and the research that exists relates the mode of instruction to simplicity or complexity of the language structures; even if the notion 'complexity' is not clearly defined in the literature. Some views hold that simple forms are better learned explicitly and complex rules are better learned implicitly (Bialystock, 1979; Krashen, 1982). Other views hold that all aspects of grammar are better learned explicitly (Green et al, 1992; Andrews, 2007).

In order to address our research questions, we used multiple data collection instruments: classroom observation, teachers' and students' questionnaires, teachers' interview, interventionist treatment, pre- and post-tests, and analysis of errors. We used classroom observation, questionnaire and interview to particularly address the first research question [RQ1]. Treatment, test and analysis of errors were used to particularly address the three other research questions [RQ2, RQ3 and RQ4]. Concerning the tools which were used to address RQ1, namely, classroom observation, questionnaire and interview, all of the three tools were based on the abovementioned six teaching dimensions. Concerning the tools used to investigate RQ2, RQ3 and RQ4; namely, treatment, test and analysis of errors, there were two different treatments (FonF & FonFs) in three grammatical areas (present/past, future and modal verb forms) covering a total of 40 functions, which were part of the student's grammar syllabus. Pre-and post-tests were administered prior and after treatments to measure the students' learning (knowledge & use) of the 40 functions covered in intervention. The post-test papers were then used as a database to analyse errors (of knowledge & use) in relation with the 40 grammatical functions covered in treatment to particularly

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investigate whether different verb forms were learned differently or equally under different conditions (FonF and FonFs instructions).

The study explored 8 first year grammar classes in the Department of English, UA2. Four classes were used for observation and four others for treatment. The participants involved in the research were 7 grammar teachers and 400 students. As far as teacher participants are concerned, 4 teachers were observed in class during their teaching sessions and 7 (including the four observed) were handed out questionnaires and then were interviewed. Concerning student participants, 200 students belonging to the four classes which were observed were handed out questionnaires with the aim to crosscheck data obtained from classroom observation, teachers' questionnaire and interview; however, 160 questionnaires were retained for data analysis. 200 other students were involved in grammar treatment during a semester: 100 followed a FonF treatment (experimental group) and 100 followed a FonFs traditional instruction (control group). All of the FonF and FonFs groups were pre- and post-tested prior and at the end of treatment/instruction. Finally, post-test papers of both groups were error analyzed with the aim to find out more particularly about the kind of grammatical structures which were better learned under either of the teaching instructions (FonF or FonFs instructions).

Results from classroom observation in the four grammar classes showed that the instructional approach which was generally used by teachers was the traditional FonFs approach which relied heavily on rules explanation and the use of mechanical exercises for practice. However, two aspects of the FonF instruction were used in class by some teachers; these were the inductive presentation of rules, which was used more often than the deductive rule presentation by most teachers, and the use of few contextualized exercises in the practice stage. Thus, if we portray the general teaching method used in class we can say that during the presentation stage, most teachers presented the new structures most often inductively through decontextualized separate sentences, used the grammar textbooks, and spent much class time in explaining the rules. During the practice stage, the teachers most often made use of mechanical,

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decontextualized, non-meaningful exercises which students practised with individually, and the practice focus was on answering correctly to these exercises.

These findings were corroborated by findings from the teachers' questionnaires and interviews which likewise revealed that the FonFs teaching aspects highly characterized the teachers' method in grammar instruction and that learning the rules and applying them correctly was the main focus in class. However, the teachers' responses (on questionnaire & interview) indicated that they also very often used some of the FonF instructional aspects (more frequently than what we observed in class). The teachers referred to the importance of the use of some FonF aspects in teaching grammar (e.g, meaningfulness, contextualization, authenticity and collaborative practice), but they also mentioned that a FonF-based teaching was difficult to implement due to reasons such as lack of resources and practicality. It should be noted also that the Teachers' questionnaire and the interview data showed that there was a teacher who taught grammar with a FonF approach (this teacher was not observed), so this indicates that there is awareness of the importance of the meaningful teaching of grammar which is translated into its implementation in class at least by few teachers.

The Students' questionnaire also yielded data which are congruent with those of the other data collection tools in that the traditional FonFs instruction was the dominant method in class with some teachers incorporating some aspects of the FonF instruction, namely the inductive presentation of rules (which was as highly used as the inductive rule presentation), the use of contextualized exercises, the use of meaningful practice and the use of collaborative classwork. Some students referred to the advantage of the traditional FonFs which consisted in its usefulness for rule learning and memorisation. But most students complained about the great amount of information imparted in class with the heavy focus on rules and lack of practice and interaction.

Concerning the results of the pre- and post-intervention tests in the three grammatical areas under investigation (present/past, future and modal verbs) the data showed that both groups (FonF & FonFs) scored higher on the post-intervention tests with comparison to scores obtained on pre-intervention tests. In addition, the overall

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post-test results showed that the FonF group scored higher on the FonFs group in the three treatment areas, namely, the past/present, the future and modal verb forms (though for the 'future verb forms' there was no great difference in scores). With regard the groups' achievement in grammar and writing separately, the results showed that concerning grammar the FonFs group outperformed the FonF group only on the post-test about present/past verb forms, but no difference in performance between the two groups on the post-tests about future and modal verb forms. With relation to writing, the results indicated that the FonF group outperformed the FonFs group in writing and this in all the three grammatical areas investigated.

Insofar as the analysis of post-intervention errors in both grammar and writing, the results showed that apart from six structures (out of forty) such as 'will for prediction based on opinion', 'can't for negative possibility' and 'don't need to for absence of necessity' (see table 4.41 & 4.42), all the other structures of the three types of verb forms were found difficult by students as regards error frequency. In addition, the group which counted more errors was the FonFs group. This group considerably outnumbered the FonF in terms of number of errors made with all the structures except in the correct use of seven structures (six in the area of present/past verb forms in the grammar test and one structure in writing test (*should have + past participle*)). It was revealed also that most errors were made in tasks about grammar knowledge and not in writing tasks. Sometimes errors which were made on grammar tasks completely disappeared in writing tasks such was the case with 'present with permanent actions', 'present simple for scheduling', 'present continuous for near future'. There was only one structure which was found more difficult in terms of use in writing tasks than in its application in grammar tasks and this was the 'present continuous for ongoing actions while speaking'. The analysis of students' errors yielded also important data which were not anticipated in our research design and which concerned spelling errors of verb forms. It was found that most spelling errors were made in connection with modal verb forms and were nearly all made by the FonFs group.

In terms of the effectiveness of either of the two approaches (FonF & FonFs) on learning grammar knowledge and its appropriate use in writing (according to the

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analysis of errors), we found that in terms of knowledge of rules the analysis of errors showed that more structures (57%) were better learned under the FonF condition and not under the FonFs condition (15%). In addition, few other structures (15%) were equally learned under both FonF and FonFs conditions, and few others (12%) were not learned under neither of the conditions. In terms of the appropriate use of grammar in writing, it was also found that most structures (45%) were correctly used by the FonF group and only one structure was used correctly in writing by the FonFs. For the rest of the structures it was found that some (35%) were correctly used by both of the groups and few (17%) were not appropriately used by any of the two groups. On the whole, our findings seem to be in favour of the FonF instruction in teaching most of the grammatical structures being simple or complex in form given that most of the structures taught were better learned by the FonF group.

Our findings, thus, have many implications to the teaching of grammar at university level. The following actions are recommended:

1. Teachers need to be mobilized, through the pedagogical coordination committees of Grammar and Writing units, around the FonF teaching and consider the need of their students who claim for more involvement and interaction in class and complain about the heavy focus on metalanguage.
2. Teachers should be encouraged not to teach all of the grammar but to teach what is a priority for students' writing so that the grammar course becomes more useful and less boring. For example, the use of 'present continuous' to express temporariness of an action is more frequent and important to writing than its use to express the speaker's negative perception of other's bad habits. Besides, the latter was found very difficult to learn in our study.
3. Another aspect which can make the grammar course more interesting and motivating is the use of authentic materials, such as newspapers, which show how the grammatical structures function in real-life contextualized discourse.
4. Teachers are encouraged to enhance the structures under focus within such contextualized and authentic materials so that students infer the rules out of noticing the forms in plenty of natural written input rather than inferring rules out

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of one decontextualized sentence example as it happens in the traditional FonFs teaching.

5. Replace the mechanical exercises by meaningful activities and tasks wherein the students use the language meaningfully in real-like tasks to push output and create interaction.
6. Teachers should devote time to collaborative writing so that students who notice gaps in their interlanguage solicit feedback from their peers and fix up the wrong output. This practice can compensate for lack of understanding or noticing of the forms at the presentation stage and allows the teacher to give feedback to many students at a time.
7. When evaluating the students' output, teachers might focus on the content of their students' production and use recast (indirect, implicit feedback) to indicate the errors of form. In this way feedback remains meaning-directed and at the same time errors are signalled but indirectly so that students notice the gaps and correct the flaws themselves.
8. Teachers can decide to explicitly explain the rules at the end of practice when students have experienced the language through exposure and use. This delayed focus on forms is beneficial both for students and teachers: the students will perceive grammar as use and not only as rules and teachers will find it easier to explain rules which the students have already worked out on their own.
9. Finally, we propose a model of teaching we named EEEE as a good substitute to the traditional PPP and which comprises four key strategies of the FFI instruction, namely, input enhancement, output enhancement, feedback as recasts and one traditional aspect which consists in the explicit explanation of rules (FonFs) and which is postponed until after practice. We consider that giving teachers a clear method to implement a more communicative teaching can make them feel more secure to accept to abandon traditional teaching and adopt a new promising instructional approach.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Observation Scheme

Group.....Unit.....Date.....VisitNo.....Time.....

Observation frameworks	Time	Occurrence
<p>Stage one: Grammar presentation</p> <p>1. The way the teacher presents the lesson</p> <p>a. The teacher presents the structure and explains the rule.</p> <p>b. The teacher provides rules without examples</p> <p>c. The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules</p> <p>d. The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules</p> <p>Others.....</p> <p>2. Context of the new structure presentation.</p> <p>a. The structure is presented in one sentence</p> <p>b. The structure is presented in more separate sentences</p> <p>c. The structure is presented in text (discourse)</p> <p>Others.....</p> <p>3. Type of materials used in presenting the new structure.</p> <p>a. Non real-life materials are used</p> <p>b. Simplified (adapted) materials are used</p> <p>c. Real-life materials are used</p> <p>Others.....</p> <p>4. The focus of the teaching of the new structure</p> <p>a. The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology</p> <p>b. The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology</p> <p>Others:.....</p>		

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<p>Stage two: Grammar practice</p> <p>5. Type of the exercises</p> <p>A/ Mechanical drill exercises</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">a. fill in the gapsb. multiple choice answersc. sentence completiond. Sentence transformatione. sentence matchingf. substitutiong. error identification and correction <p>Others:.....</p> <p>B/Meaningful activities.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">a. Story tellingb. Story reconstruction in writingc. writing letters and exchanging themd. introducing oneself orallye. writing/talking about personal eventsf. using oral interviewsg. using information-gap tasks <p>Others:.....</p> <p>6. Type of context</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">a. Sentence level exercisesb. Dialoguesc. Paragraphsd. Two or more paragraph text <p>Others:.....</p> <p>7. Type of materials</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">a. Non-real life materialsb. Simplified(adapted) materialsc. Real-life materials <p>8. Classwork pattern</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">a. Individual practiceb. Peer practicec. Group practice <p>9. Practice focus</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">a. Activities focus on the forms in decontextualized exercises.b. Activities focus on content in meaningful activities.		
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Appendix 2: Grammar Teachers' Questionnaires No.....

You are kindly invited to fill in this questionnaire to obtain some information about grammar teaching practices. The information you contribute will be treated with confidentiality and you will never be identified. We appreciate your cooperation.

Part1: Please put a tick (√) to indicate how often the following behaviours occur in your class.

No	How is grammar taught in class?	always	often	sometimes	Rarely	Never
1	The rules are given by the teacher.					
2	The rules are discovered out of examples by the students themselves.					
3	The grammar point is presented in one or more separate sentences.					
4	The grammatical point is presented in text.					
5	The grammar point is presented using the teacher's own examples or examples from the textbook written on the board or on handouts. These materials are not taken from real-life materials (like magazines, newspapers, audiovisuals and so on).					
6	The grammar point is presented using examples from real-life materials (like newspapers, web pages, airport notices and so on).					
7	Much class time is spent on explaining the rules.					
8	Much time is spent in letting students discover the rules out of exposure to many examples.					

9./ Do you have other comments or suggestions with regards the way you teach grammar?.....

.....

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Part 2: Please indicate how often the following behaviours occur in your class.

No	How is grammar practised in class?	always	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
10	Exercises in which you give a correct answer without any true information are used (e.g. fill in the gaps, multiple choice answers, completion with the correct form, errors identification, substitution and so no).					
11	Activities in which the student uses language to communicate true information like in story-telling, writing letters to others, introducing oneself and so on are used.					
12	Exercises that contain a number of separate, unconnected sentences are used.					
13	Exercises having the form of discourse are used.					
14	The exercises are based on unreal spoken/written English (from textbooks).					
15	The exercises are based on real spoken/written English (sources are mentioned if you find them in textbooks).					
16	Students are made to work alone on the exercises.					
17	Students are made to work in groups.					
18	Focus is on the correct use of the new grammatical point in different exercises.					
19	Focus is on making student speak/write in English and interact with others.					

20./ Do you have any other comments on the way you make your students practice grammar?

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.....
.....
Part 3:

21./Look at the following tasks and select the ones that occur most often in your class. Then rank the three most outstanding tasks into order of frequency using the table beside.

- A./The teacher presents rules without examples
- B./The teacher gives examples about the new grammar structure and gives the rules
- C./The teacher presents examples but never gives rules
- D./The students analyse examples and infer (give) the rules
- E./Students apply the rules in exercises
- F./The students produce (speak and/or write)

Order	Task symbols
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

22/ How do you often introduce the new grammar point? Please circle one or more options;

- A. Within one sentence example.
- B. Within multiple separate sentences.
- C. Within a paragraph.
- D. Within a dialogue.

Others:.....

23. / What kind of language do you often choose to present a new grammatical point?

Please circle one or more options:

- A. Authentic/true language written for or used by native speakers.
- B. Pedagogical/simplified language adapted for foreign language learners levels.

Others:.....

24. / What is most important in your teaching? Please circle one or more options:

- A. That students understand grammatical terminology.

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B. That students discover the rules through many examples.

25./Which type of exercises do you often select for practice? Please circle one or more options:

- A. Mechanical exercises such as those taken from textbooks.
- B. Communicative activities which involve students in interaction.
- Others.....

26./Which form do your exercises more often take? Please circle one or more options:

- A. A number of separate sentences.
- B. A paragraph
- C. A multiple paragraph text
- D. A dialogue

Others:.....

27./Which of the following sources do you often use? Please circle one or more options:

- A. Grammar textbooks.
- B. Magazines, newspapers, novels, audiovisuals and so on

Others.....

28./How do you make students practice more often? Please circle one or more options:

- A. Individually.
- B. Collaboratively.

Others.....

29./What kind of exercises do you often opt for? Please circle one or more options:

- A. Those which enable students learn the new grammatical point.
- B. Those which enable students speak in English and write in English.

Others.....

30. Do you have any other comments related to grammar teaching method(s), grammar practice, materials and classwork pattern(s) used in your class?

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Thank you for taking the time to complete the questionnaire. The information you provide will be used to set the background of grammar teaching in the Department of English in the University of Algiers 2, and this is part of a research study which aims at improving the quality of teaching English grammar.

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Appendix 3: Students' Questionnaires No:.....

You are kindly invited to fill in this questionnaire to obtain some information about grammar teaching practices. The information you contribute will be treated with confidentiality and you will never be identified. We appreciate your collaboration

Part1: Please put a tick (√) to indicate how often the following behaviours occur in your class.

No	How is grammar taught in class?	Always	Often	sometimes	Rarely	Never
1	The rules are given by the teacher.					
2	The rules are discovered out of examples by the students themselves.					
3	The grammar point is presented in one or more separate sentences.					
4	The grammatical point is presented in text.					
5	The examples of the teacher are presented on the board or on a handout. The examples are similar to those found in grammar books,					
6	Students are given examples from newspapers, magazines, etc, and/or made to listen to conversations of native speakers and/or watch videos of native speakers.					
7	Much class time is spent in explaining the rules and giving examples.					
8	Much time is spent in letting students discover the rules out of exposure to many examples					

9./Do you have any other comments to add as regards the way you are taught grammar in class?.....

.....

.....

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Part 2: Please indicate how often the following behaviours occur in class.

No	How is grammar practiced in class?	Always	often	Sometimes	rarely	Never
10	Exercises in which the teacher gives a correct answer without any true information are used (e.g. fill in the gaps, multiple choice answers, completion with the correct form, errors identification, substitution and so no)..					
11	Activities in which the students use language to communicate true information like in story-telling, writing letters to others, introducing oneself and so on are used.					
12	Exercises that contain a number of unconnected separate sentences are used.					
13	Exercises used have the form of:	a) paragraphs				
		b) conversations				
14	The exercises are based on :	a) sentences taken from grammar books.				
		b) texts taken from grammar books				
15	The materials of the exercises are taken from:	a) true newspapers				
		b) magazines				
		c) novels				
		d) tapes or videos of true conversations				
16	The students are made to work alone on the exercises.					
17	The students are made to work in groups.					

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18	The teacher's focus is more on the correct use of the new grammatical point in different exercises.					
19	The teacher's focus is more on making student speak/write in English and interact with others.					

20./ Do you have other comments as regards the way you practice grammar in class?.....

Part 3:

21./Please look at the following tasks and say which ones occur most frequently. Then rank the three most outstanding tasks into order of frequency using the table beside.

- A/ The teacher presents rules without examples
- B/ The teacher gives examples about the new grammar structure and gives the rules
- C/ The teacher presents examples but never gives rules
- D/ The students analyse examples and infer (give) the rules
- E/ The students apply the rules in exercises
- F/ The students produce (speak and/or write)

Order	Task letter
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

22./How is the new grammatical point often presented? Please circle one or more options:

- A. Within one sentence example.
- B. Within multiple separate sentences.
- C. Within a paragraph.
- D. Within a dialogue.

Others:.....

23./What kind of language is often chosen to present a new grammatical point? Please circle one or more options.

- A. The kind of English you find in grammar books (simplified language adapted for your level of understanding).

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B. The kind of English you read in newspapers or hear on TV (language used by native speakers that might be difficult for you).

Others:.....

24./What is most important for your teacher? Please circle one or more options.

- A. That students understand grammatical terminology.
- B. That students discover the rules through many examples

Other:.....

25/ Which type of exercises is often selected for practice? Please circle one or more options.

- A. Mechanical exercises such as those taken from textbooks (Ex. fill in the gaps with a correct form).
- B. Communicative activities which involve students in interaction (Ex. Tell a real story).

Others:.....

26/ What is the usual form of your exercises? Please circle one or more options.

- A. Nnumber of separate sentences.
- B. Paragraph
- C. Multiple paragraph text
- D. Dialogue

Others:.....

27/ Which source(s) are the exercises most often taken from? Please circle one or more options;

- A. Course books
- B. Magazines
- C. Newspapers
- D. Novels
- E. Audiovisuals

Others:.....

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28/ How does the teacher make students most often practise? Please circle one or more options.

A. Individually.

B. Collaboratively.

Others:.....

29/ What kind of exercises are often used? Please circle one or more options.

A. Those which enable students learn the new grammatical point.

B. Those which enable students speak in English and write in English.

Others:.....

30/Do you have any other comments related to grammar teaching method(s), grammar practice, materials and classwork pattern(s) used in your class?

.....

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.....

Thank you for taking the time to complete the questionnaire. The information you provide will be used to set the background of grammar teaching in the Department of English in the University of Algiers 2, and this is part of a research study which aims at improving the quality of teaching English grammar.

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Appendix 4: Follow-up Interview to Grammar Teachers' Questionnaire

No:.....

1. How do you present the rules?

.....

2. In which form of language do you present the new structure?

.....

3. Which materials do you use when presenting the rules?

.....

4. What do you focus on when teaching the new grammatical structure?

.....

5. Which kind of exercises/activities do you use?

.....

6. What is the format of the exercises that you generally use?

.....

7. Where do you select the exercises from?

.....

8. How do you make your learners work in class?

.....

9. What do you most focus on during the exercises/activities?

.....

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Appendix 5: The Grammatical Functions used in the Treatments.

Group	FonFs Group (deductively taught)	Distribution in weeks/	FonF Group (Inductively taught)	Distribution in weeks
Usages	1/ Present and present continuous: 1. Present simple for permanent action 2. Present simple with state verbs 3. Present continuous for ongoing actions around speaking 4. Present continuous for temporary actions 5. Present continuous indicating speaker's irritation	2 weeks	Present and present continuous: 1./ Present simple for permanent actions 2./ Present continuous for temporary actions	2weeks
	2/ Present perfect and past simple: 6. Present perfect with repeated actions 7. Present perfect with actions connected to the present 8. Present perfect with focus on the activity 9. Past simple with finished past actions 10. Past simple with specific points of time	2 weeks	Present perfect and past simple: 3./ Present perfect with actions connected to the present 4./ Past simple with finished past actions	2 weeks
	3/ Past simple, past continuous and past perfect 11. Past progressive with past long past actions 12. Past simple with brief actions	2 weeks	Past simple, past continuous and past perfect 5./ Past perfect with earlier past events	2 weeks

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	<p>13. Past perfect with earlier events</p> <p>4/ Future with will- and going to – forms:</p> <p>14. Present simple in formal schedule</p> <p>15. Present continuous for near future</p> <p>16. ‘will’ for prediction based on Opinion</p> <p>17. ‘going to’ for prediction based on evidence</p> <p>18. ‘will’ for Spontaneous decisions</p> <p>19. ‘going to’ for planned decisions</p> <p>5/ Future continuous and future perfect</p> <p>20. Future continuous for plans</p> <p>21. Future continuous for present progressive actions occurring elsewhere</p> <p>22. Future continuous for future actions in progress</p> <p>23. Future perfect for completion of actions before a future point of time</p> <p>24. Future perfect for actions we know that they happened elsewhere</p> <p>6/ Modals of ability and possibility:</p> <p>25. Particular past ability with ‘managed to’</p> <p>26. General past ability with</p>	<p>2 weeks</p> <p>2 weeks</p> <p>2 weeks</p>	<p>4/Future with will- and going-to forms:</p> <p>6./ ‘will’ for prediction based on opinion</p> <p>7./ ‘going to’ for conclusion based on evidence</p> <p>8./ ‘will’ for spontaneous decision</p> <p>9./ ‘going to’ for planned decision</p> <p>Future continuous and future perfect</p> <p>10/ Future continuous for plans</p> <p>11./ Future continuous for future actions in Progress</p> <p>12./ Future perfect for completion of actions before a future point of time</p> <p>Modals of ability and possibility:</p> <p>13./ Particular past ability with ‘managed to’</p> <p>14./ General past ability</p>	<p>2 weeks</p> <p>2 weeks</p> <p>2 weeks</p>
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	<p>‘could’</p> <p>27. Strong possibility with ‘must’</p> <p>28. Strong negative possibility with ‘can’t’</p> <p>29. Strong past possibility with ‘must have+past participle’</p> <p>30. Negative strong possibility in the past with ‘couldn’t have been’</p> <p>31. Possibility with ‘may’</p> <p>32. Weak possibility with ‘might’ and ‘could’</p> <p>7/ Modals of advice and expectation:</p> <p>33. General advice with ‘should’</p> <p>34. Expectation in the past with ‘should have+past participle’</p> <p>35. Expectation and advice with ‘ought to’</p> <p>36. Expectation and advice with ‘ought to have+past participle’</p> <p>8/ Modals of necessity and deduction:</p> <p>37. Necessity from outside authority with ‘have to’</p> <p>38. Necessity from speaker’s point of view with ‘must’</p> <p>39. Absence of necessity with ‘do not need’</p> <p>40. Prohibition with ‘musn’t’</p>	<p>2 weeks</p> <p>2 weeks</p>	<p>with ‘could’</p> <p>15./ Strong possibility with ‘must’</p> <p>16./ Strong negative possibility with ‘can’t’</p> <p>17./ possibility with ‘may’</p> <p>18/ Weak possibility with ‘might’ and ‘could’</p> <p>Modals of advice and expectation:</p> <p>19./ General advice with ‘should’</p> <p>20/ Expectation and advice with ‘ought to’</p> <p>21/ Expectation and advice with ‘ought to have+past participle’</p> <p>Modals of necessity and deduction:</p> <p>22./ Necessity from outside authority with ‘have to’</p> <p>23./ Necessity from speaker’s point of view</p> <p>24./ Absence of necessity</p> <p>25/ Prohibition with ‘musn’t’</p>	<p>2 weeks</p> <p>2 weeks</p>
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Appendices

Appendix 6: lessons Based on Implicit FonF Instruction

UNIT 1: TALKING ABOUT PERMANENT AND TEMPORARY ACTIONS, RECENT AND FINISHED ACTIONS

1. Explore

Text 1 **Trufflers Dognapped**

Police in Southern France **are trying** to find ten truffle-hunting dogs, stolen from their owners in the middle of the season for the fungi. Police in Carpentras **believe** the dogs, trained to dig up truffles growing five centimetres below the ground, have been kidnapped. Farmers **are getting around** 150 pounds a kilo for truffles this year. Hervé de Chiré, mayor of the village of Pernes-Les Fontaines, said: ‘Training the dogs **takes years** and the truffle season **is** very short. Some of the farmers **are offering** up to 650 pounds for the return of their dogs.’ ((Developing Grammar in Use, Nettle et al, 2003)

Text 2 **How Syrian families are living?**

Syria’s civil war is the worst humanitarian crisis of our time...Families **are struggling** to survive inside Syria, or make a new home in neighboring countries. Others **are risking** their lives on the way to Europe, hoping to find acceptance and opportunity. And harsh winters and hot summers **make** life as a refugee even more difficult. At times, the effects of the conflict can seem overwhelming. More than five years after it **began**, the full-blown civil war **has killed** over 250,000 people, half of whom are believed to be civilians. Bombings **are destroying** crowded cities and horrific human rights violations are widespread.

(Mercy Corps, 2016: <https://www.mercycorps.org/articles/iraq-jordan-lebanon-syria-turkey/quick-facts-what-you-need-know-about-syria-crisis>)

Text 3 **When did the crisis start?**

Anti-government demonstrations **began** in March of 2011, part of the Arab Spring. But the peaceful protests quickly **escalated** after the government’s violent crackdown, and rebels **began** fighting back against the regime. By July, army defectors had loosely **organized** the Free Syrian Army and many civilian Syrians **took up** arms to join the opposition. Divisions between secular and Islamist fighters, and between ethnic groups, **continue** to complicate the politics of the conflict. (Mercy Corps, 2016: <https://www.mercycorps.org/articles/iraq-jordan-lebanon-syria-turkey/quick-facts-what-you-need-know-about-syria-crisis>)

Text4 **What happens now the UK has voted Brexit**

More than three years after David Cameron **unveiled** his strategy to reform Europe and put it to a referendum, Britain **has voted** to leave and the Prime Minister **has resigned**.

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It is the greatest disaster to befall the block in its 59-year history. The road ahead is unclear. No state has left the European Union before, and the rules for exit – contained in Article 50 of the Treaty of Lisbon – are brief.

Mr Cameron **resigned** as Prime Minister shortly after 8am, announcing that he thinks Britain should have a new Prime Minister in place by the start of the Conservative conference in October. He will leave the task of triggering Article 50 to his successor.

(The Telegraph, 2016: <http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/2016/06/24/britain-votes-to-leave-the-eu-what-happens-now-that-brex-it-is-a/>)

Express

Activity one: Comprehension questions:

Text 1: What is happening in the south of France?.....

Text 2: How Syrians are risking their lives?.....

Text 3: How did the war begin?.....

Text 4: What happened after the British voted Brixit?.....

Text 5: When did the Prime Minister precisely resign?.....

Activity two: Look at the following pictures:

(From *Use of English*, Jones, 1985)

A/ Mr and Mrs Mulligan and their children Mike and Kate are in the kitchen having breakfast. It's eight fifteen. What exactly is each of them doing now?

Mrs.Mulligan.....

Mr Mulligan.....

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Mike.....
Kate.....

B/ Look at the different objects in the kitchen. What can you guess about everyone's everyday life?

Mrs.Muligan.....

Mr Muligan.....

Mike.....
Kate.....

Activity three: Write one sentences about what you are doing this month and one sentence about what you always do then give them to a partner so that s/he speaks up them aloud.

- 1) **This month**, my classmate.....
- 2) My classmate **usually**.....

Activity four: Look at the following pictures:

A/Mrs Simpson returns from holiday to find that her home has been vandalized. What have the vandals done? Write a paragraph in which you answer this question using these verbs: write- break-smash-throw-tear-burn-open-push over-

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

B/ Six months later Mrs Simpsons is writing to a friend about what happened? Imagine you are Mrs Simpsons. Write the letter:



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3. **EXPLAIN:** What are the most important structures you have noticed today? Could you explain the way they work?

.....
.....
.....

UNIT 2: TALKING ABOUT WHAT HAPPENED AND WHAT HAD HAPPENED

BEFORE

1. EXPLORE

Text 1: **Jim Thompson had disappeared**

When they **got back** at about 4:00, the news **was** not good. They **had searched** the main paths from the main paths from the house and with the help from local people they **had** also **searched** a large area of the jungle, but **had found** nothing. Martin **had gone down** to the town and **asked** at the taxi and bus stands, but again **had found out** nothing. No one **had seen** a tall man in his sixties. Martin and Jones **had** a rest and then **went out** again to make further inquiries.

This time they **went** to the golf club in Tanah Rata to ask people there if anyone **had seen** Jim. When they **got** there they found that the police **had** just **been** and interviewed everyone. One man **claimed** he **had seen** a man that **looked** like Jim at about 3:00 the afternoon before, walking down the hill from the golf club. When Martin and Jones **asked** him more questions, however, they **discovered** that the description **did not** really match. The man he **had seen** was **wearing** blue trousers and a white jacket, but Jim **was wearing** a pair of grey trousers and **had left** his jacket behind.

(From *Developing Grammar in Use* by Nettle et al, 2003)

Text 2: **Pleistocene Epoch: Facts About the Last Ice Age**

The Pleistocene Epoch is typically defined as the time period that began about 1.8 million years ago and **lasted** until about 11,700 years ago. The most recent Ice Age **occurred** then, as glaciers **covered** huge parts of the planet Earth. The name *Pleistocene* is the combination of two Greek words: *pleistos* (meaning “most”) and *kainos* (meaning “new” or “recent”).

There **have been** at least five documented major ice ages during the 4.6 billion years since the Earth **was formed** — and most likely many more before humans came on the scene about 2.3 million years ago. The Pleistocene Epoch is the first in which *Homo sapiens* **evolved**, and by the end of the epoch humans could be found in nearly every part of the planet.

Appendices

At the time of the Pleistocene, the continents **had moved** to their current positions. At one point during the Ice Age, sheets of ice covered all of Antarctica, large parts of Europe, North America, and South America, and small areas in Asia. In North America they stretched over Greenland and Canada and parts of the northern United States. The remains of glaciers of the Ice Age can still be seen in parts of the world, including Greenland and Antarctica.

There were no dinosaurs during the Pleistocene Epoch. They **had become** extinct at the end of the Cretaceous Period, more than 60 million years before the Pleistocene Epoch **began**.

(By K.A. Zimmermann, 2013 in *Live Science*: <http://www.livescience.com/40311-pleistocene-epoch.html>)

2. EXPRESS

Activity one: Comprehension questions

Text 1: 1./ Why wasn't the news good when Martin and Johns went back home?.....

2./What happened in Tanah Ranta?.....

Text 2: 1./ Is it possible that another Ice Age occur on Earth?.....

2./ When did the continents move to their current position?.....

3./ Were there dinosaurs at the Pleistocene period?.....

Activity two: This Mickey's diary of his daily events of last week

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Sunday
07.30-09.00 get breakfast, send kids to school	07.30-09.00 get breakfast, send kids to school	06.00 get up, go to the airport	07.30-09.00 get breakfast, send kids to school	08.30 get up, (Pat sees to kids)	08.30 get up, breakfast	
09.00-11.00 housework, shopping with Pat	09.00-13.00 office	07.00 fly to London	09-11.00 office	09.00-11.00 washing housework	10.00 take kids to football practice	10.00 get up, breakfast
11.00-13.00 office		08.00-13.00 get home, housework, shopping, lunch	11.13.00 meeting with mike	11.00-13.00 office, work on new project	10.30-11.30 meet Kit for coffee	11.00-13.00 do some gardening, help Pat with lunch
					11.30-12.30 watch end of football, take kids home	

(From Grammar Practice Activities by Nunan, 1988)

Appendices

A/ Oral activity: Ask your partner what Mike had done by a given point of time

Partner A: What had Mickey done byon.....

Partner B:.....

Partner A: What had Mickey done byon.....

Partner B:.....

Partner A: What had Mickey done by.....on.....

Partner B:.....

b/ Written activity: Write about activities you had done before some important event you experienced last year or last month. How did you feel after such an experience?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Activity three: Look at the diary again and write as many sentences as you can about what Mickey was doing during a certain period of time or at a given specific point of time.

1/.....
.....

2/.....
.....

3/.....
.....

4.....
.....

5.....
.....

Appendices

UNIT 3: TALKING ABOUT PREDICTION AND DECISION

1. EXPLORE

Story 1

In the late 1960's, Kenneth Blyton successfully crossed the English Channel in a metal bottle with a small motor. It was his third crossing, but his first time by bottle. When he landed in France, he described his **next plan**. 'I have already crossed by bed and by barrel, next year **I'm going** to cross by giant banana'.

Story 2

A man from Kentucky tried to row across the icy Bering Straits, between Alaska and Russia, in a bath. Unfortunately, things went a bit wrong for him. So the bath in the ice and walked to land, where he told reporters, 'I'll **try** again in the summer'. (From *Developing Grammar in Use* by Nettle et al, 2003)

Conversations:

A/ What do you think is going to happen?

Wow, the man is going to fall!

Look, the bulls **are going** to hit him!

Goodness, he is going to hit the electric wires!



B/ What will happen in the future?

I think we will have flying cars.



(EFL Smart Blog, 2013: <http://efllecturer.blogspot.com/2013/11/going-to-for-prediction-look-at-photos.html>)

Appendices

2. EXPRESS

Activity one: Comprehension questions

Story one: When did the man decide to cross the channel by giant banana?.....

Story two: When did the man decide to row across the Bering Straits another time?.....

Conversations: Why do people in (A) seem to be certain about what is going to happen?

.....

Why do people in (B) seem not sure about what might happen in future?

.....

Activity two:

1. Fill in the plan your own plans and appointments for each day next week. If necessary, add some imaginary plans.

Mon	Tues	Wed	Thur	Fri	Sat	Sun
a.m						
p.m						
Evening						

2. Look at your partner's plan and write some sentences about what s/he is going to do next week.

On.....my friend

on.....

.....on.....

.....

.....

3. Now ask your partner how his/her plans might change if something unexpected happen.

e.g. You're having a job interview on Wednesday morning. What will you do if you're ill that morning?

(1) Partner A:

Partner B:

(2) Partner A:

Appendices

Partner B:.....

(3) Partner A:.....

Partner B:.....

Activity three: In groups write a list of changes you expect to see in the world by a date 50 years hence concerning one or many of these areas: technology, medical science, sport, education, transport, fashion)

The world tomorrow

1.....

2.....

3.....

4.....

5.....

6.....

Activity four: Say what is going to happen.

The car is going to splash them



They're going to fall off the scooter



They are going to get wet



(*EFL Smart Blog*, 2013: <http://eflecturer.blogspot.com/2013/11/going-to-for-prediction-look-at-photos.html>)

Activity five: Look again at your partner's plan and write about three things that s/he will have done by Friday.

By Friday, my friend will have.....

..she will also have.....and

will have.....

3./ EXPLAIN What are the most important structures you have noticed today? Could you explain the way they work?

.....
.....

Appendices

UNIT 4: TALKING ABOUT ABILITY: HOW SUCCESSFUL YOU ARE IN DOING SOMETHING

1. EXPLORE: Read the following extracts:

1/An 11-year-old girl is to appear on a TV show tonight – as a human juicer. Sally Harmer, of Darlington, **can** squeeze juice from an orange between her shoulder blades. (From *Developing Grammar in Use* by Nettle et al, 2003)

2/In the 1980's, Alex, the talking parrot of Purdue University, Indiana, was famous because he **could** name more than 40 objects, recognize five colours and four shapes and name them correctly.

(From *Developing Grammar in Used* by Nettle et al, 2003)

3/Bob has a long moustache. It has been growing since 1986 and last Friday reached 299 centimetres. Thanks to his moustache, Bob **is able to** help aeroplanes park without using hand signals. That's why Bob has recently been promoted to Senior Parking Instructor at Inverness Airport.

(From *Developing Grammar in Use* by Nettle et al, 2003)

4/Four or five of them made it look so easy. And I followed this young man, and he'd got the jeans and the shirt on and the right kind of boots, and he **could** do it perfectly. And he said to me, 'When the music's really quick like this', he said, 'do the steps a bit smaller.' When I came out of there, I **managed to** get a lift home from somebody who didn't live far from me, and they brought me all the way home. And coming in, I found muscles I never knew I had. Well, on Monday morning I **couldn't** get out of bed.

(From *Developing Grammar in Use* by Nettle et al, 2003)

5/Q:I managed to leave him

*Hi Vic, I've now been away from my abusive partner for a year. With the help of the women's refuge and a dear friend I **managed to** leave him. We now live in separate towns but the violence still continues. We have a 3 year old son together. I am in my final stages of a parenting order after kidnappings and the last year of abuse, every day. I get text abuse phone calls, black mail, death threats and any other form of abuse you can think of including harassing my family members and I'm over it. I am too scared to go to the police because then I know he will come to town and kill me. I don't know what he is capable of doing to me or my family members. Is this normal? (From Family Violence It's Not Ok, 2016: <http://areyouok.org.nz/personal-stories/ask-vic/i-managed-to-leave-him/>)*

2. EXPRESS

Activity one: Comprehension questions:

1. What is Sally Harmer able to do?.....
2. What was the parrot Alex able to do?.....
3. What is Bob able to do?.....
4. What the young man could and couldn't do?.....
5. What the woman was able to do ?.....

Activity two: Look at the following scenes.

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1. Write sentences about the scenes shown in the cartoons. Say what people managed (succeeded, were able to do) or what they couldn't (weren't able to, didn't succeed in) do (ing).

.....

2. Think of three things you have succeeded in doing recently and three things you tried to do but didn't manage to do successfully.

.....

Activity three: 1) Complete as many of the sentences in the grid below as you can. Write about yourself.

	A	B	C
1	I couldwhen I was younger, but I can't now	I managed tobut I 'd never expected to.	I couldn'twhen I was younger
2	I can't	I hope one day I might be able to	I can remember
3	I 've never been able to.....	I could.....if I had more time.	I can.....

- 2) Work in pairs. Write a paragraph about your partner using the information from the table s/he completed. You can add your personal opinions or comments.

.....

3/EXPLAIN

What are the most important structures you have noticed today? Could you explain the way they work?

.....

Appendices

UNIT 5: TALKING ABOUT PROBABILITY: HOW SURE ARE YOU?

1. EXPLORE:

1/EXCLUSIVE: These THREE asteroids REALLY could HIT Earth and 'wipe out life'

By [Jon Austin](#)

Two of the hulking asteroids **could** even strike our planet in YOUR grandchildren's lifetime, NASA and the European Space Agency have admitted. The cosmic boulders are on a NASA list of potentially-hazardous asteroids (PHAs) that actually pose a real risk of hitting us. Scare stories have swept the internet about an apparently fictitious [killer asteroid about to strike Puerto Rico](#) any day, so there has never been so much interest in space rocks colliding with Earth.NASA assures us not to worry about wild conspiracy theories, because if a rock that size was about to strike, it would be on our radar by now. The US space agency has even said it knows of no significant rock that **could** hit for several hundreds of years. An investigation by Express.co.uk discovered they **must have been** referring to the asteroid called 1950 AD - a giant rock which it is feared **could** hit Earth in 2880. On its PHA list, NASA usually talks about probabilities of an impact in the one in several millions or even billions scale.

(Express, 2013: <http://www.express.co.uk/news/science/607448/EXCLUSIVE-These-THREE-asteroids-REALLY-could-HIT-Earth-and-wipe-out-life>)

2/What are these strange lights floating above a Mexican volcano? UFO hunters say they **could be** aliens monitoring the Earth

'There is a combination of geophysical and geopsychological factors at work that can produce UFOs,' Nigel Watson, author of 'UFOs of the First World War', told Daily Mail.com. 'In this case it **might be** that the proximity of fault lines volcanic activity on a fault line in the Earth's crust has helped produce a UFO composed of plasma that glows at night and appears metallic or black in daylight.

(Daily Mail, 2016: <http://www.dailymail.co.uk/sciencetech/article-3263888/Why-strange-lights-floating-Mexican-volcano-UFO-hunters-fear-aliens-trying-cause-eruptions.htmlcom>)

3/A 15-second video clip taken by a Japanese film crew **may** show a present-day dinosaur swimming in Lake Tele, in Central Africa. The film shows something large moving across the lake a few hundred meters from land. Looking closer, it seems to show a flat shape with two tall, thin shapes raising from it...**maybe** a neck and a hump suggesting an animal. According to expert Karl Shuker 'You could see it as a dinosaur if you wanted to, but it **could be** one of the big turtles that live in the lake. (From *Developing Grammar in Use* by Nettle et al,2003)

4/ Dinosaur bones—just how old are they really? An evolutionary dinosaur expert reveals some fascinating facts! By [Carl Wieland](#)

Most people think that fossil bones (of which the most well-known examples are those of dinosaurs) **must be** very, very old—because, after all, they have turned to stone, haven't they? Even millions of years **might**,

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to some, **not** even seem long enough to allow for natural processes to gradually, molecule by molecule, replace the original substance of the bone with rock minerals.....

(Creation Ministries International, 2016: <http://creation.com/dinosaur-bones-just-how-old-are-they-really>)

2.EXPRESS

Activity one: Comprehension questions

1. In story 1, **how probable** is a hazardous asteroid impact on earth?.....
2. In story 1, **how certain** is Nigel Watson' explanation of the UFO-like effect of the Mexican volcano?
3. What is **more certain** in the third story: The presence of an animal in the lake or the animal being a turtle?.....
4. **How certain** we are today about the fact that dinosaurs bones are very old?.....

Activity two: Harry Higgins escaped from prison last night. This was the scene in his cell early this morning.

(From Use of English by Jones, 1985)

In pairs work out what happened. Answer the following questions:

1. Why did the prison guard come into Harry's cell?.....
2. Why didn't he stop Harry from escaping?.....
3. How exactly did Harry get out of the cell?.....
4. Where did he get the tools from?.....
5. The cell is on the fourth floor. How did he reach the ground?.....
6. Why is that nobody noticed his prisoner's uniform?.....
7. How did he manage to get money?.....
8. Where has he gone to hide?.....

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Activity three: Is it true?

1. Work in groups. Write one thing about yourselves which is true and one thing which is untrue.
2. Read the sentences of your partners and express how firmly you believe or doubt about what they say.

Example:

A: B's parents both have red hair.

C: That could be true, don't you think, D?

D: No they can't because B's own hair is very dark.

Activity four: In groups, write a dialogue about the following situation using the information below in the order given.

Situation: Mr and Mrs Foster have invited their friend Suzan Darling to dinner but. She was supposed to come at seven o'clock and it is now seven forty-five.

1. Mr Foster states that Suzan is late and looks at his watch.
2. Mrs Foster finds strange and expresses her certainty about the fact that something happened.
3. Mr Foster suggests not getting worried yet and expresses the possibility that Suzan has missed the bus and the possibility at these things happen.
4. Mrs Foster reports Suzan's probability to come by car.
5. Mr Foster expresses the possibility that the car does not start.
6. Mrs Foster suggests that they phone her expressing the possibility that Suzan is there.

After a few minutes

7. Mr Foster said that he had rung and was told by Suzan's mother that she was not home at six thirty. So he deduces that she left.

At that moment the doorbell rings

8. Mrs Foster expresses certainty that it is Suzan.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

3. EXPLAIN

What are the most important structures you have noticed today? Could you explain the way they work?.....

.....

Appendices

UNIT 6: TALKING ABOUT NECESSITY, ABSENCE OF NECESSITY AND PROHIBITION:

1. EXPLORE

Extract 1/Whether it's a spouse who was unfaithful, a **parent** who let you down as a child, or a friend who shared something told in **confidence**, we all must face the question of whether and how to forgive. To learn how to forgive, you **must** first learn what forgiveness is *not*. Most of us hold at least some misconceptions about forgiveness. Here are some things that forgiving someone doesn't mean:

- Forgiveness doesn't mean you **need to** pardon or excuse the other person's actions. You **don't need to**.
- Forgiveness doesn't mean you **have to** continue to include the person in your life. You **don't have to**.
- Forgiveness doesn't mean you **mustn't** have any more feelings about the situation. You are not **prohibited** from continuing working out the relationship and find out what is not okay. (Brandt Andrea, 2014: <https://www.psychologytoday.com/us/blog/mindful-anger/201409/how-do-you-forgive-even-when-it-feels-impossible-part-1>)

Extract 2/ The #1 question a student has in his or her mind when first meeting you is *Who are you?*. ...Who you are to them **must** speak louder than the actual words you use. The next couple of questions students ask themselves to determine whether or not they will respect you is, "*Why is what you're teaching me important?*" and "*Do you mean what you say?*". I will tell you that you **must** immediately address all three of those questions, and you **must** do it clearly, confidently, and concisely. Your respect and your reputation in the classroom depend on it. So teach with passion, and remember to practice what you teach. (Martin Joe, 2011: http://www.educationworld.com/a_curr/columnists/martin/martin011.shtml)

Extract 3/ You do not need to work 80 hours a week to succeed in academia

There is a persistent myth (some might even call it a **zombie idea**) that getting tenure in academia requires working 80 hours a week. You can work whatever 80 hours a week you want!" The idea that you need to work 80 hours a week in order to publish or get grants or tenure is simply wrong. Moreover, I think it's damaging: I hear routinely from younger folks (often women) who are seriously considering leaving academia primarily because they think that a tenure track position will require working so much that they wouldn't be able to have any life outside work (including raising a family).So, please, you **don't have to** work 80 hours a week in academia. If you are working that many hours, you are probably not being efficient. (I'm sure there are exceptional individuals who can work that long and still be efficient, but they are surely not the norm.) So, work hard for 40-50 hours a week (maybe 60 during exceptional times), and then use the rest of the time for whatever you like. And, please, please, please, remember you **needn't** work 80 hours a week. (Duffy Meghan, 2014: <https://www.timeshighereducation.com/blog/you-do-not-need-work-80-hours-week-succeed-academia>)

Extract 4/Two learners studying in the UK describing what they did at the weekend:

Gianluca

Orhan and I went to London for the weekend. We couldn't afford the train so we **had to** go by bus. Actually it wasn't as bad as we thought it would be and we **needn't have bought** our tickets in advance- there was plenty of room on the bus. The hotel was cheap and quite good, although we **had to** check out early- 9.00 yesterday morning...

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Kumiko

...When I met Mary in town for lunch she realised that she'd lost her purse, so we **had to** go to the police to tell them.**I'll have** to phone them again later just to check they haven't found it before I complete my insurance claim. 20 years ago my parents **didn't have to** be so careful about their purses. (From *Developing Grammar in Use* by Nettle et al,2003)

2. EXPRESS

Activity one: Comprehension questions:

1. What do you need to know before you decide whether to forgive or not a person? (Extract 1)
.....
2. In your opinion who is expressing the obligation of asking three questions in Extract 2? An experienced teacher (writer of the article) or a school principal?.....
3. Why needn't you work more time? (Extract 3).....
4. Did Gianluca buy the bus ticket in advance? (Extract 4).....
5. Were Kumiko's parents careful about their purse in the past?.....

Activity two: Read the two passages then fill in the table below.

1/ The Byrds are at the seaside on holiday. Mrs Byrd would like her children to follow a strict timetable. This is what she says to them: ' you must get up not later than eight o'clock. You are expected to have breakfast with me and your father. After that you can go to the beach but you're not to go into the water until I join you there. After lunch, you shall take a short walk with me . After the walk you should do some more studying or reading. On no account must you leave the hotel without letting me know. Of course you are expected to have dinner with me and your father. After dinner you can go out but you must come back by ten thirty.

.2/ Mr Byrd is a clerk in a bank. Every day he has to get up at 7:30. He has to wash and have breakfast quickly because he has to take the eight twenty train to his office. He is expected to be there by 9:00. He has to work from nine until twelve. At lunch time he needs to have a light meal, otherwise he doesn't feel like working in the afternoon. He is meant to be back at the office at one p.m. He is required to stay there until five p.m. At five he has to rush to do some shopping before the shops close. Then he needs to run if he doesn't want to miss the six o'clock train home.

(From *English Grammar for Communicative Exercises* by Devitis et al, 1989)

What does Mrs Byrd oblige her children to do?	What Mr Byrd obliged to do?

Activity 3: Where would you be most likely to see the signs below?

No Photographs	Do not feed the animal	PEOPLE WEARING SHORTS NOT ADMITTED
KEEP ALGIERS TIDY	SILENCE No	smoking No copying

Military base-zoo-church-examination room-street-library-chemical factory

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Write sentences about what is not allowed in each place:

1. You musn't smoke in.....
2. You are not allowed to
3.
4.

(From *English Grammar for Communicative Exercises* by Devitis et al, 1989)

Activity 4: work in groups and decide whether the following actions happened, didn't happen or we don't know.

- 1/ Thizziri didn't need to pass her exam to get into university because they'd already given her an offer of a place
 - 2/ You needn't have done the washing-up. We've got a dishwasher.
 - 3/Luckily we didn't need to go to the police station or anything like that.
 - 4/when we were at the university we didn't need to attend classes regularly.
- (Adapted from *Developing Grammar in Use* by Nettle et al,2003)

Write one sentence about what was not necessary for you to do in the past but that you did. And one sentence about what was not necessary to do without making it clear whether you did it or not.

- 1.....
- 2.....

Activity 5: Imagine that you are writing to friend from a different country and who is going to visit your country. Write about what is necessary to do, not necessary to do and what is prohibited.

Here are things you can talk about:

1. Crossing the frontiers: passport, customs, visa, vaccination certificate...
 2. Transport: using taxis, public transport, driving a car,
 3. Shopping and eating: behaviour in shops, restaurants, cafes...
 4. Social behaviour: meeting strangers, visiting people at home
- (From*Grammar Practice Activities* by Nunan, 1988)

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

3.EXPLAINWhat are the most important structures you have noticed today? Could you explain the way they work?

.....

.....

Appendices

UNIT 7: TALKING ABOUT ADVICE AND EXPECTATION

1. EXPLORE

DIALOGUE

Peter: Do you think we **should** take this DVD player back to the store where we bought it? It plays the picture out of sync with the sound.

Suzie: It **should be working** well fine. I was watching it this morning and it was all right.

Peter: I want to take it back because the salesman **should have told** us about that problem, but he didn't.

Suzie: The instructions say that we **should** restart the machine to fix the audio-video sync problem.

Peter: **Am I supposed** to restart it three or four times during a movie? That's unreasonable.

Suzie: We **oughtn't to** have to do that, **should** we? You **ought to** call the store and ask them what you **should** do.

Peter: I called them and they told me that I **should** return it to the company that makes it. I didn't know that I **was supposed** to keep the original box.

Suzie: Don't worry. We can buy a box at the post office. They **ought to** have one big enough.

out of sync – not synchronized or matched together; not having the same timing (Web source)

QUOTES



“Nothing in the world is the way it **ought to** be. It's harsh and cruel. But that's why there's us. Champions. It doesn't matter where we come from, what we've done or suffered, or even if we make a difference. We live as though the world was what it **should** be, to show it what it can be.”

(WhedonJoss , 2013 from <http://www.goodreads.com/quotes/1337314-nothing-in-the-world-is-the-way-it-ought-to>)



"A free people **ought not only to** be armed, but disciplined; to which end a uniform and well-digested plan is requisite; and their safety and interest require that they should promote such manufactories as tend to render them independent of others for essential, particularly military, supplies."

Appendices

(WashingtonGeorge,2015from<http://www.mountvernon.org/digital-encyclopedia/article/spurious-quotations/>)

A LETTER

Dear unhappy,

Your letter was very interesting, and you are certainly in a difficult situation. I think the first thing you **should** do is arrange a meeting with your daughter. Then, **if I were you I'd tell** her exactly how I felt about her husband's behaviour. She might get angry at first, but hopefully she will listen and understand your situation. You **could try asking** her to speak to her husband. She **should talk** to him and find out why he is always rude to you. If she still doesn't understand your problem, **perhaps** you **should** try to talk to your son-in-law yourself. And finally, **why don't you stop worrying** too much. You **should** be very happy that your daughter is such a good friend!

Fabienne

(From *Developing Grammar in Use* by Nettle et al, 2003)

EXTRACT FROM A NOVEL

"Sue!" he murmured. "What has come over you?"

"We **ought to be** continually sacrificing ourselves on the altar of duty! But I have always striven to do what has pleased me. I well deserved the scourging I have got! I wish something would take the evil right out of me, and all my monstrous errors, and all my sinful ways!"..

"How can you pain me so, dear Jude, in my trouble! Yet I know you didn't mean it. But you **ought not to say** that."

"Well--I want to tell you something else, Jude. You won't be angry, will you? I have thought of it a good deal since my babies died. I don't think I **ought to be** your wife--or as your wife-- any longer."... "I don't dislike you, Jude," she said in a sweet and imploring voice. "I love you as much as ever! Only--I **ought not to love** you--any more. Oh I must not any more.

(Jude the Obscure by [Thomas Hardy](http://www.classicreader.com/book/65/45/), 2015 from:<http://www.classicreader.com/book/65/45/>)

2. EXPRESS

Activity 1 Comprehension questions:

1. What are all the things that are advisable to be done by Peter and Suzie for solving their problem?
.....
.....
2. What are all the things that Peter and Suzie expect(ed) to happen?
.....
.....

Appendices

3. What the world ought not to be?.....
4. What the free people ought not only to be?.....
5. What are all the suggestions that Fabienne made in her letter?
6. What happened to Sue?.....

Activity 2: Suppose a friend to you was thinking of doing the following things, what advice would you say to your friend?

Getting married-opening a vegetarian restaurant-becoming a teacher-leaving the country

.....

.....

.....

Activity 3: Write a suitable reply to one of these letters. Imagine that they were sent to you.

And I've become so dependent on them that I can't give them up. Yesterday I got through 3 whole packets! I've just got no willpower, as you know. What do you think I should do?

And my boss wants me to move to New York and take over our American branch. This would mean leaving all my friends and starting a new life. Perhaps I should tell him I'm not interested in promotion? What do you think?

Replies

.....

.....

.....

.....

Activity 4: Write a paragraph about what you think life ought to and ought not to be.

.....

.....

.....

.....

III Explain: What are the most important structures you have noticed today? Could you explain the way they work?

Appendices

Appendix 7: Pre- and Post- Tests Test 1: Present and Past Tenses

Part 1: Circle the correct form of the verbs (scored out of 20 points)

1. Diane can't come to the phone because she **washed /washes/is washing/was washing** her hair.
2. Maria **washes/has washed/is washing/washed** her hair every other day and so.
3. At this exact time I **am sitting/was sitting/had sitten/have sitten** in class yesterday.
4. I am upset! You **always complain/are always complaining/have always complained /have been always complaining** about my handwriting.
5. The company **are selling/sells/sold/was selling** half-price tickets to Spain this month.
6. This is my best friend I **knew/have known/know/had known** her for ten years.
7. My arm is painful. I **hurt / had hurt/have hurt/ have been hurting** it.
8. Picasso **has made/made/is making/has been making** mysterious paintings.
9. She was happy. She **has found/found/had found/finds** her dog.
10. He **visited/has visited/ has been visiting/ was visiting/** Spain twice so far.

Part 2: Circle the correct forms of the verbs. (scored out of 20)

11. **A)** I've heard you **work/are working/worked/have been working** in a company at the moment. Is it good?
B) No. Not really. I **didn't have/haven't had/don't have/am not having/** a holiday for a long time and I **worked /have worked/ have been working/am working** very hard. But this summer the company **gave me/had given/gives me/has given me** four weeks' holiday, so I want to go somewhere really exciting.
A/ What about your colleagues, **Do you like/are you liking /had you liked/ have you been liking** them?
B/ Yes, but some **are always moaning/ always moan/have always moaned/always moaned** about work. It really puts me off! Tell me about you.
A) Oh, yesterday was my first day in university. The classroom **was being/has been/had been/was** full of students. The students **talked/have been talking/were talking/have talked** different languages. It **was sounding/sounded/has sounded/has been sounding** like the United Nations. I **have chosen/chose/had chosen/was choosing** an empty seat in the last row.
12. Carol looked out of her window and **wondered/was wondering/has wondered/had wondered** what **happens/happened/was happening/had happened**. A yellow plane **moved along/was moving along/had moved along/has moved along** the runway ready to take off except that it **nearly hit/was nearly hitting/has nearly hit/ has been hitting/** another aircraft. **"We were not understanding/did not understand/haven't understood/don't understood** what the pilot **had been trying to do/has tried to do/was trying to do/had tried to do**.
A moment later she **has found/found/was finding/had found** the answer, as the pilot **rushed/has rushed/had been rushing/was rushing** into her office and **was calling/called/has called/had called** the emergency services. His plane **has left/had left/leaves/was leaving** without him.

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The pilot **had taken off/takes off/was taking off/ has taken off/** early in the morning but his plane began having mechanical trouble and as he landed at Grimes Field, the engine stopped- so got out to restart it...the engine started. And before he got back in, the plane began to move across the airfield.

Part 3: Tick (✓) the sentences which share the meaning with the sentences in bold. (scored out of 20)

- 1. I'm seeing Hiroki in the garden with flowers in his hands.**
a/ Hiroki smells the flowers .
b/Hiroki is smelling the flowers.
- 2. Half-price tickets are sold to America, but for one month only.**
a/ The airline sells half-price tickets to Japan.
b/The airline is selling half-price tickets to Japan.
- 3. Flying first class to Japan is very expensive.**
a/ It costs a fortune to fly first class to Japan.
b/It is costing a fortune to fly first class to Japan.
- 4. James is forever complaining about the noise in the neighbourhood!**
a/ I agree with him. I myself do not bear the noise.
b/ I no longer stand his moaning.
- 5. She has lived in London for a year.**
a/ Now she lives in Paris.
b/Now she lives in London.
- 6. She has been working for the same company for 10 years.**
a/ She worked in this company some years ago.
b/ She has just stopped working in this company.
- 7. She taught English for eight years.**
a/ She has just retired.
b/ She retired last year.
- 8. When they got back home in the evening, the dog had disappeared.**
a/ The dog disappeared after dinner.
b/ The dog was not at home when they came back.
- 9. When the police arrived, the thieves were getting ready to escape.**
a/ The thieves noticed the police.
b/ The thieves escaped well before the police came so they couldn't see them.
- 10. Leila has been watching TV all the afternoon.**
a/ Leila has spent the afternoon watching a film.
b/ Leila has watched a film and now is telling the film story to her sister.

Part 4: cross the mistakes out and write corrections below.

1. My brother is looking like my father but I am resembling my mother.
2. The bank increases the interests but just for a month. It is not generally doing that.
3. She has often been visiting Italy, but now she prefers to go elsewhere.
4. The guest arrived on time. I was getting changed, as soon as they arrived.

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5. Leila had been happy as she found her pet animal.
6. Esther Wenman, 30, worked at London Zoo for seven years. He is head keeper of reptiles.
7. Enough is enough you forever reproach me the lack of confidence!
8. Andrew Hayton has worked at Longleat Safari some years ago and now he is retired.
9. When I went to Paris, the Eifel Tower has been decorated. It was surrounded by barriers.
10. The avalanche has been claiming five hundred deaths.

Part 5: Writing activities (scored out of 40)

Topic one: Imagine you are in the classroom describing events happening around you. Write a paragraph using the information below in order given. Do not add any other information. (20 points)

1. Right now/ I/ to look/ around the classroom.
2. The teacher/just /to come/into the classroom.
3. She/ to look/tired/
4. I am /sure/She/ to run/
5. Carlos/to bite/ a pencil
6. He /to borrow/ the pencil from Ahmed
7. Ahmed/to stare/ out of the window
8. He/to seem/ to be daydreaming/
9. But perhaps/ he/ to think/ hard about verb tenses
10. What/you/to think/Ahmed/do?

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Topic two: In this story about an argument between neighbours, fill in the gaps using the verbs in the box. (20 points)

Garden grow cut down (+2) Get decide do go catch look

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2. A/Careful with my camera! B/ I **can't break /am not going to break/ won't break/ shouldn't break** it, promise!
3. It's raining, so she **needs probably/is probably going to/can probably/would probably** come by car.
4. I think people **work/will work / are working/ will have worked** from home in future.
5. Next year, I **will study/ am going to study/ study/ am studying** Business. I made my registration.
6. My plane **is going to leave/will have left/leaves/ should leave/** at 4:30. Look at the table!
7. Don't worry I **will tidy/will be tidying/ am going to tidy/ will have tidied** my room by the time your friends arrive.
8. It's nearly lunch time. My friend in USA **will get up / is getting up/ will be getting up/ gets up** now.
9. Moira **will have come around/will be coming around/has come around/would come around** for a meal this evening. I'll prepare the meal.
10. Lucky you! This time next week **you are going to lie /will lie / lie/will be lying/** on the beach.

Part 2: Circle the correct form of the verbs. (scored out of 20)

11. A: What **will you do/are you doing/ do you do/ will have you done/** at the weekend?
B: I haven't decided yet. Maybe I **am going to/ will go/ must go/ will be going** shopping. I **will meet/ am meeting/ might meet /may meet** my Friend Ali on Saturday and we **are deciding/will decide/decide/ will have decided/together**. What about you? **Will you do/are you doing/do you do/will you have done** anything interesting?
A: Oh, I **will go/will have gone/am going/ might go** to the country. My friend's got a house there
B: That sounds nice. **Can you drive/are you driving/ do you drive/must you drive/**? You've got a car, haven't you?
A: No, actually I haven't any more. It broke down. Oh, It's Thursday. The mechanic **will finish/will have finished/ is going to finish/will be finishing** repairing it by now. Anyway, I **will get/am getting/get/can get** the train to Boumerdes, which is the nearest town and my friend **will meet/is meeting/must/can meet** me.
B: Well, have a good time.
A: Thanks.
12. Scientists predict many advances in medicine over the next years. The role of the doctor **changes/will change/is being changed/is changing/** dramatically in the future. We **will no longer have / are no longer having/ no longer have/ will no longer have had/** our own doctor but we **will be contacting/ will have contacted/ are contacting/ contact** a doctor on the internet. In a few minutes the doctor **will be diagnosing/will have diagnosed/ is diagnosing/ should diagnose** your problem and told you what medicine is needed.

Other areas that **will have changed/change/are changing/will change/** in future include old age. Scientists predict that in 50 years' time people **will be dying/will have died/are dying/die** at a much older age than now. By the year 2050, we **will all be**

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living/ will all have lived/ will all live/ are living/ at least 100. By 2050, scientists **will have found/ will be finding/ will find/are finding /** cures for illnesses such as Parkinson's, and other illnesses **become/will have become/are becoming/should become** easier to avoid because of genetic knowledge. People **will be having/will have had/are having/ must have** children later in life because the 'biological clock' will no longer be a problem.

Part 3: Tick (✓) the sentences which share the meaning with the sentences in bold. (scored out of 20)

- 13. I'm going to make some bread. Oh I need flour. I'll buy it now.**
a/ I already bought the ingredients and I am about to make the bread.
b/ I haven't yet bought the ingredients but I have just thought of making it.
- 14. I have a car but I am going to sell it. I think I'll buy a Peugeot.**
a/ I put a notice of sale on my car.
b/ I am thinking about putting a notice of sale on my car.
- 15. a/ We are moving to a new apartment. b/ I'll help you on moving day.**
a/ yesterday, I thought about helping them.
b/ I haven't thought about helping them.
- 16. I am making seafood pasta for dinner tonight.**
a/ It is ready to be served.
b/ It is not yet prepared.
- 17. Is it 5:00 already? That means that Grace will be leaving work.**
a/ Grace will leave work later.
b/ Grace is leaving work now.
- 18. I'll be seeing Terry tomorrow.**
a/ We both know that we are going to meet.
b/ I have just decided to meet Terry.
- 19. Phil will have completed his course by this time next month.**
a/ Phil completes his course this time next month.
b/ Phil completes his course before this time next month.
- 20. Maddie will have met Peter at the airport by now.**
a/ Maddie has met Peter.
b/ Maddie will meet Peter.

Part 4: Find and correct the errors in the following sentences. Write the corrections below the mistakes. (scored out of 20)

- Lucky Ruth. Her flight left this morning so she will arrive in Jamaica by now.
- Well, we will be finishing this by the time he's ready to answer the phone, so that's no good.
- I will have joined the family company when I have got my degree.
- In two years' time, I expect we are still going to study English here.
- Don't call Lorenzo now. He is going to watch that stupid program, I'm sure. Call him later.

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6. They came and asked for people to help immediately, so Jenny jumped up and said, 'I do it!'
7. I can't believe that you will sit on a plane to Malta while I'm driving to work tomorrow.
8. When he is released next week, Pat McGuire will spend almost five years in prison for his crime.
9. It's probably too late to phone Martha. Do you think she'll go to bed by now?
10. I'm not sure, but I guess it's raining later this afternoon. I'll cancel my visit to the museum.

Part 5: writing activities (scored out of 40)

Topic one: write a dialogue using information given in the sentences below in the order given. Do not add any other information. (20 points)

Mary: What/to wear/ to the wedding of Julia and Karl?

Peter: I/ not to know /I/ to think / I/ to wear /my suit/ what about you?

Mary: I/ to have/ no idea/ about what/ I / to do/. I /to suppose/ I / to buy something new/.
You/to buy/them/a present?

Peter: 'no' /but/ I / to know/ what / I /to get/ them. I / to offer them/ a painting.

Mary: great/I / to be sure/ they/ to love it.

Peter: You/ to get/them anything yet?

Mary: 'no' but / I /to order/ a cookbook /for Julia/ but/ I/ just/ not to have time/ to pick it up/

Peter: I /to get it/ for you/if you like/ I/ to go to town.

Mary: thanks/I/ to need /to go/ to town/ so /I/ to do it then/.

Peter: Why/you/ not to come with me/ I/ to do shopping.

Topic two: Complete the dialogue below using the verbs from the box. (20 points)

travel stay be reach arrive marry call drive start do

Bob: My holidaytomorrow. I wonder what Iat six o'clock

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Test 3: Modal verbs

Part 1: Circle the correct form of the verbs (scored out of 20)

1. A/ I **could persuade/managed to persuade/must persuade/should persuade** him to come to the restaurant with us. It wasn't an easy matter. B/ You are like my sister. She **must/managed to/could/may convince** anybody to go out with her. She never went out alone.
2. A/ Shhh! Someone **may be/must be/ might be/ could be listening!** I'm sure I heard someone in the next room.
3. They **may not be/ shouldn't be/mightn't be/couldn't be** ready to talk to you. Look they are still busy with office work.
4. He **must be/could be/ ought to/ should be/** the right person for this job. We need to interview him.
5. He **mustn't have been/can't have been /mightn't have been/couldn't have been/** the murderer. His feet looked bigger than the footprints found at the scene of the crime.
6. Some vegetables **had better not/ shouldn't/can't/needn't/ be grown** in direct sunlight. It will damage their leaves.
7. A/ I **should receive/should have received/ ought to receive/must have received/** the reply from my doctor by now. B/ Oh! I met your doctor and I am sorry to tell you that you **have to make/ must make/ought to make/can make** the heart operation. It is your doctor's decision.
8. You **mustn't/needn't/can't/mightn't** smoke here. It is prohibited.
9. You **do not need to/mustn't/shouldn't/can't** be young to practice sport.
10. I think she **must be/can be/have to be/need to be/** very poor because she has bought that cheap book.

Part 2 Circle the correct forms of the verbs. (scored out of 20)

11. **Host:** What's the capital city of South Africa? Is it Cape Town, Pretoria or Johannesburg?
John: I don't know. It **/could be/must be/should be/has to be/** Cape Town.
Diana: No, it **can't b/mustn't be/mightn't be/shouldn't be** Cape Town because that's on the coast and I'm sure the capital city isn't on the coast. So it **can't be/ could be/should be/must be/** Pretoria or Johannesburg. Can we have a clue?
Host: Yes, okay. It isn't Johannesburg.
Paul: Then it **could be/must be/ought to be/can be** Pretoria.
12. Life was very hard when I moved to a big city. I **couldn't adapt/couldn't have adapted/mustn't have adapted/might not adapt** to my new environment. One day, I went out of the house but I **couldn't know/didn't manage to know/mightn't know/can't have known** how to get around the city so I went back home. I thought strangers **had better not to/shouldn't/ mightn't/can't** venture in big cities.
13. If you listen to the advice of a superstitious person you **may/might/can/had better** be ready to pay attention to what you're doing each day. You'll be told "you **can't/may not/might not/shouldn't** open the umbrella", "Did you spilt any salt recently, you know you **could have done/should have done/must have done/may have done** it." And remember that you **ought not to be/may not be/mustn't be/cannot be** careless with a mirror. If you do not follow the advice you **should/ can/must/could** expect bad things to

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- happen to you. And you'll be told that you **ought to have followed/ ought to follow/need to have followed/must have followed** the advice.
14. MI5 is sending out a recruitment brochure to universities to attract students into spying. It says agents **need to/may/can/ought to** have imagination and patience, but **must keep/ought to keep/can keep/could keep** a low profile. You **needn't be/don't need to be/can't be/may not be** like James Bond to be chosen. In fact, you **mustn't/can't/may not/shouldn't/** be too out going. It's not allowed. **You also need to be /might be/can be/ ought to be** very available. You have such a profile, you **have to be/may/can/need to be** recruited.

**Part 3: Tick (✓) the sentences which share the meaning with the sentences in bold.
(scored out of 20)**

1. **He might visit her grandmother every Sunday.**
a/ I remember it well.
b/ I can't remember.
2. **He can't be the main actor of 'Titanic'.**
a/ I am certain he is not.
b/ Not sure if he is.
3. **He must have come earlier to the meeting.**
a/ He was obliged to come earlier.
b/ He certainly came earlier.
4. **He should have written the accident report by now.**
a/ Normally, they wrote the report.
b/ They had to write the report.
5. **The small part of the picture could be a boat.**
a/ I am sure.
b/ Perhaps.
6. **You needn't attend the catch up session.**
a/ Do not come, you are not allowed to.
b/ You may come if you like, but you aren't obliged to.
7. **He managed to speak Japanese**
a/ He never imagined to be able to do it.
b/ It was so easy for him as he was used to it.
8. **You'd better not walk under a ladder.**
a/ I wouldn't do it if I were you.
b/ I prohibit you from doing it.
9. **I must see the film producer.**
a/ I'll claim my money.
b/ They are proposing to me a new work.
10. **I have to stay in bed until recovery.**
a/ My doctor warned me to keep to bed.
b/ I feel tired so I think I should keep to bed.

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Part 4: identify mistakes and write corrections below. Write the corrections below the mistakes. (scored out of 20)

1. It was a bad accident. We can have been killed.
2. They can be going to increase airport fees to pay for increased security.
3. Don't turn off the computer yet. Someone can still be using it.
4. Yesterday, he could rescue a girl from the pond.
5. We have already washed all the dinner dishes so you mustn't clean them tonight.
6. I'm sure you needn't be over 20 to go into a pub here, but we must ask someone.
7. Look at the jam bottle label. It says we needn't use it after the third of April.
8. To work in a theatre, you mustn't have any formal qualification.
9. I sent you my application a month ago. So you would have received it by now.
10. These mustn't be bones of a dinosaur, because they are not very old.

Part 5: Writing activities (scored out of 40)

Topic one: Fill in the gaps with appropriate modal verbs according to instructions inserted between parentheses. (20 points)

When you study, you **(1)** (give advice)..... choose a quiet place. You **(2)** (express ability)..... study at home or in the library. You **(3)** (express very weak possibility)..... set a schedule, so you study at the same time every day. Forming a study group with other students **(4)** (express a strong possibility)..... help you. You **(5)** (express that you find it necessary that they learn) learn effective study strategies if you want to succeed in college. A student's life **(6)** (express ability).....be very busy. Many students **(7)** (express necessity but not from your point of view) work as well as study. You **(8)** (express strong possibility)feel stress sometimes. However, you **(9)** (express necessity from your point of view)stay focused. Plan enough time for studying. On the other hand, stay healthy. Therefore, you **(10)** (Express advice) to get enough sleep, too

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Topic two: Helen Roberts is being interviewed for a secretarial job. Fill in the missing words in the conversation with modals of ability, weak possibility and expectation. (20 points)

Helen Roberts: Good morning. My name is Helen Roberts.

Personnel manager: Please sit down. I'm Martin Philips, the Personnel Manager. First I should apologize for having delayed this interview. You **1**.....had it well before but we've been very busy recently. Now I'd like to ask you a few questions. I see from your application that you **2**.....type and you're also **3**.....to take shorthand.

Helen Roberts: Yes, that's right. **4**.....to reach a speed of sixty words per minute.

Personnel Manager: Good. If you **5**.....to get the job we **6**.....also want you to deal with telephone enquiries from the public. Will you be able to handle these situations?

Helen Roberts: Yes, I generally **7**.....to keep calm under pressure.

Personnel Manager: You **8**.....to have certainly heard about the difficulty of such a job.

Helen Roberts: Yes, sure.

Personnel Manager: One other thing. I take it you know how to operate office equipment, photocopiers and so on.

Helen Roberts: Yes, **9**.....operate all the basic equipment.

Personnel Manager: Well. Thank you very much for coming Miss Roberts. You **10**.....to receive a final decision tomorrow.

Part 6: Writing activities (scored out of 40)

Topic one: Imagine you are writing an email to aliens arriving from another planet. Write some instructions 1) about what is necessary for them to do once they are on earth, 2) about what is advisable to do and 3) what is prohibited. (20 points)

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Appendix 8: Results of Classroom Observation

Group: 1 Unit: Noun Date: 30th November 2016 Visit No.1 Hour: 2hours

Teacher 1

Observation frameworks	Time	Occurrence
<p>Stage one: Grammar presentation</p> <p>1. The way the teacher presents the lesson</p> <p>A. The teacher presents the structure and explains the rule.</p> <p>B. The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules</p> <p>C. The teacher provides rules without examples</p> <p>D. The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules</p> <p>Others: Students explain grammatical concepts based on previous research as required by the teacher</p> <p>2. Context of the new structure presentation.</p> <p>A. The structure is presented in one sentence</p> <p>B. The structure is presented in more separate sentences</p> <p>C. The structure is presented in text (discourse)</p> <p>Others: The structure is presented in words</p> <p>3. Type of materials used in presenting the new structure.</p> <p>A. Non-real life materials are used</p> <p>B. Real-life materials are used</p> <p>C. Simplified (adapted) materials are used</p> <p>4. The focus of the teaching of the new structure</p> <p>A. The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology</p> <p>B. The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology</p>	1 h:30	<p>√√√√√√</p> <p>√</p> <p>√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√</p>

Appendices

Group: 1 Unit: past simple/past continuous Date 08 January 2017 Visit No. 2

Hour: 3 hours

Teacher 1

Observation frameworks	Time	Occurrence
<p>Stage one: Grammar presentation</p> <p>1. The way the teacher presents the lesson</p> <p>A.The teacher presents the structure and explains the rule.</p> <p>B.The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules</p> <p>C.The teacher provides rules without examples</p> <p>D.The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules</p> <p>Others: Checks previous knowledge about the rule</p> <p>2. Context of the new structure presentation.</p> <p>A.The structure is presented in one sentence</p> <p>B.The structure is presented in more separate sentences</p> <p>C.The structure is presented in text (discourse)</p> <p>Others: The structure is presented in a diagram</p> <p>3. Type of materials used in presenting the new structure.</p> <p>A.Non-real life</p> <p>B.Real-life</p> <p>C.Simplified (adapted)</p> <p>4. The focus of the teaching of the new structure</p> <p>A.The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology</p> <p>B.The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology</p>	1 h:30	<p>√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√</p> <p>√√</p> <p>√√√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√√</p> <p>√</p>
<p>Stage two: Grammar practice</p>		

Appendices

Group: 1 Unit: Future expressions/future progressive Date January 2017 Visit No.

3 Hour: 3 hours

Teacher 1

Observation frameworks	Time	Occurrence
<p>Stage one: Grammar presentation</p> <p>1. The way the teacher presents the lesson</p> <p>A. The teacher presents the structure and explains the rule.</p> <p>B. The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules</p> <p>C. The teacher provides rules without examples</p> <p>D. The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules</p> <p>Others: Check previous knowledge about the rule, draws a diagram and elicit knowledge from students</p> <p>2. Context of the new structure presentation.</p> <p>A. The structure is presented in one sentence</p> <p>B. The structure is presented in more separate sentences</p> <p>C. The structure is presented in text (discourse)</p> <p>Others: The structure is presented in a diagram</p> <p>3. Type of materials used in presenting the new structure.</p> <p>A. Non-real life</p> <p>B. Real-life</p> <p>C. Simplified (adapted)</p> <p>4. The focus of the teaching of the new structure</p> <p>A. The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology</p> <p>B. The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology</p>	1 h:30	<p>√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√√</p> <p>√</p>

Appendices

Group: 1 Unit: mixed tenses January 15th, 2017 Visit No. 4 Hour: 3 hours

Teacher 1

Observation frameworks	Time	Occurrence
<p>Stage one: Grammar presentation</p> <p>1. The way the teacher presents the lesson</p> <p>A.The teacher presents the structure and explains the rule.</p> <p>B.The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules</p> <p>C.The teacher provides rules without examples</p> <p>D.The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules</p> <p>Others:draws a diagram and gives examples</p> <p>2. Context of the new structure presentation.</p> <p>A.The structure is presented in one sentence</p> <p>B.The structure is presented in more separate sentences</p> <p>C.The structure is presented in text (discourse)</p> <p>Others: The structure is presented in words</p> <p>3. Type of materials used in presenting the new structure.</p> <p>A.Non-real life</p> <p>B.Real-life</p> <p>C.Simplified (adapted)</p> <p>4. The focus of the teaching of the new structure</p> <p>A.The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology</p> <p>B.The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology</p>	<p>1h30 mns</p>	<p>√√√√√</p> <p>√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√</p> <p>√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√</p>

Appendices

<p>Stage two: Grammar practice</p> <p>5. Type of the exercises</p> <p>a/ Mechanical drill exercises</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. fill in the gaps b. multiple choice answers c. sentence completion d. Sentence transformation e. sentence matching f. substitution g. error identification and correction <p>Others:</p> <p>b/Meaningful activities.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Story telling b. Story reconstruction in writing c. writing letters and exchanging them d. introducing oneself orally e. writing/talking about personal events f. using oral interviews g. using information-gap tasks <p>Others:</p> <p>6. Type of context</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Sentence level exercises b. Dialogues c. Paragraphs d. Two or more paragraph text <p>7. Type of material</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Real-life b. Non-real life c. Simplified (adapted) <p>8. Classwork pattern</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. individual practice b. peer practice c. group practice <p>9. Practice focus</p> <p>a./ activities focus on the forms in decontextualized exercises.</p> <p>b./ activities focus on content in meaningful activities.</p>	<p>1h50m ns</p>	<p>√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√</p> <p>√</p> <p>√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√</p> <p>√</p>
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Appendices

Group: 2 Unit: Noun Date: 30thOctobre 2016 Visit No.1 Hour: 1:30

Teacher 2

Observation frameworks	Time	Occurrence
<p>Stage one: Grammar presentation</p> <p>1. The way the teacher presents the lesson</p> <p>A. The teacher presents the structure and explains the rule.</p> <p>B. The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules</p> <p>C. The teacher provides rules without examples</p> <p>D. The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules</p> <p>2. Context of the new structure presentation.</p> <p>A. The structure is presented in one sentence</p> <p>B. The structure is presented in more separate sentences</p> <p>C. The structure is presented in text (discourse)</p> <p>Others: The structure is presented in words</p> <p>3. Type of materials used in presenting the new structure.</p> <p>A. Real-life</p> <p>B. Non-real life</p> <p>C. Simplified (adapted)</p> <p>4. The focus of the teaching of the new structure</p> <p>A. The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology</p> <p>B. The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology</p>	1 hour	<p>√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√√</p> <p></p> <p></p> <p></p> <p></p> <p></p> <p>√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√</p> <p></p> <p>√</p> <p></p> <p>√</p>

Appendices

Stage two: Grammar practice		
5.Type of the exercises		
a/ Mechanical drill exercises		
a. fill in the gaps	30 mns	
b. multiple choice answers		
c. sentence completion		
d. Sentence transformation		
e. sentence matching		
f. substitution	15mns	
g. error identification and correction		√√
Others:		
b/Meaningful activities.		
a. Story telling		
b. Story reconstruction in writing		
c. writing letters and exchanging them		
d. introducing oneself orally		
e. writing/talking about personal events		
f. using oral interviews		
g. using information-gap tasks		
Others: Word search grid		
6.Type of context		
a. Sentence level exercises		√
b. Dialogues		
c. Paragraphs	15mns	√
d. Two or more paragraph text		
Others: e. Words		
7.Type of material		
a. Real-life		√√√
b. Non-real life		
c. Simplified (adapted)		√√√
8.Classwork pattern		
a. individual practice		
b. peer practice		
c. group practice		√√√
9.Practice focus		
a./ activities focus on the forms in decontextualized exercises.		
b./ activities focus on content in meaningful activities.		

Appendices

Group 2 Unit Articles Date 7th November, 2016 Visit No 2 .Time 3hours

Teacher 2

Observation frameworks	Time	Occurrence
<p>Stage one: Grammar presentation</p> <p>1. The way the teacher presents the lesson</p> <p>A. The teacher presents the structure and explains the rule.</p> <p>B. The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules</p> <p>C. The teacher provides rules without examples</p> <p>D. The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules</p> <p>Others : Students read from a handout to find out other rules</p> <p>2. Context of the new structure presentation.</p> <p>A. The structure is presented in one sentence</p> <p>B. The structure is presented in more separate sentences</p> <p>C. The structure is presented in text (discourse)</p> <p>3. Type of materials used in presenting the new structure.</p> <p>A.Non-real</p> <p>B.Real-life</p> <p>C.Simplified (adapted)</p> <p>4.The focus of the teaching of the new structure</p> <p>A.The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology</p> <p>B.The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology</p>	<p>1h 50 mns</p>	<p>√√√√√√√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√√</p> <p>√</p> <p>√√√√√√√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√</p>

Appendices

<p>Stage two: Grammar practice</p> <p>5.Type of the exercises</p> <p>a/ Mechanical drill exercises</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. fill in the gaps b. multiple choice answers c. sentence completion d. Sentence transformation e. sentence matching f. substitution g. error identification and correction <p>b/Meaningful activities.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Story telling b. Story reconstruction in writing c. writing letters and exchanging them d. introducing oneself orally e. writing/talking about personal events f. using oral interviews g. using information-gap tasks <p>6.Type of context</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Sentence level exercises b. Dialogues c. Paragraphs d. Two or more paragraph text <p>7.Type of material</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Real-life b. Non-real life c. Simplified (adapted) <p>8.Classwork pattern</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. individual practice b. peer practice c. group practice <p>9.Practice focus</p> <p>a./ activities focus on the forms in decontextualized exercises.</p> <p>b./ activities focus on content in meaningful activities.</p>	<p>1h30</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> √ √√ √ √√ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> √√√√√ √ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> √√√√√√ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> √√√√√√ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> √
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Appendices

Group: 2 Unit: Present simple/present continuous Date: 08 January 2017 Visit No.3

Hour: 3 hours

Teacher 2

Observation frameworks	Time	Occurrence
<p>Stage one: Grammar presentation</p> <p>1. The way the teacher presents the lesson</p> <p>A.The teacher presents the structure and explains the rule.</p> <p>B.The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules</p> <p>C.The teacher provides rules without examples</p> <p>D.The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">Others:</p> <p>2. Context of the new structure presentation.</p> <p>A.The structure is presented in one sentence</p> <p>B.The structure is presented in more separate sentences</p> <p>C.The structure is presented in text (discourse)</p> <p>Others:</p> <p>3. Type of materials used in presenting the new structure.</p> <p>A.Non-real life materials are used</p> <p>B.Real-life materials are used</p> <p>C.Simplified (adapted)</p> <p>4.The focus of the teaching of the new structure</p> <p>A.The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology</p> <p>B.The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology</p>	45 mns	<p>√√√√</p> <p>√√√</p> <p></p> <p></p> <p></p> <p></p> <p></p> <p>√√√√√√√√</p> <p></p> <p>√√√√√√√√</p> <p></p> <p>√</p>

Appendices

Group: 2 Unit: Present simple/present continuous Date: 15 January 2017 Visit No.4

Hour: 3 hours

Teacher 2

Observation frameworks	Time	Occurrence
<p>Stage one: Grammar presentation</p> <p>1. The way the teacher presents the lesson</p> <p>A.The teacher presents the structure and explains the rule.</p> <p>B.The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules</p> <p>C.The teacher provides rules without examples</p> <p>D.The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">Others:</p> <p>2. Context of the new structure presentation.</p> <p>A.The structure is presented in one sentence</p> <p>B.The structure is presented in more separate sentences</p> <p>C.The structure is presented in text (discourse)</p> <p>Others:</p> <p>3. Type of materials used in presenting the new structure.</p> <p>A.Non-real life materials are used</p> <p>B.Real-life materials are used</p> <p>C.Simplified (adapted)</p> <p>4. The focus of the teaching of the new structure</p> <p>A.The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology</p> <p>B.The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology</p>	1h30	<p>√√√</p> <p>√√√√</p> <p></p> <p></p> <p></p> <p>√√√√√√√</p> <p></p> <p>√√√√√√√</p> <p></p> <p>√</p>

Appendices

Group: 3 Unit: Present simple and present continuous Date: 30th November 2016

Visit No.1 Hour: 2hours

Teacher 3

Observation frameworks	Time	Occurrence
<p>Stage one: Grammar presentation</p> <p>1. The way the teacher presents the lesson</p> <p>A.The teacher presents the structure and explains the rule. B.The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules C.The teacher provides rules without examples D.The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules</p> <p>Others</p> <p>2. Context of the new structure presentation.</p> <p>A.The structure is presented in one sentence B.The structure is presented in more separate sentences C.The structure is presented in text (discourse)</p> <p>Others: The structure is presented in words</p> <p>3. Type of materials used in presenting the new structure.</p> <p>A.Non-real life materials are used B.Real-life materials are used C.Simplified (adapted)</p> <p>4. The focus of the teaching of the new structure</p> <p>A.The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology B.The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology</p>	<p>1h 10mns</p>	<p>√√√√√√√√ √ √√√ √√√√√√ √√√√√√√√ √</p>
<p>Stage two: Grammar practice</p>		

Appendices

Group: 3 Unit: past simple & present perfect Date: 30th November 2016 Visit No.2

Hour: 2hours

Teacher 3

Observation frameworks	Time	Occurrence
<p>Stage one: Grammar presentation</p> <p>1. The way the teacher presents the lesson</p> <p>A.The teacher presents the structure and explains the rule.</p> <p>B.The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules</p> <p>C.The teacher provides rules without examples</p> <p>D.The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules</p> <p>Others</p> <p>2. Context of the new structure presentation.</p> <p>A.The structure is presented in one sentence</p> <p>B.The structure is presented in more separate sentences</p> <p>C.The structure is presented in text (discourse)</p> <p>Others: The structure is presented in diagram</p> <p>The structure is presented in words</p> <p>3. Type of materials used in presenting the new structure.</p> <p>A.Non-real life materials are used</p> <p>B.Real-life materials are used</p> <p>C.Simplified (adapted)</p> <p>4. The focus of the teaching of the new structure</p> <p>A.The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology</p> <p>B.The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology</p>	2h	<p>√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√</p> <p>√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√</p> <p>√</p>

Appendices

<p>Stage two: Grammar practice</p> <p>5. Type of the exercises</p> <p>a/ Mechanical drill exercises</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. fill in the gaps b. multiple choice answers c. sentence completion d. Sentence transformation e. sentence matching f. substitution g. error identification and correction <p style="text-align: center;">Others:</p> <p>b/Meaningful activities.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Story telling b. Story reconstruction in writing c. writing letters and exchanging them d. introducing oneself orally e. writing/talking about personal events f. using oral interviews g. using information-gap tasks <p style="text-align: center;">Others:</p> <p>6. Type of context</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Sentence level exercises b. Dialogues c. Paragraphs d. Two or more paragraph text <p>7./ Type of material</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Real-life b. Non-real life c. Simplified (adapted) <p>8./Classwork pattern</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. individual practice b. peer practice c. group practice <p>9./Practice focus</p> <p>a./ activities focus on the forms in decontextualized exercises.</p> <p>b./ activities focus on content in meaningful activities.</p>	<p>1h</p>	<p>√√√</p> <p>√√√</p> <p>√√√</p> <p>√√√</p> <p>√</p>
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Appendices

Group: 3 Unit: Future Date: 30th November 2016 Visit No.3 Hour: 3 hours
Class 3, Teacher 3

Observation frameworks	Time	Occurrence
<p>Stage one: Grammar presentation</p> <p>1. The way the teacher presents the lesson</p> <p>A.The teacher presents the structure and explains the rule. B.The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules C.The teacher provides rules without examples D.The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules</p> <p>2. Context of the new structure presentation.</p> <p>A.The structure is presented in one sentence B.The structure is presented in more separate sentences C.The structure is presented in text (discourse)</p> <p>Others: The structure is presented in words</p> <p>3. Type of materials used in presenting the new structure.</p> <p>A.Non-real life materials are used B.Real-life materials are used C.Simplified (adapted)</p> <p>4. The focus of the teaching of the new structure</p> <p>A.The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology B.The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology</p>	2h	<p>√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√</p> <p>√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√</p>

Appendices

Group: 3 Unit: future perfect & continuous Date: 30th November 2016 Visit

No.4 Hour: 2hours

Teacher 3

Observation frameworks	Time	Occurrence
<p>Stage one: Grammar presentation</p> <p>1. The way the teacher presents the lesson</p> <p>A.The teacher presents the structure and explains the rule.</p> <p>B.The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules</p> <p>C.The teacher provides rules without examples</p> <p>D.The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules</p> <p>2. Context of the new structure presentation.</p> <p>A.The structure is presented in one sentence</p> <p>B.The structure is presented in more separate sentences</p> <p>C.The structure is presented in text (discourse)</p> <p>Others: The structure is presented in diagram</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">The structure is presented in words</p> <p>3. Type of materials used in presenting the new structure.</p> <p>A.Non-real life materials are used</p> <p>B.Real-life materials are used</p> <p>C.Simplified (adapted)</p> <p>4. The focus of the teaching of the new structure</p> <p>A.The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology</p> <p>B.The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology</p>	<p>2h</p> <p>15mn</p>	<p>√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√</p> <p></p> <p></p> <p>√√√√√√√</p> <p></p> <p>√</p> <p>√√√√</p> <p></p> <p>√√√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√√</p> <p></p> <p>√</p>

Appendices

Group: 4 Unit: Present simple/Present continuous Date: 4 January 2017 Visit No.1

Hour: 3hours

Teacher 4

Observation frameworks	Time	Occurrence
<p>Stage one: Grammar presentation</p> <p>1. The way the teacher presents the lesson</p> <p>A.The teacher presents the structure and explains the rule. B.The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules C.The teacher provides rules without examples D.The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules</p> <p>Others: The teacher provides rules then gives examples</p> <p>2. Context of the new structure presentation.</p> <p>A.The structure is presented in one sentence B.The structure is presented in more separate sentences C.The structure is presented in text (discourse)</p> <p>Others: The structure is presented as a rule not within examples</p> <p>3. Type of materials used in presenting the new structure.</p> <p>A.Non-real life materials are used B.Real-life materials are used C.Simplified (adapted)</p> <p>4. The focus of the teaching of the new structure</p> <p>A.The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology B.The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology</p>	<p>50 mns</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">√√√√√√√√√√√√√√</p> <p style="text-align: center;">√√√√√√√√√√√√√√</p> <p style="text-align: center;">√√√√√√√√√√√√√√</p> <p style="text-align: center;">√</p>

Appendices

Group: 4 Unit: Past simple/past continuous Date: 11 January 2017 Visit No.2

Hour: 1h30

Teacher 4

Observation frameworks	Time	Occurrence
<p>Stage one: Grammar presentation</p> <p>1.The way the teacher presents the lesson</p> <p>A. The teacher presents the structure and explains the rule.</p> <p>B. The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules</p> <p>C. The teacher provides rules without examples</p> <p>D. The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules</p> <p>Others: E. The teacher reads the rules from a textbook, then provides examples and let students extract the rules.</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">F. The students reads the rules and examples from a handout then the teacher explains.</p> <p>2. Context of the new structure presentation.</p> <p>A.The structure is presented in one sentence</p> <p>B.The structure is presented in more separate sentences</p> <p>C.The structure is presented in text (discourse)</p> <p>Others:</p> <p>3. Type of materials used in presenting the new structure.</p> <p>A.Non-real life materials are used</p> <p>B.Real-life materials are used</p> <p>C.Simplified (adapted)</p> <p>4. The focus of the teaching of the new structure</p> <p>A.The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology</p> <p>B.The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology</p>	<p>1k 10 mns</p>	<p>√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√</p> <p>√√√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√</p> <p>√</p>

Appendices

<p>Stage two: Grammar practice</p> <p>5. Type of the exercises</p> <p>a/ Mechanical drill exercises</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. fill in the gaps b. multiple choice answers c. sentence completion d. Sentence transformation e. sentence matching f. substitution g. error identification and correction <p style="text-align: center;">Others:</p> <p>b/Meaningful activities.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Story telling b. Story reconstruction in writing c. writing letters and exchanging them d. introducing oneself orally e. writing/talking about personal events f. using oral interviews g. using information-gap tasks <p>6.Type of context</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Sentence level exercises b. Dialogues c. Paragraphs d. Two or more paragraph text <p>Others: e. Words</p> <p>7.Type of material</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Real-life b. Non-real life c. Simplified (adapted) <p>8.Classwork pattern</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. individual practice b. peer practice c. group practice <p>9.Practice focus</p> <p>a./ activities focus on the forms in decontextualized exercises.</p> <p>b./ activities focus on content in meaningful activities.</p>	<p>20 mns</p>	<p>√√</p> <p>√√</p> <p>√√</p> <p>√√</p> <p>√√</p> <p>√√</p> <p>√√</p>
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Appendices

Group: 4 Unit: Present perfect/Past simple Date: 11 January 2017 Visit No.3

Hour: 1h 30mns

Teacher 4

Observation frameworks	Time	Occurrence
<p>Stage one: Grammar presentation</p> <p>1. / The way the teacher presents the lesson</p> <p>A.The teacher presents the structure, and explains the rule. B.The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules C.The teacher provides rules without examples D.The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules</p> <p>Others:E.The teacher provides the rules, gives examples F.The teacher asks questions about previous knowledge of rule</p> <p>2. Context of the new structure presentation.</p> <p>A.The structure is presented in one sentence B.The structure is presented in more separate sentences C.The structure is presented in text (discourse)</p> <p>Others: The structure is presented as a rule not within examples (for state verbs)</p> <p>3. Type of materials used in presenting the new structure.</p> <p>A.Non-real life materials are used B.Real-life materials are used C.Simplified (adapted)</p> <p>4. The focus of the teaching of the new structure</p> <p>A.The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology B.The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology</p>	30 mns	<p>√√√√√</p> <p>√√</p> <p>√√√√√</p> <p>√√</p> <p>√√√√√√√√</p> <p>√</p>

Appendices

Group: 4 Unit: Present perfect/Past simple Date: 18 January 2017 Visit No.4

Hour: 1h 30mns

Teacher 4

Observation frameworks	Time	Occurrence
<p>Stage one: Grammar presentation</p> <p>1./ The way the teacher presents the lesson</p> <p>A.The teacher presents the structure, and explains the rule.</p> <p>B.The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules</p> <p>C.The teacher provides rules without examples</p> <p>D.The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">Others:</p> <p>2./Context of the new structure presentation.</p> <p>A.The structure is presented in one sentence</p> <p>B.The structure is presented in more separate sentences</p> <p>C.The structure is presented in text (discourse)</p> <p>Others:</p> <p>3./Type of materials used in presenting the new structure.</p> <p>A.Non-real life materials are used</p> <p>B.Real-life materials are used</p> <p>C.Simplified (adapted)</p> <p>4./The focus of the teaching of the new structure</p> <p>A.The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology</p> <p>B.The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology</p>	30 mns	<p>√√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√√</p> <p>√√√√√√√</p> <p>√</p>

Appendices

Appendix 9: Summary of the Results of the Classroom Observation

In what follows we sum up data collected from the classroom observation sessions carried out in the four grammar classes (see appendix 8). Here we present a summary of data of the four sessions carried out in each classroom using the observation scheme used in the observation sessions. We shall refer to the different classes and teachers as follows: C1, T1 (stands for Class1, Teacher 1), C2, T2 (stands for Class 2, Teacher 2), C3, T3 (stands for Class 3, Teacher 3) and C4, T4 (stands for Class 4, Teacher 4), and S stands for session. The ticks represent the occurrence of an observed event.

1. Results of the Classroom Observation of C 1, T 1

STAGE ONE : Grammar Presentation				
1.The way the teacher presents the lesson	S1	S2	S3	S4
A.The teacher presents examples and explains the rule	√	√	√	√
B.The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules				
C.The teacher provides rules without examples	√			
D.The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules				
Others:				
E. The teacher elicits previous knowledge of rules from students	√	√		
2. Context of the new structure presentation	S1	S2	S3	S4
A.The structure is presented in one sentence	√	√	√	√
B.The structure is presented in more separate sentences				
C. The structure is presented in text				
Others:				
D. The structure is presented in words	√			√
E. The structure is presented in a diagram		√	√	
3.Type of materials used in presenting the new structure	S1	S2	S3	S4

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A. Non-real life materials	√	√	√	√
B. Real-life materials are used				
C. Simplified (adapted) materials are used				
4.The focus of the teaching of the new structure	S1	S2	S3	S4
A. The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology	√	√	√	√
B. The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology				
STAGE TWO: Grammar Practice				
5.Type of the exercises	S1	S2	S3	S4
A. Mechanical drill exercises				
a. Fill in the gaps	√	√	√	√
b. Multiple choice answers		√	√	
c. Sentence completion				
d. Sentence transformation				
e. Sentence matching				
f. Substitution				
g. Error identification				
Others:				
h. Classification	√			
A. Meaningful activities				
a. Story telling	S1	S2	S3	S4
b. Story reconstruction				
c. Writing letters and exchanging them				
d. Introducing oneself orally				
e. Writing/talking about personal events				
f. Using oral interviews				
g. Using information-gap tasks				
1. Type of context				
A. sentence-level exercises		√	√	√
B. Dialogues				√

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C.paragraphs	√	√	√	
D.two or more paragraph text				
Others	√			
E. words				
2. Type of materials	S1	S2	S3	S4
A.Real-life				
B.Non-real life	√	√	√	√
C.Simolified (adapted)				
3. Classwork pattern	S1	S2	S3	S4
A.Individual practice	√	√	√	√
B.Peer practice				
C.Group practice				
4. Practice focus	S1	S2	S3	S4
A.Activities focus on the forms in decontextualized exercises	√	√	√	√
B.Activities focus on content in meaningful activities				

2. Results of Classroom Observation of C 2, T 2

STAGE ONE : Grammar Presentation				
1.The way the teacher presents the lesson	S1	S2	S3	S4
A.The teacher presents examples and explains the rule	√		√	√
B.The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules	√	√	√	√
C.The teacher provides rules without examples		√		
D.The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules				
Others				
E. The teacher asks students to read rules in a handout		√		
2. Context of the new structure presentation	S1	S2	S3	S4

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A. The structure is presented in one sentence		√	√	√
B. The structure is presented in more separate sentences				
C. The structure is presented in text				
Others	√			
D. The new structure is presented in words				
3.Type of materials used in presenting the new structure	S1	S2	S3	S4
A. Non-real life materials	√	√	√	√
B. Real-life materials are used				
C. Simplified (adapted) materials are used				
4.The focus of the teaching of the new structure	S1	S2	S3	S4
A. The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology	√	√	√	√
B. The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology				
STAGE TWO: Grammar Practice				
5.Type of the exercises	S1	S2	S3	S4
A. Mechanical drill exercises				
a. Fill in the gaps		√		√
b. Multiple choice answers		√	√	
c. Sentence completion	√			
d. Sentence transformation		√		
e. Sentence matching		√		
f. Substitution				
g. Error identification				
A. Meaningful activities	S1	S2	S3	S4
a. Story telling				
b. Story reconstruction				
c. Writing letters and exchanging them			√	
d. Introducing oneself orally				

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e. Writing/talking about personal events				
f. Using oral interviews				
g. Using information-gap tasks				
Others:	√			
h. Word-search grid				
6. Type of context	S1	S2	S3	S4
A. sentence-level exercises	√	√	√	√
B. Dialogues		√		√
C. paragraphs	√		√	
D. two or more paragraph text				
Others	√			
E. words				
7. Type of materials	S1	S2	S3	S4
A. Real-life			√	
B. Non-real life	√	√	√	√
C. Simplified (adapted)				
8. Classwork pattern	S1	S2	S3	S4
A. Individual practice	√	√	√	√
B. Peer practice			√	
C. Group practice				
9. Practice focus	S1	S2	S3	S4
A. Activities focus on the forms in decontextualized exercises	√	√	√	√
B. Activities focus on content in meaningful activities				
Others			√	
C. Focus on forms in meaningful activities				

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3.Results of Classroom Observation of C 3, T 3

STAGE ONE : Grammar Presentation				
1.The way the teacher presents the lesson	S1	S2	S3	S4
A.The teacher presents examples and explains the rule	√	√	√	√
B.The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules		√		√
C.The teacher provides rules without examples	√			
D.The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules				
2. Context of the new structure presentation	S1	S2	S3	S4
A.The structure is presented in one sentence	√	√	√	√
B.The structure is presented in more separate sentences				
C. The structure is presented in text				
Others	√		√	
D. The structure is presented in words				
E. The structure is presented in a diagram		√		√
3.Type of materials used in presenting the new structure	S1	S2	S3	S4
A.Non-real life materials	√	√	√	√
B. Real-life materials are used				
C.Simplified (adapted) materials are used				
4.The focus of the teaching of the new structure	S1	S2	S3	S4
A. The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology	√	√	√	√
B. The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology				
STAGE TWO: Grammar Practice				
5.Type of the exercises	S1	S2	S3	S4

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A. Mechanical drill exercises				
a.Fill in the gaps	√	√	√	√
b.Multiple choice answers			√	
c.Sentence completion				
d.Sentence transformation				
e.Sentence matching				
f.Substitution				
g.Error identification				
Others	√			
h. classification				
B. Meaningful activities	S1	S2	S3	S4
a.Story telling				
b.Story reconstruction				
c.Writing letters and exchanging them				
d.Introducing oneself orally				
e.Writing/talking about personal events				
f.Using oral interviews				
g.Using information-gap tasks				
6.Type of context	S1	S2	S3	S4
A. sentence-level exercises	√	√	√	√
B. Dialogues				
C.paragraphs				
D.two or more paragraph text				
7.Type of materials	S1	S2	S3	S4
A.Real-life				
B.Non-real life	√	√	√	√
C.Simplified (adapted)				
8.Classwork pattern	S1	S2	S3	S4
A.Individual practice	√	√	√	√
B.Peer practice				
C.Group practice				
9.Practice focus	S1	S2	S3	S4
A.Activities focus on the forms in	√	√	√	√

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decontextualized exercises				
B. Activities focus on content in meaningful activities				

4.Results of Classroom Observation of C 4, T 4

STAGE ONE : Grammar Presentation				
1.The way the teacher presents the lesson	S1	S2	S3	S4
A. The teacher presents examples and explains the rule				√
B. The teacher provides examples and learners infer the rules				
C. The teacher provides rules without examples				
D. The teacher provides examples but never gives the rules				
Others	√	√	√	
E. The teacher provides rules followed by examples				
G. The teacher asks students to read about the rules from a handout		√		
F. Elicit students' previous knowledge of rules			√	
2. Context of the new structure presentation	S1	S2	S3	S4
A. The structure is presented in one sentence		√	√	
B. The structure is presented in more separate sentences				√
C. The structure is presented in text				
Others	√		√	
D. The structure is presented within no context				
3.Type of materials used in presenting the new structure	S1	S2	S3	S4
A. Non-real life materials	√	√	√	√
B. Real-life materials are used				
C. Simplified (adapted) materials are used				

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4.The focus of the teaching of the new structure	S1	S2	S3	S4
A. The teacher dominates the classroom talk by focusing on grammatical terminology	√	√	√	√
B. The teacher encourages the students to notice the structure in plenty of examples deemphasizing grammatical terminology				
STAGE TWO: Grammar Practice				
5.Type of the exercises	S1	S2	S3	S4
C. Mechanical drill exercises				
a. Fill in the gaps	√	√	√	√
b. Multiple choice answers				
c. Sentence completion				
d. Sentence transformation				
e. Sentence matching				
f. Substitution				
g. Error identification				
Others				
h. Justification of answers (with reference to rules) on gap-filling exercises	√			
D. Meaningful activities				
a. Story telling				
b. Story reconstruction				
c. Writing letters and exchanging them				
d. Introducing oneself orally				
e. Writing/talking about personal events				
f. Using oral interviews				
g. Using information-gap tasks				
6.Type of context	S1	S2	S3	S4
A. sentence-level exercises	√	√	√	√
B. Dialogues				
C. paragraphs				
D. two or more paragraph text				

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7.Type of materials	S1	S2	S3	S4
A.Real-life				
B.Non-real life	√	√	√	√
C.Simplified (adapted)				
8.Classwork pattern	S1	S2	S3	S4
A.Individual practice	√	√	√	√
B.Peer practice				
C.Group practice				
9.Practice focus	S1	S2	S3	S4
A.Activities focus on the forms in decontextualized exercises	√	√	√	√
B.Activities focus on content in meaningful activities				

Appendix 10: Scripts of Follow-up Interviews with Grammar Teachers

Interview Script No 1 (Observed Teacher No 1)

1. How do you present the rules?

The rules? To my students? [We answer 'Yes'] Okay, generally, I just speak about it in general terms and if possible through some context and ask them about the way to say something as related to, for example, the use of a particular tense and then having them say few things and telling them on the right way for it on the board, say through a diagram because something visual is better for making things explicit you know. They understand it better when they see it on a diagram rather than just using words. With a diagram they could perhaps precisely imagine what I mean. I am trying to explain the rule when possible and of course if they have the knowledge of it, so I try to test the rule through some examples, using a few examples in class and see then if they notice something about it and if they do that is better. Then we have the rule schematized on the board through a graph or some explanation.

2. In which form of language do you present the new structure?

Asks for more clarification then continues We could have it in different forms. We could have it in the form of conversation if a structure is perhaps better investigated through a conversation such as with tense. Or why not through prose I mean a passage and they have to identify different tenses and expressing some type of activity as related to time. If possible we start with that otherwise we are obliged of course to deal with a few examples in context then we try from these examples to extract the rules.

3. Which materials do you use when presenting the rules?

Books and magazines.

4. What do you focus on when teaching the new grammatical structure?

I focus on usage of course, how to use a given structure, on [Silence] on exactness of course. If we can make a difference between one way for saying something and another it is better than explain why they [learners] should be recommended to use a given structure in such or such a situation.

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5. Which kind of exercises/activities do you use?

Practical ones, preferably practical ones with a context provided, with grading the difficulty for students where we can move from a piece of information missing in a sentence to something more and more detailed .

6. What is the format of the exercises that you generally use?

The format? [Asks for more clarification and continues] Normally typology of exercises is vast so it depends on which kind suits a type of structure, of rule or lesson. For example, a tense is better practised through a conversation; if it is more related to prose we try to have it through writing, in a passage. It depends on the lessons.

7. Where do you select the exercises from?

Exercises, I could have them from different kinds of books and magazines except the internet because my generation is not a generation of the net.

8. How do you make your learners work in class?

It is my way to ask them to work the way they like it. If they feel able enough to do it individually, so they can do it. If they feel would do it in association with other learners in pairs or in groups so much the better. I accept all ways to share energies provided there is some production.

9. What do you more focus on during the exercises/activities?

Of course on correctness of the answers. We are supposed to teach something in grammar so they have to catch the point. They should be practicing it correctly otherwise we can't say they have got it. Of course there might be some imperfections but for the essential they should get it correctly.

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Interview script No 2 (Observed teacher No 2)

1. How do you present the rules?

I try to let my students deduce the rules. I try to guide them but it is up to them to find the rule, properly the rule. Generally after analyzing the examples if they do not really manage to get properly the rule, I help them about it and explain it more.

2. In which form of language do you present the new structure?

[Asks for more clarification then continues] Like this is their first year and haven't been introduced to paragraphs I prefer to stick to sentences and perhaps next semester we will try to introduce paragraphs.

3. Which materials do you use when presenting the rules?

Sentences but not complex ones. I really try to make them very simple so that the rule is the one that emerges. My sentences are taken from books generally like I do not invent them but go and select the most obvious ones to them from books.

4. What do you focus on when teaching the new grammatical structure?

First of all I try to make them more understand the rules and then move to practising. What I mean by practice is that they give their own examples in which they apply the rules.

5. Which kind of exercises/activities do you use?

I do not invent them I just go and use grammar books and select the ones, the easiest ones, the ones which show them tips and tricks to understand the rules and perhaps to get over the problems. I use exercises about correcting mistakes, using appropriate forms. Correcting mistakes is the kind of exercise I most like.

6. What is the format of the exercises that you generally use?

I already used paragraphs. It was about articles, quantifiers and determiners. Paragraphs are good with this grammatical points because there is reference before like nouns so they can easily find the appropriate let us say determiners, for example.

Appendices

7. Where do you select the exercises from?

Internet, I use some websites like the British Council. It is good because it is very simplified so whenever I want to start with an exercise I first use this website and then I increase the difficulty

8. How do you make your learners work in class?

So sometimes the first thing I do is work individually and then I allow them as well to work in pairs and discuss some points and give me the final answer. So it is both individually and in pairs. It depends on the exercises.

9. What do you more focus on during the exercises/activities?

I prefer to focus on drilling exercises, repeating the rule all the time to make it like well-established in their mind. So my aim is [hesitation] when they leave class is actually not need to go to their copybook at least for ten days, they should remember it. They have the rules, they practice with it until they learn it naturally. Or if when they make a mistake I want them to have like something that triggers a self-correction.

Interview script No 3 (Observed teacher No 3)

1. How do you present the rules?

Generally, I do not teach the rules directly but I give the students examples and let them discover the rules by themselves. If they do not do it, I give them the rules.

2. In which form of language do you present the new structure?

I generally use sentences I extract from grammar books.

3. Which materials do you use when presenting the rules?

Grammar books most of the time and also the internet; without the net we cannot do well. The book I rely on is titled *Practical English Grammar*.

4. What do you focus on when teaching the new grammatical structure?

I focus on how the system works and also on respecting the system. For example, I insist on teaching them to respect the order of the parts of speech.

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5. Which kind of exercises/activities do you use?

The book I work on includes many activities such as texts, letters and so on.

6. What is the format of the exercises that you generally use?

I generally, use exercises with simple sentences which are not connected in ideas.

7. Where do you select the exercises from?

Grammar books.

8. How do you make your learners work in class?

Generally, individually.

9. What do you more focus on during the exercises/activities?

I see if students give correct answers. If they give correct answers, it means that they haven't understood the rules. In this case, I give them more feedback.

Interview script No 4 (observed teacher no 4)

1. How do you present the rules?

I ask the students questions about their previous knowledge about the new grammatical structure. From their answers we build the general rule and then I write it on the board or on handouts. I start with the rule first, at the beginning of the lesson, then move to practice.

2. In which form of language do you present the new structure?

I use sentences, orally. I deal with context in the exam, but during the course I deal with short sentences.

3. Which materials do you use when presenting the rules?

I use sentences from grammar books, orally, which then I write on the board.

4. What do you focus on when teaching the new grammatical structure?

My intention is to distinguish between the meanings of forms. For example, Students have to distinguish between present simple and present continuous.

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5. Which kind of exercises/activities do you use?

Maybe gap-filling exercises and they need to justify of course, exercises about correcting mistakes, others about expressing things in different ways. For me, Justification is more important than the rule itself.

6. What is the format of the exercises that you generally use?

In the form of sentences, sometimes dialogues or paragraphs, stories.

7. Where do you select the exercises from?

From different grammar books such as *Advanced Grammar in Use* and *Oxford*.

8. How do you make your learners work in class?

Individually. I dislike group work because of noise.

9. What do you more focus on during the exercises/activities?

Justifying the answers. When they select a form, they have to justify their choice.

Interview script No 5 (Teacher no 5)

1. How do you present the rules?

First of all I ask questions to know about the previous knowledge of the students. Then I introduce examples and let them discover the rules. But if they do not know anything about the topic or do not have a good level, I give them the rules.

2. In which form of language do you present the new structure?

[Asks for more clarification, then continues] It depends on the topic. Generally speaking, I use sentences.

3. Which materials do you use when presenting the rules?

I use power point with a data show, some lectures I received myself in a training in England. I also use videos in order to avoid waste of time.

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4. What do you focus on when teaching the new grammatical structure?

I always try to know their previous knowledge.

5. Which kind of exercises/activities do you use?

Exercises in which they have to identify mistakes, true/false exercises. They [students] also need to justify their answers.

6. What is the format of the exercises that you generally use?

[Asks for more clarification and continues] I always use sentences, and to be sincere I do not use paragraphs or texts with the first year students. I sometimes use dialogues and rarely paragraphs.

7. Where do you select the exercises from?

Sometimes from ILT's, it is like the TOFEL or English File, a British teacher handbook, or even use exercises I myself practiced with during my training in England. I sometimes create exercises.

8. How do you make your learners work in class?

First of all, I refuse to hear any noise in class. So I make them work individually. I rarely make them work in pairs, possibly in groups. But I make them individually create.

9. What do you more focus on during the exercises/activities?

I focus on rules understanding, on distinguishing between different grammatical aspects and even on pronunciation.

Interview script No 6 (Teacher no 6)

1. How do you present the rules?

I start by a kind of brainstorming the class to know if they know about the topic of the lesson. Then I write everything on the board, give examples and let them deduce the rules. Then I focus more on the points I intend to teach.

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2. In which form of language do you present the new structure?

It depends. In the beginning [First courses] I start with words and sentences.

3. Which materials do you use when presenting the rules?

I give my own examples and also ask students to give their own ones. I, of course, rely on grammar books but prefer using my own examples so that I can simplify them and adapt them to the level of my students. Grammar books are a bit difficult. I also increase difficulty of the examples bit by bit.

4. What do you focus on when teaching the new grammatical structure?

I focus on the form but also on meaning.

5. Which kind of exercises/activities do you use?

I rely on some grammar books. I use exercises like fill-in-the-gaps. Students are asked to give their own examples with the new form, write and acting out dialogues.

6. What is the format of the exercises that you generally use?

I may give a conversation to complete. I use other types of exercises like completion of sentences with appropriate forms. So sometimes I use sentences and sometimes conversations but rarely paragraphs.

7. Where do you select the exercises from?

I use some of the grammar books available in our library.

8. How do you make your learners work in class?

I ask them to work most of the time individually, but I sometimes ask them to work in pairs to act a short dialogue they themselves write. I do not mind if they make mistakes.

9. What do you more focus on during the exercises/activities?

I make sure that students are working on the exercise and correct them. I also encourage them to make conversations, write and act short dialogues.

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Interview script No 7 (Teacher no 7)

1. How do you present the rules?

I generally, give the students exercises which I write on board or give on handouts. Then I ask them to reflect on the questions, then ask them about what they understood. I teach grammar inductively; I do not give them the rules directly. I mean I teach grammar indirectly. I give the rules at the end of the lesson.

2. In which form of language do you present the new structure?

I do not give sentences in isolation, but I give them texts.

3. Which materials do you use when presenting the rules?

Authentic texts and pedagogical books.

4. What do you focus on when teaching the new grammatical structure?

I try to make them understand that they do not learn grammar for just learning the rules but to link grammar to other language skills such as writing and speaking.

5. Which kind of exercises/activities do you use?

I use exercises such as sentence completion, identification/correction of mistakes and so on.

6. What is the format of the exercises that you generally use?

Most of the time I use texts.

7. Where do you select the exercises from?

From grammar books such as *Teaching Grammar in Context*

8. How do you make your learners work in class?

Sometimes in pairs. I also try to have a debate with them to develop their critical thinking.

9. What do you more focus on during the exercises/activities?

I focus on making the present lesson linked to the previous ones.

Appendices

Appendix 11: Requirements of the Grammar Syllabus (2014)

The following is a list of requirements extracted from the first & second year university level grammar syllabuses in the year 2014 in the Department of English, UA2.

1. The teaching of grammar should be integrated within all the skills: writing, reading, speaking and listening.
2. Shift the way students view grammar. Grammar accuracy should no longer be considered as an isolated element of language learning, but as an important tool for the successful communication of ideas.
3. A presentation of rules within no more than 20 minutes.
4. The use of about 10 line texts to read before answering grammar focused questions as well as a few reading comprehension questions to reach grammar accuracy through the reading process and show the students how to use grammar components to better handle missing content information. This can take about 1 hour or more.
5. The focus is on doing a maximum of exercises during the grammar class. Exercises can be timed and the number of exercises in one session can be gradually increased
6. The last part of a grammar class can include writing or oral tasks.
7. Students are asked to write a set of two to three sentences (S1) or a 5-6 line paragraph (S2) to answer a question related to the theme of the text presented to the students as abovementioned. (Teachers explicitly list the grammar components to be used in this section as complementary indications to the creative task). The objective of this section is to have students make full use of the grammar components dealt with in the lesson part as well as in the practice part to become accurate in writing.
8. Oral task: Students are asked to debate on the theme of the text presented to the students earlier. They are given a question or a statement to reflect upon. (Teachers explicitly list the grammar components to be used while students get prepared to this task.)
9. Feedback to these creative tasks can be written or oral, but it is always grammar-oriented. Teachers can choose to do peer feedback or group feedback depending on the task.

ملخص

خلال السنوات الماضية ارتكزت البحوث في مجال النحو الانجليزي على فعالية اساليب تدريس النحو (FONF) أو المضمون (FONFS) أو كلاهما . لقد أعاد الباحثون النظر في أهمية تدريس النحو بعدما لقي تهميشا في الثمانينات لأسباب عدة أبرزها عدم تمكن الطلبة من الاستخدام السليم للنحو في كتابة النصوص لكن اليوم يرى الباحثون أن الاستغناء عن تدريس النحو ليس حلا فلذلك تتجه الدراسات إلى معاينة مختلف طرق تدريس النحو للكشف عن السبل المجدية والمؤدية إلى الاستفادة من دروس النحو.

وفي سياق هذا الاهتمام المتجدد لتدريس النحو يهدف هذا البحث أولا إلى التعرف على نماذج التعليم المستعملة من أساتذة النحو، ثانيا مقارنة فعالية التدريس الصريح والتدريس الضمني للنحو في مجال تعلم النحو في استخدامه الصحيح في الكتابة، ونعني بالتدريس الصريح التلقين المباشر لقواعد النحو والتدريس الضمني بتدريس المضمون ، ومنه طرحنا الأسئلة التالية:

أولاً: ما هي الأساليب التعليمية المتبعة من طرف أساتذة النحو؟

ثانياً: هل يؤثر نهج التدريس على تعلم النحو؟

ثالثاً: هل نهج التدريس يؤثر على الاستخدام السليم للنحو في الكتابة؟

رابعاً: ما هي فعالية نهج التدريس في تعلم التركيبات النحوية المدرسية؟

وبمساهمة سبعة أساتذة النحو الانجليزي، قمنا بهذه الدراسة في قسم اللغات بجامعة الجزائر على مئة طالب في السنة الأولى. لتجسيد أهداف هذا البحث قمنا باستخدام وسائل البحث التالية: الملاحظة الصفية، الاستبيانات، المقابلات، العلاج التعليمي، الاختبار المسبق والبعدي وتحليل الأخطاء. أما النتائج المتحصل عليها هي كالاتي:

Abstract in Arabic

- أغلبية الأساتذة ينتهجون الطريقة التقليدية في تدريس النحو والمتمثلة في التعليم الصريح الذي يعتمد على التلقين المباشر لقواعد النحو، كما يلجأ الأساتذة أحيانا إلى استعمال بعض أنواع التدريس الضمني أهمها استنباط القواعد من الأمثلة.

- فئة الطلبة التي درست النحو بالمنوال الضمني تحصلت على أحسن النتائج في اختباري النحو والكتابة مقارنة بالفئة التي درست بالمنوال الصريح.

- أغلب التركيبات النحوية اكتسبها الطلبة الذين تابعوا التعليم الضمني وهذا من حيث معرفة القواعد واستخدامها السليم للكتابة.

وعليه فإننا نحث على التدريس الضمني للنحو و التركيز على التركيبات النحوية ذات أهمية في الكتابة واستخدام نصوص أصلية وأنشطة تواصلية أهمها الكتابة الجماعية.

الكلمات الدالة : التعليم الضمني, التعليم الصريح, تعزيز المدخل و المنتج, اعادة الصياغة .