

VISUALLY ENHANCED INPUT,
INPUT PROCESSING OR PUSHED OUTPUT:
A STUDY ON GRAMMAR TEACHING

Nesrin ORUÇ

Thesis submitted to the Doctor of Philosophy

English Language Teaching Department

Eskişehir, 2007

VISUALLY ENHANCED INPUT, INPUT PROCESSING OR PUSHED
OUTPUT: A STUDY ON GRAMMAR TEACHING

By
Nesrin ORUÇ

Thesis submitted to the Doctor of Philosophy
English Language Teaching Department
Advisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. F. Hülya ÖZCAN

Eskişehir
Anadolu University
The Institute of Educational Sciences
September, 2007

JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI

Nesrin ORUÇ'un "Visually Enhanced Input, Input Processing or Pushed Output: A Study on Grammar Teaching." başlıklı tezi 11.09.2007 tarihinde, aşağıda belirtilen jüri üyeleri tarafından Anadolu Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Eğitim-Öğretim ve Sınav Yönetmeliğinin ilgili maddeleri uyarınca Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Programında, Doktora tezi olarak değerlendirilerek kabul edilmiştir.

	Adı-Soyadı	İmza
Üye (Tez Danışmanı)	: Doç.Dr.F.Hülya ÖZCAN	
Üye	: Prof.Dr.Zülal BALPINAR	
Üye	: Doç.Dr.Engin SEZER	
Üye	: Doç.Dr.Ümit Deniz TURAN	
Üye	: Yard.Doç.Dr.Aysel BAHÇE	

Yard.Doç Dr. Ümit.GÜRBÜZ
Anadolu Üniversitesi
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürü V.

DOKTORA TEZ ÖZÜ**GÖRSEL ZENGİNLEŞTİRİLMİŞ GİRDİ, SÜREÇ ODAKLI DİL
ÖĞRETİMİ YA DA İTİLİ ÜRETİM: DİLBİLGİSİ EĞİTİMİ ÜZERİNE
BİR ÇALIŞMA****Nesrin ORUÇ****İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı****Anadolu Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Eylül 2007****Danışman: Doç. Dr. F. Hülya ÖZCAN**

Öğretmenler öğrencilerinin dikkatini öğrettikleri forma nasıl çeker? Araştırmacının öncelikli hedefi forma odaklı öğretim yönteminde kullanılan en etkili dikkat çekme tekniğini bulmaktır.

Dikkat çekme tekniklerinin etkilerini ölçmek için ön-test son-test desenli bir çalışma uygulanmıştır. Çalışmanın katılımcıları Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu orta seviyede okuyan öğrenciler olmuştur. Çalışmaya katılan 90 katılımcı rasgele üç deney grubu: itili üretim grubu, görsel zenginleştirilmiş girdi grubu ve süreç odaklı dil öğretim grubu ve geleneksel eğitimine devam eden bir kontrol grubu olarak ayrılmıştır. Her grup öntesti aldıktan sonra araştırmacı tarafından 4 saat uygulamaya tabi tutulmuş ve uygulamadan hemen sonra aynı testi son test olarak almıştır. Dört hafta sonra ise gruplar aynı testi gecikmeli son test olarak tekrar almıştır.

Ön ve son test sonuçlarına göre yapılan analizler gösteriyor ki itili üretim ve süreç odaklı dil öğretimi hedef formun öğrenilmesinde etkili iken, gecikmeli son test sonuçlarına göre ise, sadece süreç odaklı dil öğretimi katılımcılarda hedef formun kalıcı olmasını sağlamıştır.

ABSTRACT

How should the teachers draw the attention of the learners to form? This is the question that shaped the study at hand. The main goal of the researcher was to find out the most effective attention drawing technique used in focus on form and therefore inform the practitioners in the field about the results.

In order to test the efficiency of the attention drawing techniques, an experimental study with a pre, post-test design was conducted. The subjects of the study were the intermediate level students of the School of Foreign Languages of Dokuz Eylül University in the Fall Term of 2006-2007 academic year. They were students enrolled at an intensive English preparatory class of which the class hours ranged between 24 to 30 hours a week. They were between 21 to 23 years old. 90 subjects were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. There were three experimental groups: pushed output group, visually enhanced input group and processing instruction group. Control group received traditional grammar instruction which was shaped according to the information gathered from the class teachers. Each group was given the pre-test and later they received treatment. After treatment, they were given the same test as post-test and 4 weeks later as the delayed post-test.

The analyses of the results of the pre-test, post-test and the delayed post-tests reveal that pushed output and processing instruction were effective in the teaching of the target form. However, as for the delayed post-test only processing instruction stays well in the interlanguage of the participants.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my special thanks to my advisor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. F. Hülya Özcan, for her helpful guidance and continuous encouragement throughout my research study. We together showed that distance is not an obstacle to write a PhD Dissertation. I owe the deepest gratitude to her, for her never ending patience. I know I was not making things easy for her sometimes.

I am thankful to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ümit Deniz Turan and Asst. Prof. Dr. Aysel Bahçe for their invaluable feedback and recommendations. It is their feedback that shaped the study to what it is now.

I am sincerely grateful to Prof. Dr. Nina Spada who devoted hours to listen to me with patience and suggested some very valuable feedback for the future of my study. She was also kind enough to send me a copy of her presentation at Sabancı University which I used in my study.

I must also express my deep appreciation to Asst. Prof. Dr. Yaşar Yavuz for his support on SPSS.

Finally, thank you Güzin-Remzi Bolu, Evin-Ümit Baran, and Mehmet Rojda-Şerife Oruç for being on the other side of the phone whenever needed. Maybe you were far but actually very close. Ahmet Töre, Güney, Mehmet Berti, Nazif Roni and Nare Lorin, it was you that made me smile and gave power to continue. I love you all.

To the people who taught me what

real love is

Nurhan and Şerif Oruç

And

To DARA I wish you could see that.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
ÖZ.....	<i>ii</i>
ABSTRACT.....	<i>iii</i>
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	<i>iv</i>
ÖZGEÇMİŞ.....	<i>vi</i>
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	<i>ix</i>
LIST OF TABLES.....	<i>xi</i>
LIST OF FIGURES.....	<i>xii</i>
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1. 1. Statement of the Problem.....	2
1. 2. Objectives and Significance of the Study.....	3
1. 3. Variables of the Study.....	4
1. 4. Statement of the Research Questions.....	4
1. 5. Operational Definitions.....	5
1. 6. Outline and Organization of the Study.....	7
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	8
2. 1. The Role of Instruction in SLA.....	9
2. 2. The Role of Attention in SLA.....	14
2. 3. Focus on Form.....	17
2. 4. Input and Second Language Acquisition.....	26
2. 4. 1. Input Processing.....	30
2. 4. 1. 1. Processing Instruction.....	34
2. 4. 1. 2. Input Enhancement.....	36
2. 5. Output and Second Language Acquisition.....	40
2. 5. 1. Pushed Output.....	47
3.METHODOLOGY.....	53
3. 1. Definitions of the Structure Used in the Study.....	53
3. 2. The Present Study.....	56
3. 2. 1. Subjects.....	56
3. 2. 2. Instruments.....	58
3. 2. 2.1. Pre-Post and Delayed Post-Test.....	58
3. 2. 2. 2. Validity of the Test.....	59
3. 2. 2. 3. Reliability of the Test.....	61

3. 2. 3. Instructional Packets.....	63
3. 2. 3. 1. Pushed Output Group Instructional Packet.....	64
3. 2. 3. 2. Visually Enhanced Input Group Instructional Packet.....	66
3. 2. 3. 3. Processing Instruction Group Instructional Packet.....	67
3. 2. 3. 4. Control Group Instructional Packet.....	67
3. 3. Procedures.....	68
3. 4. Data Analysis.....	73
4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.....	75
4. 1. Introduction.....	75
4. 2. Analysis of Data.....	76
4. 3. The Results of All Tests.....	76
4. 3. 1. The Results of the Pre-Test.....	76
4. 4. All Test Results for Four Treatment Groups.....	78
4. 4. 1. All Test Results for the Pushed Output Group.....	78
4. 4. 2. All Test Results for the Processing Instruction Group.....	83
4. 4. 3. All Test Results for the Visually Enhanced Input Group.....	86
4. 4. 4. All Test Results for the Control Group.....	89
4. 3. 2. Comparison of the Results of the Post-Test.....	92
4. 3. 3. The Results of the Delayed Post-Test.....	96
4. 5. Discussion of Findings.....	100
5. CONCLUSION.....	107
5. 1. Summary of the Study.....	107
5. 2. Implications for Theory and Practice.....	108
5. 3. Limitations of the Study.....	111
5. 4. Suggestions for Further Research.....	112
5. 5. Conclusion.....	113
APPENDICES.....	115
REFERENCES.....	151

LIST OF TABLES

<u>Table</u>	<u>Page</u>
2. 1. Principles of Instructed Language Learning.....	13
2. 2. Types of Form-Based.....	19
2. 3. Principles of Input Processing.....	32
3. 1. Number of Subjects According to Groups.....	57
3. 2. Results of Two Scorers.....	63
3. 3. Timetable of the Treatments.....	70
4. 1. Results of Pre-test for All Groups.....	77
4. 2. Lowest and Highest Scores of Pre-Test for All Groups.....	78
4. 3. Results of All Tests for Pushed Output Group.....	79
4. 4. T-Test for All Test Scores of Pushed Output Group.....	80
4. 5. Results of All Tests for Processing Instruction Group.....	83
4. 6. T-Test for All Test Scores of Processing Instruction Group.....	85
4. 7. Results of All Tests for Visually Enhanced Input Group.....	87
4. 8. T-Test for All Test Scores of Visually Enhanced Input Group.....	88
4. 9. Results of All Tests for Control Group.....	90
4. 10. T-Test for All Test Scores of Control Group.....	91
4. 11. Results of Post-test for All Groups.....	93
4. 12. Lowest and Highest Scores of Post-Test for All Groups.....	94
4. 13. Multiple Comparisons (Post Hoc Tests).....	95
4. 14. Results of One-Way ANOVA for Delayed Post-test.....	97
4. 15. Results of Delayed Post-test for All Groups.....	98
4. 16. Significance Level of all Tests.....	98
4. 17. Lowest and Highest Scores of Delayed Post-Test for All Groups.....	99
4. 18. Multiple Comparisons (Post Hoc Tests).....	100

LIST OF FIGURES

<u>Figure</u>	<u>Page</u>
2. 1. The Cognitive Correlates of Focus on Form	22
2. 2. Input Processing.....	33
2. 3. Model for SLA.....	34
3. 1. Treatment and Testing Procedure for All Groups.....	72

1. INTRODUCTION

Throughout the history of second language teaching and learning, there has been many options to teach second languages. The term option here refers to a specific strategy for delivering instruction (Ellis, 1997). Ellis (1998) identifies four macro-options based on a psycholinguistic model of L2 acquisition. These are (1) input-based instruction, (2) explicit instruction, (3) output-based instruction, and (4) feedback. Typically, lessons are not constructed around a single macro-option but rather involve combinations of options. For example, a fairly traditional grammar lesson might start with a grammar presentation (option 2) and then move on to the production of the new structure (option 3) in conjunction with feedback (option 4).

While the role of instruction is being discussed in the literature, it is widely accepted that input-based instruction plays a crucial role in the acquisition of second languages (Brown, 1985; Ellis, 1985). Basically, learners of a second/foreign language will not learn the language if they are not exposed to it. They need to hear the language and/or see the language on paper. The input approach takes as its starting point the assumption that language learning is stimulated by communicative pressure and examines the relationship between communication and acquisition and the mechanisms (e.g., noticing, attention) that mediate between them (Gass, 2003).

Another component that has been argued to be essential in the acquisition of second languages is output. It is accepted that output-based instruction is

essential in the process of learning a second/foreign language (Swain, 1985, 1993, 1995, 1998). In her argument Swain discussed that the need for output was based initially on observations of immersion programs in Canada and most notably dealt with the lack of target-like abilities of children who had spent years in such programs. It has been claimed that producing the Target Language (TL) may serve as “the trigger that forces the learner to pay attention to the means of expression needed in order to successfully convey his or her own intended meaning” (Swain, 1985: 249).

1. 1. Statement of the Problem

Even though the above mentioned studies contribute to the field’s understanding of how input and output affect learners’ comprehension and production of L2 target forms and structures, what has not been explored to any great extent is the relationship between these factors of acquisition: input and output and to what extent the different forms of these factors affect the acquisition of English as a second language.

In sum, empirical evidence from studies investigating the output hypothesis (Izumi, 2002; Izumi, Bigelow, Fujiwara & Fearnow, 1999) lends at least some support to the notion that output might have beneficial effects on linguistic development in addition to- not in opposition to- the crucial role of input. These studies, taken in conjunction with more qualitative work by Swain (Swain, 1995, 1998), motivate further research into the role of output in SLA.

Therefore, this study attempts to address this issue by exploring the consequent effects of the input-output relationship and whether output, input

processing or visual input enhancement can promote the learning of the Type 3 Conditional sentences by Turkish learners of English. As was stated by Doughty (2003: 288) two recent lines of research –processing instruction studies and focus on form studies- both address the fundamental question of how L2 learner attention can most efficiently be directed to cues in the input which “disabled” adult learners fail to perceive when left to their own devices.

1. 2. Objectives and Significance of the Study

Following the idea that both input- and output-based instruction can be effective for SLA, many studies have attempted to compare the two under a variety of research designs (Ellis & He, 1999; Mackey, 1999; Pica & Doughty, 1985; Swain, 1985, 1993, 1995). Few studies have specifically addressed whether output-based instruction can be as effective as input-based instruction (Izumi, 2002). However, there are still unanswered questions in the literature in terms of the degree of effects of visually enhanced input, processing instruction and pushed output on the acquisition of English as a second language. Further, as Gass (2004) has mentioned, today’s research world is dealing with theories depending on input-output relationships, and these kinds of studies are becoming prominent.

Therefore, this study aims at investigating the possible effects of processing instruction, visually enhanced input and pushed output in grammar instruction, namely focus on form in the learning of Type 3 Conditional sentences of English as a second language by Turkish learners. It further aims at investigating whether the learners’ interlanguage development retains well over time (as determined by the results of the delayed post-tests).

The study may make some contributions to the field of grammar teaching in the sense that the possible effects found for any of the attention drawing techniques; processing instruction, visually enhanced input and pushed output might be used in the field of grammar instruction of Conditional sentences. Besides, the study might motivate further research investigating the possible effects of the found technique on other linguistic items in English other than Conditional sentences.

1. 3. Variables of the Study

Dependent Variables: Scores gained by the subjects on the post-test and delayed post-test after the treatments.

Independent Variables: Visually Enhanced Input, Pushed Output, Processing Instruction, Focus on Form.

Control Variables: Proficiency level, L1 background, age of the subjects and the time spent for the treatments.

1. 4. Statement of the Research Questions

The research questions posed for the study are based on the results of the prior empirical research. Mainly there are five research questions that the study will try to answer. These are as follows:

1. Does pushed output have any effect on the learning of Type 3 Conditional sentences?
2. Does visually enhanced input have any effect on the learning of Type 3 Conditional sentences?

3. Does processing instruction have any effect on the learning of Type 3 Conditional sentences?
4. Among the three ways of attention drawing techniques, which is/are the most effective on the learning of Type 3 Conditional sentences?
5. Among the three ways of attention gathering techniques, which technique(s) facilitate(s) retaining the structure well over time according to the results of the delayed post-test?

1. 5. Operational Definitions

Input: VanPatten (2003) defines input as the language that a learner hears (or reads) that has some kind of communicative intent. In Corder's terms (1967), input is basically "what is available for going in".

Intake: Following Corder's definition of input, intake is "what actually goes in". It is the comprehended data by the second language learner.

Input Processing: The process of getting linguistic data from the input in a second language is called "input processing" (VanPatten, 2003).

Enhanced Input: A kind of attention drawing technique used in focus on form in SLA. Smith (1993) used the term input enhancement to indicate how certain features of language input could become salient. Erlam (2003) defines enhanced input as instructional techniques which expose students to input in which the target structure is typographically enhanced.

Output: In its simplest form, output is the production of the input in any mode- written or oral- by the learner.

Output Hypothesis: Swain's (1995) Output Hypothesis claims that output can, under certain conditions, promote language acquisition by allowing learners to try out and stretch their interlanguage capabilities. In so doing, learners may recognize the problems in their interlanguage through internal and/or external feedback and this recognition may prompt the learners to create alternatives by searching their existing knowledge or to seek out relevant input with more focused attention and with more clearly identified communicative needs.

Processing Instruction: Processing instruction is an input-based instructional technique informed by VanPatten's work on learners' input processing strategies. Processing instruction is aimed at affecting learners' input processing and thereby, affect acquisition (Morgan- Bowden 2006).

Pushed Output: Defined as an internal attention-drawing device by Izumi (2002), pushed output is –like enhanced input- an attempt to direct the learner's attention to problematic aspects in the input to promote their acquisition through production processes.

Focus on Form: A type of instruction in which the primary focus is on meaning and communication, with the learners' attention being drawn to linguistic elements only as they arise incidentally in lessons (Long, 1991).

Focus on Forms: Focus on forms is defined as instruction in which syllabi and lessons are based on linguistic items, with the primary goal being to teach those items (Long, 1991).

1. 6. Outline and Organization of the Study

This study consists of the following chapters.

Chapter One: Introduction to the statement of the problem, the significance of the study, variables of the problem, and the statement of the research questions to be answered.

Chapter Two: This chapter presents a review of the literature on the role of instruction, the role of attention in second language acquisition, focus on form and the attention drawing techniques used in focus on form. The chapter continues with detailed information on these attention drawing techniques, namely; visual input enhancement, processing instruction and pushed output.

Chapter Three: The subjects who have participated, the method; instruments, data collection procedures, and data analysis procedures have been given here with extra information on the form -Type 3 Conditionals- used for the study.

Chapter Four: Results and findings of the study are presented in this chapter with tables and figures.

Chapter Five: Discussions and conclusions are presented and pedagogical implications and suggestions are given for further studies.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The conceptualization of language teaching has a long history. For over a century, language educators have attempted to solve the problems of language teaching by focusing attention on how to teach. Although the question of how to teach has been debated for a long time, the debate has provided the main basis for different interpretations of language teaching (Stern, 1983). Communicative language teaching among those interpretations pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view (Littlewood, 1983).

The term focus on form, first used by Long (1991), has been derived from the communicative language teaching approach as a type of instruction in which the primary focus is on meaning and communication, with the learners' attention being drawn to the linguistic items in the input. It differs from the traditional language teaching –focus on forms- in the sense that the primary goal of the teacher in focus on forms is to design her teaching based on the linguistic items to be taught like in all other teaching methods; therefore the syllabus and teaching are designed accordingly.

No matter what type of instruction is used, the model of language acquisition that informs mainstream SLA identifies three main processes: intake, acquisition and language production (Ellis, 2001). Traditionally, language instruction has been aimed at the last of these processes since for many second language learners and teachers, being able to produce the language (i.e., output) is generally considered to constitute an important part of L2 learning. However, precisely how beneficial it is to produce language is often not so clear: how, and

in what degree does producing the L2 help learners? Especially, when the conflicting results of the studies are taken into consideration, the contribution of output to the development of L2 knowledge is still speculative. Moreover, as Izumi (2002: 542) puts it “if output has any positive effect on learning, we may wish to ask whether it is unique to output or if essentially the same effect can be obtained by some external manipulation of input”.

In this chapter, the readers will first be presented a section on the role of instruction in SLA, in order to introduce how and in what degrees instruction is important. Since attention is an indispensable part of instruction, the role of attention in second language learning will follow this. Later, a main approach to grammar teaching –focus on form will be presented. Lastly, input enhancement, processing instruction and pushed output- attention gathering techniques used in focus on form- will be discussed in detail.

2. 1. The Role of Instruction in SLA

This part looks at second language acquisition in a classroom setting. It considers whether formal instruction causes any difference in SLA. As Ellis (2007) states, this is an important educational issue because language pedagogy has traditionally operated on the assumption that grammar can be taught. In many instructional methods, it is believed that by focusing on the linguistic form the acquisition of the form will be fostered. Or, to put it in another way, raising the consciousness of the learner to the target form may help him to internalize it.

SLA theorists are not in agreement concerning the potential value of instructional intervention in SLA: some argue that instruction can have no effect

beyond the provision of an environment conducive to SLA (e.g., comprehensible input or triggering input). Others assume the effectiveness and even the necessity, at times, of relevant and principled instruction, and a case is made accordingly for the benefits of instruction of the right kind. Instructed SLA researchers thus investigate the comparative efficacy of different types of pedagogic intervention, particularly with regard to how instruction can assist learners in making the form-meaning connections that are critical for interlanguage development Doughty (2004).

The question of whether second language instruction makes a difference was first posed by Long (1983) in his comparison of the empirical studies which questioned Krashen's then influential claim of learning/acquisition distinction. In those early studies, very global comparisons were made. According to the results of the comparison Long summarized that for those for whom the classroom is the only opportunity for exposure to L2 input, "instruction" is beneficial.

By the 1990s, the evidence in the four domains of SLA – (i) SLA processes, (ii) SLA route, (iii) SLA rate and (iv) level of ultimate SL attainment-formed the basis of an assumption that L2 instruction is effective (Doughty, 2001).

Nassaji and Fotos (2004) state four reasons for considering the role of grammar as a necessary component of language instruction. First, it is necessary for learners to notice the target forms in input; otherwise they process input for meaning only and do not attend to specific forms, and consequently fail to process and acquire them. A second reason for the L2 grammar instruction is the evidence that L2 learners pass through developmental sequences-proven by the results of

some morpheme studies-. A third reason is a large body of research pointing to the inadequacies of teaching approaches where the focus is primarily on meaning-focused communication, and grammar is not addressed. A fourth reason for the consideration of grammar teaching in the L2 classroom is evidence for the positive effects of grammar instruction.

While searching for the same positive effects of grammar instruction Norris & Ortega (2000) review 49 sample studies published between 1980 and 1998. To give an example, Mackey and Philp (1998) searched for the effectiveness of intensive recasts and the participants were given interactionally modified input on question forms. The instruction category used was focus on form and the results revealed that the group received recasts did better than the group received interactionally modified input.

Norris & Ortega (2000:500) conclude as:

In general, focused L2 instruction results in large gains over the course of an intervention. Specifically, L2 instruction of particular language forms induces substantial target-oriented change, whether estimated as pre-to-post change within experimental groups or as differences in performance between treatment and control groups on post-test measures even when the control group is exposed to and interacts with experimental materials in which the L2 form is embedded.

In another study searching for the role of instruction, Toth (2000) summarizes his findings as evidence for the effectiveness of L2 instruction. He investigated the acquisition of the Spanish morpheme “se” by English-speaking adult learners. Participants included 91 university students and 30 Spanish native speaker-controls. Learners received form-focused, communicative instruction on

“se” for one week and were tested before, immediately following, and 24 days after the treatment period. The results showed that “se” had been added to many learners’ grammars.

Burges & Etherington (2002) claim that grammar teaching has been and continues to be an area of some controversy and debate that have led to the emergence of a new classroom option for language teachers: that of Focus on Form. Their paper reports research into teachers’ attitudes to grammar and its teaching and learning within an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) context. Responses from 48 EAP teachers in British university language centers produced both quantitative and qualitative data. Results indicate that the majority of teachers in this study appreciate the value of grammar for their students and possess a sophisticated understanding of the problems and issues involved.

Be it deductive methods or “habit forming” methods such as Audiolingualism the purpose of the practice provided is to focus on specific linguistic forms which the learner is encouraged to induce (Ellis, 2007). Among many other studies which emphasize the importance and effects of instruction, Ellis (2005) lists the principles of instructed language acquisition as follows:

Table 2. 1. Principles of Instructed Language Learning

Principle 1:	Instruction needs to ensure that learners develop both a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions and a rule-based competence.
Principle 2:	Instruction needs to ensure that learners focus predominantly on meaning.
Principle 3:	Instruction needs to ensure that learners also focus on form.
Principle 4:	Instruction needs to be predominantly directed at developing implicit knowledge of the L2 while not neglecting explicit knowledge.
Principle 5:	Instruction needs to take into account the learner's "built-in-syllabus".
Principle 6:	Successful instructed language learning requires extensive L2 input.
Principle 7:	Successful instructed language learning also requires opportunities for output.
Principle 8:	The opportunity to interact in the L2 is central to developing L2 proficiency.
Principle 9:	Instruction needs to take account of individual differences in learners.
Principle 10:	In assessing learners' L2 proficiency, it is important to examine free as well as controlled production.

(Ellis, 2005:9)

The investigation and research revealing positive results for the role of instruction in SLA can be taken in two ways. First, it has to be made clear if formal instruction aids SLA. Having presented some of the studies which investigated this issue, we can now continue with the second question. The second question which needs to be answered is "Which type(s) of formal instruction facilitate(s) SLA the most?". When Long (1983) emphasized the role of instruction in second language acquisition he not only claimed that instruction makes a difference in L2 acquisition but also changed the principal focus of the research from the effects of instruction to the most effective types of instruction fostering second or foreign language learning. Doughty (2003:256) states the cases against and for instruction and also claims that the shift has now turned to the search of the best type of instruction.

The debate concerning the effectiveness of L2 instruction takes place at two fundamental levels. At the first level, SLA theorists address in absolute terms

any potential at all (even the best possible) instructional intervention in SLA. A small number of SLA researchers claim that instruction can have no effect beyond the provision of an environment conducive to SLA. At the second level of debate, a case is made for the benefits of instruction. Then, assuming the effectiveness and sometimes even the necessity of relevant and principled instruction, researchers investigate the comparative efficacy of different types.

There is now evidence to support the claim that instruction helps second language learners. Therefore, in the next part of this section we will focus on one specific type of formal instruction, which is focus on form. However, before that the reader should be warned that since there is no doubt that attended learning is far superior and for all practical purposes, attention is necessary for all aspects of L2 learning (Schmidt, 2001) some concepts which shed light on our understanding of cognitive aspects of second language learning will be discussed below.

2. 2. The Role of Attention in SLA

The role of attention in language processing has become the focus of a rich corpus of recent second language acquisition studies (Wong, 2001). Its centrality has been so much accepted that Schmidt (2001) thinks that attention is as important as understanding the role of input in SLA. As summarized by him, it is now recognized that attention is a necessary construct for understanding every aspect of SLA and learners must consciously notice and be aware of features of input for intake and learning to be possible.

In psychology, the basic assumptions concerning attention have been that attention is limited, that it is selective, that it is partially subject to voluntary

control, that attention controls access to consciousness, and that attention is essential for action control and for learning (Schmidt 2001).

Tomlin and Villa (1994) however, do not overemphasize the role of attention but they claim that attending to input is necessary but awareness can be dissociated from attention and it is not necessary for learning. They identify three mechanisms of attention: alertness, orientation and detection. A person who attends to something is by definition alert (Sualberg, 2007). Alertness is related with motivation, in other terms readiness to deal with incoming stimuli or data. Orientation is directing attentional resources to a particular bit of information while excluding other information. Alertness and orientation enhance detection which is the process that selects or engages a particular or specific bit of information. Detection is the cognitive registration of sensory stimuli.

This same concept of detection has been called as “noticing” by Schmidt (1994) the only difference being that awareness is not required in detection but seen as essential in noticing. The term noticing is defined by Schmidt (1994, p:179) as the registration “detection” of the occurrence of a stimulus event in conscious awareness and subsequent storage in the long term memory. It is for Schmidt, the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake.

Leow (2000) conducted a qualitative and quantitative study in order to find out the effects of awareness on 32 adult second or foreign language learners' subsequent intake and written production of targeted Spanish morphological forms. Leow (2000) used think-aloud protocol data, gathered while learners completed a problem-solving task and he also used postexposure assessment tasks to measure awareness or the lack of it. No dissociation between awareness and

further processing of targeted forms was found in this study, the results of which are compatible with the claim that awareness plays a crucial role in subsequent processing of L2 data.

Williams (1999) bases her study on the assumption that some degree of focus on form facilitates the development of targetlike use and addresses one question in the attention-to- form debate: What role might learners play in fostering an increased awareness of form and accuracy? This study examines the production of eight classroom learners at four levels of proficiency to determine the extent to which learners can spontaneously attend to form in their interaction with other learners. Results suggest that the degree and type of learner-generated attention to form is related to proficiency level and the nature of the activity in which the learners are engaged. They also indicate that learners overwhelmingly choose to focus on lexical rather than grammatical issues.

Gass, Svetics & Lemelin (2003) question the extent to which attention differentially affects different parts of language and how this differential effect interacts with increased linguistic knowledge (i.e., proficiency). Thirty-four English speakers enrolled in Italian 1st, 2nd and 3rd-year foreign language courses in the United States were placed into one of two conditions (+focused attention) and (-focused attention) for each of three linguistic areas: syntax, morphosyntax and lexicon. It was predicted that focused attention would have the greatest effect on the lexicon and the least on syntax. The results showed the opposite. For the non-focused-attention condition, the predicted results were borne out. With regard to proficiency, focused attention had a diminishing effect, with the greatest effect in early periods of learning and the least in later stages.

To conclude, it is possible to say that attention does not refer to a single mechanism but to a variety of mechanisms or subsystems including alertness, orientation and detection within selective attention. However, what these have in common is the function of controlling information processing and instructional practices that focus learners' attention on things that they are less likely to attend to or notice on their own also have a solid justification (Schmidt, 2001).

2. 3. Focus on Form

Findings of a wide range of immersion and naturalistic acquisition studies suggest that when second language learning is solely experiential and focused on communicative success, some linguistic features do not develop to targetlike accuracy (Williams, 1999). Therefore, careful examination of the effectiveness of purely meaning-focused communicative language teaching has led a number of second language researchers to claim that communicative instruction should involve systematic treatments to draw L2 learner's attention to linguistic forms to develop well-balanced communicative competence (Long & Robinson, 1998; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Loewen, 2005; Muranoi, 2000). This led the pedagogists in the field to point to the inclusion of some degree of focus on form, in classes that are primarily focused on meaning and communication, as particularly helpful in promoting accuracy in second language acquisition (Doughty & Williams, 1998). Doughty (2003) defines focus on form basically as drawing learner attention to form while meaning and function are evident to the learner.

Long (1991) conceptualized the need to incorporate form-focused instruction into meaning-oriented communicative language teaching with the term “focus on form”. Focus on form, as Long defined it, is a type of instruction in which the primary focus is on meaning and communication, with the learners’ attention being drawn to linguistic elements only as they arise incidentally in lessons. This is generally interpreted as an unplanned approach to drawing the learners’ attention to form. Others; however, have given a broader definition of the concept, allowing for advanced planning in drawing learner attention to form (DeKeyser, 2001). Focus on form typically involves the use of communicative tasks, defined by Shekan (1998: 268) as activities where meaning is primary; there is a goal that needs to be worked towards; the activity is outcome evaluated; and there is a relationship between the task and real life. The factor that consistently distinguishes focus on form from other pedagogical approaches is the requirement that focus on form involves learners’ briefly and perhaps simultaneously attending to form, meaning and use during one cognitive event. This kind of joint processing is claimed to facilitate the cognitive mapping among forms, meaning and use that is fundamental to language learning (Doughty, 2001).

Ellis, Baştürkmen & Loewen (2002) distinguish between two types of focus on form instruction; planned focus on form and incidental focus on form. The former involves the use of focused tasks, i.e. communicative tasks that have been designed to elicit the use of a specific linguistic form in the context of meaning-centered language use. In this case, then, the focus on form is pre-determined. For example, a same-or-different task could be used to present pairs of pictures which would necessitate learners using “at” and “in” (the target

forms) in order to determine whether the pictures are the same or different. This type of focus on form instruction is similar to focus on forms instruction in that a specific form is pre-selected for treatment but it differs from it in two key respects. First, the attention to form occurs in interaction where the primary focus is on meaning. Second, the learners are not made aware that a specific form is being targeted and thus are expected to function primarily as “language users” rather than as “learners” when they perform the task.

Incidental focus on form involves the use of unfocused tasks, i.e. communicative tasks designed to elicit general samples of the language rather than specific forms. Such tasks can be performed without any attention to form whatsoever. However, it is also possible that the students and teacher will elect to incidentally attend to various forms while performing the task. In this case, of course, attention to form will be extensive rather than intensive—that is, many different forms are likely to be treated briefly rather than a single form addressed many times. For example, while performing an opinion-gap task, students might make a number of different errors which the teacher corrects or students might feel the need to ask the teacher about a particular form, such as the meaning of a key word they do not know.

Table 2. 2. Types of Form-Based

Type	Syllabus	Primary focus	Distribution
1. Focus-on-forms	Structural	Form	Intensive
2. Planned focus-on-form	Task-based	Meaning	Intensive
3. Incidental focus-on-form	Task-based	Meaning	Extensive

(Ellis et al.; 2002:420)

Spada (2007) evaluated the effectiveness of these two types of focus on form defined by Ellis et al. (2002). In a questionnaire study, Spada asked for the learners' and teachers' preference for and opinions about integrated and isolated form-focused instruction (FFI). Following were the research questions of the study:

- Does integrated FFI affect L2 learning differently from isolated FFI?
- Are different language features more easily learned via integrated or isolated FFI?
- What are learners' (and teachers') beliefs about integrated and isolated FFI?

The questionnaire had two versions given to students and teachers. In total, 210 students and 33 teachers from community-based ESL program participated. The students were 18 to 55 years of age and Intermediate level of proficiency. All of the teachers were female and over 40 and had more than 10 years of teaching experience.

An overall analysis of the results of the teachers' responses to all the items on the questionnaire – isolated and integrated, shows that teachers have an appreciation for both integrated and isolated FFI, with a slight edge towards integration. The findings were the same for teachers in both programs and an ANOVA indicated that no background variables (e.g. country of origin, type of education etc.) contributed to any differences.

Like the teacher questionnaire data, the student data also revealed that students valued both integrated and isolated FFI. The students responses were at 4 (agree) or slightly below 4 on the scale.

In focus on form instruction, the syllabus remains communicative, with no preplanned L2 forms to be learned in any specific lesson or in any special order (Poole, 2005). However, when a form is perceived to be problematic, the teacher and/or other learners may address it explicitly in a variety of ways, such as, through direct error correction, rule explanation, modeling, and drilling, to name a few. Grammatical items or structures may be brought to the students' attention by some graphic or auditory device, provided it does not distort the patterns of the language (Cook, 2001). Therefore, focus on form consists of an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features. This shift of attention may either come from the teacher and/or students triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production.

Doughty (2003), while examining the definitions of focus on form, identifies the cognitive correlates of Form Focused Instruction (FFI). In her definitions of focus on form she identifies "likely to be integral cognitive constructs" (Doughty: 207), such as; cognitive *microprocesses*, such as working memory and noticing; cognitive *macroprocesses* such as input processing and output production; and cognitive *resources* such as long term memory mental representation of the learner's developing IL knowledge. Figure 2. 1. displays these cognitive correlates.

Figure 2. 1. The Cognitive Correlates of Focus on Form

Focus on Form Concepts	Cognitive Correlates
1. Micro-processes	
focus attention, expectation,	selective orientation
focus on form (by learner)	simultaneous processing of forms, meaning, and use in working memory
focus on forms	explicit learning (often metalinguistic in practice)
noticing the gap	detection cognitive comparison
Focus on form, or attracting pedagogical intervention (by teacher or another learner)	cognitive "intrusion", directing attention
2. Macro-processes	
focus on meaning	implicit (experiential learning)
processing for language learning (Intake)	segmentation, acoustic, lexico-semantic, syntactic encoding; abstraction, monitoring; planning; rehearsal; memory search
language use	speech processing, i.e., production, comprehension
language learning	internalization of input, analysis, mapping among forms, meaning, and use restructuring
3. Resources	
interlanguage knowledge	mental representation in long-term memory
world knowledge	discourse and encyclopedic knowledge

Focus on form appears in the box at the center of Figure 2. 1. with the cognitive correlate of “cognitive intrusion.” The term cognitive intrusion emphasizes that directing or attracting learner attention to formal features of language is potentially an intrusion on ordinary cognitive processing. This may or may not be advantageous, depending upon the degree of intrusiveness with the processing underway (Doughty & Williams, 1998).

The significance of focus on form instruction has been recognized by teachers (Baştürkmen, Loewen & Ellis; 2004) and by researchers and a number of empirical studies aimed at determining the effects of focus on form have been conducted. Muranoi (2000), for example, examines the impact of interaction enhancement (IE) on the learning of English articles. IE is a treatment that guides learners to focus on form by providing interactional modifications and leads learners to produce modified output within a problem-solving task. Two IE treatments were employed: IE plus formal debriefing (IEF) and IE plus meaning-focused debriefing (IEM). Outcomes of these treatments were compared with the effects of non-enhanced interaction in a quasi-experimental study involving 91 Japanese EFL learners. Progress was measured with a pre-test and two post-tests, yielding that IE had positive effects on the learning of English articles and the IEF had a greater impact than the IEM treatment.

Lightbown and Spada (1990), observing communicative ESL courses in Quebec, also reported positive effects for focus on form. They found that a class in which form-focused instruction was provided within a communicative language teaching framework contributed to high levels of linguistic knowledge and improved command of progressive *-ing* and adjective-noun order in noun phrases.

Spada and Lightbown (1993), then conducted a quasi-experimental study on the effects of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback on the development of interrogative constructions in the oral performance of ESL learners in Quebec. They provided form-focused activities and exercises and corrective feedback over a two-week period within the context of an intensive ESL program. Results support their earlier conclusion that form-focused instruction within a communicative language teaching is beneficial in L2 acquisition by ESL learners.

Ellis, N. (2001) also support the idea that without any focus on form, formal accuracy is an unlikely result. Ellis, N. states that focus on form instruction, which is rich in communicative opportunities and which also makes salient the associations between structures (which the learner is ready at a stage to be able to represent) and functions, can facilitate language acquisition.

One component of the view that formal instruction is important for raising learner consciousness of grammatical structures is the critical role in language processing assigned to noticing the target structures in subsequent communicative input. Fotos (1993) investigates the amount of learner noticing produced by two types of grammar consciousness-raising treatments designed to develop formal knowledge of problematical grammar structures: teacher-fronted grammar lessons and interactive, grammar problem-solving tasks. The frequencies of noticing the target structure in communicative input one and two weeks after the grammar consciousness-raising treatments were compared with the noticing frequencies of a control group. This control group was not exposed to any type of grammar consciousness-raising activity. The results indicate that task performance was as effective as formal instruction in the promotion of subsequent significant amounts

of noticing, as compared with the noticing produced by the control group. It is demonstrated that a number of learners who developed knowledge about grammar structures went on to notice those structures in communicative input after their consciousness had been raised.

In cases where a pedagogical intervention –such as consciousness raising treatments- occur, it is debated if the influence of this intervention is moment-to-moment (Doughty, 2001). Since the cognitive macroprocesses are normally automatic and inaccessible, moment-to-moment microprocessing may be open to immediate influence. What needs to be determined is whether or not this influence facilitates L2 learning.

Lyster (2004) investigated the effects of form-focused instruction (FFI) and corrective feedback on immersion students' ability to accurately assign grammatical gender in French. Four teachers and their eight classes of 179 fifth-grade (10–11-year old) students participated in that quasi-experimental classroom study. The FFI treatment, designed to draw attention to selected noun endings that reliably predict grammatical gender and to provide opportunities for practice in associating these endings with gender attribution, was implemented in the context of regular subject-matter instruction by three of the four teachers, each with two classes, for approximately nine hours during a 5-week period, while the fourth teacher taught the same subject matter without FFI to two comparison classes. Additionally, each of the three FFI teachers implemented a different feedback treatment: recasts, prompts, or no feedback. Analyses of pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test results showed a significant increase in the ability of

students exposed to FFI to correctly assign grammatical gender. Results of the written tasks in particular, and to a lesser degree the oral tasks, revealed that FFI is more effective when combined with prompts than with recasts or no feedback, as a means of enabling L2 learners to acquire rule-based representations of grammatical gender and to proceduralize their knowledge of these emerging forms.

It can be said that the learners learn the grammatical structures they are taught through FFI depending on the ample evidence which shows that form-focused instruction (FFI) has a positive effect on second language (SL) acquisition (Ellis 2002). And it is a known fact that in order to take learners' attention to form in FFI, there are different techniques to be used. As was stated above the main goal of the study in hand is to search and find out which of these attention drawing techniques used in focus on form is more effective and durable. Therefore, in the following sections the reader will be presented with three attention drawing techniques, namely: input enhancement, pushed output and processing instruction.

2. 4. Input and Second Language Acquisition

The role of input has been recognized as important in our understanding of how L2s are learned. "In its simplest form, input is the *sine qua non*¹ of acquisition" (Gass & Torres, 2005: 2).

When in the field of second language learning and teaching the scope of inquiry included the learning environment on learners' developing competence,

¹ Latin for "without which not"; something that is absolutely essential.

focus has been shifted to the input to the learner and the interactions in which learners engage. Among the papers contributing to the broadened scope of inquiry in the field has come from Corder in 1967 in which he distinguished between input and intake (cited in Gass & Madden 1985). In his words, the simple fact of presenting a certain linguistic form to the learner does not necessarily qualify it for the status of input, for the reason that input is “what goes in” not what is available for going in, and we may reasonably suppose that it is the learner who controls this input or more properly his intake. Within the research paradigm of input studies, input generally refers to “what is available for going in” and intake “what actually goes in”.

No theories or approaches to SLA underscore the importance of input, although theories differ as to its significance. For Cook (2001), the purpose of language teaching in a sense is to provide optimal samples of language or the learner to profit from- the best “input” to the process of language learning. Everything the teacher does provide the learner with opportunities for encountering the language.

According to the Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985), learners acquire an L2 when they are exposed to comprehensible input that contains linguistic forms slightly in advance of their current interlanguage system ($i+1$).² Krashen (1994: 48) claims that “only comprehensible input is consistently effective in increasing proficiency” and that “more skill-building, more correction, and more output do not consistently result in more proficiency”. For Krashen, the ability to produce the L2 is the result, not the cause of acquisition.

² In ($i+1$) i refers to the current interlanguage system of the second language learner and $+1$ is the comprehensible input which contains linguistic forms above one level of the current interlanguage system.

When we examine the role of input in Universal Grammar (UG), we see that within the framework of UG input is central (Brown, 2000; Gass, 2004; Lightbown & Spada, 1999). In UG, an innate knowledge system whose job is to constrain the shape of possible human grammars is said to guide language acquisition. The questions that drive the UG approach to acquisition is “What do learner grammars allow and disallow?” and “How can learners come to know what they know about language with the data they are exposed to?” (VanPatten, 2004:35). Within the principles and parameters framework, UG-based researchers can examine to what extent learners adhere to UG-based constraints and to what extent they are capable of (re)setting parameters. Therefore, it will not be a mistake to say that UG relies on input in the creation of a linguistic system.

In another theory, which is radically different from UG, there is no innate knowledge which shapes the acquisition process. According to connectionism, if there is a language and language acquisition system, it emerges in time. It is not innate; it is not there from the outset (Ellis, 1998). Within this framework, learners construct a neural network of information nodes with links between them (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). These links are either strengthened or weakened via activation or nonactivation. For example; once a link is established between a particular form and its meaning, that link is increasingly strengthened each time the connection between form and meaning are made. Thus, frequency in the input has an impact on the strength of connections (Ellis, N, 2004). As for UG, also for connectionism input is fundamental since the data for the creation of nodes and associations between them are to be found in the input.

In his Competition Model, MacWhinney (2001) emphasizes three components of language learning as input being one of them together with learner and context. In MacWhinney, the basic claim of the model in regard to input is that language comprehension is based on the detection of a series of cues and the reliability and availability of these determines the strength of cues in comprehension.

VanPatten (2003) defines input as the language that a learner hears (or reads) that has some kind of communicative intent. Communicative intent here refers to the message in the language that the learner is supposed to attend to and/or respond to. The job of the learner is to comprehend the message. VanPatten (2003) claims that acquisition happens as a by-product of comprehension since the message the learner attempts to comprehend is encoded linguistically with lexical items, syntax, morphology and so on. When a learner is grasping the meaning, he is making connections between meaning and how that meaning is encoded. He, therefore, says that input for acquisition is not information about the language. It is not drilling, or filling out an exercise to practice a linguistic item. It is also not the language used for display purposes (language used by the teacher to present a rule not to communicate) or for correction by teachers. Only instances of the L2 that are used to communicate information or to seek information can be considered as input for acquisition.

Ellis (1985: 77) suggests two ways in which the input may influence the route along which L2 learners pass:

First, the input that results from the interlocutors' attempts to negotiate shared topic results in specific syntactic forms being modeled more frequently than others. These are processed and acquired by the learner. Thus, it is the basic rules of conversation which determine which forms are

used frequently and so learned early. This view of the contribution of the input to SLA has been put forward by Hatch (1978). The second way in which the input affects the course of development is through these of what Wagner-Gough (1975) has called an "incorporation strategy". According to this view, conversations provide the learner with units of different sizes which can be incorporated into sentence structure. Thus, the input controls which forms are processed by learners and also provides building blocks which they can use to construct new syntactic patterns, which otherwise lie outside the learner's competence.

VanPatten (2003) divides input into two as conversational and non-conversational input. Conversational input is the language that learners hear in the context of some kind of communicative exchange with some other people. It is the language directed to the learner with some kind of expected response. Here, the learner must be a part of the interaction for language to be conversational input. Non-conversational input, on the other hand, does not require the learner to respond to the language. Watching television, listening to the radio and being a part of a formal lecture are all examples of getting non-conversational input. The language is not directed to the learner and the learner does not engage the speaker in any kind of interaction.

2.4.1. Input Processing

A crucial role in understanding the role of input relates to processing. VanPatten (2003) has concerned with what he refers to as input processing, which deals with presentation and timing of input. The process of getting linguistic data from the input in a second language is called "input processing."

In cognitive psychology it is stated that attention is selective and limited (Schmidt, 2001). Given this limited attentional capacity only a limited amount of

incoming data may be attended to at a given time. Thus, VanPatten (1994) proposed that form and meaning may compete for attentional resources. Because the communicative goal of the learner is to understand the content of the message rather than how it is encoded, the learner will process input for meaning before s/he does so for form.

Input processing consists of two sub-processes: making form-meaning connections and parsing. Making form-meaning connections means getting data from the input as that *-s* at the end of a verb means someone else or third person singular. Parsing refers to mapping syntactic structure onto utterance like knowing which noun is the subject, which is the object when hearing a sentence.

VanPatten (2002: 757) states:

Input processing is concerned with how learners derive intake from input regardless of the language being learned and regardless of the context be it instructed or noninstructed. Intake is defined as the linguistic data actually processed from the input and held in working memory for further processing. As such, input processing attempts to explain how learners get form from input and how they parse sentences during the act of comprehension while their primary attention is on meaning. Form in this model refers to surface features of language (e.g., functors, inflections), although IP is also relevant to syntax.

Comprehension has been stated to be a facilitator of processing form in the input by VanPatten (2003). Interaction and input modification are the ways to facilitate comprehension. During a conversation there may be negotiation of meaning. One way of negotiation of meaning is confirmation checks, which recast what the learner says. Input modification, on the other hand, is the simplification of input. Input can be modified in a number of ways like; using shorter sentences, using more common vocabulary, repeating something, and others.

Table 2. 3. Principles of Input Processing

-
- P1. Learners process input for meaning before they process it for form.
- P1a. Learners process content words in the input before anything else.
 - P1b. Learners prefer processing lexical items to grammatical items (e.g., morphology) for the same semantic information.
 - P1c. Learners prefer processing “more meaningful” morphology before “less” or “nonmeaningful” morphology.
- P2. For learners to process form that is not meaningful, they must be able to process informational or communicative content at no (or little) cost to attention.
- P3. Learners possess a default strategy that assigns the role of agent (or subject) to the first noun (phrase) they encounter in a sentence/utterance. This is called the first-noun strategy.
- P3a. The first-noun strategy may be overridden by lexical semantics and event probabilities.
 - P3b. Learners will adopt their processing strategies for grammatical role assignment only after their developing system has incorporated other cues (e.g., case marking, acoustic stress).
- P4. Learners process elements in sentence/utterance initial position first.
- P4a. Learners process elements in final position before elements in medial position.
-

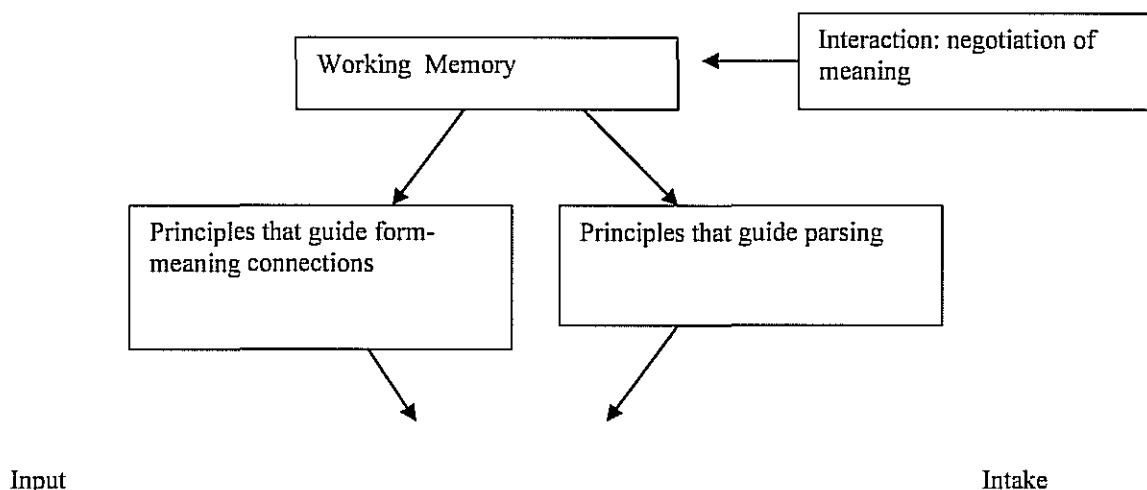
(VanPatten, 2002: 758)

The point here is that L2 learners do not need to get better at comprehending before they can begin to attend to grammatical features in the input. When the input is adjusted for level, learners have less of a comprehension burden and thus the likelihood of their attending to form increases.

VanPatten’s model consists of a set of principles and corollaries (See Table 2. 3. above) that interact in complex ways in working memory. As VanPatten (2002:757) states “It is important to point out the role of working memory in this model since the first two principles are predicated on a limited capacity for processing information; that is, learners can only do so much in their

working memory before attentional resources are depleted and working memory is forced to dump information to make room for more (incoming) information.”

Figure 2. 2. Input Processing



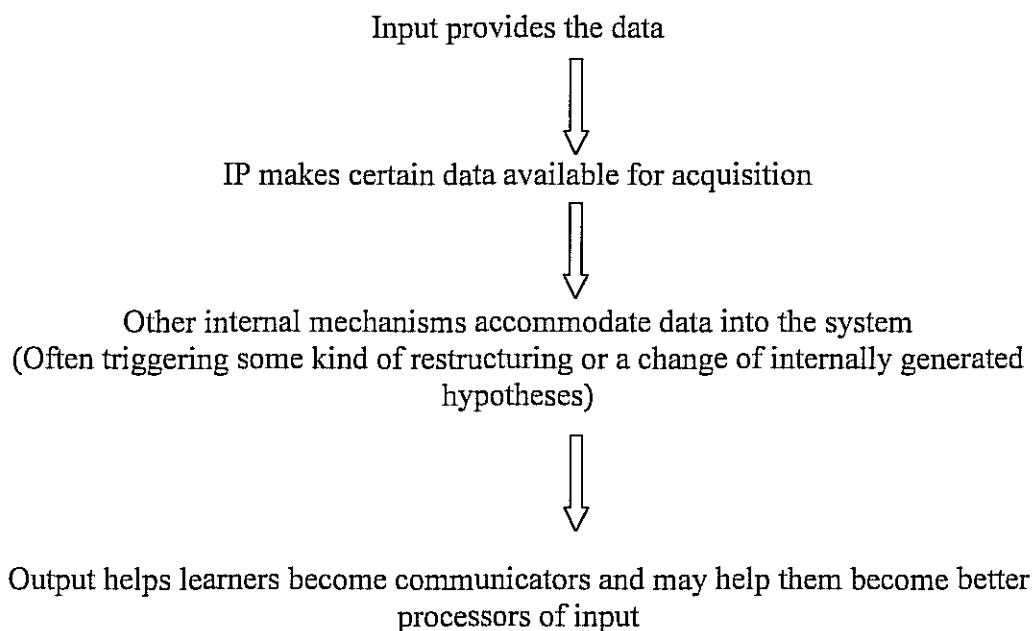
(VanPatten, 2003:40)

Input processing consists of two subprocesses: the process of making form meaning connections and parsing. Both have to do with how learners initially match meaning with form at both its local and sentential levels. Input processing is not equivalent to acquisition and is only one set of processes involved in the creation of an underlying mental representation. The result of input processing is linguistic data held in working memory that is available for further processing (VanPatten, 2004).

Alcon (1998), in her article *Input and Input Processing in Second Language Acquisition*, hypothesizes that a number of factors can influence the way input is processed by the second language learners. Among these are, input simplification, input enhancement, interactional modifications and individual learner differences.

To sum up, from the point of view of VanPatten's input processing, a model of second language acquisition follows these steps:

Figure 2. 3. Model for SLA



2. 4. 1. 1. Processing Instruction

VanPatten (2002) defines processing instruction (PI) as a type of grammar instruction or focus on form derived from the insights of input processing. For Doughty (2001) processing instruction is a pedagogical intervention designed to influence L2 learners' processing of input such that it more readily and efficiently becomes intake. In particular, processing instruction aims to make salient to L2 learners those aspects of the input which are hardest or at least natural to pay attention to. The most salient characteristic of PI is that it uses a particular type of input to push learners away from nonoptimal processing strategies. Therefore, VanPatten (2002) claims that since the point of PI is to assist the learner in

making form-meaning connections during IP, it is more appropriate to view it as a type of focus on form.

A secondary salient characteristic of PI is that learners are never asked to produce the target form during the instructional phase. During PI what the learner is asked to do 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 PI strategy that may negatively affect their picking up of the form or structure during comprehension.
3. Learners are pushed to process the form or structure during activities with structured input: input that is manipulated in particular ways so that learners become dependent on form and structure to get meaning and/or to privilege the form or structure in the input so that learners have a better chance of attending to it (i.e., learners are pulled away from their natural processing tendencies toward more optimal tendencies).

Even though stated by VanPatten above as a type of focus-on form, due to the explicit focus on form component of this approach, some researchers have equated it with Long's focus on forms (e.g., Sheen, 2002). VanPatten (2002: 764), however, argues that since the aim of this approach is "to assist the learner in making form-meaning connections during IP [input processing]; it is more appropriate to view it as a type of focus on form".

Benati (2003) in his study addressed the question of whether or not explicit information plays a significant role in instructed SLA within the framework of

processing instruction. In his experimental study, there were three groups: a processing instruction group, a structured input only group, and an explicit information only group. The participants were taught twice during the instructional treatments over a period of two consecutive days on the Italian future tense. The results of the ANOVA carried out showed the structured input only group made gains similar to those of the PI group both in interpretation and production tasks. However, the explicit information only group did not. Its gains were minimum.

2. 4. 1. 2. Input Enhancement

In our discussion of the importance of input in SLA it was stated that the current SLA research considers the importance of input necessary but insufficient (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991). It is believed that not all of the input that learners are exposed to is utilized as intake for learning. Therefore recent research in SLA has examined the role of attention in mediating input and learning. A general finding of such research indicates that attention is necessary for learning to take place. As was stated by Schmidt (1995, 2001) people learn about the things that they attend to and do not learn much about the things they do not attend to. In his Noticing Hypothesis, Schmidt (1990) claims that “intake is that part of the input that the learner notices”. He went further to argue that SLA is largely driven by what learners pay attention to and notice in target language input.

The position that learning without attention is not possible is also defended by Carr and Curran (1994: 207), who stated that “there is little compelling

evidence that requires anyone to believe in a strong form of ‘unconscious abstraction’- the full construction of very abstract rule systems completely outside of awareness-” and that “there is compelling evidence that focused attention is needed for structural learning even if what is being learned does not reach conscious levels of processing”. It is argued that unattended stimuli persist in immediate short-term memory for only a few seconds at best and attention is the necessary and sufficient condition for long-term memory storage to occur. In SLA, the claim has been made frequently that attention is necessary for input to become available for further mental processing (Schmidt, 2001).

Taking the central role of attention in learning as a starting point of investigation, recent SLA research has begun to explore whether and how the learners’ attentional processes may be influenced for the sake of their greater interlanguage development. Such consideration is indeed at the core of influential pedagogic proposals known as consciousness-raising (Smith, 1993) and focus on form. Specific pedagogical approaches to draw the learners’ attention to form- namely; input enhancement and learners’ output (will be discussed later) - have received considerable attention in recent SLA research.

A linguistic item may be salient because of its intrinsic properties or it may be made deliberately salient in the input in order to direct the learners’ attention. The terms consciousness-raising and input enhancement are frequently used to refer to “that kind of attention drawing” (Smith, 1993). In SLA literature, the use of both terms can sometimes be confusing since they are used as synonyms, or to denote different concepts. The term consciousness-raising was first used by Smith (1981) to indicate that a deliberate attempt was made to focus

on the formal properties of the language in order to develop a second language knowledge. In other words, it is assumed that by focusing deliberately on the formal properties of the language the learners' mental state is alerted. However, in 1991 Smith switched to the term input enhancement to indicate how certain features of language input could become salient. Erlam (2003) defines enhanced input as instructional techniques which expose students to input in which the target structure is typographically enhanced.

Smith (1993) referred to input enhancement as a means of highlighting certain language areas for learners with the goal of drawing their attention to those areas. He pointed out that input enhancement can be internally and externally driven. Externally driven enhancement is what happens in a classroom when a teacher, through a variety of means, draws attention to a particular area of language (e.g. through a structured task or an overt explanation). Internally driven enhancement comes about through learners' own devices when they attend to something themselves (e.g. due to salience or frequency).

Smith (1993) proposes two types of input enhancement: positive and negative input enhancement. Positive input enhancement highlights the salience of correct forms in the input such as; visual input enhancement of a reading text in which targeted form are bolded, underlined, capitalized or italicized. Negative input enhancement would highlight errant forms. An example of this would be error flags which would draw learner attention to their mistakes.

In their study, Jensen and Vinther (2003) report on two experiments on input enhancement used to support learners' selection of focus of attention in second language listening material. Eighty-four upper intermediate learners of

Spanish took part. The input consisted of video recordings of quasispontaneous dialogues between native speakers, in tests and treatment. Exact repetition and speech rate reduction were examined for their effect on comprehension, acquisition of decoding strategies, and linguistic features. Each of three groups were made to listen to each utterance of the dialogue three times, in different speed combinations; fast-slow-fast, fast-slow-slow, fast-fast-fast, respectively. A fourth group served as a baseline and received no treatment. Comparisons of pre-test and post-test scores showed significant effects for all parameters. No difference with regard to effect could be established between treatment conditions.

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

Combs (2005) tries to explore the underlying cognitive processes that could be triggered by input enhancement. The idea is to see what effects of input

has had or has failed to have on the L2 learner's processing of input. With a meta-analysis of seven studies conducted on enhanced input, Combs summarizes that not all of the studies used input enhancement alone as a method of inducing the desired learning effects intended by the researcher. Secondly, studies of visual input enhancement have involved varying lengths of treatment and exposure to the input. The results of the treatment have been quite mixed. Three of these seven studies yielded positive findings for the facilitative effect of enhancement, whereas three studies elicited limited effect at all.

Input and especially enhanced input, essential factors in determining the other factors which contribute to the processes involved in second language learning, need to be considered with a multiplicity of factors in order to determine learner development. Among the other factors stated above, output has a crucial role to be mentioned too.

2. 5. Output and Second Language Acquisition

Current SLA research, however, goes beyond general interest in the need for comprehensible input, which is considered necessary but insufficient mainly because not all of the input that learners are exposed to is utilized as intake for learning (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991). Gass & Selinker (2001) state that input alone is not sufficient for acquisition because when one hears language, one can often interpret the meaning without the use of syntax. Hearing the words "*dog, bit, girl*" one can understand that the meaning is "*The dog bit the girl.*" So, little knowledge is needed to interpret the meaning. Output, on the other hand, has

been seen as a way of creating knowledge, but as a way of practicing already existing knowledge.

Swain (1985) mentioning the same problem stated above by Gass and Selinker (2001), gives the example of French Immersion Programs in Canada, which aim at the achievement of both academic and L2 learning through an integration of language teaching and content teaching. Even though these language programs have great success in many areas of the students' language development, the same students, however, have been found to have problems in some aspects of the target language grammar. Swain (1985, 1993, 2000) found that although immersion students were provided with a rich source of comprehensible input over a period of eight years, their interlanguage performance was still off-target; that is they were clearly identifiable as nonnative speakers or writers. In particular, Swain found that the expressive performance of these students was far weaker than that of same-aged native speakers of French. For example, they evidenced less knowledge and control of complex grammar, less precision in their overall use of vocabulary and morphosyntax, and lower accuracy in pronunciation. Swain (1985, 2000) argues that one of the important reasons for having problems in the target language grammar is that these learners engage in too little language production, which prevents them from going beyond a functional level of L2 proficiency. She states that the interlanguage performance of these students was still off-target because they lacked opportunities in two ways: "First, the students are simply not given –especially in later grades–adequate opportunities to use the target language in the classroom context. Second, they are not being "pushed" in their output." Swain goes on to say that

“there appears to be little social or cognitive pressure to produce language that reflects more appropriately or precisely their intended meaning: there is no push to be more comprehensible than they already are” (Swain, 2000. p: 249).

Observation such as these have led Swain to conclude that comprehensible input, while invaluable to the acquisition process, is not sufficient for these students to fully develop their L2 proficiency. What these students need, Swain argued, is not only comprehensible input, but “comprehensible output” if they are to improve both fluency and accuracy in their interlanguage. As Swain (1995: 128) states: “Output may stimulate learners to move from the semantic, open-ended nondeterministic, strategic processing prevalent in comprehension to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production. Output, thus, would seem to have a potentially significant role in the development of syntax and morphology.”

The construct of comprehensible output posits that when learners experience communication difficulties, they will be pushed into making their output more precise, coherent and appropriate, and this process is said to contribute to language learning (Izumi, 2003). The same construct is defined by Shehadeh (2002: 599) as “the basic premise of the comprehensible output hypothesis postulates that producing the L2, especially when learners experience difficulties in communicating their intended messages successfully, “pushes” learners to make their output more precise, coherent and appropriate and this process contributes to SLA”.

Thus, Swain (1985: 249) claims that producing the target language (TL) may serve as “the trigger that forces the learner to pay attention to the means of

expression needed in order to successfully convey his or her own intended meaning”.

Since the Output Hypothesis was first proposed, Swain (1993, 1995, 1998) has extended the scope of the hypothesis and proposed four different functions of output. First, output provides opportunities for developing automaticity in language use. This is *the fluency function*. In order to develop speedy access to extant L2 knowledge for fluent productive performance, learners need opportunities to use their knowledge in meaningful contexts, and this naturally requires output. The second function of output is a *hypothesis-testing function*. Producing output is one way of testing one’s hypotheses about the TL. Learners can judge the comprehensibility and linguistic well-formedness of their interlanguage utterances against feedback obtained from their interlocutors. Third, output has a *metalinguistic function*. It is claimed that “as learners reflect upon their own TL use, their output serves a metalinguistic function, enabling them to control and internalize linguistic knowledge” (Swain, 1995: 233). In other words, output processes enable learners not only to reveal their hypothesis, but also to reflect on them using language. Reflection on language may deepen the learners’ awareness of forms, rules and form-function relationships if the context of production is communicative in nature.

Finally, output serves a *noticing-triggering function*. Noticing is stated to be crucial to second language learning and interaction has been argued to promote noticing (Wigglesworth, 2005; Philp, 2003). Namely, in producing the target language “learners may notice a gap between what they want to say and what they can say, leading them to recognize what they do not know, or know only

partially” (Swain, 1995). The recognition of problems may then prompt the learners to attend to the relevant information in the input, which will trigger their interlanguage development.

In sum, Swain’s output hypothesis claims that output can, under certain conditions, promote language acquisition by allowing learners to try out and stretch their interlanguage capabilities. In so doing, learners may recognize the problems in their interlanguage through internal or external feedback and this recognition may prompt the learners to create alternatives by searching their existing knowledge or to seek out relevant input with more focused attention and with more clearly identified communicative needs.

Gass & Selinker (2001: 278) provide four possible ways that output may provide learners with a forum for important language-learning functions:

1. testing hypotheses about the structures and meanings of the target language;
2. receiving crucial feedback for the verification of these hypotheses;
3. developing automaticity in IL (interlanguage) production;
4. forcing a shift from more meaning-based processing of the second language to a more syntactic mode.

In a study which attempts to search for the hypothesis-testing function of output, Shehadeh (2003) posed the research question “How often do learners test out hypotheses about the target language?” Shehadeh states that it is not yet known how often learners test out hypotheses about the TL, to what degree the hypothesis testing activity of the learner results in well-formed or ill-formed output, whether and to what degree learner hypotheses that result in non-target

like (NTL) output or utterances are challenged by interlocutors, and whether unchallenged hypotheses that result in NTL output would lead to internalizing the “wrong” linguistic knowledge.

A picture-description task was used to collect data from 16 participants, eight native speakers (NS) and eight nonnative speakers (NNS) of English, forming eight NS–NNS dyads. All interactions were audio-taped. The data were analyzed and examined specifically for hypothesis testing episodes (HTEs) by NNSs. The results showed that NNSs tested out one hypothesis about the target language (TL) every 1.8 min. The results also revealed that those HTEs that resulted in NTL output and constituted over a third of all HTEs found went completely unchallenged by interlocutors. These results were interpreted to mean that failing to provide corrective feedback or negative evidence to learner output that exhibits NTL utterances or rules may constitute a signal for the confirmation of these utterances or rules, albeit non-target like, from the perspective of the internal processing systems of the learner, which, in turn, constitutes a step toward internalizing linguistic knowledge.

The role of negotiated interaction and that it facilitates acquisition have been argued by some researchers. Gass (1997), for example, has said “negotiation is a facilitator for learning; it is one means but not the only means of drawing attention to the areas of needed change. It is one means by which input can become comprehensible and manageable” (131-132). What Gass is arguing is that interaction alters the task demands placed on a learner during input processing. The change in task demands frees up attentional resources allowing learners to process something they might miss otherwise. It must be made clear that this

position does not suggest that by producing the form in question during the interaction the learner is acquiring or has acquired the form; the position is that by interacting the learner gets crucial data from another interlocutor. The following example overheard in a locker room after a tennis match is illustrating. “Bob” is a native speaker of English and “Tom” is a nonnative speaker with Chinese as a first language (from VanPatten, 2003).

Bob: So where's Dave?

Tom: He vacation.

Bob: He's on vacation?

Tom: Yeah. On vacation.

Bob: Lucky guy.

In this particular interaction, Bob's clarification/confirmation requests allowed Tom to notice the use of *on* with *vacation*. Even though Bob's second question did not contain a new message, this freed up the resources in working memory for him to process the preposition. That Tom incorporated it subsequently into a confirmation does not mean that he has acquired it; what it shows is that he has noticed it, something Gass claims may be part of the process of acquisition.

Ellis and He (1999), in their experimental study of the differential effects of premodified input, interactionally modified input, and modified output of the comprehension of directions in a listen-and-do task and the acquisition of new words embedded in the directions, report the modified output group to achieve higher comprehension and vocabulary acquisition scores than either of the input groups.

In her paper, Erlam (2003) reviews the studies that have contrasted the effectiveness of structured-input instruction with output-based instruction. She

then presents results from her study, in which she 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. Three classes of students (n= 70) were assigned to three groups: structured-input instruction, output-based instruction, and control. 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.

In a study conducted by Izumi, Bigelow, Fujiwara and Fearnow (1999), the researchers posed two research questions which were: (a) Does output promote noticing of linguistic form? and (b) Does output result in improved performance on the target form? The results of this study provide partial support for the output hypothesis. Although, the phase 1 tasks resulted in noticing and immediate incorporation of the target form, the post-test performance failed to reveal any effects. The phase 2 tasks, in contrast, resulted in improvement on the subsequent post-test.³ Since the control group, unexpectedly, increased significantly in their noticing of the target form, the unique effects of output in promoting noticing of the form, therefore, were not confirmed.

2.5.1. Pushed Output

Speaking is maybe one of the most important skills that we automatically do in our daily lives. However, it should be kept in mind that automatized behavior results from consistent practice. This means, for example, that practice in

³ Izumi et al. state that this might have been because of the heavy cognitive demands on the learners as they engage in output activities. (Guided essay-tasks were used in the study.)

oral production has impact on automatized speaking skills (DeKeyser, 2001). In other words, to be more skilled in producing the second language, one needs to produce the second language.

Following more closely Swain's notion of "Pushed Output," experimental studies that seek to manipulate output as a variable might suggest that learners can pay attention to all sorts of things. An exemplary study along these lines is Izumi (2002). In this study, learners of English were exposed to input only or input/output cycles in learning relative clause constructions. Some groups received cycles of unenhanced input with no tasks requiring production whereas other received cycles of enhanced input, in which the relative clause marking was highlighted. Other groups received either of these two treatments, plus some tasks that required the production of relative clauses. Learners were subsequently tested on interpretation tasks, grammaticality judgments tasks, sentence combination tasks and sentence completion tasks. The results reveal that the input/output groups made greater gains compared with input-only groups. Izumi (2002: 566) concludes: "In short, pushed output can induce the learners to process the input effectively for their greater interlanguage development."

Izumi (2002) summarizes the characteristics of enhanced input and output as follows:

These approaches share a basic characteristic- namely, an attempt to direct the learner's otherwise elusive attention to problematic aspects in the input to promote their acquisition. They differ, however, in how this is achieved. Whereas attention in the case of visual input enhancement is induced by external means (i.e., by highlighting selected input forms), attention in output arises internally through production processes, in that learners themselves decide what they find problematic in their production and what they pay attention to in the input (although external manipulation of

task variables may intervene in this process). In other words, it may be argued that visual input enhancement is an external attention-drawing technique, whereas output is an internal attention-drawing device (pp. 543).

VanPatten (2004) criticizes the above study stating that all the groups have made gains and that the input-only group might have caught up with others with time and additional exposure. As he also states this is a testable hypothesis. VanPatten (2004: 37) continues “That argument is the “insufficiency of the input alone” for the development of learners’ grammars. In various ways the argument is that learners who receive input alone don’t do so well, meaning they may fall far short of native-like abilities. Thus, something other than input must be necessary for acquisition. In the current discussion, that something is output.”

Takashima (1995), has examined the effects of output production and reported positive effects of a treatment pushing learners to produce output within a communicative task. He provided Japanese learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) with form-focused feedback aimed at leading the learners to modify their output. Takashima claimed that the results of his experiment supported the facilitative effects of his output-oriented treatment on the learning of the target grammar (i.e., past tense forms).

In that sense, the central question addressed by Mackey (1999: 557) was “Can conversational interaction facilitate second language development?”. The study employed a pre-test-post-test design. Adult ESL learners (n = 34) of varying L1 backgrounds were divided into four experimental groups and one control group. They took part in task-based interaction. Research questions focused on the developmental outcomes of taking part in various types of interaction. Active participation in interaction and the developmental level of the learner were

considered. Results of this study support claims concerning a link between interaction and grammatical development and highlight the importance of active participation in the interaction.

In another study by Morgan-Short and Bowden (2006) not form focused instruction but processing instruction and meaningful output based instruction were compared. The study investigated the effects of meaningful input- and output based practice on SLA. First-semester Spanish students ($n = 45$) were assigned to processing instruction, meaningful output-based instruction, or control groups. Experimental groups received the same input in instruction but received meaningful practice that was input or output based. Both experimental groups have shown significant gains on immediate and delayed interpretation and production tasks. Repeated-measures analyses of variance have shown that overall, for interpretation, both experimental groups have outperformed the control group. For production, only the meaningful output-based group has outperformed the control group. These results suggest that not only input based but also output based instruction can lead to linguistic development.

The balance of experimental findings supports the effectiveness for SLA of encouraging learners to produce output. Keck, Iberri-Shea, Tracy and Wambaleka (2005) reported a quantitative meta-analysis⁴ of studies of the effect of interaction on acquisition. Eight of the unique sample studies in this meta-analysis involved pushed output, where participants were required to attempt production of target features, often because they played the role of information-holders in jigsaw, information-gap or narrative tasks. The effects of these treatments were

⁴ A method for the statistical re-analysis of experimental and correlational results from independent studies that address related research questions.

compared with six other interaction studies that did not provide opportunities for pushed output. Tasks involving opportunities for pushed output produced larger effect sizes than tasks without pushed output on immediate post-tests.

Literature also provides some drawbacks of pushed output. Batstone (2002) relates face sensitivity with output pushing and state that one thing which is particularly striking about output “pushing” is that it incurs threats to “face” which might well deter many learners from taking full advantage of the opportunity offered in theory by pre-task planning. By placing such faith in task design per se, we run the risk of focusing too much on aspects of the external context and not enough on the learners’ internal orientation within it.

In part, pushing ones’ output in an attempt to access novel language which is complex is face-threatening, because it risks incoherence—something which in everyday communicative discourse we do all we can to avoid, both in our own discourse and in interpreting the discourse of others (Cook, 1989: 28–29).

To sum up, Larsen-Freeman (1983:7) when saying “As I am becoming more and more painfully aware these days when I drive up to the gas pumps, my car needs gas to make it operate –but it will go nowhere unless I turn on the ignition, release the emergency brake, and depress the accelerator”. This quote actually defines the roles of input and output in SLA very clearly. If input is the gas that makes the car operate, then output is the person who turns on the ignition, releases the emergency brake, and depresses the accelerator. In short; making the car move. This indispensable relationship between input and output is in the core of the research in hand.

As can be understood easily, literature reviewed above does not give us concrete results on the effects of enhanced input, pushed output and processing instruction. Taking Izumi's view, this study will investigate first, the effects of input enhancement and learners' output or *pushed output*⁵ on the learning of Type 3 Conditional sentences, and then a comparison of the two on the degree of the acquisition of the chosen linguistic form. Another investigating point of the study is to test the efficiency of processing instruction as another attention drawing technique. Therefore, this study will be a comparison of visually enhanced input, pushed output and processing instruction on the learning of the target linguistic form -Type 3 Conditionals-. Another aim of the study is to see if the knowledge gained by these three forms will retain well over time.

⁵ The term *pushed output* is also used in the literature by Ellis, R. 1994 and Ellis, N. 2005.

3. METHODOLOGY

The present study is an attempt to investigate the possible effects of three different attention drawing techniques used in grammar teaching in focus on form. The aim of the study is to compare the three techniques: visually enhanced input, pushed output and processing instruction with the traditional teaching. By doing this, the researcher aims to find out the most effective attention drawing technique(s) that can be used in second language grammar classes.

The main research question posed for the study seeks if it is pushed output, visually enhanced input and/or processing instruction that has effect on the learning of Type 3 Conditional sentences. Among the three ways of attention drawing techniques the most effective on the learning of Type 3 Conditional sentences is also investigated in this experimental design study. Other than investigating the most effective technique, the study also takes the retention issue as an important focus of the investigation. Among the techniques, which one(s) retain(s) well over time is another concern.

3. 1. Definitions of the Structure Used in the Study

The chosen target form for the study is the past hypothetical conditional (If Clause- Type 3). This form has also attracted the attention of some other researches in the field (Timm, 1986, Izumi et al., 1999).

Celce-Murcia (2001) and Larsen-Freeman (1983) stated that conditional sentences in general, and hypothetical or counterfactual conditionals in particular cause problems for many second language learners. Since Conditional sentences include two clauses: a main clause and an if clause, the structure of the sentence is

complex. Mastery of this structure requires a good grasp of the English tense system and the modal auxiliaries.

Izumi et. al (1999) state that according to the results of the pre-test which was administered prior to the treatment for their study, participants had gaps in their ability to use the past hypothetical conditional in English. 22 participants coming from different first language backgrounds -Spanish, Vietnamese, Amharic, Chinese, Turkish, Serbo-Croatian, and Tagalog- had the same problem. Although the students attempted to use the target structure, all of them still had problems using the form accurately so this study has also showed that the form poses difficulty to L2 learners.

Karacaer (1988) compared the difficulty level of conditionals among students of three different faculties each coming from different English language levels. Faculty of Education students were the advanced level learners, Faculty of Engineering were intermediate and the School of Aviation had beginner level students. Therefore, Karacaer wanted to see if students from different levels still consider the same type of conditionals as problematic. The comparison of conditionals revealed that Type 3 is the most problematic in the translation of conditionals both from Turkish into English and from English into Turkish. All three faculty students had the same problem even though they came from different language levels.

Timm (1986), in another study compared the performance of German learners of English language in a pre-post test experiment on If Clauses in English. The results basically reveal that the consistency of correctness go down as the difficulty goes up. They are higher for Type 3 than for Type 1, and even

higher for Type 2. In sum, Type 3 seems to be the most problematic for this group of participants.

Personal experience of the researcher is another reason for choosing the hypothetical Conditional as the target form. Years of experience in teaching have shown that Turkish speakers of English Language learners have gaps in their ability to use the target form especially in meaning.

In English, Conditionals are clauses introduced with *if*, which may come before or after the main or result clause. *If* suggests something real, unreal, non-existing, contrary to the fact or future. Like in Turkish, in English the conditional clause introduced by *if* is in the form of the subordinate clause and two parts of the conditional sentence maybe written in reverse order with no change in meaning, though the conditional clause tends to become less emphatic when placed second (Azar& Azar, 1994 p: 63). Two points are important in forming conditionals in English:

1. the use of modals
2. the construction of tenses

There are three types of Conditional clauses: Type 1, Type 2 and Type 3. There is also another common type, Type 0. The three main semantic divisions are:

- (i) clauses that contain a condition that may or may not be fulfilled;
- (ii) clauses in which the condition is combined with improbability or unreality in either present or future
- (iii) clauses in which the condition was not fulfilled and is related to past impossibility (Dooley & Adams, 1998).

In Turkish, there is no clearcut distinction between improbable and impossible conditionals and this causes ambiguities and improbable conditionals seem to be lost from the semantic point of view.

The sentence “Çok param olsaydı, araba alırdım.” can be translated into English in the following two ways:

(i) If I had a lot of money, I would buy a car.

(ii) If I had had a lot of money, I would have bought a car. (Karacaer, 1988)

Because of the reasons stated above Type 3 Conditionals have been chosen as the target form for this study.

3. 2. The Present Study

3. 2. 1. Subjects

The participants of the study were chosen among the intermediate level (B Level) students of the School of Foreign Languages of Dokuz Eylül University in the Fall Term of 2006-2007 academic year. The subjects are students enrolled at an intensive English preparatory class of which the class hours range between 24 to 30 hours a week. At the time of data collection, all students were in the mids of the first semester.

The level of the students was determined on the basis of a standard placement test (the Michigan Placement Test), which was administered at the beginning of the Fall semester of 2006-2007 academic year. The students were grouped according to the results of the test which was scored out of 100.

The selection of the participants for the study was determined on the basis of a recognition test of the chosen target form namely Type 3 Conditional

sentences. The students who showed any sign of knowledge of the target form were excluded from the study; therefore, the participants who got 48 and over from the pre-test were excluded. It was decided that having 13 correct answers from a test which had 25 questions could be a sign of knowing the item. Therefore, the participants who had more than half of the questions correct were excluded from the study. This made the score to be 48 to exclude the participants. Because this is a study of intake, it is crucial that participants not be familiar with the target structure. However, since almost all of the students in Turkey have some English education before the university, for the present study the students who have not turned the chosen target form into intake were chosen which means the researcher eliminated the students who knew more than half of the questions on the test.

According to the results of the recognition test, the total number of the participants decreased from 107 to 90 when the subjects who scored over 48 were excluded. Then these students were divided into four groups in order to form the experimental and control groups. The experimental and control groups were assigned randomly. The age of the subjects ranged from 17 to 21. Table 3. 1. below shows the distribution of the groups.

Table 3. 1. Number of Subjects

Pushed Output Group	19
Processing Instruction Group	23
Visually Enhanced Input Group	25
Control Group	23
Total	90

As can be understood from the table above, the pre-test was given to the 107 B Level students of the School of Foreign Languages but unfortunately 17 of them were excluded because of their grades over 48.

Another group of participants was three first-year students from Dokuz Eylül University, English Language Teaching Department. They were all females aged between 18-19. This group was asked to take the test before administering it to the real participant group. The feedback gathered from this group was used to test the content validity of the test.

The last participant was the instructor who helped for the reliability measurement. A research assistant of Dokuz Eylül University, Faculty of Education, English Language Teaching Department kindly accepted to grade the papers of all pre-test, post-test and delayed post-tests of all groups. She; therefore, was the second grader. The results of her grading were then compared with the results of the researcher to test the inter-rater reliability. The second grader was 26 years old and had four years of experience in the field.

3. 2. 2. Instruments

3. 2. 2. 1. Pre-Post and Delayed Post-Test

The recognition test (pre-test) was administered to all B level students at the School of Foreign Languages of Dokuz Eylül University. The test included 60 questions in different types like; True/False, fill in the blanks, sentence completion and some production type of questions (See Appendix B). The recognition test has been developed by the researcher for the study.

Because the researcher did not want the participants to understand the target form of the study in order not to make the target form salient, the test included different grammatical items like; relative clauses, all types of Conditionals, and tenses. However, when the test scores were graded, only the Type 3 Conditional questions which were 25 in number were graded. Therefore, even though the test included 60 questions; only 25 of them were graded for the study. Each question was given 4 points in order to reach to 100.

At the same time, the results of the pre-test were compared with the results of the post-test, which was administered after the treatment, in order to reveal whether a particular treatment had an effect on learning. The same test has also been used as the delayed post-test which was administered to the subjects four weeks after the treatments to test retention.

Researchers searching for the effects of input and output have used different post-tests such as; grammatically judgment tests, picture-cued production tests, sentence combination tests, and interpretation tests in different modes (Izumi et al, 1999; Izumi, 2002; Izumi, 2003; Erlam, 2003; Rosa & O'Neill, 1999). To serve the purpose, we have also used sentence completion, true/false, multiple choice, and yes/no questions on our test.

3. 2. 2. 2. Validity of the Test

Validity is defined as “the extent to which the results of the procedures to be applied serve the intended purpose” (Ekmekeçi, 1999:38). It is the extent to which a test measures what it is intended to measure.

There are several factors affecting validity:

- unclear directions within the text,
 - too difficult vocabulary items or sentence structures within the test items,
 - inappropriate level of difficulty of test items,
 - poorly constructed test items,
 - ambiguity,
 - test items inappropriate for the purpose of the test,
 - insufficient number of items for objectives being tested
- (Nunan,1992).

In order to overcome the situations stated above and to increase the content validity of the test, three experts in the dissertation committee were asked for their opinions about the test before administration. At first, the test included only Type 3 Conditional questions; however, according to the suggestions came from the dissertation committee, it was decided to add different types of questions in order not to make the form too salient for the participants. Therefore, the test included questions on relative clauses, all types of Conditionals, and tenses.

Other than the valuable comments of the dissertation committee, three students studying their first year at Dokuz Eylül University, Faculty of Education, English Language Teaching Department were asked to take the test. First-year students were chosen on purpose because these students had taken the preparatory test at the beginning of the 2006-2007 education year and the ones who could not pass the test were actually studying at the School of Foreign Languages and the ones who passed the test started to study at the ELT Department. Therefore, it is

possible to say that this group of participants shared a relatively common characteristics with the real audience. These students were told that the test would be administered for some other purposes and their comments on ambiguity and the clarity of instructions were needed. A few changes were made on the instructions according to the feedback received from the students.

Internal validity was another important issue to deal with. To increase the internal validity of the study, the researcher has controlled all the variables such as: treatments, and sampling of subjects. This is the only reason why the researcher has taught all the experimental and control groups. As was stated by Nunan (1992: 15) internal validity refers to the interpretability of research and in experimental research, it is concerned with the question “Can any differences which are found actually be ascribed to the treatments under scrutiny?”

As a result, the validity of the test has been thoroughly investigated. The test has been tested for the content validity and internal validity.

3. 2. 2. 3. Reliability of the Test

Reliability is the extent to which a measurement instrument produces consistent results when administered under similar conditions. However, there are some factors such as measurement error, student fatigue, test setting problems that may contribute to unreliability (Ekmekçi, 1999).

As for validity, there are some factors affecting reliability:

- length of the test: the longer the test, the more reliable it is
- homogeneity of items: if the test items are testing the same traits

- discriminatory power of items: items which discriminate well among students
- sufficient test taking time (Ekmekçi, 1999:37).

When preparing the test, the researcher has considered the list above. Besides, the comments received from the dissertation committee were towards increasing not only the number but also the variety of questions which contributed to the increased reliability.

The three students who were asked to take the test in order to increase the validity of the test were observed for the test time too. According to the time they have spent on the test, test-taking time has been decided to be 30 minutes for 60 questions.

The last types of reliability which were dealt with were the inter-rater and intra-rater reliability. Since all the data depended on the assessment of the test results, it was crucial to test the inter and intra-rater reliability. The analysis for each of the tests was done two times by the researcher, to account for the intra-rater reliability (at one week intervals). The results of these two analyses indicated no change in the results. Therefore, the scoring was reliable in terms of intra-rater reliability (See Appendix C for the second grader's notes).

After the final assessment, the test papers were given to another rater (a non-native English teacher with four-year experience). The results of both raters were then compared and some problems in the scoring of the sentence completion part arose. This problem was eliminated through negotiation and reference to the

criteria for evaluation. As a result, the inter-rater reliability⁶ was reached. The scores found after the results of these scoring were used as the actual data.

Below we have the mean scores of four groups evaluated by the researcher and the second grader. The Cronbach's Alpha values are also presented. It is very clear from the table below to see that not only the mean scores, but also the Cronbach's Alpha values reveal a high level of reliability between the two graders.

Table 3. 2. Results of Two Scorers

Groups	N	Scorer 1 Mean	Scorer 2 Mean	Cronbach's Alpha
Pre-test	19	39,6	39,3	,997
Post-test	23	74,4	74,1	,998
Delayed Post-test	25	71,6	71,3	,996

As a result, a thorough analysis for reliability was conducted testing for the internal, inter-rater and intra-rater reliability. Specialist's view and the three students used for the test-time have also increased the reliability.

3. 2. 3. Instructional Packets

For the treatment which lasted four hours for each group, the researcher has used the ordinary course book of the learners which was *New English File, Intermediate* (Oxenden & Latham, 2006) and the self study book *English Grammar in Use* (Murphy, 2004). However, in order to mention the salient

⁶ Interrater reliability is a measure of whether two or more raters judge the same set of data in the same way. If there is strong reliability then one can assume with reasonable confidence that raters are judging the same set of data as representing the same set of phenomenon (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

characteristics of each type of attention drawing technique, for each experimental group and the control group an instructional packet was developed. In each instructional packet there was a lesson plan and related activities.

While developing the packets, the number of the activities, the time given for the activities and the level of the language were considered and tried to be kept equal for all groups. Therefore, in order not to put a group in an advantageous position, in all experimental groups the same two texts with different types of activities were used. *Monopoly* and the *Truth about the Titanic* were the texts used for the study (See Appendix A Lesson Plans).

3. 2. 3. 1. Pushed Output Group Instructional Packet

The balance of experimental findings presented above support the effectiveness for SLA of encouraging learners to produce output. As Swain (1985: 249) claims, producing the target language (TL) may serve as “the trigger that forces the learner to pay attention to the means of expression needed in order to successfully convey his or her own intended meaning”.

Therefore, the pushed output group as one of the experimental groups of the study received some tasks that required the production of Type 3 Conditionals apart from the usual activities in the coursebook as a part of their four-hour-treatment. For example; for the Extra Output Activity 1 (See Appendix A, Lesson Plan Pushed Output Group), the participants were required to answer questions about the games they know and play as a warm-up. Later, each student received a copy of the *Monopoly*, either A or B version and was given 3 minutes to read their card and answer the related questions. Later, the students were given a

common task in which they were asked to answer some questions related to the text with their partners. Each student then was asked to write an individual report about the game Monopoly. As a result, with these activities the participants were somehow pushed to produce the language and the target form both orally and written.

On the recognition test there were also questions about Type 3 Conditionals for which the participants were pushed to produce the target form written. For example; in Part D, they were asked to complete the sentences given like;

If we had won the match, _____

Here, the participants are free to write whatever they want in order to complete that sentence.

Another important point to discuss here might be the characteristics of the instruments to be used for the pushed output group. Kowal and Swain (1994) and Swain (1998) have used text reconstruction. They reported data suggesting that immersion students processed L2 syntactically in dictogloss tasks in which they worked in pairs or small groups to reconstruct a text read aloud by a teacher. To serve the purpose of collecting reliable data from the participants, activities used for the present study during the Production phase for the Pushed Output Group were in the form of text reconstruction tasks which required the participants to produce a written text on the game Monopoly.

3. 2. 3. 2. Visually Enhanced Input Group Instructional Packet

Robinson (1997) among four different training conditions of second language input defines enhanced condition as in which subjects are encouraged to process input for meaning while simultaneously noticing selected features of the form of input. Since the selected form for this study was Type 3 Conditionals, during the presentation stage of the treatment all Type 3 Conditionals in the instructional packet were written in bold and underlined and made visually salient. The treatment of the visually enhanced input group also took four hours.

MONOPOLY

Probably the most recognized board game around the world is the game of Monopoly. In this game, players vie for wealth by buying, selling, and renting properties; the key to success in the game, in addition to a bit of luck, is for a player to acquire monopolies on clusters of properties in order to force opponents to pay exorbitant rents and fees.

Although the game is now published in countless languages and versions, the beginnings of the game were considerably more humble. **If it hadn't been published in so many languages, it wouldn't have developed so much.** Because it is an international game, it is published in each country with place names appropriate to the target language. **If it hadn't been sold internationally, there wouldn't have been foreign locations.**

The game was invented in 1933 by Charles Darrow, during the height of the Great Depression. Darrow, who lived in Germantown, Pennsylvania, was himself unemployed during those difficult financial times. **If he hadn't had so much free time, he wouldn't have invented the game.** He set the original game not as might be expected in his hometown of Germantown, but in Atlantic City, New Jersey. **If he hadn't walked along the Boardwalk and visited at Park Place in Atlantic City, he would have set the game in Germantown.** But because Atlantic City was the site of numerous pre-Depression vacations with very positive memories, he set the game there.

Darrow made the first games by hand and sold them locally. However, in 1935 Parker Brothers purchased the rights to Monopoly and took the first steps toward the mass production of today within the same year. **If Parker Brothers hadn't bought the rights of the game, it wouldn't have been so popular today.** Darrow was paid only 100 \$ by the manufacturing company, but **if he had expected the possible fame of the game, he would have asked much more than that.**

Adapted from Phillips, D. (1996). Longman Preparation Course for the TOEFL Test: Skills and Strategies. NY: Longman.

3. 2. 3. 3. Processing Instruction Group Instructional Packet

While developing the instructional packet for the PI group it was kept in mind that a salient characteristic of PI is that learners are never asked to produce the target form during the instructional phase. During PI what the learner is asked to do is to process sentences and interpret them correctly while attending to form as well (VanPatten, 2002). Therefore, the recognition test included questions such as;

If the weather had been nice, we would have gone swimming.

Was the weather nice?

Did we go swimming?

In this kind of questions, as PI suggests learners are not asked to produce the form on the other hand they are pushed to process the form during activities with structured input.

For the treatment which took four hours, on the other hand, apart from the activities included in the course book of the participating groups, other PI activities have been used. For example, given the texts *Monopoly* and *The Truth about the Titanic* the students were asked some Yes/No and multiple choice questions as PI activities.

3. 2. 3. 4. Control Group Instructional Packet

During the personal talks with all instructors teaching at the School of Foreign Languages of Dokuz Eylül University, it was stated that the teachers were to follow a traditional teaching. They themselves defined traditional teaching as a

procedure to which they start presenting the topic to be studied and continuing with activities from controlled to freer in practice and production stages.

Communicative Language Teaching has employed a methodological procedure consisting of Presentation-Practice-Production. That is, a language item is first presented to the learners by means of examples with or without an explanation. This item is then practiced in a controlled manner using what is called exercises. Finally, opportunities for using the item in free language production are provided (Ellis, 2003). In PPP the idea is that it is possible to lead learners from controlled to automatic use of new language features by means of text-manipulation exercises that structure language for the learner followed by text-creation tasks where learners structure language for themselves (Andrews, 2003; Bourke, 2001).

For the control group, as was stated by the teachers, the same procedure Presentation-Practice and Production was followed. Since the course book also followed the same procedure, the researcher without any intervention followed the steps in the unit. During the presentation stage the students were presented the Type 3 Conditionals deductively, followed by controlled activities on the same topic. As for the production stage, the students were asked to fill in a questionnaire the result of which they discussed with a partner (See Appendix A Lesson Plan Control Group).

3. 3. Procedures

The study started with the permission taken from the Head of the School of Foreign Languages of Dokuz Eylül University. Since the study was a quasi-

experimental study with a pre-test and post-test design, the researcher needed four groups; three of which to be used as the experimental groups and one as the control group. The co-ordinator of the Intermediate Level Group decided on the groups to be used randomly. The names of the four teachers teaching to these intermediate level groups were given again by the co-ordinator. The researcher then met those teachers and told them about the study without giving any details. None of the teachers stayed in the classroom during the treatments.

Before the treatment in order to decide on the participants, 107 intermediate level students of School of Foreign Languages of Dokuz Eylül University were given the pre-test. According to the results of the pre-test, the number decreased to 90 due to the elimination of the participants who scored above 48. The remaining 90 students who were studying in four different classes were randomly assigned as the pushed output, visually enhanced input, processing instruction and the control group. The experimental groups were different from each other in respect to the output requirements, exposure to the visually enhanced input and practice that was input based for the processing instruction group.

Following the pre-test, all four groups were taught the target form by the researcher using the lesson plans developed for each group. All groups were taught by the researcher in order to eliminate the teacher function. The treatment took four hours for all groups. Immediately after the treatment all the groups were given the post-test. Before the administration of the post-test all the students were informed that this data collection was done for a study and would not affect any of their grades. The participants were given 30 minutes for the tests. The delayed

post-test, on the other hand, was given four weeks after the treatment, the results of which showed the most effective technique in terms of retention. The researcher could not proctor for the delayed post-test only, since they had to be given on the same day. The delayed post-tests were proctored by the class teacher of each group.

Table 3. 3. Timetable of the Treatments

	Pre-test	Treatment	Post-test	Delayed PT
Pushed Output G.	Nov, 20	Nov, 21	Nov, 21	Dec, 18
Processing Instruction G.	Nov, 20	Nov, 22	Nov, 22	Dec, 18
Visually Enhanced Input G.	Nov, 20	Nov, 21	Nov, 21	Dec, 18
Control G.	Nov, 20	Nov, 23	Nov, 23	Dec, 18

All three experimental groups were exposed to communicative language teaching in the form of focus on form. Since the idea behind focus on form is to draw the learners' attention to the target form in the input, pushed output, visually enhanced input and processing instruction as attention drawing techniques are tested due to their effects on learning as variables.

The traditional PPP (Presentation-Practice-Production) sequence was used in all experimental groups with some adaptations: at the presentation stage for the visually enhanced input group, at the practice stage for the processing instruction group and at the production stage for the pushed output group.

For example; Enhanced Input Group was presented the linguistic item - Type 3 Conditional sentences- visually enhanced during the Presentation stage.

However, the Pushed Output Group during the Production stage of PPP received text reconstruction activities that pushed them to produce output. The Processing Instruction Group, on the other hand, worked on activities that promoted their processing the input in the Practice stage (See Figure 3. 1.).

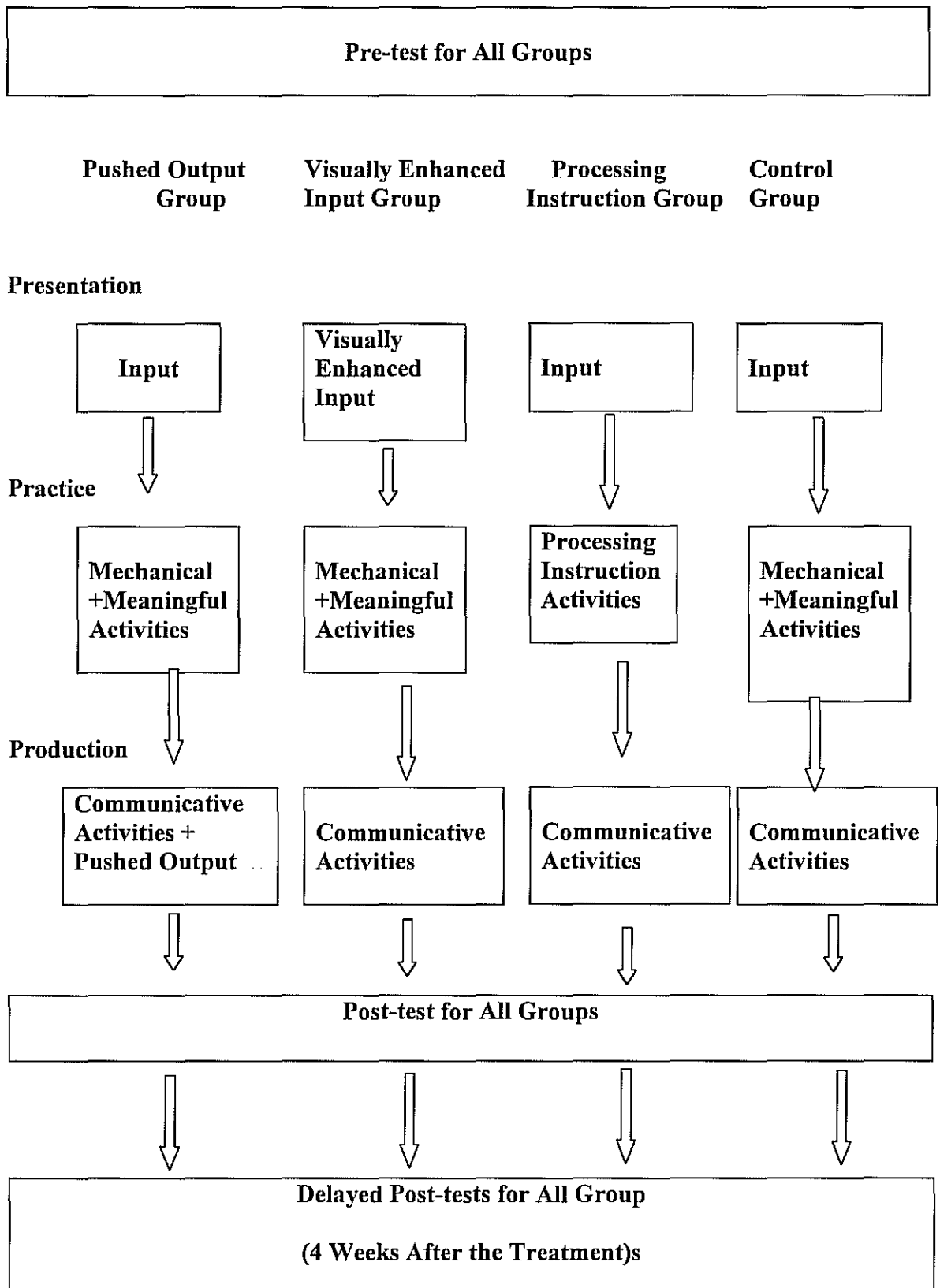
Group 1: Pushed Output Group: This group was required to produce output both written and oral and was exposed to regular, unenhanced input. Written and oral text reconstruction was used with the other Production activities such as; role play and other communicative activities (See Appendix A, Lesson Plans).

Group 2: Visually Enhanced Input Group: This group was not required to produce output but was exposed to visually enhanced input. The visually enhanced input text came in the form of bold and underlined text during the Presentation stage of the PPP (See Appendix A, Lesson Plans).

Group 3: Processing Instruction Group: This group received unenhanced input during the Presentation stage. The group was different from the other groups in terms of the Practice activities that were used. At that stage the participants were required to work on activities that promote their processing the input. During the Production stage, the participants were asked to produce usual production activities (See Appendix A, Lesson Plans).

Group 4: Control Group: This group was presented the target item in traditional PPP procedure. For Presentation, the input was not enhanced and the target item was presented. For Practice, participants were presented with mechanical, meaningful activities and for Production activities that they can integrate the skills they have gained during the practice were done (See Appendix A, Lesson Plans).

Figure 3. 1. Treatment and Testing Procedure for All Groups



3. 4. Data Analysis

For the study, before the treatments all experimental groups and the control group were given a pre-test the results of which were used to decide on the participants. All of the test data were scored by giving four points for each correct response. There were 25 questions on the test and both the pre-tests and post-tests were scored in the same way.

The analysis of the data started by the grading of the pre-test, post-test and the delayed post-test papers. The analysis for each of these tests was done twice by the researcher herself, to account for the intrarater reliability (at one week intervals). The results of these two analyses indicated no change in the results.

After the final assessment, the test papers were given to another rater. The results of both raters were then compared and some problems in the scoring of the sentence completion part arose. These problems were eliminated through negotiation and reference to the criteria for evaluation. As a result, the inter-rater reliability was reached. The scores found after the results of these scoring were used as the actual data for the following analyses.

For each subject who participated in the study, there were three types of data:

1. pre-test scores obtained before treatment
2. post-test scores obtained after treatment
3. delayed post-test scores obtained after four weeks

In order to answer research questions 1, 2 and 3 which were basically asking the effectiveness of each attention drawing technique a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used. ANOVA were applied to the test results given after

the treatment. That type of analysis is used when only a single experimental variable or factor is being assessed (Büyüköztürk, 2006; Kachigan, 1991).

Other than ANOVA, Multiple Comparisons (Post hoc tests) which consist of pair wise comparisons to compare all different combinations of the treatment groups was conducted. For the fourth research question, which was “Among the three ways of attention gathering techniques, which is/are the most effective on the learning of Type 3 Conditional sentences?” Again multiple comparisons Post Hoc Tests was decided to be used by the researcher. For the study in hand, a multiple comparison included comparing pairs like pushed output group-enhanced input group, pushed output group-processing instruction group and control group-visually enhanced input group. These comparisons were done among groups according to the results they have gathered from all of the tests.

The last research question asked for the retention of the target form. A comparison of the mean scores of the delayed post-tests of all groups gave us the attention gathering technique which retained well over time. All the analyses were calculated with SPSS version 13, 0 for Windows.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

The present study investigated the most effective and durable type or types of attention gathering techniques used in focus on form in language classrooms.

The research questions prompting the study asked for the effectiveness of each type of attention drawing technique –visually enhanced input, pushed output and processing instruction- used in focus on form and continued with which technique(s) facilitate(s) retaining the structure well over time according to the results of the delayed post-test.

For this is a quasi-experimental[§] study with a pre-test and post-test design, three experimental groups and one control group were formed. The participants, 107 intermediate level students of School of Foreign Languages of Dokuz Eylül University were given a pre-test according to the results of which, the number decreased to 90 due to the elimination of the participants who scored above 48. The remaining 90 students, who were studying in four different classes, were randomly assigned as the pushed output, visually enhanced input, processing instruction and the control group.

Following the pre-test, all four groups were taught the target form by the researcher using the lesson plans developed for each group. All groups were taught by the researcher for four hours on Type 3 Conditional sentences which was chosen as the target form. After the treatment all the groups were given the

[§] This study is a quasi-experimental study since the subjects were not assigned to the experimental groups randomly. The researcher randomly assigned the experimental groups among the ones which were assigned by the manager of the School of Foreign Languages of Dokuz Eylül University.

immediate post-test. The participants were given 30 minutes for the tests. The delayed post-test was given four weeks after the treatment.

4. 2. Analysis of Data

The analysis of the data started with the assessment of the tests. For each group of participants we had three test results. In order to increase the intra-rater reliability, the test papers were scored twice by the researcher. For the inter-rater reliability, on the other hand, another grader was used.

The test used as pre-test and post-test had 60 questions, 25 of which were about Type 3 Conditional sentences. During scoring only questions on target items were scored. Since there were 25 Type 3 Conditional questions to be scored on the test, each correct item was given 4 points and a total 100 was reached. Incorrect items received a score of 0.

4. 3. The Results of All Tests

4. 3. 1. The Results of the Pre-Test

Before we have a look at the results gathered from each test by each group, we will present the results of each test for all groups. Table 4. 1. presents the results of the pre-test for all groups.

The mean scores of the pre-test ranged from 38,7 to 40,2 with a total mean score of 39,6. The pushed output group has the highest mean score which is 40,2 and the visually enhanced input group has the lowest mean score which is 38,7. The difference among the mean scores of these two groups is 1,5. The total mean of the pre-test is 39,6. Pushed output group and processing instruction group are

slightly higher than the total mean; however, the control group has the same mean score with the total mean. The visually enhanced input group is the only group which has a mean score lower than the total mean.

Table 4. 1. Results of Pre-test for All Groups

Groups	N	Mean
Pushed Output Group	19	40,2
Processing Instruction Group	23	40
Visually Enhanced Input Group	25	38,7
Control Group	23	39,6
Total Mean		39,6
Sig.		,93

Having so close mean scores among the four groups state the same level of the students of all groups. It can be said that the participants' knowledge on Type 3 Conditional sentences before the treatments were almost the same. Hence, the statistical analysis indicated no statistically significant difference among the groups according to the results of the pre-test $p \leq ,93$ which is higher than 0,05; therefore it is not significant ($F=,148$; $df = 3$; $p=,93$). When we say that the difference is not significant we mean that the students from all groups have obtained scores that are close to each other, or at least not very different from each other. As was mentioned above this is an evidence for the close knowledge of the target item.

Table 4.2. shows the lowest and highest scores obtained by the participants of each group from the pre-test. It is easy to see that not only the mean scores but also the lowest and highest scores obtained from the pre-test are very close.

Because the students who scored above 48 were excluded from the study, the highest pre-test score is 48 for all groups. The lowest scores, on the other hand, range from 12 to 24, which still does not show a big difference.

Table 4. 2. Lowest and Highest Scores of Pre-Test for All Groups

Groups	Lowest	Highest	Mean
Pushed Output Group	24	48	40,2
Processing Instruction Group	12	48	40
Visually Enhanced Input Group	24	48	38,7
Control Group	24	48	39,6

4. 4. All Test Results for Four Treatment Groups

4. 4. 1. All Test Results for the Pushed Output Group

Table 4. 3. presents the results of all tests for the pushed output group. The number of participants of this group decreased from 26 to 19 due to the elimination of the students who scored above 48.

Table 4. 3. Results of All Tests for Pushed Output Group

Participant	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed Post-test
1	24	68	76
2	48	80	68
3	28	68	48
4	48	84	68
5	40	64	52
6	36	92	72
7	48	96	76
8	40	68	68
9	48	96	80
10	44	96	88
11	36	72	68
12	44	96	88
13	32	88	72
14	28	68	76
15	36	48	68
16	44	96	96
17	48	96	88
18	44	76	80
19	48	96	96
Mode	48	96	68
Median	44	84	76
Mean	40,2	81, 4	75, 1

As can be seen at Table 4. 3. for the pre-test, the scores ranged from 24 to 48, and the mean score is 40,2. The median, the central score, of the pre-test scores is 44. That is, half of the scores of the pre-test is below 44, whereas the other half is above 44. The median for the post-test is 84 and for the delayed post-test is 76. The mode, the most frequently obtained score from the test, has increased from 48 to 96 between the pre-test and post-test. This only is enough to show how much the pushed output group has gained from the treatment. There is

a 48-point-difference between the scores. For the delayed post-test the mode has decreased from 96 to 68.

From another perspective, the mean score of this group has almost doubled from 40,2 to 81,4 from pre-test to post-test and has been found to be 75,1 for the delayed post-test. An increase from 40,2 to 81,4 can easily be taken as an evidence for learning the target structure. Statistically, an increase of 41,2 points between two mean scores of two tests is a sign for the effect of treatment.

It is only the pushed output group which has doubled the scores. There is no other treatment group for which the difference between the results of the pre-test and post-test is so high. The median for the pre-test is 44 and 84 and 76 respectively for the post-test and the delayed post-test.

As important as the scores obtained from each test, a comparison of the pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test results of the pushed output group was necessary too. With t-test, pairs of tests for each group were compared and the table below shows us the results.

Table 4. 4. T-Test for All Test Scores of Pushed Output Group

Groups			Mean	t	df	Sig.
1	Pair 1	Results of Pre-test	40,2	-15,17	18	,007
		Results of Post-test	81,4			
	Pair 2	Results of Pre-test	40,2	-13,03	18	,057
Results of Delayed Post-test	75,1					
Pair 3	Results of Post-test	81,4	2,46	18	,001	
	Results of Delayed Post-test	75,1				

It is clear from the table above that there is a significant difference between the test scores of the pushed output group gained from the pre-test and the post-test ($t = -15,17$; $df = 18$; $p \leq ,007$), which means there are differences between the performances of the students after the treatments. Therefore, the analysis above let us conclude that, when the students' attention is directed to the target item in the input via pushing them to produce the target item, they learn the new structure well.

Pair 2 shows us the comparison between the test scores of pre-test and delayed post-test. Here, there is a statistical difference between the test scores ($t = -13,03$; $df = 18$; $p \leq ,057$). That shows, the students have not forgotten what they have learned from the treatment given after the pre-test to the delayed post-test. According to the results of the t-test between the pre-test and the post-test scores, it is possible to say that the students have learned the target form, and that this learning has continued until the delayed post-test was conducted because there is a statistical difference between the pre-test and the delayed post-test scores.

Although the students' scores decrease in the delayed post-test, the students have not forgotten what they have learned completely. What we have said for the acquisition of the target form with pushed output technique seems not to be true for retention. In other words, our students cannot keep what they have learned about the new item via pushed output in their interlanguage for a long time in the degree that they have acquired during the post-test. Actually, to a certain extent they keep it because their delayed post-test scores are not lower than their pre-test scores. However, still the statistical analyses reveal that pushed output is effective for learning but not for retaining the structure.

Pair 3 gives us the t-test results for the post-test and delayed post-test. This time $t = 2,46$; $df = 18$; $p \leq ,001$ which is called to be highly significant ($p \leq 0,05$). This actually means that the scores obtained after the post-test and delayed post-test are statistically different from each other. To have a statistically significant difference between the post-test and delayed post-test may not be something positive because it shows that the learners' grades have changed from post-test to delayed post-test and the scores show us that this change is negative because the mode has decreased from 96 to 68 and the median has decreased from 84 to 76. It is also possible to see that fall in the mean scores of the post and delayed post-test. This time the mean of the post-test for the pushed output group has decreased from 81,4 to 75,1.

To sum up, we can conclude from all test results of the pushed output group that the students have significantly developed their knowledge of Type 3 Conditionals after the treatment according to the comparison between the results of pre and post-tests. Since the scores of these two tests are statistically significant, we can say that they have learned the new item that is presented.

Secondly, the comparison of the results of the post and delayed-post test scores reveal that there is a decrease in the test scores; however, we can still talk about a statistically significant difference between the scores. This basically means that, the learners have gained scores from the delayed post-test which are very different from the post-test. As was mentioned above, this may not be a very positive thing since it signals some kind of loss; the loss of what has been acquired after the treatment.

4. 4. 2. All Test Results for the Processing Instruction Group

Table 4. 5. below, presents the results of all tests for the processing instruction group. The number of participants of this group decreased from 27 to 23 due to the elimination of the students who scored above 48. Only four participants were excluded. As can be seen below, for the pre-test the scores ranged from 12 to 48, for the post-test from 60 to 100 and for the delayed post-test from 56 to 96.

Table 4. 5. Results of All Tests for Processing Instruction Group

Participant	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed Post-test
1	40	72	68
2	40	76	96
3	44	100	56
4	44	76	72
5	48	80	92
6	48	92	92
7	40	92	80
8	44	72	60
9	48	96	92
10	48	84	96
11	48	80	68
12	40	60	76
13	44	84	76
14	40	80	72
15	32	72	72
16	12	64	96
17	44	84	88
19	28	84	92
20	40	72	68
21	48	76	84
22	48	84	80
23	40	60	76
Mode	40 and 48	84	76 and 92
Median	44	80	76
Mean	40	77	79, 4

The mean scores of three tests have increased from 40 to 77 between the pre-test and post-test and from 77 to 79,4 from post-test to delayed post-test. The 37-point-difference between the pre-test and post-test is evidence of gain from the treatment. The mean score has increased to 79,4 for the delayed post-test. That 24-point-difference is important to mention because processing instruction group is the only group which shows an increase in the mean score for the delayed post-test. For all the other groups there has been a decrease between the post-test and delayed post-test; however, the processing instruction group has increased its mean score in the delayed post-test.

The modes –the most frequently obtained score- of the pre-test have increased from 40 and 48 to 84 for the post-test and 76 and 92 for the delayed post-test. As for the median –the central score-, we see that the median of the pre-test 44 has increased to 80 for the post-test and decreased to 76 for the delayed post-test.

As important as the scores obtained from each test, a comparison of the pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test results of the processing instruction group was necessary too. With t-test, pairs of tests for each group were compared and the table below shows us the results.

Table 4. 6. T-Test for All Test Scores of Processing Instruction Group

Groups		Mean	t	df	Sig.	
2	Pair 1	Results of Pre-test	40	-16,55	22	,001
		Results of Post-test	77			
	Pair 2	Results of Pre-test	40	-11,56	22	,01
		Results of Delayed Post-test	79,4			
	Pair 3	Results of Post-test	77	-,667	22	,61
		Results of Delayed Post-test	79,4			

The scores of the t-test for the pre-test and post-test of the processing instruction group reveal that there is a statistical difference between the pre-test and the post-test. ($t = -16,55$; $df = 22$; $p \leq ,001$). This means that the scores gained from the post-test are considerably different from the scores gained from the pre-test. Since there exists an increase in the grades, it is possible to say that the participants have also learned from this type of treatment as the students in the pushed output group did.

Pair 2 shows us the comparison between the test scores of pre-test and delayed post-test for the processing instruction group. Here, $t = -11,56$; $df = 22$; $p \leq ,01$ which states that there is a statistical difference between the scores. In other words, we can say that the students have gotten very different scores from the pre-test and delayed post-test which indicates that they have not forgotten what they have learned from pre-test to delayed post-test with the processing instruction.

When we have a look at the results of the t-test between the pre-test and post-test we can say that the students have learned the target form by looking at the increase in their scores and the fact that there is a statistical difference between

the pre-test and the delayed post-test shows that this learning has continued afterwards.

Pair 3 gives us the t-test results for the post-test and delayed post-test. This time $t = -,667$; $df = 22$; $p \leq ,61$ which is not significant at 95% confidence level. This actually means that the scores gained after the post-test and delayed post-test are statistically not different from each other. The participants of this group have gained scores which are not very different from each other from the post-test and the delayed post-test. This result is a sign of evidence for retention. Because the group members have not scored less in the delayed post-test, we can say that they have kept what they have learned in their interlanguage. Unlike Pushed Output group, Processing Instruction group indicate positive gains for the retention of the acquired target form.

4. 4. 3. All Test Results for the Visually Enhanced Input Group

Table 4.7. below, presents the results of all tests for the visually enhanced input group. The number of participants of this group decreased from 28 to 25 due to the elimination of the students who scored above 48. Only three participants were excluded.

Table 4. 7. Results of All Tests for Visually Enhanced Input Group

Participant	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed Post-test
1	32	56	68
2	44	76	76
3	32	88	68
4	48	72	68
5	36	48	26
6	32	76	56
7	44	64	56
8	44	76	84
9	40	72	52
10	40	72	52
11	40	72	64
12	48	72	72
13	48	64	72
14	36	64	16
15	44	64	64
16	44	92	64
17	40	72	44
18	40	76	72
19	44	80	88
20	36	76	92
21	28	68	56
22	24	60	32
23	32	8*	72
24	48	60	64
25	24	52	52
Mode	44	72	64 and 72
Median	40	72	64
Mean	38, 7	67, 2	61,2

As can be seen above, for the pre-test the scores ranged from 24 to 48, for the post-test from 8 to 92 and for the delayed post-test from 16 to 92. The modes – the most frequently obtained score- for the visually enhanced input group has

* Student number 23 received 8 in the post-test, which is even lower than his pre-test score. The paper has been graded three times to check whether any mistake in grading has occurred but there was no mistake the grade has not changed. This grade surely affects the overall performance of the post-test of this group. However, we could not exclude this student from the study just because of the low grade.

increased from 44 to 72 between the pre-test and the post-test. That 28-point-difference between the modes of the two tests is important because it shows us the increase in the test scores of the participants. The modes-the most frequently obtained score- of the delayed post-test are 64 and 72.

As for the mean scores, we see some changes in the mean scores of the visually enhanced input group. First of all, the mean score of the pre-test which is 38,7 has increased to 67,2 for the post-test. Other than the processing instruction group, like all the other groups there is a decrease between the post-test and delayed post-test results of this group. The post-test mean score 67, 2 has decreased to 61,2 for the delayed post-test.

Another point to mention is the median scores -the central score- of this group. The median of the pre-test is 40 and with a 32 point-increase it has become 72 for the post-test. Like all the other groups, there exists a decrease in the median score in the delayed post-test. The median of the visually enhanced input group has decreased from 72 to 64 in the delayed post-test.

Table 4. 8. T-Test for All Test Scores of Visually Enhanced Input Group

Groups		Mean	t	df	Sig.	
3	Pair 1	Results of Pre-test	38,7	-9,36	24	,10
		Results of Post-test	67,2			
	Pair 2	Results of Pre-test	38,7	-6,76	24	,05
	Results of Delayed Post-test	61,2				
	Pair 3	Results of Post-test	67,2	1,41	24	,28
		Results of Delayed Post-test	61,2			

Above we see the comparisons of the pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test for the visually enhanced input group. The t-test scores for each test pair

reveal some interesting results. To start with, the t-test scores of Pair 1 (Pre-test-Post-test Results) do not reveal a statistically significant difference, ($t = -9,36$; $df = 24$; $p \leq ,10$ which is not significant at 95% confidence level) meaning that the participants in this group have not changed their scores significantly with this attention gathering technique from pre-test to post-test. In other words, visually enhanced input, as a method for gathering attention in focus on form has not been effective with this group of learners in the learning of Type 3 Conditionals.

Pair 2 gives us the results of the comparison between the pre-test and the delayed post-test of the visually enhanced input group. It is easy to see that the p is ,05 which is significant at 95% ($t = -6,67$; $df = 24$; $p \leq ,05$). Having statistical difference between the results of the pre-test and delayed post-test means that the learners have changed their scores from pre-test to delayed post-test a lot.

Pair 3, on the other hand, does not reveal statistical difference between the test scores of the post-test and the delayed post-test for the visually enhanced input group. Here, $t = 1,41$; $df = 24$; $p \leq ,28$, p is ,28 which is bigger than ,05 and therefore which is not significant. This means that this attention drawing technique has not been successful to help learners to keep the newly learned structure in their interlanguage when compared to the other techniques tested for this study. In other words, visually enhanced input is the third most successful method for retention among the three new techniques and the traditional teaching.

4. 4. 4. All Test Results for the Control Group

Table 4. 9. below, presents the results of all tests for the control group. The number of participants of this group decreased from 26 to 23 due to the

elimination of the students who scored above 48. Only three participants were excluded. As can be seen below, for the pre-test the scores ranged from 24 to 48, for the post-test from 48 to 92 and for the delayed post-test from 56 to 100.

Table 4. 9. Results of All Tests for Control Group

Participant	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed Post-test
1	32	72	80
2	40	88	76
3	36	64	60
4	32	56	56
5	48	80	88
6	48	80	60
7	44	84	80
8	48	76	88
9	24	48	60
10	44	92	100
11	48	72	68
12	40	80	84
13	40	72	56
14	36	64	56
15	32	68	64
16	44	80	80
17	40	68	72
18	36	80	76
19	24	56	56
20	48	92	72
21	48	80	88
22	40	72	72
23	40	72	72
Mode	40 and 48	80	72
Median	40	72	72
Mean	39,6	73,7	72,3

For the control group, the mean has increased from 39,6 to 73,7 from pre-test to post-test and has been found to be 72,3 for the delayed post-test. Again there is more than 30- point-difference (34,1 points) between the pre-test and

post-test. However, the decrease between the post-test and delayed post-test is only 1,4 points. For the pushed output group this difference was 6, 3 points and 6 points for the visually enhanced input group.

The median for the pre-test is 40 and 72 both for the post-test and delayed post-test. The modes are also important here. When we have a look at the modes –the most frequently obtained score- we see that 40 and 48 are the modes of the pre-test and this score has doubled to 80 in the post-test. However, the decrease in the scores for the delayed post-test continues here too. This time the mode has decreased from 80 to 72 in the delayed post-test. There is only an 8-point-decrease.

Table 4. 10. T-Test for All Test Scores of Control Group

Groups		Mean	t	df	Sig.	
4	Pair 1	Results of Pre-test	39,6	-22,32	22	,001
		Results of Post-test	73,7			
	Pair 2	Results of Pre-test	39,6	-14,94	22	,007
	Results of Delayed Post-test	72,3				
	Pair 3	Results of Post-test	73,7	,72	22	,001
		Results of Delayed Post-test	72,3			

When the t-test results of the control group for each test was considered, it was seen that for this group all test results are significant. It is highly significant for the pre-test and post-test (Pair 1 $t = -22,32$; $df = 22$; $p \leq ,001$ Pair 2 $t = -14,94$; $df = 22$; $p \leq ,007$) and post-test and delayed post-test (Pair 3 $t = ,72$; $df = 22$; $p \leq ,001$) results. This basically means that the participants of this group have learned

the target form after the treatment and have not forgotten it after four weeks since the results of the post-test and delayed post-test is highly significant

The control group, after the processing instruction group and the pushed output group is the third successful group to keep the newly learned item in their interlanguage. In other words, the traditional type of teaching (Present-Practice-Produce without extra emphasis on the input and output) helped learners to keep what they have learned on Type 3 Conditionals in their interlanguage more than the visually enhanced input as an attention gathering technique. What teachers have been doing seem to work for retention more than presenting the input visually enhanced.

We are able to make these kinds of interpretations depending on the mean scores of the tests. The mean score of the delayed post-test of the control group is 72,3. The mean scores of the processing instruction and the pushed output groups are 79,4 and 75,1 respectively. However, the visually enhanced input group with a mean score of 61,2 came the last on the list; therefore, the least successful.

4. 3. 2. Comparison of the Results of the Post-Test

Table 4. 11. presents the results of the post-test for all groups. Post-test was administered to each group after they had received treatment. This time the mean is the highest for the pushed output group with a score of 81,4. The processing instruction group is the second successful group with a mean score of 77. There exists a 4,4-point-difference between the groups. The third most successful group is the control group with a mean score of 73,7 followed by the visually enhanced input group with the lowest mean score which is 67,2. The total

mean of the post-test is 74,4.

Table 4. 11. Results of Post-test for All Groups

Groups	N	Mean of Pre-test	Mean of Post-test
Pushed Output Group	19	40,2	81, 4
Processing Instruction Group	23	40	77
Visually Enhanced Input Group	25	38,7	67, 2
Control Group	23	39,6	73, 7
Total Mean		39,6	74, 4
Sig.		,93	, 01

All groups have gained the knowledge of Type 3 Conditional a lot from the treatment. However, as was stated above it is only the pushed output group that has doubled its scores from 40,2 to 81,4. As can be seen, the visually enhanced input group has gained least from the treatment which was also made clear with the statistical analysis of t-tests between the results of the pre-test and post-test for this group.

A close examination of Table 4. 11. will reveal that there is a big increase in the mean scores of all groups from the pre-test to the post-test. This shows that no matter what type of treatment they have received the students have learned the target form. All four groups, including the control group, have gained from the treatment. Pushed output group with a mean score of 81,4 is the one which gained most from the treatment. Therefore, the findings suggest that pushed output is the best method to draw the attention of the learners to the target form in the input.

Table 4. 12. Lowest and Highest Scores of Post-Test for All Groups

Groups	Lowest	Highest	Mean
Pushed Output Group	48	96	81,4
Processing Instruction Group	32	100	77
Visually Enhanced Input Group	8	92	67,2
Control Group	48	92	73,7

When we consider the lowest and the highest scores of all groups for the post-test we see that the highest scores range from 92 to 100; however, the the lowest scores of the post-test range from 8 to 48, which can be considered as a big difference. The most significant difference seems to be between the lowest and highest scores of the visually enhanced input group. There is a student who scored only 8 for the post-test but again in the same group there is another student who scored 92 after the treatment.

ANOVA and the t-tests gave us whether the differences in the mean scores of all groups for the post-test are significant or not. Now, with the results of one-way ANOVA and t-tests we know that there does not exist statistically significant results between the test scores of all groups when they started the study. We also know that there is a statistically significant difference between the test results of the groups when the teaching was over. However, what we do not know for now is that which group (or which technique) is the most efficient. Since the fourth research question was “Among the three ways of attention gathering techniques, which is/are the most effective on the learning of Type 3 Conditional sentences?”, it was decided to carry a post hoc test. In order to answer this question, we conducted post hoc tests.

Post hoc tests consist of pair wise comparisons that are designed to compare all different combinations of the treatment groups. Therefore, it is rather like taking every pair of groups and then performing a t-test on each pair of groups. Here we have a comparison of every group, namely all treatment groups being compared with one another. To give an example, under the title of “Results of post-test” pushed output, visually enhanced input, processing instruction and control groups have been compared according to the results they have gathered from the post-test.

Table 4. 13. Multiple Comparisons (Post Hoc Tests)

Dependent Variable	(I) groups	(J) groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
Results of Post-test	1	2	4,430	,79
		3	14,274(*)	,01
		4	7,735	,38
	2	1	-4,430	,79
		3	9,843	,13
		4	3,304	,89
	3	1	-14,274(*)	,01
		2	-9,843	,13
		4	-6,539	,47
	4	1	-7,735	,38
		2	-3,304	,89
		3	6,539	,47

1 Pushed Output Group
 2 Processing Instruction Group
 3 Visually Enhanced Input Group
 4 Control Group

When we have a look at the multiple comparisons above, we see that there is no difference between pushed output and processing instruction and between pushed output and the control group. The only statistically significant difference is between the pushed output group and the visually enhanced input group ($t = -14,274$; $p = ,01$). This post hoc test shows us that the most effective type of

attention gathering technique according to the results of the post-test is pushed output. Processing instruction is the second most successful technique used to draw the learners' attention to form in focus on form followed by the traditional teaching –that based on following the coursebook- and the visually enhanced input.

The results we have so far led us to make an assumption like traditional teaching –teaching that based on the coursebook and that did not include any pushed output, visually enhanced input, and processing instruction- under these conditions is more useful than presenting the input visually enhanced for Intermediate level English learners of Turkish students studying at Dokuz Eylul University, School of Foreign Languages with Type 3 Conditionals because the visually enhanced input group is the least successful among the four groups according to the mean scores.

4. 3. 3. The Results of the Delayed Post-Test

Table 4. 14. presents the results of the delayed post-test for all groups. Delayed post-test was administered to each group four weeks after they had received treatment. The aim was to see which type of attention gathering method helped learners more to keep the structure in their interlanguage well over time.

Before presenting the results, we may need to define the term “retention” first. In learning retention can be defined as the ability to retain facts and figures in memory. A complex picture of memory storage is emerging (McGaugh, 1999). There may be three memory trace systems: one for immediate memory, one for short-term memory, and one which consolidates slowly and is relatively

permanent. The nature of durability of the long term memory trace (that is, the nature and basis for forgetting) is a separate but important issue.

Our concern in this study is to test the durability of the learned (or taught) item in the long term memory of our participants. Learning can occur without permanent consolidation, and both short- term and long-term memory increase with time (McGaugh, 1999). This suggests that a newly learned item can be stored in the immediate memory and if tested at that particular time, the results will reveal change in terms of learning. Since in this study our concern is not only to test immediate storage but also long-term store, we have given a post-test four weeks after the treatment and tested th retention of the newly learned item in the long-term memory.

Table 4. 14. Results of One-Way ANOVA for Delayed Post-test

		df	F	Sig.
Results of Delayed Post-test	Between Groups	3	7,263	,001
	Within Groups	86		
	Total	89		

Results of delayed post-test, introduce almost the same situation. There is a statistically significant difference among the scores of the groups according to the delayed post-test results ($F= 7,26$; $df=3$; $p<,001$). However, we need to remind the reader that we do not know yet which group(s) has/have scored better than the other(s) in the test. Further analyses will reveal this.

Table 4. 15. Results of Delayed Post-test for All Groups

Groups	N	Mean of Pre-test	Mean of Post-test	Mean of Delayed
post-test				
Pushed Output Group	19	40,2	81,4	75,1
Processing Instruction Group	23	40	77	79,4
Visually Enhanced Input Group	25	38,7	67,2	61,2
Control Group	23	39,6	73,7	72,3
Total Mean		39,6	74,4	71,6
Sig.		,93	,01	,001

This time the mean is the highest for the processing instruction group with a score of 79, 4. Pushed output group follows the processing instruction group with a mean score of 75,1. The third most successful group is the control group with a 72, 3 mean score. The lowest is again the visually enhanced input group with a mean score of 61, 2. The difference between the highest and the lowest group is 18, 2 which can be considered to be a big difference when compared to the results of the pre-test and post-test.

Table 4. 16. Significance Level of all Tests

Groups	Pre vs Post	Pre vs Delayed	Post vs Delayed
Pushed Output	p=,007	p=,057	p=,001
Processing Instruction	p=,001	p=,663	p=,614
Visually Enhanced Input	p=,108	p=,054	p=,285
Control	p=,000	p=,007	p=,000

Also, it should be mentioned that, again like for the post-test, it is the visually enhanced input group which had the lowest mean score, which is 61,2 .

The total mean score of 90 students who participated in the study is 71,6 and the visually enhanced input group has a mean score of 61,2 which is the lowest among the groups and which is almost 10 points lower than the total mean score.

Table 4. 17. Lowest and Highest Scores of Delayed Post-Test for All Groups

Groups	Lowest	Highest	Mean
Pushed Output Group	48	96	81,4
Processing Instruction Group	56	96	77
Visually Enhanced Input Group	16	92	67,2
Control Group	56	100	73,7

Above we have the lowest and the highest mean scores of the delayed post-test for all groups. As can be seen from the table, the lowest score belongs to the visually enhanced input group and there is a 40 point difference between the lowest scores. The maximum scores range from 92 to 100. Visually enhanced input group has got the lowest scores of all groups both for the lowest and highest scores.

We have to remind the reader that we still do not know if the degree of remembering the target form is the same for all groups or if one or more than one groups remember the newly learned item. In order to answer this question, which is also our fifth research question we will conduct a post hoc test in the following sections and discuss the results there.

Table 4. 18. Multiple Comparisons (Post Hoc Tests)

Dependent Variable	(I) groups	(J) groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
Results of Delayed Post-test	1	2	-4,320	,81
		3	13,958(*)	,01
		4	2,810	,93
	2	1	4,320	,81
		3	18,278(*)	,001
		4	7,130	,41
	3	1	-13,958(*)	,01
		2	-18,278(*)	,001
		4	-11,148	,06
	4	1	-2,810	,93
		2	-7,130	,41
		3	11,148	,06

- 1 Pushed Output Group
- 2 Processing Instruction Group
- 3 Visually Enhanced Input Group
- 4 Control Group

The last research question was “Among the three ways of attention drawing techniques, which technique(s) facilitate(s) retaining the structure well over time according to the results of the delayed post-test?”. In order to answer this question we conducted the post hoc test. Table 4.20. shows the multiple comparisons of groups in terms of retention. The results of delayed post-test were compared among the four groups and it was seen that processing instruction (sig. ,001) was the best method among the four techniques for retention. Pushed output was the second best method significant at a level of ,01. Control group, namely traditional teaching came third, however, it was striking that visually enhanced input was the least successful among these four techniques.

4. 5. Discussion of the Findings

According to the results of this study, three major findings are evident. First of all, the subjects engaged in the pushed output treatment outperformed the

ones who were exposed to the same input under different techniques in learning English Type 3 Conditionals. The statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test for the output group reveal this. Although it is not possible to talk about the statistically significant difference of pushed output technique with the delayed post-test, the immediate uptake is evident with the post-test results.

Secondly, in contrast to the positive effect of pushed output, visually enhanced input failed to show any measurable effect on learning of the Type 3 Conditionals. This was so, as a result of a clear indication in the scores that the enhancement did not have any significant impact on the noticing of the target form in the input.

Third, like pushed output, processing instruction reveals clear positive effects on the learning of the target form. Other than the positive effects on learning, it is statistically possible to say that processing instruction is the most useful technique that helps learners to keep what they have learned in their interlanguage in the long term. Therefore, processing instruction does not only help for noticing and learning, but also helps to retain the already covered form in the interlanguage.

As the results also reveal, students do not make use of typographical enhancement. Only underlining or italicizing the structure in the input is not enough to draw the learners' attention to form. Students need more than this. The results of all statistical analyses conducted for this study show that this comes in the form of producing output. Learners should be given the chance in which they can produce language with the structure they have covered. Because both written and

oral output production have been used for this study, we can conclude that different forms of output production have enhanced the acquisition of the chosen target form.

An explanation of this failure in terms of visually enhanced input's nonobservable effect on acquisition might be the issue of learner readiness or the students' developmental level of the target form. As Peinemann (1984) suggests the effect of any given pedagogical treatment could be constrained by the student's developmental readiness. This may account why this specific treatment had little or no facilitative effect on this group of learners. However, the reader should be reminded that this fact is valid for the other treatment groups as well.

Other than producing the target form, creating opportunities for the learners to process the input also helps. After presenting the new structure and before starting to use it in productive activities, if students are given chance to process it, they are more successful. Processing instruction, the aim of which is to make learners get the communicative function of a structure, has significantly affected the retention of the chosen target form.

As for the answer to the fourth research question, the results indicate that pushed output seems to be the most effective attention gathering technique followed by processing instruction. Visually enhanced input and traditional teaching were to be the least effective attention drawing techniques. This might be because during pushed output the teacher creates situations in which the learners are "pushed" to use the newly covered target form. For the study, for example the learners were given extra activities in which they had the chance to use the third Conditional sentences both written and oral. Therefore, the positive effect of

active participation in oral and written pair-work activities support the claim that there exist a link between interaction and grammatical development and highlight the importance of active participation in the interaction (Mackey, 1999). The pushed output group was exposed to the target form many times more than the visually enhanced input and control group.

This finding actually, contradicts with VanPatten's arguments on the role of input and output in SLA. First of all, VanPatten (2004) claims that input initially makes and subsequently strengthens form-meaning connections and therefore, the input-dependent nature of a grammatical form is unquestionable. Second, he argues that it is not possible to claim that the acquisition of a grammatical form is somehow output dependent. However, as was stated above the results of the study in hand challenges this argument presenting more gains of the chosen grammatical form for the pushed output group. Even though the presentation of the new form used for the study was not solely output dependent – during the presentation stage the participants were presented the new form via input but unenhanced-, this still supports the positive role of output in acquisition. Actually, VanPatten (2004) himself states that he never claims that output plays no role at all in language use. Especially in the case of skill building output is stated to be necessary by VanPatten.

When we compare the results of this study with the previously conducted studies we see that like in Izumi (2002), those who received visual input enhancement failed to show measurable gains in learning. Izumi states that no support was found for the hypothesis that the effect of input enhancement was comparable to that of output.

White's study (1998) supports this finding too. White used reading texts which included enhanced forms and the participants went through a treatment of 10 hours over a two week period in a pre-post-test design. Results reveal no long term (according to the delayed post-test) memory effects for the enhanced input and limited success was observed in short term (according to the immediate post-test).

Alanen (1995) could not find the same support in her study investigating how rule presentation and visual input enhancement affected the acquisition of structural language elements by L1 English beginning learners of semi-artificial Finnish. The input the participants in the treatment groups were exposed to was manipulated by the use of italics for the visual enhancement of the target form. The second treatment group received explicit rule presentation and the third group both. It was hypothesized that the Rule & Enhance group would be the most successful; however, the results partially supported this because the effect of visual enhancement was not immediately obvious.

The positive effect of pushed output demonstrated in this study is consistent with the hypothesized function of output in second language acquisition. In particular, based on the literature and research that point to the importance of drawing learners' attention to the form to promote their learning, pushed output was considered to be a means to achieve this. This study has proven that output does this by prompting the learners to find the problems in their interlanguage by producing it. Because the learners were given chance to produce the target form both orally and written they were given the chance to catch the problems they have in their IL about the target form. In short, pushed output as a means to

gather the attention of the learners to form, can help the learners to process the input effectively for their greater IL development (Izumi, 2002).

As the results of the study in hand has revealed, Ellis and He (1999) also mention the positive effects of output production. In their experimental study of the differential effects of premodified input, interactionally modified input, and modified output of the comprehension of directions in a listen-and-do task and the acquisition of new words embedded in the directions, they report the modified output group to achieve higher comprehension and vocabulary acquisition scores than either of the input groups. Even though the scope of their study was on modifying the output and vocabulary, they still emphasize the role of output in second language acquisition.

In contrast to positive results of pushed output, visually enhanced input was not effective to induce greater learning of the target form. Izumi (2002) states the possible reason to be the difference between internal and external attention drawing. According to him, visually enhanced input, an external attention drawing technique, may not promote learning with an equal level of efficacy when compared to internal attention drawing techniques.

Different from Karacaer (2003), the results of our study reveal that there is a difference in knowledge gain for the processing instruction (PI) group. In her study, in which she examined the possible effects of processing instruction and traditional instruction (TI) on the learning of English causatives by Turkish learners, the results indicated that both the PI and the TI resulted in knowledge gain due to the treatments. In contrast, the results of this study indicates that PI is not only an effective method to draw learner attention to form but also that it is

the most effective method to retain knowledge when compared with the pushed output and visually enhanced input.

Our study shows similar results with Erlam's study. In her paper, Erlam (2003) 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. Three classes of students (n= 70) were assigned to three groups: structured-input instruction, output-based instruction, and control. 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.

Different from our study Izumi et. al. (1999), provide partial support for the output hypothesis. The post-test performance of the participants failed to reveal any effects for the output group in their study. Since the control group, unexpectedly, increased significantly in their noticing of the target form, the unique effects of output in promoting noticing of the form, therefore, were not confirmed. However, in our study, pushed output group performed better than all other experimental groups according to the results of the post-test.

5. CONCLUSION

5. 1. Summary of the Study

Following the idea that both input- and output-based instruction can be effective for SLA, many studies have attempted to compare the two under a variety of research designs (Ellis & He, 1999; Pica & Doughty, 1985; Swain, 1985, 1993, 1995). Few studies have addressed whether output-based instruction can be as effective as input-based instruction (Izumi, 2002). However, this issue has not been fully covered in the literature in terms of the degree of effects of different forms of input and output used as attention gathering techniques on the acquisition of English as a second language by Turkish learners.

Other than the role of input and output what has not been fully discussed in the field is the attention drawing techniques used in grammar instruction. Careful examination of the effectiveness of purely meaning-focused communicative language teaching has led a number of second language researchers to claim that communicative instruction should involve systematic treatments to draw L2 learner's attention to linguistic forms to develop well-balanced communicative competence (Long & Robinson, 1998; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Loewen, 2005; Muranoi, 2000). Doughty (2003) defines focus on form basically as drawing learner attention to form while meaning and function are evident to the learner.

If focus on form is basically drawing learner attention to form, then maybe the question to be asked is "how". How should the teachers take the attention of the learners to form? This is the question that shaped the study in hand. The main goal of the researcher was to find out the most effective attention drawing

technique used in focus on form and therefore inform the practitioners in the field about the results.

In order to test the efficiency of the attention drawing techniques, an experimental study with a pre, post-test design was conducted. The subjects of the study were the intermediate level students of the School of Foreign Languages of Dokuz Eylül University in the Fall Term of 2006-2007 academic year. They were students enrolled at an intensive English preparatory class of which the class hours ranged between 24 to 30 hours a week. They were between 21 to 23 years old. 90 subjects were randomly assigned as experimental and control groups. There were three experimental groups: pushed output group, visually enhanced input group and processing instruction group. Control group received traditional grammar instruction. Each group was given the pre-test and later they received treatment. After treatment, they were given the same test as post-test and four weeks later as the delayed post-test.

The analyses of the results of pre-post and delayed post-tests reveal that pushed output and processing instruction were effective in the teaching of the target form. However, as for the delayed post-test only processing instruction stays well in the interlanguage of the participants according to the results of the delayed post-test.

5. 2. Implications for Theory and Practice

This study indicates that visually enhanced input is not an effective way of attention gathering; however pushed output and processing instruction are effective ways of attention gathering in focus on form. In addition to the

effectiveness, retention was also tested in the study. The results reveal positive evidence for retention when processing instruction is used as a way of attention gathering.

The role of attention is emphasized in psycholinguistically rich cognitive accounts of L2 development. Because in these accounts attention to input is seen as essential for storage and a necessary precursor to hypothesis formation and testing (Bialystok, 1994; Carr & Curran, 1994; VanPatten, 1994). The idea common to these approaches is that L2 learners process target language input in ways that are determined by general cognitive factors including perceptual salience, frequency, the continuity of elements, and other factors that determine whether or not attention is drawn to them.

The technique that was used for making the form salient in this study was underlining the target form in the input, namely visually enhanced input. However, the results of the study reveal that textual enhancement does not promote the learning of the target form. Leow (1997) also examined the effects of text length and visual enhancement on learners' comprehension of text content and intake of the impersonal imperative forms of Spanish verbs. He found a main effect for text length on comprehension but not on the intake of forms. Same with the results of our study, visual enhancement did not make a significant effect on on either comprehension and intake.

Therefore, the manipulation of written input –providing visually enhanced input- does not have any effect on learners' intake of form because that kind of input is not enough for the learners to recognize the form. The students obviously need some other ways of attention gathering.

Processing instruction proved to be an effective way of attention gathering for retention. The existing literature indicates that after the presentation of the new target item students need some time to process the new item. The processing instruction activities used after presenting the new form are therefore useful for making form meaning connections. As VanPatten, Williams & Rott (2004) stated most of the second language learners pursue meaning first. However, the establishment of form-meaning connections is a fundamental aspect of both first and second language acquisition. A form-meaning connection is initially made when a learner somehow cognitively registers form and meaning through processing instruction activities (VanPatten et. al., 2004). Therefore the teachers are advised to use these type of processing activities in their classrooms.

Pushed output presents positive effects on learning. As was stated by Smith (1981: 248) one learns to read by reading, and to write by writing. This argument can be extended to speaking as well. Therefore, creating environments where students can practice the newly learned target form by writing, reading and speaking is effective. It is suggested that teachers “push” their learners to produce the new form in any medium either spoken or written.

Next, if it is considered that traditional teaching is composed of three stages as Presentation, Practice and Production and because the results of this study reveal positive effects for processing instruction at the practice level and pushed output at the production level, then a combination of processing instruction and pushed output will reveal better results for learners. Because pushed output promotes learning and processing instruction enhances retention, then the combination of two of them will affect both learning and retention. Thus,

teachers, when planning their lesson-plans, are advised to include processing instruction activities at the practice level and use pushed output as an attention drawing technique at production level.

Even though, only one type of linguistic item has been tested, under the light of the presented study we suggest the use of these attention drawing techniques for other target items in classrooms.

5. 3. Limitations of the Study

Having worked with only one target item can be stated as the most disturbing limitation. The researcher has chosen Type 3 Conditionals for the study for the reasons stated above. However, as was mentioned when the results were being discussed, this study can only account for the If Clause Type 3 Conditionals. It is not clear whether the same results could be obtained for other grammar points. This issue highly affects the generalizability of the present findings.

Closely related with working with a single target item, another limitation concerns the time spent for the treatments. Each group had four hours of treatment no matter in which group they were. This was not decided by the researcher herself. This was the time devoted to Type 3 Conditional sentences on the syllabus of the Intermediate group. However, because the effects of different attention gathering methods have been tested, different results might have been reached with more hours of treatment.

From the methodological point of view, larger subject groups have always been suggested. The study started with 107 participants which were considered to

be an acceptable number. However, because we eliminated the participants who scored above 48 on the pre-test, the number decreased to 90. Even though not very risky, it might have been better for the generalizability if the number of the participants has been larger.

Another limitation of the study can be stated to be related with the definition of learning. In this study “learning” has been defined as the degree of change in the grades of the participants from the pre-test to the post-test. Twigg, (1994) defines learning as the mastery of a body of knowledge as the way to prepare for life. Here, whether the students have mastered the target item was tested through the test scores. This might be a limitation for some other researchers who define learning in different terms.

5. 4. Suggestions for Further Research

As was stated above among one of the limitations of the study, the effect of these techniques was studied on one item only. Therefore, the researcher suggests further research to be carried out to test the effects of the same attention drawing techniques on the learning of different linguistic items.

Number of subjects participating the study plays a crucial role in extending the results of the study to the whole population. As this issue has been stated as a limitation in this study, further studies can be carried out with larger sample sizes. This will both increase the reliability and if carried out with different linguistic items, it will give us more concrete results about the effects of attention drawing techniques to be used in focus on form.

We used bolding and underlining to enhance the input visually which did not help the learners to recognize the target item in the input. However, Doughty (2003) states that visually enhanced input evokes cognitive comparison. Therefore, further studies using other visual enhancement techniques such as; font manipulations or color coding and auditory recasting can be carried out.

The delayed post-test was given four weeks after the treatment to test the long-term retention. Besides the long-term retention there are immediate and short-term retention (Twigg 1994). The post-test measures we administered already tested the immediate retention. Therefore, we would like to suggest that the delayed post-test be administered in one week and/or two weeks time to test the short-term retention.

5. 5. Conclusion

This study has aimed at searching for the most effective and durable attention gathering technique(s) used in focus on form. The following conclusions can be drawn from the study:

- Pushed output and processing instruction have positive and statistically significant effects on the acquisition of the Type 3 Conditional sentences for Turkish learners of English.
- Traditional teaching and visually enhanced input do not have any statistically significant effects on the learning of the Type 3 Conditional sentences for Turkish learners of English. However, it should be stated here that the traditional teaching group (the control group) did not receive all the activities that other three experimental groups received. Since the

activities can also be considered as input, the extra activities used in the experimental groups make them more advantageous. Only after stating that we can say the traditional teaching statistically does not have any effect on the learning of the target form.

- Among four different techniques, processing instruction is the most durable for the Turkish learners when they are presented Type 3 Conditional sentences.

From the pedagogical aspect, this study suggests an alternative presentation to account for the learning of a chosen linguistic item. Thus, every new item to be presented to a learner should be presented in a way to take the attention of the learner. As was stated by Doughty (2003) how to direct learners' attention to input has just begun to be investigated in SLA. This study has investigated what Doughty has mentioned above and found out that pushing the learner to produce the target form as output during the production stage and practicing with processing instruction activities during the practice stage directs the Turkish learners' attention to form.

APPENDICES

<u>Page</u>	
Appendix A Lesson Plan Control Group.....	116
Appendix A Lesson Plan Pushed Output Group.....	119
Appendix A Lesson Plan Visually Enhanced Input Group.....	128
Appendix A Lesson Plan Processing Instruction Group.....	133
Appendix B Pre-Post Test.....	139
Appendix C Test Results.....	143

APPENDIX A

LESSON PLAN (Control Group)

Background Information

Teacher: Nesrin Oruç

School: Dokuz Eylül University, School of Foreign Languages

Class:

Description of Students (Class, Age, Size):

Text and materials: English File, Intermediate, Oxford University Press.

Previous Class Work:

Work to be collected or returned:

Subject: Type 3 Conditionals

Date: November, 20, 2007

Procedure

Time Frame

10”

Procedures

Warm-Up

- a. Read the article BAD LUCK. In pairs, decide what you think happened next.
 - b. Now listen to what happened. Were you right?
 - c. Listen again and check. Then in pairs, write two sentences to explain how the story ended.
- Now do the same for GOOD LUCK.

BAD LUCK: I Missed You!

Ian Johnson, a 27-year-old builder, went to work in Australia for a year, leaving behind his girlfriend, Amy. Ian and Amy missed each other a lot and after being six months apart Ian planned a surprise. Without telling Amy he caught a plane back to England to see her. After a 24-hour flight via Singapore and a 17,600-kilometre journey he finally arrived at her house in Yorkshire in the north of England, carrying flowers, champagne, and an engagement ring. He rang the doorbell, but nobody answered. He had a key to her house so he opened the door and went in. The house was empty. Ian thought Amy had gone out for the evening and sat down to wait for her to come back. Tired after his long journey, he fell asleep. When he woke up, his phone was ringing...

GOOD LUCK: Is There A Doctor On The Plane?

Mrs Dorothy Fletcher was travelling with her daughter and her daughter's fiance on a flight from London to Florida. Her daughter was going to be married there the following week. When they changed planes in Philadelphia they had to rush between terminals to catch the connecting flight and Mrs Fletcher, aged 67, began to feel ill.

“I didn't say anything to my daughter because I didn't want to worry her or miss the wedding,” said Mrs Fletcher. But when the plane took off from

Philadelphia she suddenly got a terrible pain in her chest, back, and arm-she was having a heart attack. The cabin crew put out a desperate call to the passengers: "If there is a doctor on the plane, could you please press your call bell..."

10"

Presentation**2. GRAMMAR Third Conditional**

a. Complete the two sentences from the listening in 1c.

1. Ian

If one of us had _____ at home, we _____ have met.

2. Mrs Fletcher

If those doctors _____ been on the plane, I would _____ died.

b. Listen and check.

c. Look at sentences 1 and 2 above and answer the questions.

1. Did Ian or Amy stay at home? Did they meet?

2. Were the doctors on the plane? Did Mrs Fletcher die?

3. Do sentences 1 and 2 refer to something that happened or something that didn't happen?

10"

Practice

d. P. 142 Grammar Bank 7A. Read the rules and do the exercises.

15"

Production**3. PRONUNCIATION Sentence Stress**

a. Listen and repeat the sentences. Copy the rhythm.

1. If you'd told me earlier, I would have gone too.

2. If the weather had been better, we would have stayed longer.

3. If I hadn't stopped for petrol, I would have arrived before he left.

4. We would have been late if we hadn't taken a taxi.

5. She wouldn't have come if she'd known he was here.

6. It would have been cheaper if we'd booked last month.

b. Communication Guess the Conditional

4. SPEAKING

a. Read the questionnaire and mark your answers.

b. Compare your answers with a partner. Give more information if you can.

c. Now look at what your scores mean. Do you agree with the results?

5”

Closure

Review or Summary

Homework

LESSON PLAN

(Pushed Output Group)

Background Information

Teacher: Nesrin Oruç

School: Dokuz Eylül University, School of Foreign Languages

Class:

Description of Students (Class, Age, Size):

Text and materials: English File, Intermediate, Oxford University Press.

Previous Class Work:

Work to be collected or returned:

Subject: Type 3 Conditionals

Date: November, 21, 2007

Procedure

Time Frame

10”

Procedures

Warm-Up

- a. Read the article BAD LUCK. In pairs, decide what you think happened next.
 - b. Now listen to what happened. Were you right?
 - c. Listen again and check. Then in pairs, write two sentences to explain how the story ended.
- Now do the same for GOOD LUCK.

BAD LUCK: I Missed You!

Ian Johnson, a 27-year-old builder, went to work in Australia for a year, leaving behind his girlfriend, Amy. Ian and Amy missed each other a lot and after being six months apart Ian planned a surprise. Without telling Amy he caught a plane back to England to see her. After a 24-hour flight via Singapore and a 17,600-kilometre journey he finally arrived at her house in Yorkshire in the north of England, carrying flowers, champagne, and an engagement ring. He rang the doorbell, but nobody answered. He had a key to her house so he opened the door and went in. The house was empty. Ian thought Amy had gone out for the evening and sat down to wait for her to come back. Tired after his long journey, he fell asleep. When he woke up, his phone was ringing...

GOOD LUCK: Is There A Doctor On The Plane?

Mrs Dorothy Fletcher was travelling with her daughter and her daughter's fiance on a flight from London to Florida. Her daughter was going to be married there the following week. When they changed planes in Philadelphia they had to rush between terminals to catch the connecting flight and Mrs Fletcher, aged 67, began to feel ill.

“I didn't say anything to my daughter because I didn't want to worry her or miss the wedding,” said Mrs Fletcher. But when the plane took off from

Philadelphia she suddenly got a terrible pain in her chest, back, and arm-she was having a heart attack. The cabin crew put out a desperate call to the passengers: "If there is a doctor on the plane, could you please press your call bell..."

10"

Presentation**2. GRAMMAR Third Conditional**

a. Complete the two sentences from the listening in 1c.

1. Ian

If one of us had _____ at home, we _____ have met.

2. Mrs Fletcher

If those doctors _____ been on the plane, I would _____ died.

b. Listen and check.

c. Look at sentences 1 and 2 above and answer the questions.

1. Did Ian or Amy stay at home? Did they meet?

2. Were the doctors on the plane? Did Mrs Fletcher die?

3. Do sentences 1 and 2 refer to something that happened or something that didn't happen?

10"

Practice

d. P. 142 Grammar Bank 7A. Read the rules and do the exercises.

15"

Production**3. PRONUNCIATION Sentence Stress**

a. Listen and repeat the sentences. Copy the rhythm.

1. If you'd told me earlier, I would have gone too.

2. If the weather had been better, we would have stayed longer.

3. If I hadn't stopped for petrol, I would have arrived before he left.

4. We would have been late if we hadn't taken a taxi.

5. She wouldn't have come if she'd known he was here.

6. It would have been cheaper if we'd booked last month.

b. Communication Guess the Conditional

4. SPEAKING

a. Read the questionnaire and mark your answers.

- b. Compare your answers with a partner. Give more information if you can.
- c. Now look at what your scores mean. Do you agree with the results?

EXTRA OUTPUT ACTIVITY 1

Teacher Version

MONOPOLY

Probably the most recognized boardgame around the world is the game of Monopoly. In this game, players vie for wealth by buying, selling, and renting properties; the key to success in the game, in addition to a bit of luck, is for a player to acquire monopolies on clusters of properties in order to force opponents to pay exorbitant rents and fees.

Although the game is now published in countless languages and versions, the beginnings of the game were considerably more humble. The game has developed so much because of being published in countless languages. Because it is an international game, it is published in each country with place names appropriate to the target language. The game was sold internationally, therefore foreign locations were used.

The game was invented in 1933 by Charles Darrow, during the height of the Great Depression. Darrow, who lived in Germantown, Pennsylvania, was himself unemployed during those difficult financial times. Darrow used the advantage of being unemployed, since he had so much free time, he was able to find time to invent the game. He set the original game not as might be expected in his hometown of Germantown, but in Atlantic City, New Jersey. The long walks along the Boardwalk and the visits to the Park Place in Atlantic City made him to set the game in Germantown. But because Atlantic City was the site of numerous pre-Depression vacations with very positive memories, he set the game there.

Darrow made the first games by hand and sold them locally. However, in 1935 Parker Brothers purchased the rights to Monopoly and took the first steps toward the mass production of today within the same year. Parker Brothers has a big role in the popularity of the game. Darrow was paid only 100 \$ by the manufacturing company, because he could not expect the possible fame of the game.

Adapted from Phillips, D. (1996). Longman Preparation Course for the TOEFL Test: Skills and Strategies. NY: Longman.

Procedure**Step 1**

First, students are asked questions about the games they know and play as a warm-up.

Each student receives a copy of the Monopoly, either A or B version.

First, they are given 3 minutes to read their card and answer the related questions.

STUDENT A QUESTIONS

How was the first version? Where was it created? When was the game purchased? When did mass production start? What kinds of changes were made on the game?
--

STUDENT B QUESTIONS

Who created the game? When was it created? Who purchased the rights of the game? How much did they pay to the inventor of the game?
--

Step 2

Each student having his/her own answers in their hands, keep their texts.

Student Versions**Student A****MONOPOLY**

Probably the most recognized boardgame around the world is the game of Monopoly. In this game, players vie for wealth by buying, selling, and renting properties; the key to success in the game, in addition to a bit of luck, is for a player to acquire monopolies on clusters of properties in order to force opponents to pay exorbitant rents and fees.

Although the game is now published in countless languages and versions, the beginnings of the game were considerably more humble. The game has developed so much because of being published in countless languages. Because it is an international game, it is published in each country with place names appropriate to the target language. The game was sold internationally, therefore foreign locations were used.

Darrow made the first games by hand and sold them locally. However, in 1935 Parker Brothers purchased the rights to Monopoly and took the first steps toward the mass production of today within the same year. Parker Brothers has a big role in the popularity of the game.

Student B**MONOPOLY**

Probably the most recognized boardgame around the world is the game of Monopoly. In this game, players vie for wealth by buying, selling, and renting properties; the key to success in the game, in addition to a bit of luck, is for a player to acquire monopolies on clusters of properties in order to force opponents to pay exorbitant rents and fees.

The game was invented in 1933 by Charles Darrow, during the height of the Great Depression. Darrow, who lived in Germantown, Pennsylvania, was himself unemployed during those difficult financial times. Darrow used the advantage of being unemployed, since he had so much free time, he were able to find time to invent the game. He set the original game not as might be expected in his hometown of Germantown, but in Atlantic City, New Jersey. The long walks along the Boardwalk and the visits to the Park Place in Atlantic City made him to set the game in Germantown. But because Atlantic City was the site of numerous pre-Depression vacations with very positive memories, he set the game there.

Darrow was paid only 100 \$ by the manufacturing company, but if he had expected the possible fame of the game, he would have required many more than that.

Step 3

Later the students will be given a common task in which they will be asked to answer the following questions with their partners.

Imagine that Darrow did not sell the rights of the game, what would the result be?
 Imagine that the game was not translated into so many languages, what would the result be?
 Imagine that Darrow did not go to Atlantic City, what would the result be?
 Imagine that Darrow was so busy, what would the result be?
 Imagine that Darrow knew that the game would be so popular, what would be the result?
 Imagine that the game was not sold internationally, what would the result be?

Step 4

Each student is asked to write an individual report about the game Monopoly. The texts will be collected by the teacher.

EXTRA OUTPUT ACTIVITY 2**Procedure****Step 1**

First, students are asked questions about the ship Titanic.

Each student receives a copy of "The Truth about the Titanic" either A or B version.

First, they are given 3 minutes to read their card.

Teacher Version**The Truth about the Titanic**

The sinking of the Titanic on its first voyage has fascinated people all over the world for nearly a hundred years. It's a story surrounded by mystery and speculation. Here we answer the questions most often asked about the most famous of ships.

The regulations controlling the number of lifeboats that a ship should carry were terribly out of date. The Titanic only had to have 16 lifeboats, enough for 962 people, which was ridiculous as the ship could carry 3,511 people. The lives of many passengers could be saved, but due to the insufficient number of lifeboats a lot of people have died on April 14th 1912.

A small ship called the Californian was only 20 kilometers away from the Titanic. It was so near that the two ships could see each other's lights. The radio operator had just gone to bed so he didn't hear the Titanic's S.O.S message. Therefore the crew of the Californian was not aware that the Titanic was sinking. They could save the lives of all passengers. The captain of the Californian was later blamed for not going to help the Titanic and his reputation was destroyed.

Although they had received several warnings of icebergs from other ships in the area, the Titanic was going at the top speed. The captain of the Titanic, like

other captains, was under great commercial pressure to make the Atlantic crossing as quickly as possible. Another criticism of Captain Smith is that he was not on the bridge at the time of the collision. Perhaps, because the captain was not there, his ship hit the iceberg. Captain Smith and the ship's designer Thomas Andrews both drowned.

In the confusion of the evacuation many lifeboats left the Titanic half empty. This was partly because Captain Smith and his crew found it difficult to persuade people to leave the "unsinkable" Titanic. When the Titanic finally sank, some of the passengers in the lifeboats wanted to go back and rescue some of the people swimming in the freezing water. Finally, only one of the sixteen lifeboats went back to pick up survivors. They only managed to rescue five people. Everyone else was dead.

After the collision, the little group of musicians started playing in the first-class lounge to keep the passengers calm, but later they moved up onto the deck. Some survivors in the lifeboats said they could still hear the musicians playing a waltz called Autumn until just before the ship finally sank. Music helped the passengers to keep calm. Not one of the orchestra survived.

Student A Version**The Truth about the Titanic**

The sinking of the Titanic on its first voyage has fascinated people all over the world for nearly a hundred years. It's a story surrounded by mystery and speculation. Here we answer the questions most often asked about the most famous of ships.

The regulations controlling the number of lifeboats that a ship should carry were terribly out of date. The Titanic only had to have 16 lifeboats, enough for 962 people, which was ridiculous as the ship could carry 3,511 people. The lives of many passengers could be saved, but due to the insufficient number of lifeboats a lot of people have died on April 14th 1912.

Although they had received several warnings of icebergs from other ships in the area, the Titanic was going at the top speed. The captain of the Titanic, like other captains, was under great commercial pressure to make the Atlantic crossing as quickly as possible. Another criticism of Captain Smith is that he was not on the bridge at the time of the collision. Perhaps, because the captain was not there, his ship hit the iceberg. Captain Smith and the ship's designer Thomas Andrews both drowned.

After the collision, the little group of musicians started playing in the first-class lounge to keep the passengers calm, but later they moved up onto the deck. Some survivors in the lifeboats said they could still hear the musicians playing a waltz called Autumn until just before the ship finally sank. Music helped the passengers to keep calm. Not one of the orchestra survived.

Student B Version**The Truth about the Titanic**

The sinking of the Titanic on its first voyage has fascinated people all over the world for nearly a hundred years. It's a story surrounded by mystery and speculation. Here we answer the questions most often asked about the most famous of ships.

A small ship called the Californian was only 20 kilometers away from the Titanic. It was so near that the two ships could see each other's lights. The radio operator had just gone to bed so he didn't hear the Titanic's S.O.S message. Therefore the crew of the Californian was not aware that the Titanic was sinking. They could save the lives of all passengers. The captain of the Californian was later blamed for not going to help the Titanic and his reputation was destroyed.

In the confusion of the evacuation many lifeboats left the Titanic half empty. This was partly because Captain Smith and his crew found it difficult to persuade people to leave the "unsinkable" Titanic. When the Titanic finally sank, some of the passengers in the lifeboats wanted to go back and rescue some of the people swimming in the freezing water. Finally, only one of the sixteen lifeboats went back to pick up survivors. They only managed to rescue five people. Everyone else was dead.

Step 2

After reading their own versions, the students are asked to work on the common task.

Step 3

Now the students are asked to fill in the blanks below.

The Truth about the Titanic

The sinking of the Titanic on its first voyage has fascinated people all over the world for nearly a hundred years. It's a story surrounded by mystery and speculation. Here we answer the questions most often asked about the most famous of ships.

The Titanic only had to have _____ lifeboats, enough for _____ people, which was ridiculous as the ship could carry _____ people. The lives of many passengers could be saved, but due to the insufficient number of lifeboats a lot of people have died on _____.

A small ship called the _____ was only _____ kilometers away from the Titanic. It was so near that the two ships could see each other's lights. The radio operator had just _____ so he didn't hear the Titanic's S.O.S message. Therefore the crew of the Californian was not aware that the Titanic was sinking. They could save the lives of all passengers. The captain of the Californian was later blamed for not going to help the Titanic and his reputation was destroyed.

Although they had received several warnings of icebergs from other ships in the area, the Titanic was going at the _____. The captain of the Titanic, like other captains, was under great commercial pressure to make the Atlantic crossing as quickly as possible. Another criticism of Captain _____ is that he was not on the bridge at the time of the collision. Perhaps, because the captain was not there, his ship hit the iceberg. Captain and the ship's designer _____ both drowned.

In the confusion of the evacuation many lifeboats left the Titanic _____. This was partly because Captain and his crew found it difficult to persuade people to leave the "unsinkable" Titanic. When the Titanic finally sank, _____ of the passengers in the lifeboats wanted to go back and rescue some of the people swimming in the freezing water. Finally, only _____ of the _____ lifeboats went back to pick up survivors. They only managed to rescue _____ people. Everyone else was dead.

After the collision, the little group of musicians started playing in the first-class lounge to keep the passengers _____, but later they moved up onto the deck. Some survivors in the lifeboats said they could still hear the musicians playing a waltz called _____ until just before the ship finally sank. Music helped the passengers to keep calm. _____ of the orchestra survived.

5"

Closure

Review or Summary

Homework

LESSON PLAN

(Visually Enhanced Input Group)

Background Information

Teacher: Nesrin Oruç

School: Dokuz Eylül University, School of Foreign Languages

Class:

Description of Students (Class, Age, Size):

Text and materials: English File, Intermediate, Oxford University Press.

Previous Class Work:

Work to be collected or returned:

Subject: Type 3 Conditionals

Date: November, 21, 2007

Procedure

Time Frame

10”

Procedures

Warm-Up

- a. Read the article BAD LUCK. In pairs, decide what you think happened next.
 - b. Now listen to what happened. Were you right?
 - c. Listen again and check. Then in pairs, write two sentences to explain how the story ended.
- Now do the same for GOOD LUCK.

BAD LUCK: I Missed You!

Ian Johnson, a 27-year-old builder, went to work in Australia for a year, leaving behind his girlfriend, Amy. Ian and Amy missed each other a lot and after being six months apart Ian planned a surprise. Without telling Amy he caught a plane back to England to see her. After a 24-hour flight via Singapore and a 17,600-kilometre journey he finally arrived at her house in Yorkshire in the north of England, carrying flowers, champagne, and an engagement ring. He rang the doorbell, but nobody answered. He had a key to her house so he opened the door and went in. The house was empty. Ian thought Amy had gone out for the evening and sat down to wait for her to come back. Tired after his long journey, he fell asleep. When he woke up, his phone was ringing...

GOOD LUCK: Is There A Doctor On The Plane?

Mrs Dorothy Fletcher was travelling with her daughter and her daughter's fiance on a flight from London to Florida. Her daughter was going to be married there the following week. When they changed planes in Philadelphia they had to rush between terminals to catch the connecting flight and Mrs Fletcher, aged 67, began to feel ill.

“I didn't say anything to my daughter because I didn't want to worry her or miss the wedding,” said Mrs Fletcher. But when the plane took off from

Philadelphia she suddenly got a terrible pain in her chest, back, and arm-she was having a heart attack. The cabin crew put out a desperate call to the passengers: "If there is a doctor on the plane, could you please press your call bell..."

10"

Presentation**2. GRAMMAR Third Conditional**

a. Complete the two sentences from the listening in 1c.

1. Ian

If one of us had _____ at home, we _____ have met.

2. Mrs Fletcher

If those doctors _____ been on the plane, I would _____ died.

b. Listen and check.

c. Look at sentences 1 and 2 above and answer the questions.

1. Did Ian or Amy stay at home? Did they meet?

2. Were the doctors on the plane? Did Mrs Fletcher die?

3. Do sentences 1 and 2 refer to something that happened or something that didn't happen?

10"

Practice

d. P. 142 Grammar Bank 7A. Read the rules and do the exercises.

15"

Production**3. PRONUNCIATION Sentence Stress**

a. Listen and repeat the sentences. Copy the rhythm.

1. If you'd told me earlier, I would have gone too.
2. If the weather had been better, we would have stayed longer.
3. If I hadn't stopped for petrol, I would have arrived before he left.
4. We would have been late if we hadn't taken a taxi.
5. She wouldn't have come if she'd known he was here.
6. It would have been cheaper if we'd booked last month.

b. Communication Guess the Conditional

4. SPEAKING

a. Read the questionnaire and mark your answers.

b. Compare your answers with a partner. Give more information if you can.

c. Now look at what your scores mean. Do you agree with the results?

5"

Closure
Review or Summary
Homework

EXTRA INPUT ACTIVITY 1

Read the text below and answer the following comprehension questions.

MONOPOLY

Probably the most recognized boardgame around the world is the game of Monopoly. In this game, players vie for wealth by buying, selling, and renting properties; the key to success in the game, in addition to a bit of luck, is for a player to acquire monopolies on clusters of properties in order to force opponents to pay exorbitant rents and fees.

Although the game is now published in countless languages and versions, the beginnings of the game were considerably more humble. **If it hadn't been published in countless languages, it wouldn't have developed so much.** Because it is an international game, it is published in each country with place names appropriate to the target language. **If it hadn't been sold internationally, there wouldn't have been foreign locations.**

The game was invented in 1933 by Charles Darrow, during the height of the Great Depression. Darrow, who lived in Germantown, Pennsylvania, was himself unemployed during those difficult financial times. **If he hadn't had so much free time, he wouldn't have invented the game.** He set the original game not as might be expected in his hometown of Germantown, but in Atlantic City, New Jersey. **If he hadn't walked along the Boardwalk and visited at Park Place in Atlantic City, he would have set the game in Germantown.** But because Atlantic City was the site of numerous pre-Depression vacations with very positive memories, he set the game there.

Darrow made the first games by hand and sold them locally. However, in 1935 Parker Brothers purchased the rights to Monopoly and took the first steps toward the mass production of today within the same year. **If Parker Brothers hadn't bought the rights of the game, it wouldn't have been so popular today.** Darrow was paid only 100 \$ by the manufacturing company, but **if he had expected the possible fame of the game, he would have required many more than that.**

Adapted from Phillips, D. (1996). Longman Preparation Course for the TOEFL Test: Skills and Strategies. NY: Longman.

Comprehension Questions

1. Who created the game?
2. When was it created?
3. How was the first version?
4. Where was it created?
5. Who purchased the rights of the game?
6. How much did they pay to the inventor of the game?
7. When was the game purchased?

8. When did mass production start?
9. What kinds of changes were made on the game?
10. If the inventor had known, would he ask for more money?
11. If it hadn't been purchased, would it be so popular?
12. If the inventor had been busy, would he create the game?
13. If he hadn't been to Atlantic City, where would he have set the game?

EXTRA INPUT ACTIVITY 2

Read the text below. Then answer the questions.

The Truth about the Titanic

The sinking of the Titanic on its first voyage has fascinated people all over the world for nearly a hundred years. It's a story surrounded by mystery and speculation. Here we answer the questions most often asked about the most famous of ships.

The regulations controlling the number of lifeboats that a ship should carry were terribly out of date. The Titanic only had to have 16 lifeboats, enough for 962 people, which was ridiculous as the ship could carry 3,511 people. **Nobody would have died on April 14th 1912 if the Titanic had had enough lifeboats for all the passengers.**

A small ship called the Californian was only 20 kilometers away from the Titanic. It was so near that the two ships could see each other's lights. The radio operator had just gone to bed so he didn't hear the Titanic's S.O.S message. **If the Californian had known the Titanic was sinking, it would have rescued everybody.** The captain of the Californian was later blamed for not going to help the Titanic and his reputation was destroyed.

Although they had received several warnings of icebergs from other ships in the area, the Titanic was going at the top speed. The captain of the Titanic, like other captains, was under great commercial pressure to make the Atlantic crossing as quickly as possible. Another criticism of Captain Smith is that he was not on the bridge at the time of the collision. Perhaps, **if he had been there, his ship would not have hit the iceberg.** Captain Smith and the ship's designer Thomas Andrews both drowned.

In the confusion of the evacuation many lifeboats left the Titanic half empty. This was partly because Captain Smith and his crew found it difficult to persuade people to leave the "unsinkable" Titanic. When the Titanic finally sank, some of the passengers in the lifeboats wanted to go back and rescue some of the people swimming in the freezing water. **If they had gone back, many more people might have been saved.** Finally, only one of the sixteen lifeboats went back to pick up survivors. They only managed to rescue five people. Everyone else was dead.

After the collision, the little group of musicians started playing in the first-class lounge to keep the passengers calm, but later they moved up onto the deck. Some survivors in the lifeboats said they could still hear the musicians playing a waltz called Autumn until just before the ship finally sank. **If they hadn't continued playing until the end, there would have been much more panic on the ship.** Not one of the orchestra survived.

QUESTIONS

1. When did the Titanic sink?
2. How many passengers were killed?
3. Who was the captain and did he survive?
4. Could it be saved from sinking? If so, how?
5. Where was the captain during the collision?
6. Why did the lifeboats leave the Titanic half empty?
7. What would have been different if the half empty lifeboats had gone back?
8. Were there musicians aboard?
9. What were the musicians doing during the evacuation?
10. What would have been different if the musicians had stopped playing?

LESSON PLAN

(Processing Instruction Group)

Background Information

Teacher: Nesrin Oruç

School: Dokuz Eylül University, School of Foreign Languages

Class:

Description of Students (Class, Age, Size):

Text and materials: English File, Intermediate, Oxford University Press.

Previous Class Work:

Work to be collected or returned:

Subject: Type 3 Conditionals

Date: November, 22, 2007

Procedure

Time Frame

10”

Procedures

Warm-Up

- a. Read the article BAD LUCK. In pairs, decide what you think happened next.
 - b. Now listen to what happened. Were you right?
 - c. Listen again and check. Then in pairs, write two sentences to explain how the story ended.
- Now do the same for GOOD LUCK.

BAD LUCK: I Missed You!

Ian Johnson, a 27-year-old builder, went to work in Australia for a year, leaving behind his girlfriend, Amy. Ian and Amy missed each other a lot and after being six months apart Ian planned a surprise. Without telling Amy he caught a plane back to England to see her. After a 24-hour flight via Singapore and a 17,600-kilometre journey he finally arrived at her house in Yorkshire in the north of England, carrying flowers, champagne, and an engagement ring. He rang the doorbell, but nobody answered. He had a key to her house so he opened the door and went in. The house was empty. Ian thought Amy had gone out for the evening and sat down to wait for her to come back. Tired after his long journey, he fell asleep. When he woke up, his phone was ringing...

GOOD LUCK: Is There A Doctor On The Plane?

Mrs Dorothy Fletcher was travelling with her daughter and her daughter's fiance on a flight from London to Florida. Her daughter was going to be married there the following week. When they changed planes in Philadelphia they had to rush between terminals to catch the connecting flight and Mrs Fletcher, aged 67, began to feel ill.

“I didn't say anything to my daughter because I didn't want to worry her or miss the wedding,” said Mrs Fletcher. But when the plane took off from

Philadelphia she suddenly got a terrible pain in her chest, back, and arm-she was having a heart attack. The cabin crew put out a desperate call to the passengers: "If there is a doctor on the plane, could you please press your call bell..."

10"

Presentation**2. GRAMMAR Third Conditional**

a. Complete the two sentences from the listening in 1c.

1. Ian

If one of us had _____ at home, we _____ have met.

2. Mrs Fletcher

If those doctors _____ been on the plane, I would _____ died.

b. Listen and check.

c. Look at sentences 1 and 2 above and answer the questions.

1. Did Ian or Amy stay at home? Did they meet?

2. Were the doctors on the plane? Did Mrs Fletcher die?

3. Do sentences 1 and 2 refer to something that happened or something that didn't happen?

10"

Practice

d. P. 142 Grammar Bank 7A. Read the rules and do the exercises.

15"

Production**3. PRONUNCIATION Sentence Stress**

a. Listen and repeat the sentences. Copy the rhythm.

1. If you'd told me earlier, I would have gone too.
2. If the weather had been better, we would have stayed longer.
3. If I hadn't stopped for petrol, I would have arrived before he left.
4. We would have been late if we hadn't taken a taxi.
5. She wouldn't have come if she'd known he was here.
6. It would have been cheaper if we'd booked last month.

b. Communication Guess the Conditional

4. SPEAKING

a. Read the questionnaire and mark your answers.

b. Compare your answers with a partner. Give more information if you can.

c. Now look at what your scores mean. Do you agree with the results?

5”

Closure
Review or Summary
Homework

EXTRA PI ACTIVITY 1

Read the text below. Then answer the Yes/No questions. Put a tick on the line provided for each question.

The Truth about the Titanic

The sinking of the Titanic on its first voyage has fascinated people all over the world for nearly a hundred years. It's a story surrounded by mystery and speculation. Here we answer the questions most often asked about the most famous of ships.

The regulations controlling the number of lifeboats that a ship should carry were terribly out of date. The Titanic only had to have 16 lifeboats, enough for 962 people, which was ridiculous as the ship could carry 3,511 people. Nobody would have died on April 14th 1912 if the Titanic had had enough lifeboats for all the passengers.

A small ship called the Californian was only 20 kilometers away from the Titanic. It was so near that the two ships could see each other's lights. The radio operator had just gone to bed so he didn't hear the Titanic's S.O.S message. If the Californian had known the Titanic was sinking, it would have rescued everybody. The captain of the Californian was later blamed for not going to help the Titanic and his reputation was destroyed.

Although they had received several warnings of icebergs from other ships in the area, the Titanic was going at the top speed. The captain of the Titanic, like other captains, was under great commercial pressure to make the Atlantic crossing as quickly as possible. Another criticism of Captain Smith is that he was not on the bridge at the time of the collision. Perhaps, if he had been there, his ship would not have hit the iceberg. Captain Smith and the ship's designer Thomas Andrews both drowned.

In the confusion of the evacuation many lifeboats left the Titanic half empty. This was partly because Captain Smith and his crew found it difficult to persuade people to leave the "unsinkable" Titanic. When the Titanic finally sank, some of the passengers in the lifeboats wanted to go back and rescue some of the people swimming in the freezing water. If they had gone back, many more people might have been saved. Finally, only one of the sixteen lifeboats went back to pick up survivors. They only managed to rescue five people. Everyone else was dead.

After the collision, the little group of musicians started playing in the first-class lounge to keep the passengers calm, but later they moved up onto the deck. Some survivors in the lifeboats said they could still hear the musicians playing a waltz called Autumn until just before the ship finally sank. If they hadn't continued playing until the end, there would have been much more panic on the ship. Not one of the orchestra survived.

YES/NO QUESTIONS

<u>NO</u>	<u>YES</u>
There were enough lifeboats for all passengers on Titanic.	___
The radio operator of the Californian heard the S.O.S coming from the Titanic.	___
Californian knew that Titanic was sinking.	___
Californian saved the lives of many passengers.	___
All the 16 lifeboats went back to rescue the others.	___
Lifeboats rescued a lot of people.	___
The musicians continued to play music while the ship was sinking.	___
Music helped people not to panic.	___

EXTRA PI ACTIVITY 2

Read the text below and answer the multiple choice questions.

MONOPOLY

Probably the most recognized board game around the world is the game of Monopoly. In this game, players vie for wealth by buying, selling, and renting properties; the key to success in the game, in addition to a bit of luck, is for a player to acquire monopolies on clusters of properties in order to force opponents to pay exorbitant rents and fees.

Although the game is now published in countless languages and versions, the beginnings of the game were considerably more humble. The game has developed so much because of being published in countless languages. Because it is an international game, it is published in each country with place names appropriate to the target language. The game was sold internationally, therefore foreign locations were used.

The game was invented in 1933 by Charles Darrow, during the height of the Great Depression. Darrow, who lived in Germantown, Pennsylvania, was himself unemployed during those difficult financial times. Darrow used the advantage of being unemployed, since he had so much free time, he was able to find time to invent the game. He set the original game not as might be expected in his hometown of Germantown, but in Atlantic City, New Jersey. The long walks along the Boardwalk and the visits to the Park Place in Atlantic City made him to set the game in Germantown. But because Atlantic City was the site of numerous pre-Depression vacations with very positive memories, he set the game there.

Darrow made the first games by hand and sold them locally. However, in 1935 Parker Brothers purchased the rights to Monopoly and took the first steps toward the mass production of today within the same year. Parker Brothers has a big role in the popularity of the game. Darrow was paid only 100 \$ by the manufacturing company, because he could not expect the possible fame of the game.

Choose the best answer

1. Darrow wouldn't have sold the rights of the game if
 - a. he had really loved the game
 - b. he had had time
 - c. he had imagined the possible fame of the game
 - d. he hadn't been to Atlantic City
2. If Darrow hadn't been to Atlantic City,
 - a. he wouldn't have set the game there
 - b. he wouldn't have fallen in love
 - c. he wouldn't have invented the game
 - d. all above
3. If Monopoly hadn't been so popular,
 - a. it wouldn't have been published in so many different languages.
 - b. Darrow wouldn't have sold it
 - c. Parker Brothers would have bought it
 - d. nobody would have played the game
4. If the game hadn't been an international one,
 - a. we would have heard it
 - b. Parker Brothers wouldn't have bought it
 - c. Darrow wouldn't have sold it
 - d. the names of the places on the board wouldn't have changed
5. If Parker Brothers hadn't bought the rights of the game
 - a. Darrow wouldn't have created Monopoly
 - b. Darrow would have gone back to Atlantic City
 - c. the game wouldn't have been so popular
 - d. they wouldn't have imagined the possible fame of the game

7. Right now Alex is in hospital. He (treat) _____ for a bad burn on his hand and arm.
8. If it (start/ not) _____ to rain, we (walk) _____ to the museum.
9. We (swim) _____ in the sea if there (be/not) _____ so many sharks there.
10. Proper first aid can save a victim's life, especially if the victim is bleeding heavily, has stopped breathing, or (poison) _____.

PART C Read the sentences below and answer the yes/no questions.

1. If the weather had been nice, we would have gone swimming.
Was the weather nice today? _____
Did we go swimming? _____
2. If I taught this class, I wouldn't give tests.
Do I teach this class? _____
Will you give tests? _____
3. My family would have gone to the zoo if the weather had been nice yesterday.
Was the weather nice yesterday? _____
Did my family go to the zoo yesterday? _____
4. The teacher thanked the students, who had given her some flowers.
Only some of the students gave her flowers? _____
All of the students gave her flowers? _____
5. Tom stood under the oak tree which was near the house.
There was only one oak tree in the yard _____
There was more than one oak tree in the yard _____
6. We wouldn't have learned anything if we hadn't done our homework.
Did we do our homework? _____
Did we learn? _____
7. My brother would have driven to school if he had had gas in his car.
Did my brother have gas in his car? _____
Did he drive to school? _____
8. There was a terrible flood. The villagers, who had received a warning of the impending flood, escaped to safety.
Only some of the villagers had been warned; only some escaped _____
All of the villagers had been warned; all escaped. _____

9. My brother couldn't have driven to school if he hadn't got his car fixed.
 Did he get his car fixed? _____
 Did he drive to school? _____

10. Either Mr. Anderson or Miss. Wiggins is going to teach our class today.
 Mr. Anderson may teach us today. _____
 Miss. Wiggins may teach us today. _____

PART D Complete the sentences accordingly.

1- If we had won the match, _____

2- Although I did not study, _____

3- If we had taken your advice, _____

4- Even though Howard is a careful driver, _____

5- I'll give you my phone number so (that) _____

6- If I had locked my bike, _____

7- Despite her low grades, _____

8- If we hadn't forgotten the map, _____

9- If the teacher had noticed the mistake, _____

10- Now that she is married _____

PART E Choose the correct completion.

1. I _____ William with me if I had known you and he didn't get along with each other.

A. hadn't brought

B. didn't bring

C. wouldn't have brought

D. won't bring

2. Cars have become much more complicated. _____, mechanics need more training than in the past.

A. Because

B. Therefore

C. So that

D. For

3. He asked me where _____.
- A. did I live
C. do you live
- B. I lived
D. that I lived
4. Florida, _____ the Sunshine State, attracts many tourists every year.
- A. is
C. is known as
- B. known as
D. that is known as
5. I didn't know you were asleep. Otherwise, I _____ so much noise when I came in.
- A. didn't make
C. won't make
- B. wouldn't have made
D. don't make
6. We _____ the game if we'd had a few more minutes.
- A. might have won
C. had won
- B. won
D. will win
7. I am looking for an electric can opener _____ also can sharpen knives.
- A. who
C. that
- B. which
D. ----
8. "I am really sorry about what happened during the meeting. I felt I had no choice."
"It's okay. I'm sure you wouldn't have done it if you _____"
- A. should have
C. hadn't had to
- B. had to
D. have to
9. If I _____ following that other car too closely, I would have been able to stop in time instead of running into it.
- A. wasn't
C. was
- B. would have been
D. hadn't been
10. I don't get _____.
- A. many mail
C. many mails
- B. much mail
D. much mails

APPENDIX C
TEST RESULTS

Results of All Tests for Pushed Output Group

Participant	Pretest	Posttest	Delayed Post-test
1	24	68	76
2	48	80	68
3	28	68	48
4	48	84	68
5	40	64	52
6	36	92	72
7	48	96	76
8	40	68	68
9	48	96	80
10	44	96	88
11	36	72	68
12	44	96	88
13	32	88	72
14	28	68	76
15	36	48	68
16	44	96	96
17	48	96	88
18	44	76	80
19	48	96	96

Results of All Tests for Processing Instruction Group

Participant	Pretest	Posttest	Delayed Posttest
1	40	72	68
2	40	76	96
3	44	100	56
4	44	76	72
5	48	80	92
6	48	92	92
7	40	92	80
8	44	72	60
9	48	96	92
10	48	84	96
11	48	80	68
12	40	60	76
13	44	84	76
14	40	80	72
15	32	72	72
16	12	64	96
17	12	32	76
18	44	84	88
19	28	84	92
20	40	72	68
21	48	76	84
22	48	84	80
23	40	60	76

Results of All Tests for Visually Enhanced Input Group

Participant	Pretest	Posttest	Delayed Posttest
1	32	56	68
2	44	76	76
3	32	88	68
4	48	72	68
5	36	48	26
6	32	76	56
7	44	64	56
8	44	76	84
9	40	72	52
10	40	72	52
11	40	72	64
12	48	72	72
13	48	64	72
14	36	64	16
15	44	64	64
16	44	92	64
17	40	72	44
18	40	76	72
19	44	80	88
20	36	76	92
21	28	68	56
22	24	60	32
23	32	8	72
24	48	60	64
25	24	50	52

Results of All Tests for Control Group

Participant	Pretest	Posttest	Delayed Posttest
1	32	72	80
2	40	88	76
3	36	64	60
4	32	56	56
5	48	80	88
6	48	80	60
7	44	84	80
8	48	76	88
9	24	48	60
10	44	92	100
11	48	72	68
12	40	80	84
13	40	72	56
14	36	64	56
15	32	68	64
16	44	80	80
17	40	68	72
18	36	80	76
19	24	56	56
20	48	92	72
21	48	80	88
22	40	72	72
23	40	72	72

Results of All Tests for Pushed Output Group Given by the Second Grader

Participant	Pretest	Posttest	Delayed Posttest
1	28	68	76
2	48	76	68
3	28	68	48
4	48	84	68
5	40	64	52
6	36	88	72
7	48	96	76
8	44	68	68
9	48	96	84
10	48	96	88
11	40	72	68
12	44	96	88
13	32	84	72
14	28	68	76
15	36	44	68
16	44	96	96
17	48	92	88
18	44	76	80
19	48	96	92

Results of All Tests for Processing Instruction Group Given by the Second Grader

Participant	Pretest	Posttest	Delayed Posttest
1	44	72	68
2	40	72	96
3	44	100	56
4	44	76	72
5	48	84	92
6	48	92	92
7	40	92	84
8	44	72	60
9	48	96	96
10	48	84	96
11	48	84	68
12	40	60	76
13	48	84	76
14	40	80	72
15	36	72	72
16	12	64	96
17	16	32	76
18	44	84	88
19	32	84	92
20	40	72	68
21	48	80	84
22	48	84	84
23	40	64	76

Results of All Tests for Visually Enhanced Input Group Given by the Second Grader

Participant	Pretest	Posttest	Delayed Posttest
1	32	56	68
2	44	76	76
3	36	88	68
4	48	76	68
5	36	48	26
6	32	76	56
7	44	68	56
8	48	76	84
9	40	72	52
10	40	76	52
11	40	72	64
12	48	72	76
13	48	64	76
14	36	64	16
15	44	64	68
16	44	96	64
17	44	72	44
18	44	76	72
19	44	80	88
20	36	76	92
21	28	72	56
22	24	60	32
23	32	8	72
24	48	60	64
25	24	50	52

Results of All Tests for Control Group Given by the Second Grader

Participant	Pretest	Posttest	Delayed Posttest
1	36	72	80
2	40	88	76
3	36	68	60
4	32	56	56
5	48	84	88
6	52	80	60
7	44	84	80
8	48	80	88
9	24	48	60
10	48	92	100
11	48	72	68
12	40	84	84
13	40	72	56
14	36	68	56
15	36	68	64
16	44	84	80
17	40	68	72
18	40	80	76
19	24	56	56
20	48	96	72
21	48	80	92
22	40	72	72
23	40	76	72

REFERENCES

- Alanen, R. Input Enhancement and Rule Presentation in Second Language Acquisition. In Richard Schmidt (Ed.), **Attention and Awareness in Foreign Language Learning**. (Technical Report). Pp. 259-302. Honolulu: Hawai'i.
- Alcon, E. Input and Input Processing in Second Language Acquisition. **IRAL**. 36:4. 343-362. 1998.
- Andrews, R., Torgerson, C., Beverton, S., Freeman, A., Locke, T., Low, G., Robinson, A., & Zhu, D. The Effect of Grammar Teaching on Writing Development. **British Educational Research Journal**. 32:1. 39-55. 2006.
- Azar, B. S. & Azar, D. A. **Fundamentals of English Grammar**. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents. 1994.
- Baştürkmen, H., Loewen, S. & Ellis, R. Teachers' Stated Beliefs About Incidental Focus on Form and their Classroom Practices. **Applied Linguistics** 25:2 243-272. 2004.
- Batstone, R. Contexts of Engagement: A Discourse Perspective on 'Intake' and 'Pushed Output'. **System**. 30: 1-14. 2002.
- Benati, A. The Effects of Structured Input Activities: An Explicit Information on the Acquisition of the Italian Future Tense. Chapter 10 in **Processing Instruction: Theory Research and Commentary**. Edt. VanPatten, B. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. 2003.
- Bourke, J. M. The Role of the TP TESL Supervisor. **Journal of Education for Teaching**. 27:1.63-73. 2001.
- Brown, D. H. **Principles of Language Learning and Teaching**. New York: Pearson Education. 2000.
- Brown, C. Requests for Specific Language Input: Differences Between Older and Younger Adult Learners. In **Input in Second Language Acquisition**. Edts. Gass, S. M. & Madden, C. G. Cambridge: Newbury House Publishers. 1985.
- Burges, J. & Etherington, S. Focus on Grammatical Form: Explicit or Implicit? **System**. 3: 433-458. 2002.
- Büyüköztürk, Ş. **Sosyal Bilimler İçin Veri Analizi El Kitabı. İstatistik, Araştırma Deseni, SPSS Uygulamaları ve Yorum**. Ankara: Pegem A Yayıncılık. 2006.

- Carr, T. H. & Curran, T. Cognitive Factors in Learning about Structured Sequences: Applications to Syntax. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 16: 205-230. 1994.
- Celce-Murcia, M. **Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language**. New York: Heinle & Heinle Publishers. 2001.
- Combs, C. H. **What Cognitive Processes are Triggered by Input Enhancement?** Columbia University Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics. Volume 4. Special Issue. 2005
- Cook, V. **Second Language Learning and Language Teaching**. New York: Hodder Arnold. 2001.
- Corder, S. P. **The Significance of Learners' Errors**. International Review of Applied Linguistics. 5.4.162-170.
- DeKeyser, R. M. Automaticity and Automatization. In **Cognition and Second Language Instruction**. Edt. Robinson, P. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Pp. 125-151. 2001.
- Dooley, J.& Adams, V. **Grammarway**. Express Publishing. Swansea. 1998.
- Doughty, C. & Williams, J. Pedagogical Choices in Focus on Form. In Doughty, C. & Williams, J. Edts. **Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition**. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Doughty, C. Cognitive Underpinnings of Focus on Form. In **Cognition and Second Language Instruction**. Edt. Robinson, P. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 2001.
- Doughty, C. J. Commentary: When PI is Focus on Form It is Very, Very Good, but When It is Focus on Forms.... In **Processing Instruction: Theory, Research and Commentary**. Edt. VanPatten, B. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Assc. 2003.
- Doughty, C. J. Instructed SLA: Constraints, Compensation, and Enhancement. In **The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition**. Edts. Doughty, C. J & Long, M. H. Malden: Blackwell Publishing. Pp. 256-311. 2003.
- Doughty, C. J. Cognitive Underpinnings of Focus on Form. In **Cognition and Second Language Instruction**. Edt. Robinson, P. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Pp. 206-257. 2003.
- Doughty, C. J. Effects of Instruction on Learning a Second Language: A Critique of Instructed SLA Research. In **Form-Meaning Connections in Second Language Acquisition**. Edts. VanPatten, B., Williams, J., Rott, S. & Overstreet, M. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Ass. Pp. 181-203. 2004.

- Ekmekçi, Ö. **Research Manual for Social Sciences. Volume 2.** Turkey: Selt Publishing. 1999.
- Ellis, N. C. Memory for Language. In **Cognition and Second Language Instruction**. Edt. Robinson, P. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Pp. 33-68. 2001.
- Ellis, N. C. The Processes of Second Language Acquisition. In **Form-Meaning Connections in Second Language Acquisition**. Edts. VanPatten, B. Williams, J., Rott, S. & Overstreet, M. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. 2004.
- Ellis, N. C. At the Interface: Dynamic Interactions of Explicit and Implicit Language Knowledge. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 27: 305-352. 2005.
- Ellis, R. Teacher Pupil Interaction in Second language Development. In **Input in Second Language Acquisition**. Edts. Gass, S. M. & Madden, C. G. Cambridge: Newbury House Publishers. 1985.
- Ellis, R. **The Study of Second Language Acquisition**. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 1994.
- Ellis, R. **Second Language Acquisition Research and Language Pedagogy**. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 1997.
- Ellis, R. Teaching and Research: Options in Grammar Teaching. **TESOL Quarterly**. 32: 1998.
- Ellis, R. & He, X. The Roles of Modified Input and Output in the Incidental Acquisition of Word Meanings. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 21: 285-301. 1999.
- Ellis, R. Introduction: Investigating Form-Focused Instruction. **Language Learning**. 51: 1-46. 2001.
- Ellis, R. Does Form-Focused Instruction Affect the Acquisition of Implicit Knowledge. A Review of the Research. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 24: 223-236. 2002.
- Ellis, R., Baştürkmen, H.& Loewen, S. Doing Focus-on-Form. **System**. 30: 419-432. 2002.
- Ellis, R. **Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching**. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 2003.
- Ellis, R. Principles of Instructed Language Learning. **Asian EFL Journal**. 7: 3. 2005.

- Ellis, R. **Understanding Second Language Acquisition**. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 2007.
- Erlam, R. Evaluating the Relative Effectiveness of Structured-Input and Output-Based Instruction in Foreign Language Learning. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 25: 559-582. 2003.
- Erlam, R. The Effects of Deductive and Inductive Instruction on the Acquisition of Direct Object Pronouns in French as a Second Language. **Modern Language Journal**. 87: 242-260. 2003.
- Field, A. **Discovering Statistics Using SPSS for Windows**. London: Sage Publications Lmtd. 2000.
- Fotos, S. S. Consciousness Raising and Noticing through Focus on Form: Grammar Task Performance versus Formal Instruction. **Applied Linguistics**. 14: 4. 385-407. 1993.
- Gass, S. M. & Madden, C. **Input in Second Language Acquisition**. Cambridge: Newbury House Publishers. 1985.
- Gass, S. M. **Input Interaction and the Second Language Learner**. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. 1997.
- Gass, S. M. & Selinker, L. **Second Language Acquisition: An Introductory Course**. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum. 2001.
- Gass, S. M. Input and Interaction. In **The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition**. Edts. Doughty, C. J & Long, M. H. Malden: Blackwell Publishing. Pp. 224-255. 2003.
- Gass, S., Svetics, I. & Lemelin, S. Differential Effects of Attention. **Language Learning**. 53. 3. 497-545. 2003.
- Gass, S. M. Context and Second Language Acquisition. In **Form-Meaning Connections in Second Language Acquisition**. Edts. VanPatten, B. Williams, J., Rott, S. & Overstreet, M. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. 2004.
- Gass, S. M. & Torres, M. J. A. Attention When: An Investigation of the Ordering Effect of Input and Interaction. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 27: 1-31. 2005.
- Izumi, S., Bigelow, M., Fujiwara, M., and Fearnow, S. Testing the Output Hypothesis: Effects of Output on Noticing and Second Language Acquisition. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 21: 421-452. 1999.

- Izumi, S. Output, Input Enhancement, and the Noticing Hypothesis: An Experimental Study on ESL Relativization. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 24: 541-577. 2002.
- Izumi, S. Comprehension and Production Processes in Second Language Learning: In Search of the Psycholinguistic Rationale of the Output Hypothesis. **Applied Linguistics**. 24:2. 168-196. 2003.
- Jeager, R. M. (Edt.). **Complementary Methods for Research in Education**. Washington: American Educational Research Association.
- Jensen, E. D. & Vinther, T. Exact Repetition as Input Enhancement in Second Language Acquisition. **Language Learning**. 53:3. 373-428. 2003.
- Jose de la Fuente, M. Negotiation and Oral Acquisition of L2 Vocabulary: The Roles of Input and Output in the Receptive and Productive Acquisition of Words. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 24: 81-112. 2002.
- Kachigan, S. K. **Multivariate Statistical Analysis: A Conceptual Introduction**. New York: Radius Press. 1991.
- Karacaer, Z. **A Contrastive Study of Conditionals in Turkish and English with Special Emphasis on Problems for Turkish Learners of English in the Light of Error Analysis**. Unpublished MA Thesis. Anadolu University. 1988.
- Karacaer, Z. **The Role of Processing Instruction: A Study on English Causatives**. Unpublished PhD Dissertation. Anadolu University. 2003.
- Kowal, M. & Swain, M. Using Collaborative Language Production Tasks to Promote Students' **Language Awareness**. *Language Awareness*.3. 73-93. 1994.
- Krashen, S. **The Input Hypothesis**. London: Longman. 1985.
- Keck, C., Iberri-Shea, G., Tracy, N. & Wa-Mbaleka, S. Investigating the Empirical Link between Interaction and Acquisition: A Quantitative Meta Analysis. In J. M. Norris & L. Ortega (Eds.) **Synthesizing Research on Language Learning and Teaching**. Philadelphia. PA: John Benjamins.
- Krashen, S. The Input Hypothesis and Its Rivals. In N. Ellis (Ed.), **Implicit and Explicit Learning of Languages**. (pg. 45-77). New York: Academic Press. 1994.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. Second Language Acquisition: Getting the Whole Picture. In Bailey, K. M., Long, M. H. & Peck, S. (Edts.) **Second Language**

- Acquisition Studies.** (pp: 3-22). Rowley: Newbury House Publishers, Inc. 1983.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. & Long, M. **An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research.** London: Longman. 1991.
- Leow, R. P. A Study of the Role of Awareness in Foreign Language Behavior: Aware Versus Unaware Learners. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition.** 22: 557-584. 2000.
- Leow, R. P. Attention, Awareness and Foreign Language Behavior. **Language Learning.** 51: 113-155. 2001.
- Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. Focus on Form and Corrective Feedback in Communicative Language Teaching: Effects on Second Language Learning. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition.** 12: 429-448. 1990.
- Lightbown, P. & Spada, N. **How Languages are Learned.** Hong Kong: Oxford University Press. 1999.
- Littlewood, W. **Communicative Language Teaching: An Introduction.** Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 1983.
- Loewen, S. Incidental Focus on Form and Second Language Learning. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition.** 27: 361-386. 2005.
- Long, M. H. Does Second Language Instruction Make a Difference? A Review of the Research. **TESOL Quarterly.** 17: 359-382. 1983.
- Long, M. H. Focus on form: A Design Feature in Language Teaching Methodology. In K. de Bot, R. Ginsberg, & C. Kramsch (Eds). **Foreign Language Research in Cross-Cultural Perspective** (pp. 39-52). Amsterdam: Benjamins. 1991.
- Long, M. & Robinson, P. Focus on Form: Theory, Research and Practice. In Doughty, C. & Williams, J. (Eds.) **Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition.** San Diego, CS: Academic Press. 1998.
- Lyster, R. Differential Effects of Prompts and Recasts in Form-Focused Instruction. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition.** 26: 399-432. 2004.
- Mackey, A. Input, Interaction and Second Language Development: An Empirical Study of Question Formation in ESL. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition.** 21: 557-587. 1999.
- Mackey, A. & Philp, J. Conversational Interaction and Second Language Development: Recasts, Responses, and Red Herrings?. **The Modern Language Journal.** 82:3. 338-356. 1998

- Mackey, A. & Gass, S. M. **Second Language Research: Methodology and Design**. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers. 2005.
- MacWhinney, B. The Competition Model: the Input, the Context and the Brain. In **Cognition and Second Language Instruction**. Edt. Robinson, P. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Pp. 69-90. 2001.
- McGaugh, J. L. Time-Dependent Processes in Memory Storage. **Science**. Volume. 199. No.3742. pp.1351-1358. 1999.
- Morgan-Short, K., Bowden, H. W. Processing Instruction and Meaningful Output-based Instruction: Effects on Second Language Development. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 28: 31-65. 2006.
- Muranoi, H. Focus on Form Through Interaction Enhancement: Integrating Formal Instruction into a Communicative Task in EFL Classrooms. **Language Learning**. 50: 4. pp. 617-673. 2000.
- Murphy, R. **English Grammar in Use**. Cambridge: Cambridge. 2004.
- Nassaji, H. Towards Integrating Form-Focused Instruction and Communicative Interaction in the Second Language Classroom: Some Pedagogical Possibilities. **Modern Language Journal**. 84: 241-250. 2000.
- Nassaji, H., and Fotos, S. (2004). Current Developments in Research on the Teaching of Grammar. **Annual Review of Applied Linguistics**, 24, 126-145.
- Norris, J. M. & Ortega, L. Effectiveness of L2 Instruction: A Research Synthesis and Quantitative Meta-Analysis. **Language Learning**. 50:3. 41-528. 2000.
- Nunan, D. **Research Methods in Language Learning**. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 1992.
- Oxenden, C. & Latham, C. **New English File. Intermediate**. Portugal: Oxford University Press. 2006.
- Phillips, D. **Longman Preparation Course for the TOEFL Test: Skills and Strategies**. New York: Longman. 1996.
- Philp, J. Constraints on Noticing the Gap: Nonnative Speakers' Noticing of Recasts in NS-NNS Interaction. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 25: 99-126. 2003.

- Pica, T. & Doughty, C. Input and Interaction in the Communicative Language Classroom: A Comparison of Teacher-fronted and Group Activities. In **Input in Second Language Acquisition**. Edts. Gass, S. M. & Madden, C. G. Cambridge: Newbury House Publishers. 1985.
- Pienemann, M. Psychological Constraints on the Teachability of Languages. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 6:186-214. 1984
- Poole, A. The Kinds of Forms Learners Attend to During Focus on Form Instruction: A Description of an Advanced ESL Writing Class. **Asian EFL Journal**. 7:3. 2005.
- Robinson, P. Generalizability and Automaticity of Second Language Learning under Implicit, Incidental, Enhanced and Instructed Conditions. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 19: 223-247. 1997.
- Rosa, E. & O'Neill, M. D. Explicitness, Intake and the Issue of Awareness: Another Piece to the Puzzle. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 21: 511-556. 1999.
- Schmidt, R. The Role of Consciousness in Second Language Learning. **Applied Linguistics**. 11: 206-226. 1990.
- Schmidt, R. Consciousness and Foreign Language Learning: A Tutorial on the Role of Attention and Awareness in Learning. In Richard Schmidt Edt. **Attention and Awareness in Foreign Language Learning**. Honolulu, Hawai'i: University of Hawai'i Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center. 1995.
- Schmidt, R. Attention. In Robinson, P. Edt. **Cognition and Second Language Instruction**. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 2001.
- Sharwood Smith, M. Input Enhancement in Instructed SLA: Theoretical Bases. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 15: 165-179. 1993.
- Sheen, R. "Focus on Form" and "Focus on Forms". **ELT Journal**. 56: 303-304. 2002.
- Shehadeh, A. Comprehensible Output, From Occurrence to Acquisition: An Agenda for Acquisitional Research. **Language Learning**. 52:3. 597-647. 2002.
- Shehadeh, A. Learner Output, Hypothesis Testing and Internalizing Linguistic Knowledge. **System**. 31: 155-171. 2003.
- Shekan, P. Task Based Instruction. **Annual Review of Applied Linguistics**. 18. 268: 286. 1998.

- Smith, M. S. Consciousness Raising and the Second Language Learner. **Applied Linguistics**. Oxford University Press. Vol. 2. Issue. 2. 1981
- Spada, N., & Lightbown, P. Instruction and the Development of Questions in L2 Classrooms. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**.15. 205-224.
- Spada, N. Form-Focused Instruction and Second Language Acquisition: A Review of Classroom and Laboratory Research. **Language Teaching**. 30: 73-87. 1997.
- Spada, N. **Learners' Preference for and Opinions about Integrated and Isolated Form-focused Instruction**. Paper presented at Sabanci University International ELT Conference. 2007.
- Stern, H. H. **Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching**. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 1983.
- Svalberg, A. M-L. Language Awareness and Language Learning. **Language Teaching**. 40. 287-308. 2007.
- Swain, M. Communicative Competence: Some Roles of Comprehensible Input and Comprehensible Output in its Development. In Gass, S and Madden, C. (Eds.) **Input in Second Language Acquisition**. Rowley, MA: Newbury House. 1985.
- Swain, M. The Output Hypothesis: Just Speaking and Writing are not Enough. **The Canadian Modern Language Review**. 50: 158-164. 1993.
- Swain, M. **Three Functions of Output in Second Language Learning**. In Cook, G. and Seidhofer, B. (Eds.) Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 125-144. 1995.
- Swain, M. Focus on Form Through Conscious Reflection. In Doughty, C. and Williams, J. (Eds.) **Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition**. New York: Cambridge University Press, pp. 64-81. 1998.
- Swain, M. French Immersion Research in Canada: Recent Contributions to SLA and Applied Linguistics. **Annual Review of Applied Linguistics**. 20: 199-212. 2000.
- Takashima, H. A Study of Focused Feedback or Output Enhancement in Promotig Accuracy in Communicative Activities. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Temple University, Philadelphia. 1995.
- Timm, J. P. **The Consistency of Interlanguage in Task-Bound Second Language Production**. 7.1. 86-107. 1986.

- Tomlin, R. & Villa, V. Attention in Cognitive Science and Second Language Acquisition. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 16. 183-203. 1994.
- Toth, P. D. The Interaction of Instruction and Learner-Internal Factors in the Acquisition of L2 Morphosyntax. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 22: 169-208. 2000.
- Twigg, C. A. The Changing Definition of Learning. **EDUCOM Review**. Volume.29, Number 4. 1994.
- VanPatten, B. Evaluating the Role of Consciousness in Second Language Acquisition: Terms, Linguistic Features & Research Methodology. **AILA Review**. 11. 27-36. 1994.
- VanPatten, B. Processing Instruction: An Update. **Language Learning**. 52: 4. 755-803. 2002.
- VanPatten, B. **From Input to Output: A Teacher's Guide to Second Language Acquisition**. Boston: McGraw Hill. 2003.
- VanPatten, B. Edt. **Processing Instruction: Theory, Research, and Commentary**. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. 2003.
- VanPatten, B., Williams, J., & Rott, S. Form-Meaning Connections in Second Language Acquisition. In VanPatten, B., Williams, J., Rott, S., & Overstreet, M. (Eds.) **Form-Meaning Connections in Second Language Acquisition**. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates 2004.
- Williams, J. Learner-Generated Attention to Form. **Language Learning**. 49. 4. 583-625. 1999
- White, J. Getting Learners' Attention: A typographical Enhancement Study. In Doughty, C. & Williams, J. (Eds.) **Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition**. Pp. 113-185. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- White, L., Spada, N., Lightbown, P. M. & Ranta, L. Input Enhancement and L2 Question Formation. **Applied Linguistics**. 12 (4): 416-432. 1991.
- Wigglesworth, G. Current Approaches to Researching Second Language Learner Processes. **Annual Review of Applied Linguistics**. 25: 98-111. 2005.
- Wong, W. Modality and Attention to Meaning and Form in the Input. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**. 23. 345-368. 2001.