THE ACQUISITION OF AORIST PASSIVE VOICE

IN TURKISH EFL CONTEXT: A COMPARISON

BETWEEN PROCESSING INSTRUCTION AND

MEANINGFUL OUTPUT-BASED INSTRUCTION

Deniz ALPTEKİN

(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)

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Deniz ALPTEKİN

M.A. THESIS

Department of English Language Teaching

Advisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Mine DİKDERE

Eskişehir

Anadolu University Graduate School of Educational Sciences

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TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİN İNGİLİZCE GENİŞ ZAMANDA EDİLGEN YAPIYI EDİNİMİ: SÜREÇ ODAKLI DİL ÖĞRETİMİ VE ÜRETİM ODAKLI DİL ÖĞRETİMİNİN KARŞILAŞTIRILMASI

Deniz ALPTEKİN

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Danışman: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Mine DİKDERE

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Bu çalışma, süreç odaklı dil öğretimi ve anlamlı, üretim odaklı dil öğretiminin Türk öğrencilerin İngilizcedeki geniş zamanda edilgen yapıyı öğrenmelerindeki olası etkilerini karşılaştırmayı; bu iki öğretim yönteminin olası olumlu etkilerinin ve bu öğrenmenin uzun süreli bellekte kalıcı olup olmadığını incelemeyi amaçlamıştır. Bu çalışma için Eskişehir'in Çifteler ilçesindeki Atatürk İlköğretim Okulu'nda 7. Ve 8. sınıfta okuyan 50 Türk öğrenci rastgele a) süreç odaklı öğretim grubu ve b) üretim odaklı öğretim grubu olmak üzere iki gruba ayrılmıştır. İki farklı öğretim paketi kullanılmış ve 2 son test verilmiştir. Sınavlar tanımlama ve üretme olmak üzere 2 farklı aktiviteden oluşmuştur. Öğretim ve son testi içeren uygulama 40 dakikalık iki ders saatinde yapılmıştır. 5 hafta sonra aynı son test gruplara tekrar verilmiştir. Son testlerden elde edilen ham puanlar iki yollu varyans analizi kullanılarak incelenmiştir.

Tanımlama verilerinin analiziyle elde edilen bulgular, hem süreç odaklı grubun hem de üretim odaklı grubun uygulamalar sonucunda bir tür kazanım elde ettiğini, İngilizcedeki geniş zamanda edilgen yapıyı tanımlama konusunda olumlu bir etkiye sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Fakat süreç odaklı öğretim grubu, üretim odaklı öğretim grubuna göre anlamlı bir farkla üstün gelmiştir. Süreç odaklı ve üretim odaklı gruptaki etkilerin zaman içinde kalıcı olmadığı görülmüştür.

Üretim verilerinin analiziyle elde edilen bulgular, hem süreç odaklı grubun hem de üretim odaklı grubun uygulamalar sonucunda bir tür kazanım elde ettiğini, İngilizcedeki geniş zamanda edilgen yapıyı üretme konusunda olumlu bir etkiye sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Bununla birlikte, süreç odaklı ve üretim odaklı öğretim grupları ikinci son testte aynı başarıyı gösterememiştir. Üretim odaklı grubun puanlarındaki düşüş, süreç odaklı grubunkinden daha fazla olmuştur.

Ayrıca üretim testlerindeki öğrenci hatalarının, edilgen yapıdan mı ya da diğer dilbilimsel yapılardan mı kaynaklandığını görmek amacıyla bir hata analizi yapılmıştır. Sonuçlar, toplam hataların %19,8'inin "olmak"(to be) fiilinin tekil – çoğul kullanımının karıştırılmasından kaynaklanırken, % 7,16'sının düzensiz fiiller ilgili olan problemlerden kaynaklandığını göstermiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Süreç Odaklı Öğretim, Üretim Odaklı Öğretim, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi

ABSTRACT

This study investigates the relative effects of processing instruction (PI) and meaningful output-based instruction (MOBI) in the learning of aorist passive voice in English by Turkish primary school EFL learners and attempts to see whether possible positive effects are retained well over time by PI and MOBI groups. For this study, two classes of 50 7th and 8th grade Turkish students at Atatürk Primary School in Çifteler town in Eskişehir, Turkey were randomly assigned into two instructional groups. Two different instructional packets and a post test and a delayed test were administered. The tests consisted of recognition and production tasks. The procedure regarding the treatment and posttest spanned two 40-minute class periods. Five weeks later the posttest was given as delayed test. Raw scores from the posttest and delayed test were submitted to a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

The results of the analysis of the recognition data showed that both PI and MOBI groups had some kind of knowledge gain as a result of the treatments. Both groups had positive effects on how learners recognized passive form; but PI group outperformed MOBI group with a significant difference. The effects of both PI and MOBI were not retained over time. The results of the analysis of the production data indicated that both PI and MOBI groups had some kind of knowledge gain due to the treatments. Both groups had positive effects on how learners produced passive forms and there was not a significant difference between PI and MOBI groups. In addition, the effects of both PI and MOBI were not durable over time. However, the drop in the MOBI group's scores was greater than that of PI group's scores.

In addition, an error analysis was conducted to see whether the students' mistakes in the production tests were due to errors of passive form or other linguistic features. The results indicated that totally 7,16 % of the errors were due to the problem with irregular verbs whereas 19,8 % of the errors were due to the singular – plural confusion of the verb to be.

Key Words: Foreign Language Teaching, Meaningful Output- Based Instruction, Processing Instruction

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	Adı-Soyadı	**İmza**
Üye (Tez Danışmanı)	: Yard.Doç.Dr.Mine DİKDERE	
Üye	: Prof.Dr.Zülal BALPINAR	
Üye	: Prof.Dr.Gül DURMUŞOĞLU KÖSE	
Üye	: Yard.Doç.Dr.Hasan ÇEKİÇ	
Üye	: Yard.Doç.Dr.Aynur BOYER	

Yard.Doç. Dr.Yücel ŞİMŞEK
Anadolu Üniversitesi
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü MüdürVekili

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

CHAPTER 2 : REVIEW OF LITERATURE

CHAPTER 4 : METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER 5 : RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

LIST OF TABLES

Page

LIST OF FIGURES

Page

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Research on second language acquisition over the past two decades has included a proliferation of studies that point out the effectiveness of many instructional treatments in second or foreign language classrooms. Grammar instruction has also been one of the language methods that called the attention of many researchers in the field of SLA. "Should grammar be taught?" has been a principal concern in the second language pedagogy.

In the 1950s, the language teaching was generally based on structural linguistics and grammar teaching was the most important element in foreign language teaching. After a while, it was stated that there was little use of creative language, so the students were unable to use the language in real communicative environments (Gass, Bardovi-Harlig, Magnan & Walz, 2002).

After the claim that grammar oriented foreign language teaching does not lead to the use of language in communicative environments, the communicative approach was developed. According to this approach, communication was the goal of second or foreign language instruction. In communicative approach, implicit knowledge that helps learners understand and produce sentences is aimed at and implicit knowledge develops by using language in communication as the learner receives meaningful messages and uses the language to communicate what s/he means, hence the learner acquires the ability to use the language "without conscious effort" (Ellis, 1993). However; the communicative approach also failed to produce learners who were grammatically accurate because its major focus was just the communicative competence.

Among the researchers, some of them like Krashen (Ellis, 1993) and Prabhu (1987) claimed that grammar has only a minimal effect on second language acquisition and grammar is learned automatically if the learners are exposed to opportunities for meaningful communication in the classroom. Unlike them, some others like Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1988) and Ellis (1990) maintained that focus on form would be

necessary for learners to achieve accuracy as well as fluency in SLA. These contrastive results have led to attention to form as complementary to meaning focused treatments. Findings of the classroom research have begun to reveal that teaching grammar embedded in communicative activities can be an effective way to overcome classroom limitations on the acquisition of second language.

As a consequence, all these claims led to form-focused instruction, which is considered to be any pedagogical attempt that is used to draw learner's attention to form implicitly or explicitly. The essential assumption of form-focused instruction is that meaning and use must be salient to the learner when attention is attracted to linguistic features which are required to get the meaning across (Doughty & Long , 2003).

Today, though there is an agreement on the role of grammar instruction in second language research, further research about the relative effects of formal instruction types is needed.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

After the approval of formal grammar instruction, the second language acquisition researchers had a new concern; the relationship between the knowledge of grammatical forms and the ability to use these forms accurately needs to be investigated. Moreover; "how grammar should be taught?" started to be another concern. This study was prompted by that concern. Many thousands of EFL learners get English courses as a part of Ministry of Education's formal curriculum in every academic year in Turkey; however, it is observed that most of these learners have problem with "grammar" in particular. A more specific example of such learners could be the ones in primary schools. In primary schools, learners start to get English courses from 4^{th} to 8^{th} grade in Turkey. They take these lessons as a part of formal education curriculum and use the course books determined by the Ministry. They are commonly taught the explicit rules of grammar, but usually fail to apply them in written or spoken language, so they keep making grammatical mistakes in the forms they have already been taught. Thus their language proficiency either develops as a response to input or fails despite that input. Here the main question becomes "what kind of grammar teaching will be the best and work the most in transformation of input to intake?"

Studies in SLA have been carried out to investigate how form focused instruction contributes to language learning; therefore, the types of formal instruction has been investigated. The role of formal instruction in SLA research has been a controversial issue. Some opinion differences have appeared among the researchers on the question whether there is any need to teach grammar. Whereas Terrell (1981, cited in Yan-ping,1989) and Higgs & Ciffort (1983,cited in Yan-ping, 1989) argued a natural order in acquisition, Sharwood Smith(1981) and Rutherford (1987, cited in Yan-ping,1989) claimed that learners should be aware of grammatical properties of the target language. Formal instruction studies have commonly focused on the interface between explicit and implicit types. To make them clear, Hulstijn (2005) formulated the definitions of explicit and implicit grammar instruction. Instruction is considered to be explicit when the learner receives information about rules underlying the input; and implicit instruction does not include receiving this information about rules (Hulstijn, 2005). To make this difference clear, Housen and Pierrard (2005, cited in Schipper,2006) suggested that implicit instruction attracts attention to target form, presents target forms in context, encourages free use of target form whereas explicit instruction directs attention to target form, presents target forms in isolation, and involves controlled practice of target forms.

Von Elek and Oskarsson's experiment (Yan-ping,1989) was carried out to investigate the effects of explicit and implicit formal instruction types. They studied with 125 adult learners and five grammatical properties. As a result, explicit group made better progress than implicit group. Also, Van Bealen's (Yan-ping,1989) study results indicated that explicit instruction group outperformed the implicit group on the easy rules in spontaneous production.

In addition to them,Muranoi (2000) and VanPatten & Sanz (1995) found out that explicit instruction significantly outperformed implicit whereas Bienfait (2002), Sanz & Morgan-Short (2004) and Williams and Evans (1998) found no advantage of explicit instruction over implicit one in the studies carried out.

Seeing that explicit formal instruction commonly outperformed implicit formal instruction, the researchers have started to look for alternative explicit instruction types

or methods. Out of this idea, input – based and output – based approaches drew researchers' attention.

Traditional grammar instruction which involves explanation and output practice of a grammatical form has been examined as a type of explicit grammar instruction. Paulston (1972, cited in VanPatten, 1996) put forward taxonomy of practice types and ordering in traditional instruction. She claimed that mechanical practice should precede meaningful practice, and meaningful practice should precede communicative practice for any grammatical point. Ellis (1993) and VanPatten & Cadierno (1993) have studied a case for supplementary activities which were designed to focus learners' attention on message conveyance with activities which required focus on form. They state that traditional grammar has been taught via activities that provide learners with opportunities to produce sentences including the target structure through pattern – practice drills and situational grammar exercises (Ellis, 1995). However Ellis thinks that this kind of approach is problematic as asking learners to produce difficult grammatical structures and then correcting them when they make mistake can be discouraging (Cantürk, 2001). Unlike this approach, Ellis proposed an alternative way to grammar teaching, which emphasizes input processing for comprehension rather than output processing for production. In this approach, main focus is on input processing which is concerned with how learners derive intake from input.

Derived from the insights of input processing, processing instruction has been described by VanPatten (1996) as a type of explicit grammar instruction. The main point of processing instruction is to assist learner in making form-meaning connections and it aims to improve the qualities of the input so that the amount of input that becomes intake will increase (Tuncer, 2005).

As opposed to this approach, some researchers claim that processing instruction ignores the role of output and output-based approaches to form that are not traditional might be as effective as processing instruction or at least better than traditional instruction. Swain & Lapkin (1995) argue that output helps learners notice a mismatch between their input and output so that it may lead the accuracy and fluency by allowing learners to process input better. In other words; Output Hypothesis does not negate the importance of input or input comprehension. Swain (1985; cited in Izumi & Bigelow,

2000) states that output production can stimulate acquisition as well as receiving meaningful input.

With a view to finding the grammar instruction types which will work best, researchers like above studied explicit grammar instruction types; either input based or output based approaches such as processing instruction or output based instruction as alternatives to traditional instruction. However, to present and make comparisons among these instructional methods, aside from traditional instruction (TI); processing instruction (PI) and meaningful output-based instruction (MOBI) should be comprehended better.

Traditional grammar instruction is a kind of output oriented approach to form and involves explanation and output practice of a grammatical point and focuses on learner output to affect change in the developing system which refers to learner's interlanguage or linguistic competence.

VanPatten (2000, cited in Benati, 2005) defines TI as "explanation plus output practices that move learners from mechanical to communicative drills. In traditional instruction, practice starts with mechanical activities in which learners do not need to attach meaning to sentences to complete the practice and there is only one correct answer, then goes on with meaningful activities in which learners attach meaning to response and there is only one correct response and practice is completed with communicative drills in which learners attach meaning to answer and intended meaning of the learner is not known by the instructor (Paulston, 1972, cited in VanPatten,1996).

Unlike traditional instruction, processing instruction is a type of explicit grammar teaching which draws on the principles of input processing and aims to improve the quality of input received by the learners so that the amount of input becoming intake will increase (Karacaer, 2003). Moreover, the purpose of PI is to change the way that learners attend and process input. Wong and VanPatten (2000, cited in Yazıcı, 2007) suggest three basic characteristics for processing instruction:

1. Learners are given information about a linguistic structure or form.
2. Learners are informed about a particular input processing strategy that may negatively affect their picking up the form during their comprehension.

3. Learners are pushed to process the form during activities with structured input. Structured input means the input that is manipulated in particular ways so that learners become dependent on form and structure to get meaning.

In structured input activities, learners do not produce the structure or form. In order to indicate the difference between traditional instruction and processing instruction, the following tables show the stages of two instructional methods.

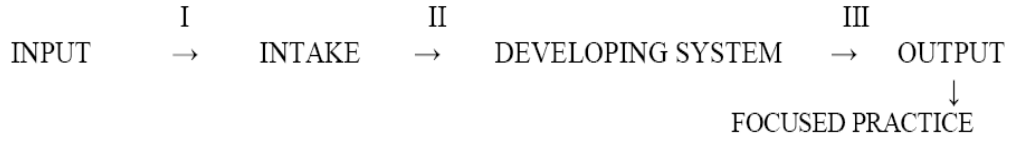


Figure 1.1. : Traditional Grammar Instruction in Foreign Language Teaching (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993)

Traditional instruction involves explanation and output practice of a grammatical point and focuses on the manipulation of output.

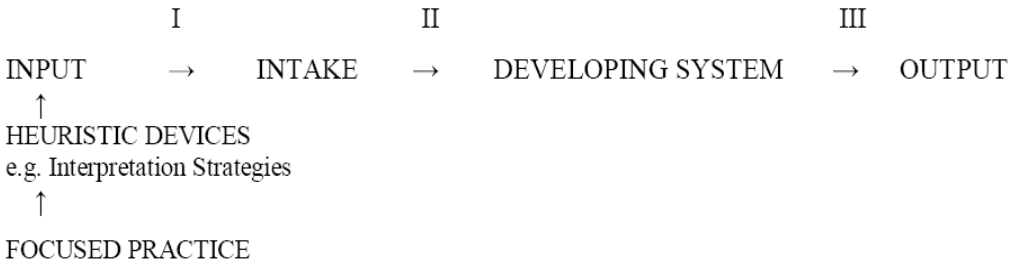


Figure 1.2. : Processing Instruction in Foreign Language Teaching (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993)

As seen on the figures, processing instruction attempts to change the strategies and mechanisms used by learners when processing input whereas traditional instruction involves presenting learners with explanations regarding the form and giving them a sequence of practice in how to make sentences with the relevant point.

As mentioned above, structured input activities are used in processing instruction. These activities do not require learners to produce language; they are designed to focus learners' attention on getting the right meaning from the stimuli (VanPatten, 1996).

Because these activities are selective in what they target, they are called 'structured input' activities. Also, VanPatten and Wong (2003, cited in Yazıcı,2007) suggests structured input activities to begin with two or three referential activities for which there is a right or wrong answer. Following them, learners are to engage in affective activities in which learners express an opinion, belief or some affective response.

Another instruction type to compare is meaningful output-based instruction (MOBI) which is based on Output Hypothesis. This hypothesis, based on Swain's comprehensible output term, argues that output might bring about mental processes that are part of language learning. Swain & Lapkin (1995) argue that output helps learners notice a mismatch between their input and output so that it may lead the accuracy and fluency by allowing learners to process input better. In other words, the learner can often understand a message without much syntactic analysis of input but production forces learner to pay attention to the forms with which intended meaning is expressed.

Unlike traditional instruction in which practice sequence from mechanical, meaningful to communicative drills, meaningful output based instruction excludes mechanical work. To develop fluency and to increase accuracy, learners should have an opportunity to use the language to express messages. In this context, the use of drills is not what is intended. The aim is to make learners deal with meaningful activities. These activities are referred as "structured output" activities where the focus is on conveying meaning (VanPatten,1993a, b). Benati (2005) presents two characteristics for MOBI activities:

1. Learners are asked to be involved in activities which require some exchange of information.

2. Learners are asked to access a form or a structure with the intent to express meaning.

In conclusion, based on the alternative approaches to grammar teaching proposed, this study intends to compare processing instruction and meaningful output based instruction types of explicit grammar instruction. That is, Processing Instruction (PI) and Meaningful Output Based Instruction (MOBI) groups are involved in the study. To see the difference among these two groups, a posttest / delayed test design concerning target structures has been used.

1.3. Objectives and Significance of the Study

Specifically, this study aims at examining the possible effects of two types of grammar instruction: processing instruction and meaningful output based instruction as types of explicit grammar instruction in the learning of aorist passive structure by Turkish EFL learners. Moreover, this study attempts to test whether possible effects are retained well over time by treatment groups.

This study may play a significant role in using the grammar instruction, specifically, to teaching of aorist passive structure in English. In addition, the results of the study might propose positive effects of processing instruction and meaningful output based instruction, and it may lead us to conclude that English teachers can apply these explicit grammar instruction types as alternatives to traditional grammar instruction and leads to a vital point about the issue of how grammar should be taught in the classroom because the learners under the explicit instruction are given an organized grammar presentation including explicit rule explanation by the teacher. In other words; this study aims to present various grammar instruction types for English teachers working at primary schools.

Through processing instruction, the implication is that grammar instruction should be meaning-based and tied to input (Van Patten, 2003). Noticing forms is vital since learners have difficulty with many of the grammatical features due to the following: a. these features may be non-salient, b. they may be infrequent in the input, c. they may be unnecessary for successful comprehension (Heilenmann, 1995). Via structured input activities, we can have the learners notice grammatical features that are problematic. The more we understand how learners attend to input, the better equipped we will be at helping them process language (Wong, 2001a). According to Van Patten (1996), PI seems to complement communicative language teaching, not to replace it. This can be achieved through grammar lessons taught alongside communicative lessons that provide spontaneous language use with focus on meaning.

Moreover the importance of attention to input becomes evident that with PI. Gass (1988) and Van Patten (1994), cited in Doughty & Williams,1998) state that input that

is not converted to intake is lost and consequently is no longer available to any subsequent language acquisition process.

Through meaningful output- based instruction, the implication is that output has an important role in grammar instruction. Swain & Lapkin (1995) argue that output helps learners notice a mismatch between their input and output so that it may lead to the accuracy and fluency by allowing learners to process input better. Van Patten and Cadierno (1993a) express that learners need to express need to get output practice so that their abilities in accessing their developing system for fluent production can be developed. That is, explicit instruction should involve a move from an input to an output based approach. In this way, first changes in the developing system can be made and then learners can be given opportunities for developing productive abilities. In meaningful output-based instruction, meaningfulness refers to making the students deal with meaningful activities.

Moreover, the theory and most of the studies in the field is commonly ESL oriented although there are a few studies in which the subjects are EFL learners. For instance, Tode (2007) compares explicit and implicit grammar instruction in an EFL context and looks for the durability of these methods whereas Cantürk (2001), Karacaer (2003), Tuncer (2005) and Yazıcı (2007) has conducted studies comparing differential effects of PI, TI and MOBI with adult learners in EFL contexts. This study, in this sense, has been expected to make an important contribution to implications of grammar instruction in a primary school EFL setting.

1.4. Variables of the Study

Dependent Variables: scores on recognition and production tasks

Independent Variables: The type of grammar instruction: processing instruction and meaningful output based instruction

Control Variables: Age and L2 proficiency level of the students

1.5. Statement of the Research Questions

The study addresses the following research questions:

1. Is there any significant difference between the recognition of aorist passive voice by the following groups of learners?
    a. Those who receive processing instruction
    b. Those who receive meaningful output-based instruction
2. Is there any significant difference between the production of aorist passive voice by the following groups of learners?
    a. Those who receive processing instruction
    b. Those who receive meaningful output-based instruction
3. If there is any significant difference in instruction on the recognition task, is this difference retained equally over time by the different instructional groups?
4. If there is any significant difference in instruction on the written production task, is this difference retained equally over time by the different instructional groups?

1.6. 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, the variables of the problem, and research questions are presented.

Chapter Two: Literature review is on traditional grammar approaches to grammar instruction, communicative language teaching, focus on form, input-based approaches to grammar instruction, attention and language learning, input processing, processing instruction, output and output-based instruction and previous studies on processing instruction and meaningful output-based instruction

Chapter Three: Information about the passivization in English and Turkish are explained in detail and similarities and differences between English and Turkish passive are mentioned.

Chapter Four: Method of the study including information about the subjects, instruments (instructional packets and assessment tasks), data collection procedures and data analysis is presented. Definition of passive voice in English is also mentioned.

Chapter Five: Results and findings of the study are discussed and presented in tables and figures. Evaluation of the findings is also included.

Chapter Six: Discussions and conclusions are summarized; pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research are presented.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Grammar Instruction

The role of grammar instruction has always called the attention of the researchers in the field of second language acquisition. Depending on the goal of instruction, grammar instruction has taken a variety of forms. For instance, the grammar translation method aimed at reading the classics of that language, but not communicating. Its effectiveness lasted until the emergence of Audio-lingual method, which was based on behaviorism. In Audio-lingual method, the language system was viewed as a set of habits to be internalized through practice and reinforcement. Without knowing the rules, learners had to repeat, transform and perform other manipulations on sentences orally as an essential first step toward communicative ability with the language.

After a while, it was found out that there was little use of creative language so the students were unable to use the language in authentic, communicative environments (Gass&Bardovi-Harling,2002; cited in Tuncer, 2005). After this claim, the communicative approach was developed.

2.1.1. Communicative Language Teaching

In the 1970s, it was observed that the learners could not use the target language communicatively although they knew grammar rules. As a consequence, communicative methodology called attention and communicative language teaching (CLT) arose in language teaching. With the rise of communicative methodology, the role of grammar in second language teaching was downplayed. A theoretical debate was brought about by Krashen's (1881) distinction between conscious learning and unconscious acquisition of language. Krashen's Monitor Model affected the rise of communicative instruction. This model of language acquisition consists of 5 hypotheses: the Acquisition Hypothesis, the Input Hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis and the Affective Filter Hypothesis. It is claimed that language should be acquired through natural exposure, not learned through formal instruction. Therefore; it was believed that "formal grammar lessons would develop

only declarative knowledge of grammar forms, not the procedural ability to use forms correctly, and that there was no interface between these two types of knowledge since they existed as different systems in the brain" (Nassaji & Fotos,2004,p.127). This idea was supported by the results of studies on the acquisition of English morphology, particularly the results that speakers with different first languages learn English morphemes in a similar order (Dulay & Burt, 1974). These findings led to the claim that both first language (L1) and second language (L2) learners do not require formal instruction to learn languages because similar processes underlie both first and second language learning (Schwartz, 1993; Zobl,1995).

In its purest form, communicative language teaching focuses on meaning, with no explicit attention to grammatical form (Cowan,2008). It aims at providing opportunities for learners to participate in interaction where the primary goal is to exchange meaning rather than to learn the L2 (Fotos & Ellis, 1991). The learning of L2 depends on the presence of comprehensible input in the form of meaningful activities; therefore, CLT does not include explicit grammar instruction or correction of errors.

The classroom context is used to create activities to teach students how to react in a real world situation. The activities, materials and strategies of CLT modified the language classroom and changed its focus from form into function and from teacher into learner, which caused curriculum to be rich (Pica, 2000). Also, Canale & Swain (1980), Lee & VanPatten (1995), Nunan (1989), Omaggio (1986,1993), Rivers (1987), and Savignon (1997; all cited in Gass, Bardovi-Harling,Magnan & Walz,2002) emphasized that learners and learning should be at the center of the curriculum in CLT.

Moreover; communicative language teaching seeks to foster "the collaborative nature of meaning". Two important goals of CLT are for learners to learn to use feedback to judge the success of their attempts to communicate, and to use language in social contexts in which they would be deemed appropriate (Cowan, 2008).

However, the research findings regarding this issue has indicated that these activities, materials and strategies have not been enough for learners to reach the proficiency level for effective language use (Swain,1985; Lightbown & Spada,1993). It was stated that CLT failed to produce learners who were grammatically accurate. Although Krashen's

model of L2 acquisition did not entail explicit grammar instruction, H.D. Brown (1994), Larsen – Freeman (1991), Lightbown &Pienemann (1993), Long (1991) and McLaughlin (1987) pointed out that grammatical competence is essential for communication but cannot be attained only through exposure to meaningful input.

Another critique of CLT proposed by Hinkel & Fotos (2002) is that academic speaking and writing are difficult to attain in the process of naturalistic learning. In addition, Terrell (1991), who favored explicit grammar instruction, pointed out that some initial explicit grammar helps students focus on what to listen for in a subsequent input and by feeding a learned rule to the monitor lets them acquire it from their own output.

In conclusion, as a result of these critiques, a more eclectic approach to CLT has been adopted during the last decade. The belief of a direct approach to CLT might be more effective than the "original indirect practice" of CLT (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1997, p.148). Aside from communicative tasks, this direct approach involves teacher formulaic speech; focus on form, a promotion of language awareness and consciousness- raising as well as explicit instruction.

2.1.2. Reasons for Reconsideration of Grammar Instruction

Although it seems that the role of grammar instruction in second language learning was decreasing with the rise of communicative methodologies in the late 1970s, its place in second language acquisition still continues to be discussed. Over the recent years the developments about grammar instruction has been highly questioned due to constant succession of contemporary language acquisition methods, so it is in the center of innovations in language teaching methodology (Saraceni, 2008).

Nassaji & Fotos (2004) have stated some reasons for the reevaluation of grammar as a necessary component of language instruction. First reason is based on Schmidt's (1990, 1993, 2001) term of "noticing". The hypothesis that language can be learned without some degree of consciousness has been found theoretically problematic. Schmidt favors conscious attention to form and claims that noticing is a necessary condition for language learning. Schmidt (2001) states and emphasizes the role of attention as follows:

> "The concept of attention is necessary in order to understand virtually every aspect of second language acquisition (SLA), including the development of interlanguages (ILs) over time, variation within IL at particular points in time, the development of L2 fluency, the role of individual differences such as motivation, aptitude and learning strategies in L2 learning, and the ways interaction, negotiation for meaning, and all forms of instruction contribute to language learning". (p. 3)

Also, Skehan (1998) and Tomasello (1998) have revealed in their studies that language learners cannot process target language input for both meaning and form at the same time; therefore, noticing target forms in input is necessary for learners; otherwise they process input for meaning only and do not attend to specific forms and they fail to process and acquire them.

The second reason for the reconsideration of grammar teaching in the L2 classroom, showed by Nassaji & Fotos (2004), is evidence that L2 learners pass through developmental sequences. Depending on the empirical evidence gained from German learners of English, Pienemann (1989,1998) developed "teachability hypothesis", which argues that "while certain developmental sequences are fixed and cannot be altered by grammar teaching, other structures can benefit from instruction any time they are taught" (Nassaji & Fotos,2004). Likewise, Lightbown (2000) supports this hypothesis and claims that it is possible to influence sequences of development via instruction if grammar teaching coincides with the learner's readiness to move to the next development stage.

The third reason is the increasing number of the research which indicates " the inadequacies of teaching approaches in which the focus is primarily on meaning-focused communication and eliminates grammar instruction" (Nassaji & Fotos,2004). For instance, the results of the study conducted by Swain and her colleagues (Swain,1985; Swain & Lapkin,1989; Lapkin & Hart & Swain,1991) indicated that the learners exposed to long-term meaning-based input could not achieve accuracy in

certain grammatical forms. Thus, these findings supported the idea that some type of focus on grammatical forms was necessary.

The fourth reason is evidence for the positive effects of grammar teaching. This evidence comes from a large number of laboratory and classroom-based studies and reviews of studies on the effects of instruction over the past twenty years. To illustrate; studies investigating the effects of instruction on the development of specific language forms (e.g: Cadierno,1995; Doughty, 1991; Lightbown, 1992; Lightbown & Spada,1990) present that grammatical instruction has a significant effect on the attainment of accuracy.

In addition, Borg (1999) states that an awareness of patterns in grammar facilitates learners' understanding of the way the language works. Also he claims that grammar teaching leads to an awareness of learners' errors and increase their self correction of language use.

Besides these, Ellis (Hinkel & Fotos,2002) argues that learners can obtain the negative feedback necessary to acquire difficult structures by means of grammar teaching which focuses learners' attention on grammatical forms.

In conclusion, there seems to be an agreement on two essential points. These are that "grammar cannot be discarded from foreign and second language pedagogy; and form and meaning do not have to be mutually excluding" (Saraceni,2008).

2.1.3. Focus on Form

A number of researchers claimed that communicative language teaching should involve systematic treatments to draw L2 learners attention to linguistic forms to develop a well-balanced communicative competence (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Long & Robinson,1998; Swain, 1985). Long (1991) pointed out that there was a need to incorporate form-focused instruction into meaning-oriented communicative language teaching and proposed an approach that he termed "focus on form" (FonF). According to Long, focus on form 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 lesson" (1991). Long (1991) also states that FonF is in contrast with traditional grammar instruction, or "focus-on-forms"

instruction, which places a focus on forms themselves in isolation and adopts a structural syllabus. Fotos (1998) explains Long's view as follows:

Long suggested that the traditional pedagogy of teaching and testing isolating items, a procedure based on behaviorist psychology and structural linguistics, was outmoded and ineffective(…)Long also suggested that purely communicative syllabuses were equally inadequate because of their neglect of grammar instruction. A review of the research comparing instructed with uninstructed language learning identified clear advantages for instruction in terms of learner's rate of learning and achievement. Long, therefore, recommended a third type of syllabus, one which he termed a 'focus on form'. Such a syllabus would combine communicative language use with instruction on grammar forms in context. (pp. 301-302)

As understood from the quotation above, FonF overtly direct students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons, in which focus is on meaning and communication (Long, 1991).

Focus on form requires a task-based syllabus. Activities that require learner to communicate while focusing learner attention on specific forms are used. Also, the instructor provides corrective feedback on learners' errors during the course of communication (Oram & Harrington, 2002). Moreover, a fundamental point of focus on form instruction is that "meaning and use must already be evident to the learner at the time that attention is drawn to the linguistic apparatus needed to get the meaning across" (Doughty & Williams, 1998, p.4).

On the effectiveness of focus on form, a large number of studies have been carried out. For instance, Doughty (1991) investigated the effect of computer-based instruction on the learning of relativization by university ESL students, comparing meaning-oriented, rule-oriented and control groups. The results showed that " both types of instructional treatment had positive effects and that meaning-oriented instruction was not detrimental to the formal learning of relativization". Lightbown & Spada (1990), observing communicative ESL courses in Quebec, also reported positive effects of focus on form. They found that a class in which focus-on-form instruction was provided within a communicative language teaching contributed to high levels of linguistic knowledge.

2.1.3.1. Focus on Form through Corrective Feedback

Researchers have attempted to apply focus on form instruction in communicative language teaching by providing interactional modifications like recasts and requests for repetition in L2 classrooms. Doughty & Varela (1998) examined the effects of recasting on L2 learning in the context of a content-based ESL science class. Results indicated that learners who were given recasts showed greater improvements in accuracy and a higher total number of attempts at past-time reference than the control group.

Mackey & Philip (1998) examined the effect of recasts on ESL learners' interlanguage development of question forms. They compared groups of ESL learners who received interactionally modified input with learners who received the same input containing recasts. Their results show that recasts may be beneficial even when they are not incorporated in learners' immediate responses.

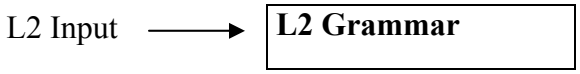
2.2. Input

Input is the most important factor in second language acquisition. It has a great effect on the progress of the learner in learning the second language. It is defined as the language to which the learner is exposed (Liceras, 1985, Sharwood Smith, 1993, Lightbown & Spada,1993). In this section, the role of input in SLA and input-based approaches to grammar instruction are discussed.

2.2.1. The Role of Input in SLA

It seems to be universally accepted that SLA is dependent upon input (VanPatten,2004). The role of input is , without doubt, of critical significance in understanding the what and why of SLA. Sharwood Smith (1993) defined input as the "potentially processible language data which are made available, by chance or by design, to the language learner". Many studies like Ellis (1990) and Larsen-Freeman & Long (1991) state that processing of linguistic data known as "input" is the principal requirement for acquisition of both the native language and a second language. The resemblance of L2 learner's task to that of the L1 learner is noticeable. L2 learners are also faced with the problem of making sense of input data, of coming up with a system which will account for that data and will allow them to understand and produce structures of L2. Thus, their

task can be conceived of as follows, equivalent to the L1 acquisition task (White, 1989,p.37).



Attentively, as Farley (2000) states, even in the first half of 1970s behaviorism, input was accepted as the "major driving force "of language acquisition. In behaviorism, humans do not process an innate set of language rules to acquire a language. Instead, "it is the hearing and repeating of language stimuli that causes habit formation, which results in language acquisition" (Farley, 2000). In this case, the stimuli act as input without which the learners will be unable to form habits which lead to language learning and use.

With regard to the input in language learning, Krashen (1980,1982,1985) introduced the Input Hypothesis, which states that learners acquire language by comprehending the meaning of language containing structures that are slightly above the learner's level of competence (i + 1). As opposed with the traditional assumptions, Krashen proposed that learners must be exposed to and understand the semantic content of language that is above their current level of competence or interlanguage for acquisition to occur. He states:

> … our assumption has been that we first learn structures, then practice using them in communication, and this is how fluency develops. The input hypothesis says the opposite. It says we acquire by "going for meaning" first, and as a result, we acquire structure! … a necessary condition to move from state i (i.e., current interlanguage ability) to state i + 1 (i.e., control of linguistic structures just beyond the current psycholinguistic processing level of the acquirer) is that the acquirer understand input that contains i + 1 level input, where 'understand' means that the acquirer focuses on the meaning and not the form of the message. (1982, p.21)

The Input Hypothesis claims that humans acquire language in only one way- by understanding messages, or by receiving "comprehensible input" (Krashen, 1985,p.2)

Krashen's claim that learners attend to input for meaning first and consequently acquire the forms and structures of a language is supported by Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) in the following:

The best evidence for Krashen's viewpoint has to be the fact that children or adults, who are not provided with comprehensible input, but only native speaker – native speaker (NS-NS) models, either do not acquire at all or acquire only a very limited stock of lexical items and formulaic utterances… This generalization holds across studies of first and second language acquisition, by children and adults, in normal and abnormal populations. (p.125)

After Krashen's claims and emphasis on the importance of input, other researchers have addressed the input and the issue of whether attention to form in the input is necessary for acquisition to occur. Whereas many researchers agree that some kind of attentional process is required for input to become intake, there are various opinions as to the amount and type of attention necessary for language acquisition.

Schwartz (1993, p.148), for instance, has accepted the necessity of input and has stated that for the knowledge system of a particular language to grow, the acquirer must have exposure to instance or exemplars of that particular language without such exposure, language development will not take place.
It is self-evident that L2 acquisition can only take place when the learner has an access to input in the L2. This input may come in written or spoken form. In the case of spoken input, it may occur in the context of interaction (i.e., the learner's attempts to converse with a native speaker, a teacher, or another learner) or in the context of non-reciprocal discourse (for instance, watching a film) (Ellis, 1994, p.24).

In addition, Schmidt (1990, 1993,1994) has proposed that "noticing" is a prerequisite for language acquisition and usage. According to Schmidt (1995, p.20), "the noticing hypothesis states that what learners notice in input is what becomes intake for learning". Also, Schmidt states that a) whether a learner intentionally attends to a linguistic form in the input or it is noticed purely unintentionally, if it is noticed, it becomes intake; b)

that noticing is a necessary condition for L2 acquisition. In order to clarify Schmidt's hypothesis, Ellis (1997) has proposed the following model:

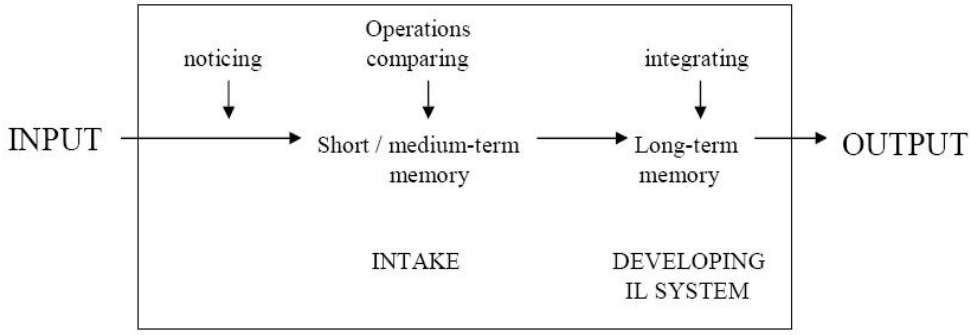


Figure 2.1. The process of learning implicit knowledge

As indicated on the above figure, there are two main stages in the process of input becoming implicit knowledge. The first stage in which input becomes intake includes learner's noticing language features in the input, absorbing them into their short-term memories and comparing them to features produced as output. The second stage is the one in which intake is absorbed into the leaner's interlanguage system and changes to this system only occur when language features become part of long-term memory. Schmidt (1990, 1994) also claims that without noticing, input cannot be filtered for further processing. In spite of controversial issue of conscious attention or not, the fact remains that all studies related to attention have assumed that input is essential to SLA.
Another framework which attributes a great role to input is the Input Processing. VanPatten's model of input processing (1990, 1995, 1996) details the relationship between input processing and language acquisition. Input Processing explains how intake is derived from input and which psycholinguistic strategies the L2 learners tends to rely on while processing the language data (Farley,2000).

To sum up, researchers have an agreement that input is an essential requirement for SLA and without it, a learner's linguistic system will be disadvantaged.

2.2.2. Input –Based Approaches to Grammar Instruction

The term "option" is used by Ellis (1998) in order to refer to a specific strategy for delivering instruction. He puts forward four macro options based on psycholinguistic

model of L2 acquisition. These are 1) input-based instruction, 2) explicit instruction, 3) output-based instruction and 4) feedback. We realize each macro option with various micro-options. To illustrate, a traditional grammar lesson may start with a grammar explanation (option 2), then continue with production practice (option 3) and finish with feedback (option 4).

The input-based option is identified as " an attempt to intervene directly in the process of interlanguage development by manipulating the input to which learners are exposed" (Ellis,1999,p.65)., so it is one of the types of comprehension-based language teaching (Gary,1978; Winitz,1981).

In the following section, we will focus on the theoretical rationales for input-based teaching of grammar.

2.2.2.1. Universal Grammar (UG)

The Chomskyan UG model of acquisition is based on a mentalist theory which claims that human beings biologically have an innate language faculty enabling them to acquire the grammar of particular language. This faculty is composed of principles that do not vary from one person to another, and parameters that vary according to the particular language that the person knows. That is to say, principles are universal and available to all children from birth whereas parameters are language specific.

In this model, the role of input is to "trigger" parameter setting. UG is activated by dint of exposure to input. According to UG theory, parameter setting emerges instantaneously as a consequence of a minimal exposure to input containing the appropriate triggers (Cook,1991).

It is said that parameter setting entails positive linguistic evidence and there is no need for negative linguistic evidence provided by error correction.

As for L1 acquisition, children set parameters while acquiring L1. However, in L2 acquisition, learners have to reset parameters. For instance, French-speaking learners of L2 English have to discover the position of adverbs which is between the subject and the verb as in:

Mary usually eats fish on Friday.

On the other hand, in French, an adverb can be between the verb and the object, but it is illicit in English:

*Mary eats usually fish on Friday.

It is questionable "whether French learners of L2 English can achieve the necessary parameter resetting simply through exposure to positive linguistic evidence" (Cook,1991; Ellis,1999; White,1989). As a result, as Ellis (1999) states, "input-based instruction becomes a way of testing whether positive evidence is sufficient or not".

2.2.2.2. Information – Processing Theories

In contrast to Universal Grammar, information-processing theories claim that language learning carries on like other types of learning. General cognitive mechanisms process information in the input in order to reach a mental representation of the target language. According to researchers working on this model, first of all, learners have to pay attention to any aspect of the language which they are trying to understand or produce (Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p.41).

According to the "noticing hypothesis" (Schmidt,1990, 1995; Schmidt & Frota, 1986), L2 learners are required to attend consciously to linguistic features in the input in order to cause intake to occur. (For intake, see section 2.4.) Schmidt (1990) makes a distinction between consciousness as intentional and consciousness as attention. He claims that learners can learn incidentally, that is, they do not have to make a conscious decision to learn but that they have to be aware of what they attend to. Schmidt differs from Krashen (1985) and Tomlin & Villa (1994) who focus on the learners' detection of linguistic features in the input subconsciously. It can be said that form-focused instruction can help learners by moving them consciously to notice linguistic features in the input, which results in intake; but since not everything which becomes intake is integrated into the learner's developing system, noticing may not be adequate for acquisition (Carroll, 1999; Ellis, 1999; Truscott,1998).

Moreover, information-processing theory claims that human beings possess limited processing capacities. Filter models argue that attention is selective, so it allows learners to store only selected information. Capacity models allow attention to be allocated to more than one task; however, only one or both of tasks can be performed automatically.

In L2 acquisition, VanPatten (1989, cited in Ellis, 1999) has suggested that beginner learners may have difficulty in attending simultaneously form and meaning. Because of this, having learners focus on form while processing input for meaning may negatively influence comprehension. If the forms in the input are meaningless, having learners focus on meaning can prevent them from noticing those linguistic forms. The role of input-based grammar instruction is to help learners to focus on form, or rather form-meaning relationships in the input.

2.2.2.3. Skill Learning Theories

Skill-learning theories argue that we can learn new skills by means of practice. For example, Anderson's Adaptive Control of Thought Model (ACT) (1976, 1980, 1983; cited in Ellis, 1999) views language learning as "involving a progression from an initial declarative knowledge stage to a final procedural stage in which knowledge is automatic". Learners achieve knowledge via practice in using the L2 according to Anderson.

In the ACT theory, there are two separate long-term memories: declarative and procedural. For DeKeyser (2001), "declarative knowledge is knowledge THAT, e.g. Washington DC is the capital city of the US; procedural knowledge is HOW to do something, e.g. shifting gears in a car or using the right form of a verb".

In skill-building theories, it is essential to provide great amounts of input and enough practice to achieve automatization. This is as opposed with UG, which claims that use of minimal amounts is sufficient for parameter setting. Besides, in skill-building theory practice via input-based instruction may only cater for improving learners' ability to comprehend the target form rather than to produce it. At this point, this theory differs from information-processing theory, which claims that input-based instruction will facilitate both comprehension and production since both of them draw on the same underlying knowledge source (Ellis,1999,p.67).

In summary, different theories can be tested through studies designed to examine and research the effects of teaching L2 learners specific grammatical features under

different conditions. According to UG, positive input alone is adequate for acquisition to take place. In input processing model, input-based practice works better than production-based practice. Skill-building theory claims that input-based and production-based instruction leads to gains simply in the specific skill being practiced (Ellis,1999).

2.3. A Cognitive View of Language

In SLA theory, input is accepted as the root of language learning (Gass,1997; Krashen,1982; VanPatten,1993,1996), and from a cognitive perspective, attention to input determines internalization of language (Long,1991; Schmidt,1990; Tomlin&Villa,1994).

2.3.1. Attention and Awareness in Cognitive Psychology

Over the last decades, the researchers in the field of SLA have started to concern with the concept of attention. This concept has become conspicuous and important due to its vital role in such many aspects of SLA as input, processing, development and instruction. In most of the literature, attention is also associated with the concept of awareness, but as a matter of fact; these two concepts are inherently connected but can be operationally distinguished.

Posner and Peterson (1990) define attention in terms of three networks: alertness, orientation and detection. Alertness is the initial stage of attention and refers to the general readiness of a learner to receive input or stimuli. The higher level of alertness, the faster the speed of selecting information for processing will be. Orientation is defined as "the alignment of attentional resources to a particular stimulus from among a host of stimuli" (Al-Hejin, 2004). On the other hand, detection is probably the most important network in attention; it is the cognitive registration of a stimulus. Once a stimulus is detected, it becomes available for further processing.

With regard to attention, Schmidt (1994) has also emphasized detection by saying that noticing is essential for learning. To Schmidt (1994) noticing refers to the "registration (detection) of the occurrence of a stimulus event in conscious awareness and subsequent storage in long term memory…" (p.179). Schmidt's definition can be represented as follows: noticing = detection + awareness (Yazıcı,2007).

According to Robinson (1995, the concept of attention can be used to define (a) the processes involved in selecting the information to be processed and stored in the memory, (b) one's "capacity" for processing information and (c) the mental effort involved in processing information. In psychology, the main assumptions related to attention reflect that it 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; Gass & Selinker, 2001). Thus, it is widely accepted that selective attention plays a crucial role in learning (Doughty & Long, 2003).

Tomlin & Villa (1994) depict attention as a limited capacity system characterized by awareness, alertness, orientation and detection. Instruction affects awareness, motivation affects alertness and orientation. Detection is the central part of this system and it is influenced by all three of above (Salaberry & Ortega, 1998).

On the other hand, awareness is "the subjunctive experience of any cognitive content or external stimulus (Tomlin & Villa, 1994,p.194). Allport (1988) asserts that three conditions must be met in order for a person to be aware of a given experience: (a) first, the person must show a behavioral or cognitive change as a result of the experience, (b) second, the person must report that s/he was aware of the experience at the time it took place, (c) third, the person must be able to describe the experience. However, Leow (2000) claims that if the first two conditions have been met, it is a "low awareness"; but high awareness is achieved when three conditions are met.

For Ellis (2002), there are two types of awareness. In the first type, learners are required to be aware of the formal properties of the language in the input. Thus, they can be made to consciously notice them. In the second one, learners are made aware explicit representation of a target form.

To summarize, since the concepts of attention; consciousness, awareness and noticing are inherently connected and one of them entails the other, they are sometimes used interchangeably in the literature.

2.3.2. The Effects of Attention and Awareness in Learning

The effects of attention and awareness in learning have been widely investigated (e.g. Anderson,1983; Dulany, 1991; Curran & Keele, 1993; Robinson, 1995). Different attention studies have presented mixed results for the claims that learning may occur without awareness. For instance; in Nissen & Bullemer (1987, cited in Rosa & O'Neill,1999), subjects were instructed to perform a dual task in which they had to follow the appearance of a light in different positions and count tones. As a result, learners in dual task showed no learning of the sequence of lights when compared to control group who had no previous experience with such a task. This finding has indicated that the dual task had kept learners from paying focal attention to position of the lights and in single-task conditions, participants were less aware in some learning of stimuli sequences.

Robinson (1995) claimed that learning without awareness is so limited that its effects are negligible. He argued that permanent encoding of a stimulus into memory cannot emerge without detection plus noticing and subsequent rehearsal of noticed material in short-term memory.

The view of learning without attention is not possible is adopted by Carr & Curran (1994). They propose that "there is little compelling evidence that requires anyone to believe in a strong form of "unconscious abstraction" – 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 " (p.207).

To sum up, though the issue of learning without attention is in dispute, there is more agreement on two points: 1) focal attention is a necessary component of learning (Carr & Curran, 1994; Schmidt, 1994, 1995); 2) awareness allows for a more elaborate type of structural learning (Carr& Curran,1994; Curran & Keele,1993). In addition, "we cannot ignore the growing body of research in SLA that demonstrates that a greater degree of attention, and in some cases also awareness, leads to more learning. Thus, no matter what position one takes on the awareness issue, there is a general consensus that attention to input is a crucial construct for SLA" (Wong,2001a, p.346).

2.3.3. The Implicit versus Explicit Learning Issue

The possibility of learning without awareness has often been discussed in terms of implicit and explicit learning. In cognitive psychology, this distinction has been made by creating (a) an explicit learning condition, in which learners are required to look for rules underlying the input, (b) an implicit learning condition, in which learners are required to memorize the input.

The Figure 2.2. shows the differences between explicit and implicit issues:

EXPLICIT	IMPLICIT
- **Conscious learning** - **Explicit knowledge** - **Cognitive learning through explanation, conceptualization, observation** - **Monitoring output through conscious rules**	- **Subconscious learning** - **Communication- oriented** - **Exposure to language in use**

Figure 2.2. Explicit vs. Implicit Issue (adapted from Ellis, 1994; Stern, 1992; cited in Burgess & Etherington, 2002, p. 438)

In the field of SLA, the implicit versus explicit issue has been commonly argued in terms of the interface between the implicit and explicit forms of knowledge. Most often, it is accepted that implicit knowledge is utilized subconsciously and is derived from implicit learning (Schipper, 2006) and it is procedural (Ellis, 1990). Conversely, explicit knowledge can be seen as gained through instruction and is often referred to as the learner who is aware of a specific kind of knowledge and that s/he is able to formulate a rule governing the structure (Ellis, 2005). Explicit knowledge is declarative (Ellis,1990). According to Housen and Pierrard (2005), explicit knowledge "is a more conscious type that is learned intentionally".

There is a general consensus in cognitive psychology that implicit and explicit learning exist, but for language learning and SLA both types of knowledge should be handled with care (Schmidt, 2001, Hulstjin, 2005).

Hulstjin (2005) formulated the definitions of both:

"Explicit learning is input processing with the conscious intention to find out whether the input information contains regularities, and if so, to work out the concepts and rules with which these regularities can be captured. Implicit learning is input processing without such an intention, taking place unconsciously (p.131).

Moreover, Housen and Pierrard (2005) propose that "the distinction between explicit and implicit learning is defined at the level of their different resultant knowledge bases, as determined by the conditions under which the learning occurs and the type of input provided" (p.7).

In terms of the instruction, Hulstjin (2005) makes a distinction:
Instruction is considered to be explicit when the learner receives information about rules underlying the input, and implicit instruction does not include receiving this information about rules. According to Norris & Ortega (2000), the instruction is explicit when it includes rule presentation and / or draws attention to form.

Table 2.1. shows the features of explicit instruction and implicit instruction:

EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION	IMPLICIT INSTRUCTION
- **Directs attention to target form** - **Is predetermined and planned** - **Presents target forms in isolation** - **Uses rule explanation** - **Involves controlled practice of target form.**	- **Attracts attention to target form** - **Is delivered spontaneously** - **Presents target forms in context** - **Encourages free use of target form**

Table 2.1. Explicit vs. Implicit Instruction (Housen & Pierrard, 2005)

As to the research findings on this issue, Robinson (1996) studied the implicit versus explicit issue and its relationship with awareness. He investigated 104 Japanese adult students of English learning both an easy rule and a complex rule. There were four research groups: the implicit group was simply asked to remember the sentences, the

incidental group was given comprehension questions to answer, and the rule-search group was asked to identify the rules illustrated by the sentences, and the instructed group first received direct explanations of rules and tried to apply them to sentences. As a result, the instructed group who received explicit explanations outperformed all other groups.

In another study, Rose & O'Neill (1999) examined how intake was influenced both by awareness and by the conditions under which a problem solving task was performed. Results indicated that the degrees of explicitness had a differential effect on intake.
Moreover, Von Elek and Oskarsson's experiment (Yan-Ping-1989) was carried out to investigate the effects of explicit instruction versus implicit instruction. They studied with 125 adult learners and five grammatical properties. As a result, explicit group made better progress than implicit group. Also, Van Bealen's study (Yan-Ping,1989) findings demonstrated that explicit instruction group outperformed the implicit group on the easy rules in spontaneous production.

In addition to them, Muranoi (2000) and Van Patten & Sanz (1995) found out that explicit instruction significantly outperformed implicit instruction.

2.4. Intake in SLA

In recent SLA research, the cognitive mechanisms that underpin learner processing of input have been focused and have called attention. In studies of how second language instruction affects L2 learner's subsequent processing of input, researchers have examined how external manipulation of input can affect intake and subsequent learning.

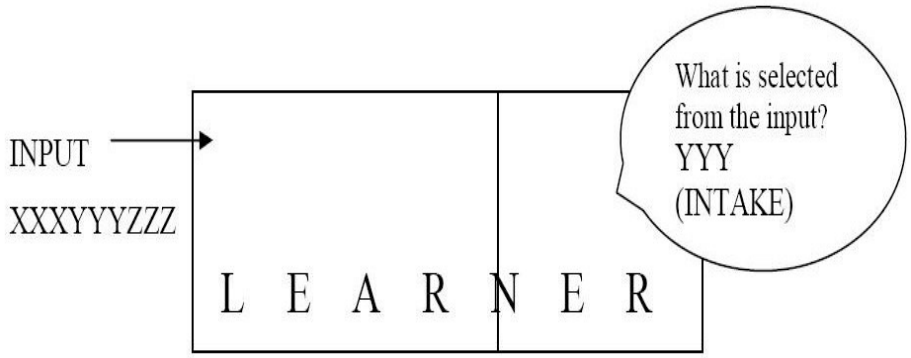
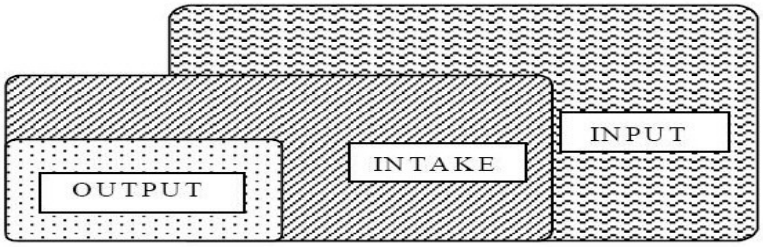


Figure 2.3. Input vs Intake (Corder, 1967)

As seen in Figure 2.3., what learner is exposed to is not the same as what learner's mind takes in. Corder (1967) has proposed that the distinction between the linguistic input that the learner has yet to process and intake, the mental registration of the input that occurs after processing. In his report, Corder asserts "the simple fact of presenting a certain linguistic form to a learner in the classroom 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 suppose that it is the learner who controls this input, or more properly his intake" (p.165).

However there has been some confusion about the definition of intake. Kumaravadivelu (1994) has reviewed research on intake and revealed two views: intake as product and intake as process. In the product view, intake is a subset of input "before the input is processed by learners" (p.35) while, in the process view, intake is "what comes after psycholinguistic processes" (p.36). That is to say, in the product view, intake is input that is unprocessed language while, in the process view, it is a part of the learner's interlanguage system and is thus processed language. In consequence of these two views, Kumaravadivelu redefines the concept of intake as "an abstract entity of learner language that has been fully or partially processed by learners, and fully or partially assimilated into their developing system" (p.37). He puts forward the following figure to indicate the relationships among input, intake and output.



The relationships among input, intake, and output in a quantitative view (from Kumaravadivelu, 1994)

Figure 2.4. The Relationships among Input, Intake and Output

Similarly, Gass & Selinker (2001) defines intake as the process of assimilating linguistic material.

According to researchers, various factors influence the input-intake process and determine which input becomes intake. To illustrate, Kumaravadivelu (1994, p. 39) proposes the following factors as intake factors:

Individual factors: age and anxiety

Negotiation factors: interaction and interpretation

Tactical factors: learning strategies and communication strategies

Affective factors: attitudes and motivation

Knowledge factors: language knowledge and metalinguistic knowledge

Environmental factors: social context and educational context

In addition to this, the view that attention is necessary for input to become intake is advocated by several studies like Schmidt, (1990); Tomlin & Villa, (1994). According to Schmidt (1990), there are various factors which influence noticeability. These contain expectations, frequency of occurrence, perceptual salience, skill level and task demand.

2.5. Input Processing

VanPatten (1996) has pointed out that grammar instruction has a positive role in the acquisition process because instruction can make certain grammatical forms more salient in the input. According to him, grammar instruction provided through the input phase of the acquisition process can be beneficial while contrasting to Krashen's view (1982) which proposes that comprehensible and meaningful input should be free of grammar instruction and proposed a model of second language acquisition. VanPatten's model consists of three processes: I) input and intake (input processing) II) intake and the developing system (*accommodation* → how learners actually incorporate a grammatical form or structure into the mental picture of the language they are creating; *restructuring* → how the incorporation of a form or structure can cause a ripple effect and make other things change without the learner ever knowing) III) the developing system and output (output). These three processes are illustrated by VanPatten (2003, p.15) as follows:

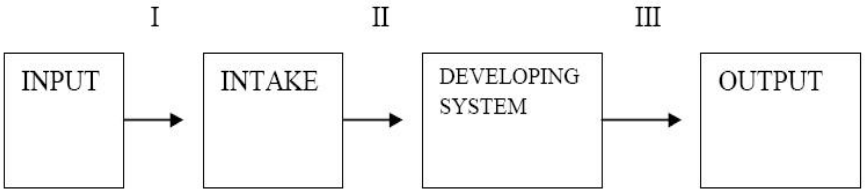


Figure 2.5. Sets of Processes in SLA

One of the processes in VanPatten's model of acquisition is called 'input processing'. According to Sanz and VanPatten (1998), input processing refers to "a research domain about how learners make form-meaning connections as well as parse incoming sentences in the L2. It is the application of psycholinguistic inquiry to comprehension and processing of second language sentences"(p. 50). Input processing tries to explain how learners get form from input and how they assign grammatical roles to nouns during comprehension while their primary attention is on meaning. For VanPatten (2003), input processing consists of two sub processes: making form-meaning connections and parsing. Making form meaning connections means getting the connection between, for example, -s suffix and third person singular from the input. The four principles: Principle 1 (the primacy of meaning principle), Principle 2 (the availability of resources principle), Principle 3 (the first noun principle); and 4 (the sentence location principle) guide form-meaning connections. Parsing means "mapping syntactic structures onto the utterance, for example, knowing which noun is the subject and which is object when hearing a sentence" (VanPatten, 2003, p.29).

VanPatten's model of input processing (1984, 1985, 1990, 1995, 1996) addresses the specific issue of how intake, a subset of the input, is derived from input and which psychological strategies the L2 learner tends to rely upon during input processing. These strategies have been most recently summarized in VanPatten (2004, pp. 7-17) in the form of four basic principles:

P1. The primacy of meaning Principle: Learners process input for meaning before they process it for form.

P1(a). **The primacy of content words principle:** Learners process content words in the input before anything else.

P1(b). **The lexical preference principle:** Learners prefer processing lexical items to grammatical items (e.g. morphological markings) for semantic information.

P1(c). **The meaning-before-nonmeaning principle:** Learners prefer processing more meaningful morphology before less or nonmeaningful morphology.

P2. The availability of resources principle: 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 attentional resources.

P3. The first noun principle: Learners process a default strategy that assigns the role of agent to the first noun (phrase) they encounter in a sentence. We call this 'first noun strategy'.

P3(a). The first noun strategy can be overridden by lexical semantics and event probabilities.

P3(b). **The contextual constraint principle:** Learners will adopt other processing strategies for grammatical role assignment only after their developing system has incorporated other cues (e.g. case marking, acoustic stress).

P4. The sentence location principle: Learners are sensitive to position within an utterance.

P4(a). The beginnings of utterances are the easiest to process.

P4(b). The ends of utterances are the next easiest to process.

P4(c). The middle parts of utterances are the most difficult to process.

The first two principles are related to the processing of morphological form as well as functors (functional categories such as articles, prepositions, etc.) in the input. The third principle is relevant to order. The forth principle, on the other hand, deals with the location of the sentence. It claims that sentence initial and sentence final positions are cognitively more salient than other constituents in a sentence. VanPatten (2002,cited in Neupane, 2009) elaborates these principles by giving example from Spanish: Ayer mis padres me llamaron para decirme algo importante. Here, both the lexical item "ayer"

and the verb inflection "-aron" encode pastness. The learner does not have to allocate attention resources to a verb form to grasp that the action took place before the present. At the same time, "mis padres" as well as "-aron" encode plurality, and again the learner does not have to allocate attentional resources to an inflection to get that the subject is plural. In case of an English sentence "he came here yesterday", both lexical item "yesterday" and verb form "came" encode pastness. The learners can understand the concept time without paying attention to the form of the verb "came" (Neupane,2009).

2.6. Processing Instruction

PI is an instruction type based on VanPatten's (1992) model of second language acquisition and use. It is a deliberate attempt by the language teacher to intervene in the acquisition process by giving the learner explicit grammatical information concerning the target item and structured input activities (both oral and written) that force them to attend to the target item for meaning.

The most salient characteristics of PI is that it uses a particular type of input to push learners away from the non optimal processing strategies. A secondary salient characteristic of PI is that during the instructional phase learner never produce the target form in question. This does not obviate the rule for output since production may be useful for the development of fluency as well as accuracy (Neupane, 2009).

PI aims to improve the quality of the input received by learners so that the amount of input becoming intake will increase. This is done by giving learners the opportunity to process grammatical forms in the input and make form-meaning connections. Processing instruction aims to make the learner get the communicative function of a particular form and enrich the learners' intake. VanPatten (1996) states that PI is to alter the processing strategies that learners take to the task of comprehension and to encourage them to make better form meaning connections than they would if left to their own devices. To achieve this, processing instruction has three key components: 1.explanation of the relationship between a given form and the meaning it can convey; 2. information about processing strategies, and 3. structured input activities in which learners are given the opportunity to process form in the input in a controlled situation

so better form- meaning connections might happen. Sanz and VanPatten (1998) define PI as "a psycholinguistically motivated focus on form that is an adjunct to communicative language teaching and/or to comprehension-based approaches" (p.50). In addition, Wong and VanPatten (2003, p. 410) suggest three basic features for PI. These are as follows:

1) Learners are given information about a linguistic structure or form.

2) Learners are informed about a particular input processing strategy that may negatively affect their picking up the form/structure during comprehension.

3) Learners are pushed to process the form/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/structure in the input so that learners have a better chance of attending to it. Learners do not produce the structure or form during structured input activities.

These three components are exemplified in the following structure. (Neupane, 2009)

John makes Mary walk the dog.

In the example there are two verbs and two nouns functioning as subjects. The first verb is makes with the subject John. The second verb is walk with its underlying subject Mary. It is the problem for the learners of Nepal. When asked who walks the dog, learners may overwhelmingly say "John" since he is the first noun that appears before the verb. In short, learners tend to gloss over the verb make and process the second verb. At the same time, they assign the first noun as subject of the second verb. With this in mind, a PI lesson on the causative would first begin with a brief explanation of what the structure is and looks like. Following this, learners would be told that it is natural to process the first noun as the subject of the verb but that this is inappropriate for this structure. Subsequently they would work through written and aural activities in which they are pushed to process sentences correctly. these activities are called structured input activities.

As can be understood from the components mentioned above, the PI approach is designed to avoid specific problems that learners have in processing input. In order to

have a clearer understanding of the processing instruction, we should examine the difference between the traditional grammar instruction and processing instruction. While Figure 2.6 shows the stages of the traditional grammar instruction, Figure 2.7 shows the processing instruction.

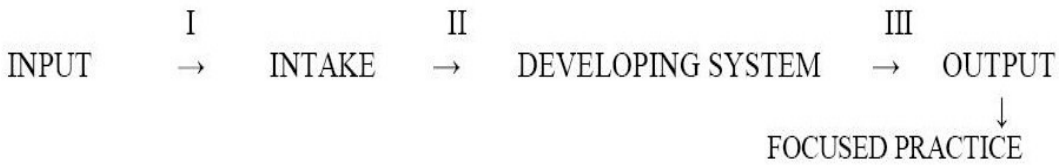


Figure 2.6. Traditional Grammar Instruction in Foreign Language Teaching (VanPatten & Cadierno,1993)

Traditional grammar instruction involves explanation and output practice of a grammatical point and focuses on the manipulation of learner output to affect change in the developing system.

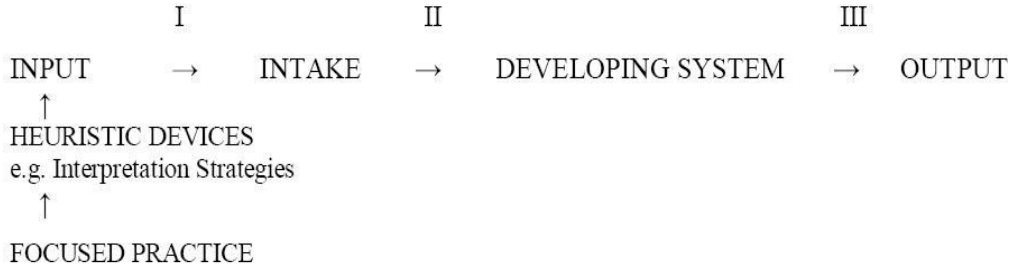


Figure 2.7. Processing Instruction in Foreign Language Teaching (VanPatten & Cadierno,1993)

As can be depicted from Figure 2.7, processing instruction attempts to change the strategies and mechanisms used by language learners when processing L2 input; whereas, as mentioned above, traditional instruction involves presenting learners with explanations regarding the form and then giving them practice in how to make sentences with the relevant grammar point.

2.6.1. Structured Input Activities

In processing instruction, unlike many other forms of instruction, learners do not produce the language at first – they process input to understand it, and activities are designed to focus their attention on getting the right meaning from the stimuli

(VanPatten, 1996). One of the criticisms that VanPatten (1996) makes of many teaching materials is that learners can do many activities without understanding the content. However, this is not acceptable within the Processing Instruction model. The input used in processing instruction is called "structured input". The term "input" is used because learners actively focus on processing input instead of producing language. The term "structured" is used since the input is not spontaneous.

The activities used in PI frequently require the learners to express a personal opinion on a theme; they often involve themes which are familiar even to beginning learners, and often an attempt has been made to make them lively and humorous. Because these activities are selective in what they target, they are said to be *structured input activities.* To develop appropriate and effective structured input activities, certain procedures should be kept in mind. VanPatten (1996, p. 69) offers the following guidelines for developing structured input activities:

(i) Teach only one thing at a time. (e.g. differences between subject and object personal pronouns and not this + subject-verb agreement).

VanPatten's advice is not to burden the learner with more than one thing until the instructor is sure that the learner's have noticed and understood the form-meaning relation.

(ii) Keep meaning in focus. Learners must understand the stimuli to perform the activity.

(iii) Learners must do something with the input. This does not mean "repeat" or "say out loud" but rather "internally process".

VanPatten favors activities which require learners to agree or disagree with statements or to say: "Yes, that applies to me" or "No, it doesn't".

(iv) Use input.

Research on individual learning styles suggests that some learners react quite negatively to getting only oral input; they want to see what they are hearing. Certainly, written input can help learners to segment the stimuli into words and perhaps also to see certain paradigmatic relations. Because the stimuli are not transitory (if presented on a page rather than on a computer screen), learners who are still quite slow in processing can have the time they need to work out the meaning of the stimuli.

(v) Move from sentences to context.

Psycholinguistic research suggests that we parse sentences and link their meanings into larger text units at the discourse level. If we start with sentences in activities, the learner has a limited stretch of speech or text to attend to notice relevant forms. Connected discourse will not give the learners sufficient time to process, but this is not buttressed by empirical data. Presumably, long sentences will present the same difficulty to learners. In short, practice the new form-meaning connections in discourse activities, but learn them first at the sentence level.

(vi) Keep the psycholinguistic processing strategies in mind.

The psycholinguistic rationale for the structured input activities is that acquisition occurs when learners attend to the new structure in input rather than when they attempt to produce it. VanPatten (1993) distinguishes between referential and affective activities. Referential activities are those for which there is a right or wrong answer and for which the learner must rely on the targeted grammatical form to get meaning. Normally, as Wong and VanPatten (2003) indicate, a sequence of structured input activities would begin with two or three referential activities. Following referential activities, learners are engaged in affective structured input activities. These are activities in which learners express an opinion, belief, or some other affective response and are engaged in processing information about the real world.

2.6.2. Processing Instruction versus Comprehension-Based Second Language Instruction

Rather broadly, comprehension-based instruction is a general term to describe a variety of second language programs in which the focus of instruction is on comprehension rather than production (Lightbown & Spada,1993).

2.6.2.1. Processing Instruction versus Comprehension-Based Approaches

The term “comprehension-based” refers to the providing of comprehensible input by teachers and materials during the classroom acquisition. The L2 is highly used and modified by teachers. Learners are encouraged to talk in L2 when they are ready.

Krashen (1982) gives a summary of the underlying position of most comprehension-based approaches: “quite simply, the role of the second or foreign language classroom is to bring a student to a point where he can begin to use the outside world for further

second language acquisition. (….) this means we have to provide students with enough comprehensible input to bring their second language competence to the point where they can begin to understand language learned "on the outside", read and participate in conversations. Since they will be less than fully competent, we also need to provide them with tools for encouraging and regulating input."

Comprehension-based approaches to instruction may differ such that teachers provide comprehensible input to classroom learners and in terms of quality of input. For instance, Total physical Response (TPR) has much use of commands as teachers order students to perform actions. The Natural Approach uses some TPR techniques but also allows teacher talk. Teachers use visuals or objects in the teaching of an oral text while involving learners in the co-construction of the discourse with simple answers.

The common point of all these approaches is that there is input and that as long as affective filter is low, comprehensible input leads to acquisition (Krashen, 1982). Teachers pay little or no attention to the formal elements of the language during class time or in the evaluation of learner performance.
VanPatten (1996) asserts that PI is not equivalent to comprehension-based approaches even though it is input-based. PI aims to get learners to process more form in the input or to process it correctly.

A second point is that PI is guided by the insights from theory and research on input processing and attempts to affect input processing itself. Comprehension-based instruction does not make such an attempt. It aims to provide learners with comprehensible input; it does not consider what learners do to the input when they comprehend it. PI actively attempts to affect intake derivation, whereas comprehension-based approaches disregard the psycholinguistics of intake derivation.

Briefly, PI is not another type of comprehension-based approach to language instruction. "PI is a specific approach to explicit grammar instruction and thus falls more clearly within the category of instructional treatments called "focus on form" (VanPatten, 1996).

2.6.2.2. Processing Instruction versus Input Enhancement

Sharwood Smith (1993) uses the term "input enhancement" to discuss focus on form. Input enhancement is any external attempt (by teachers or via materials) to make the input more salient to learners and can come in many forms. He discusses both positive and negative enhancement (Smith, 1993). Positive enhancement can be color coding or boldfacing structures in reading texts. Negative enhancement involves informing learners that a given form is incorrect by pointing out an error or making a funny face.

PI seems to have similarities with Sharwood Smith's input enhancement but there are differences between PI and input enhancement. Sharwood Smith's concern is to make forms salient; in other words, to bring them to learners' attention in some way. PI does this but also tries to provide opportunities for form-meaning mappings in activities. One may not guarantee the getting the form processed correctly, just bringing a form to someone's attention.

Besides, PI does not have any claims about providing negative enhancement with regards to learners' errors. Although PI involves erroneous input processing and attempts to change erroneous input, it does not focus on the role of output errors in L2 development (VanPatten, 1996).

2.6.2.3. Processing Instruction versus Consciousness – Raising

Consciousness-raising has been discussed in recent SLA literature. Although processing instruction appears to be similar to consciousness-raising, it differs from this approach in some ways. According to Rutherford (1987), "grammatical consciousness-raising" is any "deliberate attempt to draw the learner's attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language" (p.107). Moreover, Rutherford asserts that language acquisition can be aided by such consciousness-raising, but that the actual form of consciousness-raising may vary depending on first- second language contrasts and the nature of grammatical item or structure. For Rutherford, "consciousness- raising cannot be equated with traditional grammar instruction (….) it helps the processes that underlie acquisition of grammar and does not aim to include the knowledge that must be acquired" (1987).

VanPatten(1996,p.85) states that, in real sense, processing instruction is a type of consciousness-raising. Because PI attempts to influence the processes involved in the derivation of intake, it is not a product-oriented approach to teaching of grammar that Rutherford appears to critique. That is, PI does not seek to "pour knowledge" of any kind into learners' heads; it assists certain processes that can aid the growth of the developing system over time. For this reason, we conclude that Rutherford would not have much problem in considering PI as one manifestation of grammatical consciousness-raising.

As noted above, VanPatten thinks of his approach to instruction as enriching learners' subconscious intake but not as raising their consciousness about grammatical form (VanPatten, 1996)

2.6.3. Research on Processing Instruction

VanPatten and Cadierno (1993a,b) were the first studies that compared the effects of processing instruction and those of traditional instruction. The study was based on the first noun strategy that learners assign the role of agent to the first noun in sentence.

The aim of the VanPatten and Cadierno (1993a) was to study the effects of PI on the acquisition of object pronouns in Spanish. Participants of the study were 80 second-year university level Spanish students from six classes at the University of Illinois. They were divided into three treatment groups: no instruction group which received no instruction on object pronouns, traditional instruction, which included a grammar explanation, as well as mechanical, meaningful and communicative drills and processing instruction group which included explanation and structured input activities. Results indicated significant gains in both comprehension and production for subjects exposed to processing instruction. The subjects exposed to traditional instruction had significant gains in production task only. However, VanPatten and Cadierno (1993b) report the results of a research on the effects of two different types of instruction on the developing knowledge system of the L2 learner: instruction as the manipulation of output and instruction as structured input processing. Also it discusses the impact of attempting to alter learners' processing of input containing non-SVO order. Results of the study indicated that in the interpretation task; PI group was better than the TI and no

instruction group. Also TI was not superior to PI on the production task. Therefore, PI altered the way in which the subjects processed the input, but TI had little impact on how subjects processed input. It had impact only on what the subjects could access for production.

Subsequent to VanPatten and Cadierno (1993a,1993b), VanPatten and other researchers undertook replications of the initial studies with new target forms and a wider variety of task measures. Cadierno (1995) compared the relative effects of two types of instruction: traditional instruction (TI) and processing instruction (PI) on the acquisition of Spanish past tense morphology. Traditional instruction involved grammar explanation and output-based practice whereas processing instruction involved grammar explanation and input-based practice. ; so there were 3 instructional groups: traditional instruction , processing instruction and control group. The results indicated significant gains in both comprehension and production for subjects in processing instruction, while subjects in traditional instruction had significant gains only in production. Her conclusion was that processing instruction had once again proved to be more beneficial than traditional instruction, which paralleled those of VanPatten and Cadierno (1993a).

VanPatten and Sanz (1995) investigated the effects of PI on oral language production, namely object pronouns in Spanish. There were two groups of subjects: 1) those who received PI, and 2) the control group that received no instruction. The pre-test and post-test consisted of three tasks. These are: a sentence-level task, a video-narration task, and a question-answer task. Each task had both an oral and a written version. According to the result of VanPatten and Sanz (1995) study, PI yielded beneficial effects not only for written language production but also for oral language production. For instance, the PI group performed significantly better on all three tasks after the treatment, whereas the control group showed no significant improvement.

VanPatten and Oikkenon (1996) carried out a study to investigate whether the better performance by those who receive PI might be attributed to the explicit information given as part of PI, or whether it was the structured input activities alone that produced the superior performance. The subjects in this study were divided into three groups: 1) those who received explicit grammatical information only, 2) those who received

structured input activities, and 3) those who received both explicit grammatical information and structured input activities. As a result of the study, it was indicated that the structured input-only group performed significantly better on two post-tests (an interpretation and a production task) than the explicit information-only group. There was no significant difference between the structured input only group and the input + explicit information group. In addition, the explicit information only group showed no significant improvement after the treatment.

Collentine (1998) conducted a study to compare the effects of processing instruction (PI) and traditional, output-based instruction on the acquisition of subjunctive. The target structure was the Spanish subjunctive, beginning with nominal clauses, then turning to adjectival clauses. The participants were assigned to 3 groups: PI, OBI, and control group. The results indicated that while PI is effective at fostering learners' subjunctive abilities, output-oriented instruction is equally effective in tasks where the subjunctive has communicative value.

Another study on PI was conducted by Cheng (2002). She investigated the effects of PI on the acquisition of the two principle copula verbs in Spanish, *ser* and *estar* through using three tasks: interpretation, sentence completion, and composition. Her results reveal that on the interpretation task, both the processing group and the traditional group made significant gains from pre-test to post-test, with the processing group making greater gains on the first of two post-tests. There was no significant difference between the processing group and the traditional group on the interpretation task of the second post-test. On both the sentence production task and the composition task, however, there was significant improvement from pre-test to post-test for both groups, and their performance was almost the same for the second post-test.

To address the issue of meaningfulness, Benati (2001) compared PI to a more meaningful output instruction on the Italian future tense. The results mirrored those of Van Patten and Cadierno (1993a) in that, for interpretation, PI outperformed the output and control groups, and for production, there was no statistical difference between instructional treatments. The findings were unique, however, in that the output group

also outperformed the control group on interpretation. According to VanPatten (2002), this difference emerged from the added meaningfulness of his output condition.

Benati (2004) investigated the relative effects of processing instruction, structured input activities and explicit information on the acquisition of gender agreement in Italian adjectives. The subjects of the study were divided into three groups: the first received processing instruction; the second group structured input only; the third group explicit information only. The materials contained explicit information and structured input activities. The processing instruction group took explanation and structured input activities while explicit information group took explanation only and structured input group took structured input activities only. The results indicate that processing instruction group and the structured input group made significant gains on a sentence-level interpretation test and a sentence-level production test; whereas the explicit information group made no gains. The structured input group also made identical gains to the processing instruction group in the oral production task, compared to the explicit information group.

Another study which was carried out by Benati (2005) was to investigate the effects of processing instruction (PI), traditional instruction (TI) and meaning- based output instruction on the acquisition of the English Simple Past Tense. The three main aims were to compare the effects of three instructional treatments (PI vs. TI (with an incremental number of meaning focused activities) and MOI); to compare the effects of three instructional treatments in a different linguistic feature (English Simple Past Tense) and language (English); to compare the effects of the three treatments using subjects from different schools and a different L1 (Chinese and Greek) than English. A parallel study was carried out in two different schools among first-semester students. There were 47 Chinese students studying English in a secondary school in China. In the second school, there were 30 students studying English in a secondary Greek school. All the subjects were divided into three groups (PI, TI, and MOI). In the end, the results of the study showed that processing instruction had positive effects on processing and acquisition of the target feature. In both studies in Chine and Greece, PI group performed better than the TI and MOI groups in the interpretation and all three groups made equal gains in the production task.

Yazıcı (2007) carried out a study to examine the possible effects of two types of instruction: processing and traditional in the learning of wh- questions by Turkish EFL learners. There were two instructional groups: traditional instruction and processing instruction groups. The participants were 56 Turkish students of English who attended the preparatory program at Foreign Languages Center in Cukurova University. There were three kinds of tasks: grammatical judgment task, a picture-cued task and a translation task. The findings obtained from the comprehension task, namely GJT, revealed that both the PI and TI groups resulted in some kind of knowledge gain due to the treatments. However, the results of the posttest2 presented that only the effects of PI were retained over time. The results of the analysis of the written-production data indicated that both the PI and TI groups resulted in some kind of knowledge gain and both the TI and PI had a positive effect on how learners produced the English wh-questions. However, in the posttest2, the TI group was unable to retain the proficiency gains across the postest1 and posttest2 while the PI group's scores were durable.
Contrary to the studies mentioned above, there are some other studies proposing no significant differences between PI and TI groups. For instance, Allen (2000) investigated the relative effect of PI and TI on the acquisition of the French causative and she found that PI was as effective as TI enabling learners to interpret the French causative and that traditional instruction is more effective in enabling learners to produce the French causative.

Likewise, Cantürk (2001) found no significant difference between PI and TI groups on interpretation and production tasks. Regarding the retention of proficiency gains, both PI and TI's gains were retained over time on the production task, whereas TI's gains faded over time. This study has a significant place because it is the only study which measured the retention of the proficiency gains eight months after the administration of the immediate post-test.

In addition to these studies, there are some other investigations which have focused on the effectiveness of structured input type of activities. Erlam (2003) ,for instance, compared the relative effectiveness of structured-input instruction with output-based instruction on students' ability to comprehend and produce direct object pronouns in

second language French. There were three instructional groups: structured input instruction, output-based instruction and control group. On measurement procedure, students were assessed on listening comprehension, reading comprehension, written production, and oral production tasks. As a result of the study, it was revealed that structured-input and output-based instruction led to greater gains on tests of comprehension and production than those evidenced by the control group. However, the structured-input instruction did not enable L2 learners to comprehend the target structure more effectively than meaning-oriented, output-based instruction. Also, the output group performed better than the structured-input group on all measures of production.

Takimoto's (2007) study investigated the relative effectiveness of three types of input-based approaches for teaching English polite request forms to sixty Japanese learners of English. The three approaches were a. structured input tasks with explicit information; b. problem solving tasks; c. structured input tasks without explicit information. The results revealed that 3 groups performed significantly better than the control group. But, the group that received structured input tasks with explicit info did not maintain the positive effects of the treatment between the posttest and follow up test on the listening test component.

To determine whether explicit instruction does have a beneficial effect for learners, Fernandez's (2008) study compares various processing groups with and without explicit instruction and examines how learners perform during tasks designed to promote acquisition. Two experiments examined learners' behavior while they processed Spanish sentences with object-verb-subject word order and Spanish subjunctive under two treatments: with explicit information (the PI group) and without explicit information (the structured input [SI] group). The results showed no difference between the SI group and the PI group when processing OVS sentences, but the PI group processed subjunctive forms sooner and faster than the SI group. The results suggest that the benefits of explicit information might depend on the nature of the task and the processing problem.

Moreover, some other researchers investigated the relative effects of output-based instruction compared to processing instruction. Salaberry (1997) investigated the

relative effects of input processing and output processing on the use of Spanish clitic pronouns. The subjects were assigned three instructional groups: input practice, output practice and no practice. Results of the study indicated that both input and output group significantly improved their scores compared to the control group on the comprehension test. The results of the production and narration task were not affected by the experimental instruction.

Another research was conducted by Nagata (1998) to compare input versus output practice. This was an experiment investigating the relative effectiveness of computer assisted comprehension practice and production practice in the acquisition of Japanese honorifics. Two computer programs were developed in HyperCard. Input-focused program provided students with explicit grammatical instruction and comprehension exercises; whereas output-based program provided students with the same grammatical instruction with production exercises. The results of the study demonstrate that the output-focused group performed significantly better than the input-focused group for the production of Japanese honorifics and equally well for the comprehension of these structures.

Apart from those studies, Farley (2001a, b) researches the differential effects of processing instruction (PI) and meaning- based output instruction (MOI) of the acquisition of the present tense Spanish subjunctive of doubt. The results showed that PI has an overall greater effect than MOI on how learners interpret and produce the Spanish subjunctive of doubt.

In another study, Morgan-Short and Bowden (2006) investigated the effects meaningful output-based instruction (MOBI) compared to PI. The target form used in this study was Spanish preverbal direct object pronouns, following several previous PI studies (Cadierno, 1995; VanPattenn & Cadierno, 1993a, 1993b; VanPatten & Sanz, 1995). The results of this study indicate that for both experimental groups, immediate and delayed test scores were significantly higher than pretest scores for interpretation and production, which suggests that PI and MOBI both lead to improved performance for interpretation and production of Spanish direct object pronouns. For the delayed test-

for both interpretation and production- no differences were found between any groups. Overall, the results reveal that MOBI and PI performed similarly on interpretation measures, and only MOBI outperformed control on production.

The following Table 2.2. (Yazıcı, 2007) summarizes some of the studies carried on PI:

Study	N	Participants	Target Structure	Experimental Groups	Assessment Tasks	Results
VanPatten and Cadierno (1993a)	80	2nd year university Spanish	Spanish DO pronouns	PI	Interpretation	PI > TI and C
				TI	Production	
				C [-exposure]	Sentence-level completion	PI and TI > C
VanPatten and Cadierno (1993b)	49	2nd year university Spanish	Spanish Do pronouns	PI	Interpretation	PI > TI and C
				TI	Production	
				C [-exposure]	Sentence-level completion	TI > C
Cadierno (1995)	61	3rd semester university Spanish	Spanish past tense	PI	Interpretation	PI > TI and C
				TI	Production	
				C [-exposure]	Sentence-level completion	PI and TI > C
VanPatten and Sanz (1995)	44	3rd semester university Spanish	Spanish past tense	PI	Interpretation	PI > C
				C [-exposure]	Production	
					Written and oral sentence-level completion	PI > C
					Video narration	P=C
					Structured oral interview	PI > C
Benati (2001)	39	2nd semester university Italian	Italian future	PI	Interpretation	PI > output > C
				Output	Production	
				C [+exposure]	Written verb conjugation	PI and output >C
					Oral sentence-level production	PI and output >C

Farley (2001a)	29	4th semester university Spanish	Spanish subjunctive	PI MOI	Interpretation Production Sentence-level completion	PI > MOI PI = MOI
Farley (2001b)	50	4th semester university Spanish	Spanish subjunctive	PI MOI	Interpretation Production Sentence-level completion	PI = MOI PI = MOI
Cheng (2002)	109	4th semester university Spanish	Spanish copulas *ser* and *estar*	TI PI C [-exposure]	*Ser* and *estar* combined Interpretation Production Sentence-level completion Composition *Estar* only Interpretation	 Post 1: PI > C Post 2: TI > C Post 1: PI > C Post 2: PI and TI > C Post 1: PI and TI > C Post 2: PI and TI > C Post 1: PI > C Post 2: PI=TI=C

					Production	
					Sentence completion	Post 1: PI and TI > C Post 2: PI > C
					Composition	Post 1: PI and TI > C Post 2: PI=TI=C
Erlam (2003)	70	2nd year secondary school French	French DO pronouns	IP OP C (-exposure)	Comprehension	
					Reading	OP>C
					Listening	OP>IP and C
					Production	
					Written	IP and OP >C OP>IP
					Oral	OP>C
Benati (2005)	77	Secondary school English	English simple past tense	PI MOI TI	Interpretation	PI > MOI and TI
					Production	
					Sentence-level completion	PI= MOI = TI
Morgan-Short and Bowden (2006)	51	First semester Spanish course	Spanish preverbal direct object pronouns	PI MOBI C	Interpretation	PI=MOBI
					Production	PI=MOBI

2.7. The Role of Output in Acquisition

The view that output practice is an important part of language acquisition and is essential for the explicitly learned knowledge to become automatic has a central part of "traditional" foreign language teaching methodology (eg. Chastain, 1971; Paulstan & Bruder, 1976; Rivers & Temperly, 1978; cited in DeKeyser & Sokalski, 1996). In more recent years, the role of output practice has been discussed a lot. Some researchers argue that output practice may be useful because "learners need to develop their abilities in accessing the developing system for fluent and accurate production (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993a, p. 239) but production has no role in developing that system itself. Some others take an intermediate point of view. R. Ellis, for example, agrees with VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993a, 1993b, in the sense that form-focused output practice may be useful for the formulaic knowledge, for pronunciation and for the development of the "fully proceduralized" knowledge (R.Ellis, 1993, p. 109). However R. Ellis (1994) also agrees with Swain & Lapkin (1995) in the sense that a learner's communicative output contributes to the acquisition of implicit knowledge by pushing the learner to conform the target language norms and by providing "auto-input". Still others support the view that production practice plays an important role in the acquisition process by focusing on the noticing function of production in acquisition.

Some studies were carried out to reveal the effects of output practice; but they presented some contrastive results. Izumi, S. & Bigelow, M. & Fujiwara, M. & Fearnow,S. (1999) carried out a study to investigate this question by providing learners with opportunities for output, which are then followed by opportunities to receive relevant input, to see whether they would notice and learn the targeted feature in the input: Does learners' recognition of linguistic problems prompt them to notice relevant features if input is subsequently provided to them? As a result, tasks have resulted in noticing, so this study has provided partial support for the output hypothesis.

In another study, Izumi, Y. & Izumi, S. (2004) investigated whether giving learners an opportunity for oral output has any positive effect on the L2 learners' acquisition of a grammatical form. There were 3 groups. Output group engaged in a picture description task which involved input comprehension and output production; a non-output group

which engaged in a picture sequencing task that required input comprehension only and a control group. Results showed that non-output group showed greater overall gains and output task failed to engage learners in the syntactic processing that is necessary to trigger L2 learning whereas the task for non-output group promoted better form-meaning mapping.

Lastly, Song, M. & Suh, B. (2008) put forward contrastive results to Izumi,Y. & Izumi,S. (2004)'s study. They investigated the role of output and the relative efficacy of two different types of output tasks (reconstruction task and picture-cued writing task) in noticing and learning of the English past counterfactual conditional. In terms of the noticing function of output, results indicated that more noticing occurred overall for learners who had the opportunity to produce output compared to those who did not, although none of the tasks led to greater noticing of the target form in the second input than in the first input. In terms of acquisition, results showed that the participants who received output opportunities during the treatments performed significantly better than those in the non-output condition on the production post-test, but no difference was found in the relative efficacy of the two output tasks.

According to the Output Hypothesis, under some circumstances output stimulates language acquisition by forcing learners to process language syntactically. The learner can often comprehend a message without much syntactic analysis of the input but production forces the learner to pay attention to the forms with which intended meaning is expressed. In this process, learners recognize problems in their interlanguage and output promotes learners to do something about those problems. Learners tend to seek out relevant input with more focused attention, search for alternative ways of expressing the given intention and stretch their interlanguage capacity, formulate and test a hypothesis and modify it after receiving feedback. It is important to point out that Output Hypothesis does not negate the importance of input or input comprehension. The intention is to complement and reinforce, rather than replace, input-based approaches to language acquisition so that learners will go beyond what is minimally required for overall comprehension of a message (Izumi & Bigelow,2000). Merrill Swain (Ellis, 1997) has suggested a number of specific ways in which learners can learn from their

own output. Output can serve a consciousness-raising function by helping learners to notice gaps in their interlanguages. Second, output helps learners to test hypotheses. They can try out a rule and see whether it leads to successful communication or not. Third, learners sometimes talk about their own output by identifying problems with it or discussing ways in which they can be put right.

Swain (1995) argues that "in producing the target language (vocally or subvocally) learners may notice a gap between what they want to say and what they can say, leading them to recognize that they don't know, or know only partially. In other words, under some circumstances, the activity of producing the target language may prompt second language learners to consciously recognize some of their linguistic problems: it may bring to attention something they need to discover about L2 (p. 125-126). This function of output relates directly to Schmidt's (1994) noticing hypothesis. According to this hypothesis, output facilitates noticing of problems in interlanguage and the relevant features in the input. This noticing may help acquisition. Moreover, if output promotes attention to form this intention most probably promotes attention to meaning as well, as the learner initiates production with the intention of conveying a message (which contrasts to e.g. production with no intention of meaning during mechanical drills). When the learner comes across a problem while trying to convey a message, they notice these problems; in this way they notice the gap between their interlanguage and target language model. In conclusion, it wouldn't be inappropriate to say that this function of output is consistent with pedagogical proposals, such as focus on form, that emphasize the integration of focus on form and focus on meaning (Izumi & Bigelow, 2000).

In VanPatten (2002) it is stated that in processing instruction, the role of output in language development is ignored. VanPatten's framework can help us understand how language is internalized and how instruction can intervene during internalization, but it does not explain how that competence is accessed to make output. The research on processing instruction is limited in that perhaps other output-based approaches to form that are not traditional (i.e., that exclude mechanical work and non-meaningful practice) might be as effective as processing instruction or at least better than traditional instruction. To illustrate, Farley (2001; cited in VanPatten, 2002) made a study

comparing processing instruction with a meaning-based output instruction. He found out that both types of treatments led to significant improvement with no difference between two. This result may be because of the output and meaningful nature of instruction or the students' interaction to create meaningful output, which creates input for each other in a much focused way.

To develop fluency and to increase accuracy, learners should have an opportunity to use the language to express messages. In this context, the use of drills is not what is intended, but rather the output equivalence of processing instruction. This might be referred to as "structured output" where the focus is on conveying meaning (VanPatten, 1993).The same guideline for the structured input activities can be used for the structured output activities, with changes necessary for a focus on output (VanPatten, 1993):

1. Teach only one thing at a time. Break up the rules into smaller bits and pieces.

2. Keep meaning in focus. Utterances created by the learner should contain propositional messages that they want to convey.

3. Someone must "respond" to the learner's output. The content of the learner's utterance must be the focus of some reaction from the instructor or from other students.

4. Use output. Students should both speak and write.

To sum up, both input and output oriented approaches to language instruction promote noticing. What differentiates between these two is that in input oriented approaches, attention is induced by external means while in output oriented approaches to focus on form, attention is raised internally through production process as the learner notices the gap in his interlanguage though the comparison between the interlanguage and target language forms (Doughty, 2001; Nelson, 1987; Saxton,1997a, 1997b, cited in Izumi, 2002).

2.8. Research on Processing Instruction versus Output-Based Grammar Instruction

In this part, some studies which involve experimental comparisons of input based and output based instruction have been presented. These studies show that the learners who

receive input based instruction outperform the learners who receive traditional output based instruction.

In VanPatten and Cadierno's (1993) study, their instruction involved two focuses on form options-explicit explanation with processing practice. The question here is whether the advantage found for the processing groups in these studies were due to the explicit explanation, the processing practice or a combination of the two. The fist group received a grammatical explanation together with processing practice, the second group received just explicit instruction and the third group received just the processing practice. They concluded that significant improvement on the interpretation test is due to the presence of structured input activities and not to explicit information. However, it should be noted that explicit instruction did lead to better performance on both tests and also that the tests used in the study didn't include a measure of communicative performance**.**

To investigate whether the advantage found for the processing groups in these studies was due to the explicit explanation, the processing practice or a combination of two Van Patten& Oikkennon, (1996) replicated VanPatten and Cadierno's (1993) study. There were three experimental groups: the first group received a grammar explanation with processing instruction, the second group received just explicit instruction and the third group received just processing practice. As a result, they concluded that significant improvement on interpretation test is because of the structured input activities and not of explicit explanation and that on the production test the effects of explicit information are negligible.

Cadierno (1995) replicated VanPatten and Cadierno (1993) using the Spanish past-tense as the target structure. He compared processing instruction group, traditional group and a control group. He measured the results via an interpretation test, and a production test. The results showed that the on the interpretation test, the processing instruction group improved significantly but the other two groups did not. In the production test, the processing instruction and traditional groups both improved significantly but they were not different from each other. The control group did not improve.

Tanaka (1996) compared the effects of input processing and production practice in short term and long term memory. He investigated the acquisition of English relative clauses by Japanese high school students. In this study, both groups again received explicit instruction followed by processing or production practice. On both the immediate and the late comprehension test, the processing group outperformed the production group. On the production test, both groups showed significant gains with the production group obtaining significantly higher scores than the processing group on the immediate post-test but not on the delayed post test. This suggests that processing practice with explicit instruction resulted in durable learning that was available for use in both comprehension and production tasks. In contrast, production process (with explicit information) resulted in learning that was available for use only in production and that weakened markedly over time.

De Keyser & Sokalski (1996) conducted a study with first year university students for the acquisition of Spanish object clitic pronouns and conditional forms. They found that input practice worked better than production practice for improving production skills. Both types of instruction resulted in gains in accuracy but production practice led to more frequent use of the target structure on a free production task.

Salaberry (1997) conducted a study with thirty three third-semester university students studying Spanish to compare input processing and output processing. The results show that both input and production groups improved on the comprehension test with the production practice group performing as well as the structured input group. No difference was found in the production test.

Collentine, J. (1998) compared processing instruction and output-oriented instruction. The target structure was Spanish subjunctive in adjective clauses including indefinite antecedents. He had students in PI group match subjunctive and indicate sentences to correct situations or pictures as well as having them respond to sentences containing either subjunctive or indicative verb phrases. The students in the output group completed fill-in the blanks exercises in which learners had to construct sentences to describe something and select the subjunctive or indicative as they formulated their

sentences. Both experimental groups improved significantly within themselves after treatment but there was no difference between the 2 experimental groups. Thus, PI was not superior to the output-oriented instruction.

In a study, Farley (2001a) compared the effects of processing instruction with "meaning-based output" (MOI) instruction. The target structure was Spanish subjunctive. The processing instruction group only interpreted sentences via structured input activities. In the MOI group, subjects created subordinate clauses using subjunctive or indicative forms based on the main clause they heard or read. His results showed that processing instruction and MOI groups improved significantly on both the interpretation and the production tests, with no difference between them.

Farley (2001b) used the same design, procedure and target structure as the (2001a) study. The results of the second study, however, were a bit different. Although both groups improved on the interpretation task in the second study, only the processing instruction group maintained its performance on a delayed task.

Karacaer (2003) conducted a study comparing processing instruction and the traditional instruction in learning of English causatives by Turkish learners. There were three groups in the study: processing instruction group, traditional instruction group and a control group with no instruction. The analysis of interpretation and production data indicated that both treatments resulted in an improvement on the learners. The effects of processing instruction and traditional instruction were retained over time in the interpretation task but not in the production task. However, the drop in the traditional instruction group's scores was greater than the drop in the processing instruction group's scores.

On the other hand, there are also some studies, the results of which have showed greater gains of meaningful output-based instruction. Nagata (1998) presented an experiment investigating the relative effectiveness of computer assisted comprehension practice and production practice in the acquisition of Japanese honorifics. Input-focused program provided students with explicit grammatical instruction and comprehension exercises; whereas output-based program provided students with the same grammatical instruction with production exercises. The results indicate that the output-focused group performed

significantly better than the input-focused group for the production of Japanese honorifics and equally well for the comprehension of these structures.

Erlam (2003) has compared the relative effectiveness of structured-input instruction with output-based instruction on students' ability to comprehend and produce direct object pronouns in second language French. As a result of the study, it was revealed that structured-input and output-based instruction led to greater gains on tests of comprehension and production than those evidenced by the control group. However, the structured-input instruction did not enable L2 learners to comprehend the target structure more effectively than meaning-oriented, output-based instruction. Also, the output group performed better than the structured-input group on all measures of production.

Morgan-Short & Bowden (2006) investigated the effects of meaningful input-based and output-based practice on second language acquisition. The results of the study revealed that for interpretation both experimental groups outperformed the control group. For production, only the MOBI group outperformed the control group; so not only input-based but also output-based instruction can lead to linguistic development.

CHAPTER 3

PASSIVIZATION IN TURKISH AND ENGLISH

3.1. Passivization in English

The passive verbal phrase consists of some forms of the verb "to be" followed by a past participle. The verbal category of voice affects both the verbal phrase and the relationship between the subject and its verb and the verb and its object. Verbs mostly take the passive form when the agent of the action and the object of the same action are not or cannot be separated from each other (Klammer & Schulz & Volpe, 2004). The passive voice is a grammatical device for bringing the object of a transitive verb into prominence by making it the subject of the sentence and getting rid of the necessity of naming the subject of a transitive verb. In a passive sentence, the action, what happened is emphasized rather than who or what performs the action. The subject is placed after the verb or is omitted from the sentence. Therefore, passive sentence often sounds impersonal and objective.

Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman (1999) describes passive voice as a focus construction that exists to put the patient, i.e. the undergoer of an action, in subject position. The subject is acted upon and is thus "passive". Active and passive sentences often have similar meanings but different focuses.

Briefly,passive voice is generally used

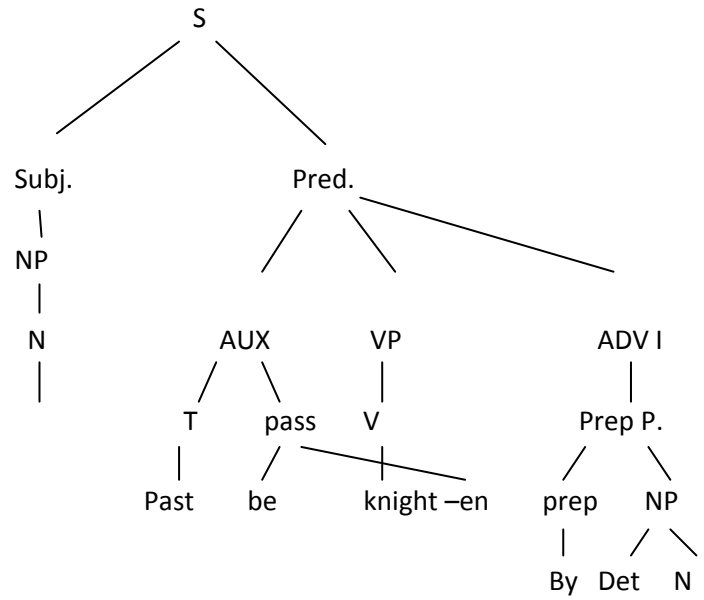
1. When the doer of the action is unknown or not important.
2. When the action itself is more important than who does it.
3. When the doer of the action is clear from the context.

In passive voice, the agent is not mentioned at all; however, if the agent is mentioned, it appears in a prepositional phrase marked with the preposition "by".

Here is how a tree looks with the agent expressed.

Paul McCartney was knighted by the Queen.

(Celce-Murcia& Larsen Freeman,1999)



Passive voice interacts with the elements in the auxiliary such as modals, simple present, present perfect, present progressive, simple past etc.

Literature in the field of language teaching shows that passive voice is used more frequently in written than in spoken English. It is usually found in textbooks, scientific, business, technical reports and in newspapers. However, in the spoken language it is used quite frequently in TV and radio news. For instance, Bryant (1960) studied the frequency of the passive construction by basing on the data on Harvard Business Review and New York Times and found out that the passive occurs more often in expository prose than in narrative writing.

Also, some researchers studied the comprehension and production processes of the passive construction. To illustrate, Fraser,C& Bellugi,U. & Brown, R. (1963, cited in Baldie, 1976) conducted a study aiming to report the procedures followed and the data obtained from children's ability to comprehend, imitate and produce passive constructions. They found out that in their sample group of 12 three-year-old children, imitation precedes comprehension which in turn precedes production for passive constructions. Likewise, Baldie (1976) carried out a similar study with 100 children aged 3 to 8 and found out that imitation of the passive form is acquired by the mean age

of 4; 9 years. Comprehension follows with nearly perfect performance being achieved in the age range of 6 – 7. Production is the last one to be acquired. All these processes occur for children from 3 to 8 years old.

In addition, Fox and Grodzinsky (1998) conducted a study with 3.6 to 5.5. year-old-children's acquisition of passive construction and showed that children both comprehend and produce nontruncated get-passives, actional nontruncated be-passives and nonactional truncated be-passives. Also they claimed that children's difficulty with passive constructions might sometimes be related to properties of by-phrase. However, Crain (1991, cited in Fox & Grodzinsky, 1998) stated that 3 and 4 years old children produce passive sentences with by phrase as a consequence of his study. On the area, Maratsos, Fox, Becker and Chalkley (1985, cited in Fox & Grodzinsky, 1998) conducted another study with 4-year-old children and found out that those children are able to understand passive sentences that contain actional verbs.

Dobrowska and Street (2005) tested sentence comprehension and speaker's ability to interpret passive sentences. Participants were asked to identify the agent in four types of sentences: plausible active, implausible active, plausible passive and implausible passive. They found that both of the highly educated groups and the less- educated non-native group outperformed in all conditions. The less educated native group was the best on the plausible sentences, but had difficulty with implausible actives and passives. These result suggested considerable differences in level of attainment among native speakers and the researchers suggested that processing implausible non-canonical sentences depends to some extent on metalinguistic skills, which may be enhanced by explicit L2 instruction.

3.1.1. The Use of Passivization in English

English use passive in the ways as follows:

1. The passive form of the present simple tense is

Am / is / are + past participle form of the verb

e.g.: Many accidents are caused by dangerous driving.

2. When the verb in the active voice takes two objects, it is more common in English to make the personal object the subject of the passive voice. Some of these verbs are send, show lend, pay, give, tell and etc.

Someone gave me a book.

a. I was given a book.

b. A book was given to me (Allen, 1974, p.117)

The form "A book was given to me" would be used when we need to stress this new subject. (Allen, 1974, p. 117)

3. When a verb + preposition + object combination is in passive, the preposition will remain immediately after the verb.

e.g.: These cubs were played with quite safely (Soytekin, 1984, p.357)

The old newspapers were thrown away.

4. After some verbs, the direct object is written in object complement to explain the object with a noun or an adjective.

e.g.: They elected her principal.

The professor considered him a genius.

These sentences can become passive,

She was elected principal.

He was considered a genius. (by the professor)

e.g.: The other students called him stupid.

He was called stupid (Swan, 1980,p. 461)

5. The verbs that indicate the finished result of an action are called perfect verbs. For instance; cut, close, build are perfective verbs. Past participles and perfective verbs and their passive forms have two meanings. They show the action and the result.

e.g. The theatre was closed.

Its first meaning is,

The theatre was closed by the police on the orders of the mayor (Swan, 1980,p.465). In this sentence, "closed" shows action.

Its second meaning is,

When I got to the theatre, I found that it was closed. In this sentence, it shows a state, not an action.

6. Sometimes, get can be used instead of be in the passive.

e.g.: Hansel and Gretel got lost in the woods (Kolln, & Funk, 2006)

Did John get offered the job? = Was John offered the job?

Also, get can be used in the passive to say that something happens to someone or something. Often the action is not planned, but happens by chance.

e.g.: The dog got run over by a car.

Get is commonly used in spoken English whereas be can be used in all situations (Murphy, 1985; Berk, 1999).

7. "Be born" is a passive verb and is usually past.

e.g.: Where were you born? (Past simple)

How many babies are born in the hospital every day? (Present simple)(Murphy, 1985).

3.1.2. Making Passive Sentences Negative

To make a verb in the passive voice negative, "not" is placed after the first auxiliary (Pollock, 1982, p.172, cited in Şahinel, 1988).

Passive ⟶ Negative passive

Is used ⟶ Is not used

3.1.3. Expressing the Agent Using "By"

The by- prepositional phrase itself functions as an adverb of agency. Agency in this sense refers to "performing the action", what the subject of a transitive verb normally does (Morenberg, 2002).

The agent is expressed in passive voice in the following instances:

1. It is more interesting or important to emphasize what happened rather than who or what performed the action.

e.g.: There was a terrible storm last night. Hundreds of houses were destroyed. (Here "by" is unnecessary.)

2. The doer of the action is unknown. The subjects of such sentences in the active voice are words like "they", "people", "somebody" etc.

e.g.: Someone stole my car last night.

- My car was stolen last night. (Here, "by" cannot be used because the doer is unknown.)

3. The doer of the action is known, but the speaker/ writer does not want to name the person who did something wrong or made a statement.

e.g.: The teacher ruined the top of this desk accidentally (Şahinel, 1988).

The top of this desk was ruined accidentally. (Here, "by" is unnecessary)

Sometimes the doer of the action is necessary to complete the meaning of the sentence.

e.g.: The police officer is seen as an enemy by some; looked to for aid and protection by others, and taken for granted by most (Şahinel, 1988).

4. The doer of the action is obvious.

e.g.: The letter will be picked up after 2.00. (Here "by" is unnecessary.)

5. When the subject of the sentence is a material then preposition with is used before the material. The material is helpful to the agent to do the action.

e.g.: The lock was covered with paint (Pollock, 1982, p.166, cited in Şahinel, 1988).

3.2. Passivization in Turkish

In Turkish most of the verbs are used in active voice, the passive verbs are derived from active verbs with construction markers. A passive suffix is inserted between the verb and tense marker. Passive is optional, so we do not make them but we need them. Turkish uses suffixation to form lexical classes and to express grammatical relationships. A verb is said to be passive when the subject does not act but is acted upon (Kornfilt, 1997; Lewis, 2000; Korkmaz, 2003).

3.2.1. The Use of Passivization in Turkish

Turkish uses passives in the ways as follows:

1. The passive suffix is normally / -Vl/. There are two allomorphs of passive morpheme /Vl/ : /Vl/ and /Vn/. It makes the verbs passive by adding to verb stems, simple roots and derived stems. /Vl/ is productive and widely used. It changes according to the vowel harmony to /-il/, /-ıl/, /-ul/, /-ül/ (Kornfilt, 1997; Korkmaz, 2003).

satmak (to sell) satılmak (be sold)

sevmek (to love) sevilmek (be loved)

açmak (to open) açılmak (be opened)

sormak (to ask) sorulmak (be asked)

süpürmek (to sweep) süpürülmek (be swept)

2. After a verb stem ending in a vowel or the consonant /-l/, it is /-Vn/. /-Vn/ is limited.

beklemek (to wait) beklenmek (be waited)

bilmek (to know) bilinmek (be known)

okumak (to read) okunmak (be read)

korumak (to protect) korunmak (be protected)

3.2.2. The Impersonal Passive

The most remarkable feature of the Turkish passive is its impersonal use. In impersonal passive sentences the object is not talked but the action is directly talked about. Whoever does it is not important, the doer is indefinite. When these are used with transitive verbs, the object of the active sentence is the subject of the passive. They never have subjects.

Park yapılmaz - No parking - One does not park

Bisikletle gidilmez - No cycling

Durulmaz - Do not stop - One does not stop

Since the impersonal passive construction does not involve the promotion of a patient, it can often be applied to verbs which lack patients, e.g.: intransitive verbs (Lewis, 2000; Kroeger, 2004).

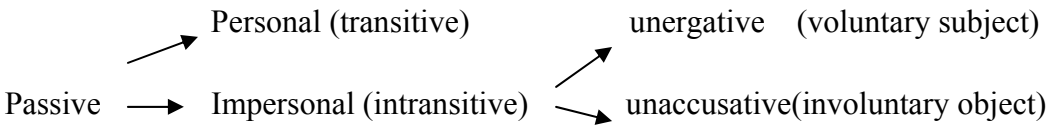
In Turkish intransitive verbs may be made passive as there was no object to the active form, there can be no subject to the passive form, so such verbs are used impersonally. When they are out of a specific context, they are difficult to translate into English. They are marked morphologically and syntactically transitive but remain semantically intransitive.

e.g.: Kaç yaşında asker olunur? (At what age does one become a soldier?) (Lewis,2000,p.152)

Niçin yalan söylenir? (Why do people tell lies?) (Lewis, 2000, p.153)

This construction is used only with the present or definite past and is the best way of providing the English indefinite “one”.

Moreover, Balcı (Yavuz, Balcı, Turan, 2003) explains impersonal passives as two types via the following sketch:



Unergative and unaccusative verbs can be distinguished by easily observed semantic facts. Intransitive verbs which denote volitional acts are categorized as unergatives, and those that denote involuntary acts as unaccusatives (Biktimir, 1986, p.56). For instance; takıl - , boğul-, düş- are unaccusatives while çalış- , koş-, oyna- are unergatives. Since they are intransitive, both groups of verbs have only one argument: surface subject. But in unaccusatives this surface subject is in fact serves as the underlying object of the verb. In Ayşe düştü (Ayşe fell down), Ayşe is the surface subject, but semantically it refers to the person who is affected by the action denoted by the verb.

3.2.3. Transitive and Intransitive Pairs

1. Sometimes the passive suffix serves only to derive intransitive verbs from transitive ones. For instance; yormak "tire", yorulmak "be tired".

Bu iş beni yordu. (This job tired me)

Bu işten yoruldum. (I got tired of this job) (Şahinel, 1988, p.22)

2. Sometimes the derived intransitive verbs do not have exactly the same meaning as the active verb from which they came.

e.g.: bozulmak (be spoiled) - (become angry – "at" :dative)

sarılmak (be wrapped) - (embrace – with dative)

3. There is a class of verbs which are intransitive in Turkish but their normal English translations are transitive. These are the verbs that are sometimes said to "take the dative" or "the ablative". To illustrate; in English "begin" is transitive: "we began the lesson"; but Turkish "başlamak" is intransitive in "Derse başladık". The noun "ders" is not the object but is in an adverbial relation like any other dative. Therefore, "ders" may not be the subject of the passive verb "başlanmak". Instead, "Derse başladı" (he began the lesson) is exactly parallel to "Sola saptı" (he turned to the left). Here the only possible passive is an impersonal passive construction: "Derse başlandı", which may be

translated “the lesson was begun” in English (Underhill, 1980,p.335; cited in Şahinel, 1988).

In order to obey one thing at a time, only transitive verbs were used in the present study.

3.2.4. Expressing the Agent in Turkish Passive

1. The doer of the passive sentence is the noun and it is the passive subject of the active sentence. To show the agent of a passive verb, we may use the postposition “tarafından”.

e.g.: Fincan, hizmetçi tarafından kırıldı.

The cup was broken by the servant (Lewis, 1959,p.94)

e.g.: Ders öğretmen tarafından anlatıldı.

The subject was taught by the teacher.

These uses are not very frequent because they are simpler to say “Hizmetçi fincanı kırdı” (The servant broke the cup) or “Dersi öğretmen anlattı” (The teacher taught the subject).

2. Other common way of expressing the agent of a passive sentence is done by using the adverbs formed from some nouns by the adverbial suffix “-Ce”. This suffix is added to the main subject.

e.g.: Bu işe hükümetçe karar verildi.

To this work governmentally decision was given (Lewis, 1959, p.94)

3. If the action is done by an instrument, it is expressed by “vasıtasıyla” or “ile” (Şahinel, 1988).

e.g.: Su bardakla içilir.

Çorba kaşıkla karıştırılır.

The words bardak and kaşık are not the agents, they are the instruments.

3.3. Comparison of Passivization in English and Turkish

Both English and Turkish use passive voice. Because of being different languages, they have some similarities and differences in form, meaning and use.

3.3.1. Similarities in Passive between English and Turkish

1. Not every verb can be changed into the passive voice. Only the verbs which have an object can be changed. For instance; the following sentences cannot be written in passive voice as they do not contain objects.

e.g.: She seems tired.

Hasta görünüyor.

2. The doer in a passive sentence is often not mentioned; therefore, a passive sentence often sounds impersonal and objective (Korkmaz, 2003).

e.g.: One does not park.

Park yapılmaz

3. The passive voice is used more frequently in written than in spoken English, in newspapers.

4. A sentence in the active voice is usually preferable to a sentence in the passive voice because an active voice is shorter and more direct.

5. It is more interesting or important to emphasize what happened rather than who or what performed the action (Korkmaz, 2003).

e.g.: The bridge was repaired.

Köprü onarıldı.

6. Some sentences include both a direct and an indirect object. Either the indirect or direct object can become the subject of the passive sentence (Şahinel, 1988)

e.g.: Someone gave him a thousand dollars.

He was given a thousand dollars.

A thousand dollars were given him.

7. Both English and Turkish have some verbs which are always used in passive.

e.g.: be born / be shocked / be surprised

bayılmak / geri çekilmek / nefesi kesilmek

3.3.2. Differences in Passive between English and Turkish

1. In English passive is made by some form of the verb to be followed by a past participle. Turkish forms passive by the help of some suffixes /vl/ and a double passive form the first suffix is /vn/ the second is /vl/ by adding to verb stems, simple roots and derived roots (Kornfilt, 1997; Lewis, 2000; Korkmaz, 2003).

2. Turkish use "tarafından" and "-ce" to express the agent, "vasıtasıyla" or "ile" to express the instrument, but English use "by" to express the agent and "with" to express the instrument (Şahinel, 1988).

In conclusion, as explained in this chapter, there are some differences between Turkish and English passive voice. Although passive voice is found in grammar books frequently, its comprehension by Turkish learners is problematic. In addition, it may be due to the fact that the use of passive forms in Turkish grammar is easier than that of English for Turkish native speakers. Because the subjects did not learn the passive voice before, the target structure in the present study was chosen as aorist passive voice. Also to obey one thing at a time, only transitive verbs are used. The separation between regular and irregular verbs was not taken into consideration because at the time of the instructional treatments, they must have learnt the regular and irregular verbs according to the formal educational curriculum and their course books.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

The present study aims to investigate the possible relative effects of processing instruction and meaningful output-based instruction on the learning of aorist passive voice by Turkish EFL students.

As mentioned previously, the study seeks answers to the question whether there is some statistical difference between processing instruction and meaningful output-based instruction groups in terms of the following:

a. The recognition of passive voice in aorist

b. The written production of the passive voice in aorist

c. The long term retention of the possible effects of the instruction on the recognition task; and

d. The long term retention of the possible effects of the instruction on the written production task.

This chapter is structured in the following manner. The first section gives details regarding the research design under two subheadings. The first part provides background information about the learners who participated in the study and the second part described the instruments used in the instruction and assessment phases of the experiment. The second section of this chapter details the data collection and scoring procedure used during the experiment. The fourth section describes the analysis of data.

4.2. The Present Study

4.2.1. Subjects

The subjects in this study were 7th and 8th grades primary school students at Atatürk Primary School in Çifteler town in Eskişehir, Turkey in the spring term of the 2009 – 2010 academic year. The age range was from 13 to 14.

Their language level was determined according to their average academic scores by looking at the formal database of e-school system of the Ministry of Education, which is a system including the whole academic scores, personal and social information of all primary and secondary school students. According to the evaluation scale of the system, 50 students who had the average scores between 69- 100 out of 100 from English courses were selected within 105 students. After that, they were randomly placed into instructional groups. 25 students were placed into the processing instruction group while 25 students were placed into the meaningful output-based group.

The participants had four hours of English course per week as a part of the Ministry's Primary School curriculum. The curriculum followed put forward a few choices for teachers for an eclectic lesson plan, but was generally based on Presentation – Practice – Production model of traditional instruction, including mechanical, meaningful and guided communicative practice.

4.2.2. Instruments

For this study, two course packets and two versions of assessment tasks were developed. A description of the instruction and assessment materials is provided in this section.

4.2.2.1. Instructional Packets

Separate instructional packets for the processing instruction and meaningful output-based instruction groups were developed and balanced in terms of vocabulary, number of activities and practice time.

Two sets of materials were used for separate instructional groups. The research was divided into two parts: the first being devoted entirely to processing instruction and the second to the meaningful output-based instruction group.

First of all, processing instruction and meaningful output-based instruction groups were provided with the same explicit instruction in equal amount before the practice stages for the target structure as VanPatten & Cadierno (1993) suggested in their previous studies (Appendix A).

After that, processing instruction group received input processing activities whereas meaningful output-based instruction group received output-based activities. The following Table 4.1. briefly summarizes the content of the instructional packets.

The activities and active and passive sentences used in the instructional packets were chosen as appropriate for their proficiency level because they were taken from 7th and 8th grade English course books, apart from the one which is used in the class, Akdikmen, R. (2001), Kemal,A.(2003),Erin,Y.(2004),Yalçınkaya,L.(2005),Tarlakazan,İ.;İçingür,T.;Minarecioğlu,M.(2006),Yalçınkaya,L.; Boztepe,N. ; Akın, N.; Atabay,S.(2007a),Yalçınkaya,L. et al. (2007b), Nelson, P.W.; Yanaşık, O. Z. (2009a), Nelson,P.W. et al. (2009b) which were accepted by the Ministry of Education and published in accordance with the curriculum. Moreover, to obey one thing at a time, only transitive verbs were included in the packets.

Table 4.1. Summary of the instructional packets

PI	MOBI
Explicit inst / statement of target structures	explicit inst / statement of target structures
Input processing activities (structured input activities)	Output –oriented activities (output-based activities)

4.2.2.1.1. Processing Instruction Packet

Processing instruction materials were based on VanPatten's model of input processing and the guidelines for structured input activities suggested by VanPatten (1996). The input in these activities was structured in an attempt to force the learners to attend to the targeted forms for meaning; therefore, none of them entailed students to produce the target language but they were expected to interpret the sentences correctly with the help of the form.

In the processing instruction packet, the activities were composed of structured input activities that consisted of both referential and affective activities. Referential activities are those meaning- based activities with right or wrong answers and allow for only one answer; for example students hear a sentence and match it to one of the pictures. In contrast, affective activities are those in which students react to a statement or sentence by indicating whether or not it is true for them. They have more than one answer as the activity items ask for learners' opinion.

In this study, PI group learners took four structured input activities for the target structure. (Appendix B)

4.2.2.1.2. Meaningful Output-Based Instruction Packet

Meaningful output based instruction group's materials were designed according to Benati's (2005) and VanPatten's (1993) guidelines for output- based activities. Those guidelines for the structured input activities were used for structured output activities with changes necessary for a focus on output (VanPatten, 1993):

1. Teach one thing at a time.
2. Keep meaning in focus. Utterances created by the learner should contain propositional messages that they want to convey.
3. Someone must react to the learner's output.
4. Use output.

Moreover; these activities entail learners to access a particular form to express meaning and they enable exchange of information. No mechanical activities are used during the practice stage. In addition, these kinds of activities require learners to produce target language.

In this study specifically, MOBI group learners took four output-based activities for the target structure. (Appendix C)

4.2.2.2. Assessment Tasks

In order to assess the effects of instruction, two versions of the assessment task as the posttest / delayed posttest were developed by the researcher. Each test consisted of two parts: an recognition test and a written production task (Appendix D). These task versions differed in terms of the name of the subjects or objects in each sentence and

order of the sentences; however, the content stayed the same. Because the students did not learn the target structure before, a pretest was not given. Also, the sentences used in the tests were chosen from the subjects' coursebooks: Akdikmen,R. (2001), Kemal,A.(2003),Erin,Y.(2004),Yalçınkaya,L.(2000),Tarlakazan,İ.;İçingür,T.;Minarecio ğlu,M.(2006), Yalçınkaya,L.;Boztepe,N.;Akın,N.;Atabay,S.(2007a), Yalçınkaya,L. et al. (2007b), Nelson, P.W.; Yanaşık, O. Z. (2009a), Nelson,P.W. et al. (2009b) which were accepted by the Ministry of Education and published in accordance with the curriculum.

As a recognition task, a listening-based, three-option task was prepared (Appendix D). The recognition test included 15 sentences including aorist passive and active sentences. Students listened to them and selected the form of each sentence. All the "by" phrases in passive sentences were removed in order to measure their own recognition levels.

The sentences were read by the teacher only once to measure real time comprehension; but the researcher gave a 10-second pause after each sentence and students were asked to interpret and choose the correct answers on their answer sheets.

In the production task, students were asked to write a sentence describing the situation in each picture. Verbs were given in a separate box and the students had to choose the correct verbs and form a sentence by using those verbs under the pictures. The task consisted of 10 items. The written production task did not include any spontaneous production.

4.2.2.3. Pilot Test

The post tests designed for the present study was administered with a similar group as a "pilot test" before the study. The test's reliability and validity were determined by carrying out appropriate procedures.

4.2.2.3.1. Subjects and Setting of the Pilot Test

The test was given to 35 7^{th} and 8^{th} grade primary school students attending Sakarya Primary School in Çifteler town in Eskişehir, Turkey in the spring term of the 2009-2010 academic year. The age range is from 13 to 14. They are the students who had the average scores 69 to 100 out of 100 from English courses. In addition, their learning environment and the curriculum which is used in their courses were the same as the

actual subjects of this study. In conclusion, it is possible to say that the participants to whom the test was given were similar to the actual participants in the study.

4.2.2.3.2. Validity of the Assessment Tasks

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

In order to establish the content validity of the tests given in this study, 5 ELT experts in the thesis proposal committee gave feedback. Based on their comments on the tests, some changes were made on them throughout the study. Therefore, the tests were considered content valid for the purposes of testing interpretation and production of the target structure.

4.2.2.3.3. Reliability of the Assessment Tasks

The reliability of a test is defined as "the extent to which the results can be considered consistent and stable" (Brown, 1988, p.98). In other words, a test should produce consistent results and give consistent information. A test's reliability can be estimated with a "reliability coefficient" (r xx). In this study, "split-half method" was used in order to estimate the internal reliability of the test. In this method, after its administration, the test is divided into two equal halves. The correlation between the two halves is an estimate of the test score reliability, but only the reliability of one half of the test, not the whole test. To estimate the reliability of the whole test, the Spearman Brown prophecy formula was used (Tekin, 1987).

In the present study, the correlation coefficient was computed as 0, 70. This value demonstrates the reliability of the split subtest. As a consequence, the internal reliability coefficient of the whole test given was calculated as 0.82. This result can be considered as adequately high to be used in the study.

In conclusion, we can say that the test was valid and reliable and it was appropriate for this study.

4.2.3. Procedures

4.2.3.1. Data Collection

With a view to controlling teacher variables, the researcher delivered the instructional treatments and the practice activities; and administered the posttest and delayed posttest. Otherwise; there would be differences in terms of teaching style. Following VanPatten & Cadierno (1993) and Allen (2000), all instruction took place in the students' regular classrooms during regularly scheduled class times. The researcher was the teacher of the two classes. The researcher conducted the study. The administration of the instructional treatments spanned two 40-minute class periods.

For the processing instruction group, there were two referential and two affective activities (Appendix B). In the first two activities, students chose or matched the correct answer. In this way, they were not allowed to produce English structures. In the affective activities, the researcher asked students to choose which item or items were appropriate for them. Again they were not allowed to produce the target forms.

For the output-based group, there were four meaningful output based activities (Appendix C).These activities led students to produce the target structure by making them fill in the blanks meaningfully, make sentences and direct them to make form-meaning connections.

Two groups of students were involved in the study. Each class was taught for two hours per week. The total time being devoted to the instructional work was one week.

Immediately after the treatments, the posttests were given in order to measure instant proficiency gains. The aim of giving a delayed posttest was to see whether or not the proficiency gains from instruction remained stable. 5 weeks after the posttest, the delayed posttest was administered. Also neither of the groups was assigned homework during the treatment and no review of the target forms was provided during the intervals between the posttest and delayed posttest.

Table 4.2. The data collection procedures are as follows:

PROCESSING INSTRUCTION & MEANINGFUL OUTPUT-BASED INSTRUCTION	
Week 1:	(March 1, 2010) First hour : PASSIVE presentation + activities 1, 2 Second hour : Activities 3,4 + posttest
Week 6:	(April 5,2010) PASSIVE -delayed test

4.2.3.2. Scoring Procedure

Only target items were scored. The recognition task for aorist passive structure was worth 10 points. The students heard 15 sentences but 5 of them were distracters and did not include the target form. One point was assigned for each correct response; incorrect responses received a score of zero.

The written production task for aorist passive structure was worth 10 points. When the students use the wrong form of "to be" or "past participle (irregular verbs)", 1 point was given because it indicates that they learnt the core of passive structure. Half point in each sentence was not assigned for each of these criteria: (a) the wrong choice of the subject, (b) no past participle form of the verb, (c) active sentence.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The present study attempted to examine the possible effects of two different types of grammar instruction: Processing Instruction (PI) and Meaningful Output-Based Instruction (MOBI) on the recognition and production of the aorist passive voice in English by Turkish EFL learners.

The study addressed the following questions as has been previously stated in section 1.5:

1. Is there any significant difference between the recognition of aorist passive voice by the following groups of learners?

    a. Those who receive processing instruction

    b. Those who receive meaningful output-based instruction

2. Is there any significant difference between the production of aorist passive voice by the following groups of learners?

    c. Those who receive processing instruction

    d. Those who receive meaningful output-based instruction

3. If there is any significant difference in instruction on the recognition task, is this difference retained equally over time by the different instructional groups?

4. If there is any significant difference in instruction on the written production task, is this difference retained equally over time by the different instructional groups?

7^{th} and 8^{th} grade students who had the average scores between 69-100 out of 100 from English courses at the end of the first term of 2009-2010 academic year were randomly placed into PI and MOBI groups; and treatments and the posttest were delivered to the groups. Five weeks after the treatment and immediate posttest, the subjects were given the same posttest as the delayed test.

5.1. Data Analysis

Because the students did not learn passive form before, a pretest was not given. This means that any possible gains in the posttests would be due to the instructional treatments.

After all the tests had been applied, the results between posttest and delayed test were obtained. The results are illustrated in the table 5.1. for the recognition and the production task. Table 5.1. demonstrates the results of mean test scores and standard deviations for the PI and MOBI groups.

		Posttest		**Delayed test**	
Variables	N	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Recognition					
PI	25	8,64	2,97	3,68	1,7
MOBI	25	7,16	2,05	3,44	1,29
Production					
PI	25	5,12	4,18	1,68	1,28
MOBI	25	4,00	3,71	1,44	1,68

Table 5.1. Means and Standard Deviations of Two Groups for Recognition and Production Task

This table shows that for the recognition data, both PI and MOBI groups improved in the treatment process (PI: 0,00 – 8,64; MOBI: 0,00 – 7,16). However the mean scores for both PI and MOBI groups decreased significantly from posttests to delayed posttests (PI: 8,64 – 3,68; MOBI: 7,16 – 3,44).

For the production data in the table 5.1, both PI and MOBI groups showed gains from beginning to the posttest (PI: 0,00- 5,12; MOBI: 0,00- 4,00). However, the mean scores for both PI and MOBI groups decreased a great deal from the posttests to delayed

posttests (PI: 5,12- 1,68; MOBI: 4,00 – 1,44) (for a discussion of the results, see section 5.2).

5.1.1. Results from the Recognition Data

In order to determine the effects of instruction on the way in which subjects recognize sentences containing Aorist passive form in English, raw scores of the recognition posttest and delayed posttest were tabulated and a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. Instruction (PI and MOBI) was the between-subjects factor while time (immediate posttest and delayed posttest) was the within-subjects factor. The results of the ANOVA indicated in the Table 5.2. reveal a significant effect for instruction (F: 4,19, p < 0,05) and a significant effect for time (F: 106,93, p< 0,05). This means that instruction had a significant effect on test performance. However, there was not a significant interaction between instruction and time (F: 2,18, p> 0,05). That is, the impact of instruction did not increase through time.

	Df	**SS**	**MS**	**F-value**	**significance**
Recognition task					
Source of variation					
Instruction	1	18,490	18,490	4,199	,043 *
Time	1	470,890	470,890	106,939	,000*
Time X Instruction	1	9,610	9,610	2,182	,143**
Residual (error)	96	422,720	4,403		
Total	100	4205,000			

*p < 0,05 ; ** p > 0,05

Table 5.2. Summary Table for ANOVA Analysis Using Recognition Data Obtained from 2 Tests

It is clearly understood that the effect for instruction was due to the contrast that PI group was significantly better than MOBI group (p: 0,00). Moreover, according to the results, the effect of time was due to the immediate posttest and delayed posttest which were significantly different from the beginning of the treatment process.

A visual representation of the gains and long-term effects for the recognition task across the immediate posttest and delayed posttest is shown in Figure 5.1.

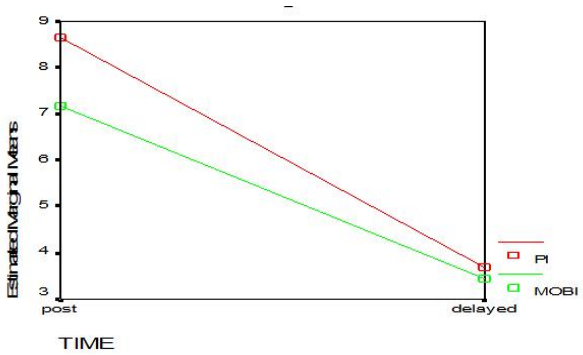


Figure 5.1. Interaction Plot for Instruction and Time in the Recognition Data

5.1.2. Results from the Production Data

In order to determine the effects of instruction on the way in which the subjects produce passive form in Aorist, raw scores of the production posttest and delayed test were tabulated and a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. The results shown in Table 5.3. reveal a significant effect for time (F: 25, 227,p < 0.05). However, there is no significant difference in terms of instruction (F: 1, 296, p > 0, 05). Moreover, there was not a significant interaction between instruction and time (F, 543; p > 0, 05). That is, the impact of instruction did not increase through time.

	Df	SS	MS	F-value	significance
Production task					
Source of variation					
Instruction	1	11,560	11,560	1,296	,258 **
Time	1	225,000	225,00	25,227	,000*
TimeX Instruction	1	4,840	4,840	,543	,463**
Residual (error)	96	856,240	8,919		
Total	100	2034,000			

*p < 0,05 ; ** p > 0,05

Table 5.3. Summary Table for ANOVA Analysis Using Production Data Obtained from 2 Tests

According to the results, PI group was better than MOBI group even though the difference is not significant. Albeit slightly different, PI group was better than MOBI in both immediate posttest and delayed test results. In addition, it is seen that the effect for time was due to the posttest which was significantly different from the beginning of the treatment process. However, there was no significant difference from beginning to the delayed test.

A visual representation of the gains and longer term effects for the production task across the immediate and delayed posttest is indicated in Figure 5.2.

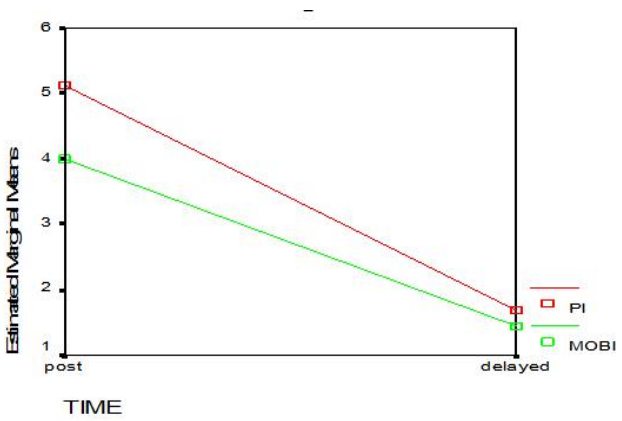


Figure 5.2. Interaction Plot for Instruction and Time in the Production Data

5.2. Discussion of the Findings

The results of the analysis of the recognition data indicate that both PI and MOBI groups resulted in some kind of knowledge gain due to the treatments. Both the PI and MOBI groups had an effect on how learners recognized English passive form in Aorist. On the other hand; the effects of both PI and MOBI groups were not retained over time. Consequently, the answer to the research question 1 about the statistical differences between the two groups on the recognition task is positive. Both the PI and MOBI groups improved significantly from beginning of the treatments to posttest, but PI group outperformed MOBI group in the immediate posttest (PI: 8,64; MOBI: 7,16). In addition to this, since the effects of both PI and MOBI groups on the recognition task were not retained over time, the answer to the research question 3 is negative. The effectiveness of PI and MOBI groups on the recognition task was not durable five

weeks later (PI: 3,68; MOBI: 3,44). However, though not significant, it is seen that PI group scores were higher than MOBI group in the delayed test.

The results of the production data show that both PI and MOBI groups resulted in some kind of knowledge gain due to the treatments. Both PI and MOBI groups had a positive effect on how learners produced passive voice in Aorist. The answer to the second research question about the statistical differences between the two groups on the production task is positive. Both groups improved from beginning of the treatments to posttests; but PI group outperformed MOBI group in immediate posttest of written production task. On the other hand, the effects of both PI and MOBI groups on the written production task were not retained equally over time, so the answer to the fourth research question is no. both PI and MOBI groups could not continue the same improvement on the delayed test. However, the decrease in the MOBI group's scores was slightly greater than the decrease in the PI's scores. This may be due to the memory limitations of both instructional groups. As a consequence, they may not have remembered the target structures they had been taught during the treatment.

5.3. Evaluation of the Results

Regarding the results of the tests on the target form, this study has shown the following about the effects of processing instruction (PI):

- The learners in PI group outperformed the MOBI group in both tasks; therefore, PI may convert some of the input data on passive voice in Aorist to intake.
- Moreover, PI has positive effects on the recognition and production of the target structure by Turkish learners (PI > MOBI).
- PI is as effective as MOBI in the learning of passive voice in Aorist.
- The recognition data scores were higher than the production task scores. One explanation for this result can be due to the nature of the tasks. The amount of practice can also be a reason why interpretation scores were higher. Although the amount of two groups' activities was the same, producing sentences might have taken more time than recognizing them.

- The positive effects of PI are not durable in both recognition and production of passive voice in Aorist by Turkish learners. This can be related to the internalization of the target structure and learners' attention span.

If the results are interpreted, it can be assumed that PI group scores were higher since the structured input type of activities lead students to make form-meaning connections and the learners were required to pay attention to specific language forms. This focus on the input stage might help learners to internalize the form better by aiding them to process input and affect their linguistic system.

When we compare the results of this study with the results of the previous studies in which PI and MOBI had been compared, the results of this study are similar to Benati 's (2001, 2005) and Farley's (2001a) study results; and similar to DeKeyser & Sokalski's (1996) study only on the recognition task.

The results of the present study support Benati's studies. Benati (2001) compared PI; output based traditional group and a control group in the learning of Italian future tense. As a consequence, on the interpretation task PI group improved significantly while other groups did not. However, on the production task, PI and traditional output based group both improved with no difference between them.

Similarly, in his another study Benati (2005) compared PI and MOBI and traditional instruction (TI) groups in the learning of English Past Simple Tense. As a result, on the recognition task, similar to the present study, PI group outperformed MOBI and TI groups whereas on the production task PI group scores were equal to MOBI group.

The present study has similar results Farley's (2001a) results. Farley compared PI and MOBI groups in his study and found out that he had overall greater effect than MOBI on both interpretation and production tasks on the Spanish subjunctive of doubt. Likewise, PI outperformed MOBI groups on both recognition and production tasks in the present study.

In terms of only recognition task scores, the present study supports DeKeyser & Sokalski's (1996) study. They compared input practice and output practice on object

clitics and revealed that on the interpretation task input practice was better than output group; whereas output practice group outperformed the input group.

If we compare the present study with other studies which compared processing instruction with traditional instruction, our results support that of VanPatten&Cadierno (1993), Cadierno (1995), VanPatten & Oikkennon (1996), Cantürk (2001), Cheng (2002) in that PI groups outperformed other learner groups.

After all these evaluations, the results can be interpreted from a different point of view. Because it is seen that some students made mistakes in different linguistic features although they learnt the passive form, the results of the present study may be analyzed with the aim of diagnosing the difficulties which the students face when learning the English passive construction by means of an error analysis.

Similarly in a previous study, Şahinel (1988) compared the passive uses in English and Turkish; and stated that the tense marker, the subject- verb agreement, irregular verbs, singular- plural confusion in subject – verb agreement, perfective verbs in English, the subject- object confusion and middle verbs might be sources of errors for Turkish learners in the production of passive in English.

In order to diagnose the difficulties which the subjects in this study face, we analyzed the errors and the following results appeared.

	Correct answers	**Errors**	**No answers**	**Total**
PI (posttest + delayed posttest)	171	319	10	500
MOBI (posttest + delayed posttests	136	348	16	500

Table 5.4. Number of Correct Answers, Errors and No Answers According to the Instructional Groups

The Table 5.4. shows the subjects' correct answers and errors in the written production task in both tests and both groups. It is understood that 63.8 % of the PI group subjects and 69.6 % of the MOBI group's subjects made some errors in the written production

task. However, as stated in the scoring procedure section, the subjects who made mistakes of irregular verbs and singular –plural confusion of "to be "verb took one point because they understood the core of passive form, but they had some problems with those other features. In other words, when analyzed cumulatively those students learnt the passive form but they had difficulties in the other linguistic features.

In order to see how many of those errors are due to irregular verbs and to be verb problems, and how many of them are due to passive form, we conducted a small error analysis. The results are indicated in the Table 5.6.

	Correct answers	**Irregular verbs**	**Singular – plural confusion of the verb "to be"**
PI	171	9	27
MOBI	136	13	34
Total	307	22	61

Table 5.5. Number of Correct Answers and Errors of Irregular Verbs and To Be Verb in PI and MOBI Groups

The Table 5.6. above shows the number of correct answers and the sources of errors apart from the errors related to passive structure. Through the entire assessment, it is shown that totally 7,16 % of the errors are due to the problem with irregular verbs whereas 19,8 % of the errors are due to the singular – plural confusion of the verb to be. Also 73,04 % of the errors are unaccounted error types within the context of this research and need to be investigated.

The following figure visualizes the proportion of the sources of errors.

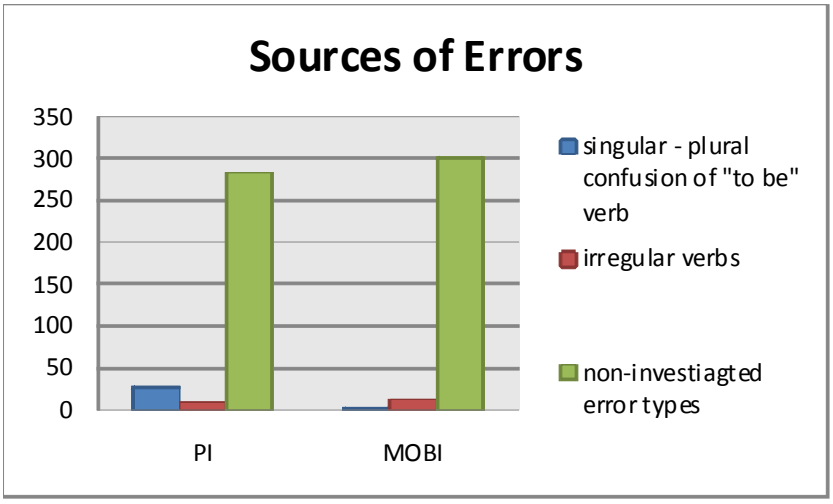


Figure 5.3. The Proportion of the Sources of Errors

In conclusion, if we are to speculate the sources of those errors, they may be due to the difference between Turkish and English grammar. The errors related to irregular verbs, for instance, may be due to the difference between Turkish and English forms in that Turkish grammar does not have regular / irregular separation in verb concept. In addition, the errors in “to be” verbs may be seen as performance errors. Because the learners focused on constructing passive sentences, they might not have paid attention to singular- plural states of to be verb. There are also non-investigated, unaccounted errors within the context of this research. They may stem from the readiness factor or learning styles and it needs to be investigated.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

6.1. Summary of the Study

This study attempts to examine the possible effects of two types of instruction: processing (PI) and meaningful output- based (MOBI) in the learning of passive voice in Aorist in English by Turkish EFL learners and to see whether the possible effects are retained well over time by PI and MOBI groups. For this study, two classes of 50 7th and 8th grade students at Atatürk Primary School in Çifteler town in Eskişehir, Turkey were randomly assigned to two groups: a) PI; b) MOBI. Two different instructional packets and an immediate / a delayed posttest were administered. The tests consisted of two tasks: recognition and production. The procedure regarding the instructional treatment and the posttest spanned two 40-minute class periods. Five weeks later, the posttest was given as the delayed test. Raw scores from the posttest and delayed test were submitted to a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Results were demonstrated in tables and figures.

The results of the analysis of the recognition data indicated that both the PI and MOBI groups resulted in some kind of knowledge gain due to the treatments. In the first posttest PI group outperformed MOBI group. However, the effects of both PI and MOBI groups were not retained over time.

The results of the analysis of the production data indicated that both PI and MOBI groups resulted in some kind of knowledge gain due to the treatments. Nevertheless, both PI and MOBI groups failed to display the same performance in the delayed test; but the decrease in the MOBI group's scores was greater than that of PI's scores.

6.2. Pedagogical Implications

The results of this experiment have some pedagogical implications. First of all, the study shows that focusing learners' attention on the formal characteristics of grammatical features facilitates the rate of foreign language learning. Since passive is not a frequent form, formal instruction in classroom teaching contributes to acquisition.

Apart from that, the present study points out that explicit grammar instruction is beneficial in making the learners in the PI and MOBI groups notice the passive forms.

Moreover, the results of this study emphasize the important role of input in second language acquisition. Through PI, the implication that grammar instruction should be tied to input has gained importance (VanPatten, 2003, p. 110). In addition, noticing becomes important as learners have difficulty with many of the grammatical features due to the following: a) these features may be non-salient or hard to notice; b) they may be infrequent in the input; and c) they may be unnecessary for successful comprehension (Heilenmann, 1995). With the help of structured input activities, we can have our students notice grammatical features that are considered problematic.

According to Wong (2001b, p.2), "the more we understand how learners attend to input, the better equipped we will be at helping them process language". Thus, thanks to the present study, the importance of attention to input has become evident. As Gass and VanPatten (cited in Doughty & Williams, 1998, p. 249) point out, input that is not converted to intake is then lost and consequently is no longer available to any subsequent language acquisition process. Therefore, the important pedagogical issue is whether learners pay attention to form and how to get the attentional allocation increased, since the more one attends, the more he or she learns. In order to increase attentional capacity, information may be presented in varying modalities.

When learners show no sign of comprehending a grammatical form, the focus should be converted to meaning. If learners have some grasp of the meaning, more attention to form is possible. VanPatten proposes beginning with activities that require learners to process only input, as input shapes the necessary elements for the developing system. This helps learners to notice features of the input and to establish form-meaning connections. According to VanPatten, after these forms have been incorporated into developing system, we can include output. The main purpose of this output is automatization and the development of fluency (VanPatten, 1996).

When it comes to curriculum development based on PI, it is certain that PI requires a structural syllabus taught by means of structured input activities. For Ellis, (1999), this syllabus should be used in parallel with a communicative syllabus. Regarding the usage of PI in curriculum development, VanPatten (1996) raises the following questions: Can and should processing instruction occur outside of the classroom, say, as homework? Does it need to be brought into the classroom? Because processing instruction is input-based, can computers deliver effective processing instruction? Pursuing questions such as these will help instructors and curriculum developers maximize communicative language use during the rather minimum amount of time that language students spend in the classroom. (p. 158)

PI is entirely input-based and the structural input can be presented in both written and oral form. Therefore, as indicated by Farley (2000), it is quite plausible for PI to function as precursor to classroom contact hours. With the current emphasis on computer-assisted language learning, interactive multimedia materials such as web-based workbooks and CD-ROM/DVD-ROM programs are becoming more readily available. These materials, typically textbook supplements, are completed outside of normal classroom time. Processing instruction could be delivered easily using this medium, providing both written structured input activities and opportunities to interpret oral input recorded and played as audio files. Some researchers (Lee, VanPatten, and Ballman, 2000) have already begun to incorporate structured input activities into multimedia publications.

Through meaningful output- based instruction, the implication is that output has an important role in grammar instruction. Swain & Lapkin (1995) argue that output helps learners notice a mismatch between their input and output, so that it may lead to the accuracy and fluency by allowing learners to process input better. Van Patten and Cadierno (1993a) express that learners need to express need to get output practice so that their abilities in accessing their developing system constructing meaningful sentences can be developed. That is, explicit instruction should involve a move from an input to an output based approach. In this way, first changes in the developing system

can be made and then learners can be given opportunities for developing productive abilities.

Lastly, through a detailed error analysis, the problematic areas which the learners face should be found and additional practice in those forms should be given.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Research

In this study, the effects of PI and MOBI in learning of English passive voice were compared. Further research should be carried out to compare the effects of PI and MOBI on the acquisition of different linguistic features in English. Further research should be conducted to compare the effects of PI to other instructional treatments. Also, only the passive form of Aorist was included in the present study. In a future study passive forms of other tenses or modals can be studied. Moreover, only transitive verbs were included in this study; in a future study intransitive verbs can be included.

The sample size of this study was small (50 subjects). Future studies may be conducted with a larger size of participants. Also because of the limited number of subjects, there was no control group in the study.

Long term effects of the two instructions (PI and MOBI) should be re-examined since the long-lasting effects of instruction in this study were measured only over a period of five weeks.

Input in this study was structured (controlled); therefore the results do not provide implications for spontaneous language production. Namely, we cannot conclude from this study that PI would result in improved performance during real-time language production. Further experimentation with different assessment tools is needed.

Moreover, the tasks on the post/delayed test had no communicative behavior; in other words, subjects were not asked to speak or do pair work. A communicative oral production task can be added to the test in a future study.

In addition, the present study was at sentence level. Further studies may involve the English passive voice at discourse level.

This study was conducted with Turkish primary school EFL students. Some future studies can be conducted with primary school students on the acquisition of different linguistic features of English aside from passive forms. On the other hand, in a future study, acquisition of English passive forms can be studied with high school students or adult learners.

Individual differences were not taken into account in this study. In a future study, learning styles and strategies of learners may be learned at the beginning.

Lastly, the sources of unaccounted errors stated in this study should be investigated in a future research to find why those errors are made by the learners.

6.4. Conclusion

This study investigated the relative effects (both immediate and delayed) of PI and MOBI on the acquisition of English passive form of Aorist among 50 Turkish primary school EFL learners. The results indicated that PI enables learners to focus attention on specific grammatical features with beneficial effects on intake. We can draw the following conclusions from the present study:

- PI has positive effects on the recognition and production of English passive form of Aorist by Turkish learners.
- The effects of PI are not durable in the recognition and production of passive voice form of Aorist.
- Though not so effective as PI, MOBI had effects on the recognition and production of passive voice form of Aorist; however its effects are not durable on both recognition and production task.

In conclusion, the present study showed that PI can be an instruction type to teach passive forms in English. Without underscoring the role of output in learning of grammatical features, explicit information can be used on passive voice in order to make them notice the learners' false processing strategies; and we can benefit from

structured input activities. By combining processing instruction activities with communicative tasks, we can make learners produce passive forms, too. Consequently, language teachers and curriculum developers may include PI in the curriculum along with a communicative focus in order to solve the learners' problems about these features.

APPENDIX A

EXPLICIT INFORMATION USED IN THE INSTRUCTIONAL PACKETS

AORIST PASSIVE VOICE

In English, active and passive sentences often have similar meanings but different focuses.

e.g.: **Many people read** the magazine. (The focus is on the people.)

The magazine is read by many people. (The focus is on the action "read".)

We use the passive voice if :

- We don't know or care the 'doer' of the action.

  e.g.: The hotel rooms **are cleaned** every day.

- The action itself is more important than who does it.

  e.g.: Many thieves **are caught** every day.

We add "by" at the end of the sentence if we want to say who does the action.

e.g: The car **is washed by my father** at the weekends.

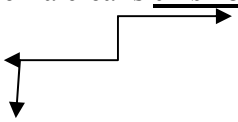
The dinner **is prepared by my mother** in our house.

Study the passive forms of the present simple:

Active : clean (s) / read (s) etc…

Passive: am/is/are cleaned, read etc…

Berna cleans **this room** every day.



This room is cleaned **by Berna** every day.

The flowers **are watered** (*by* gardeners).

The thieves **are caught** (*by* policeman).

Anıtkabir **is visited** (*by* many tourists) every year.

Fruit **is grown** in the south of Turkey.

APPENDIX B

PROCESSING INSTRUCTION ACTIVITIES

AORIST PASSIVE VOICE

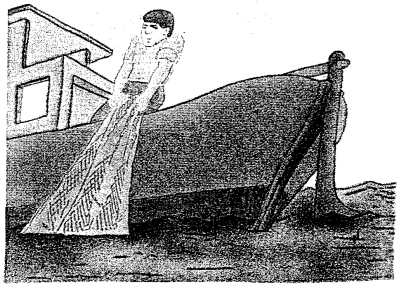
ACTIVITY 1 : Listen to the sentences and choose the correct pictures described by the sentences.

Aural Input heard by students

1. Cars are repaired by mechanics.
2. Food is served by waiters at restaurants.
3. Vegatables are grown by farmers.
4. Fish is caught by fisherman.
5. Meals are prepared by cooks.
6. Bread is made by bakers.
7. Books are written by writers.

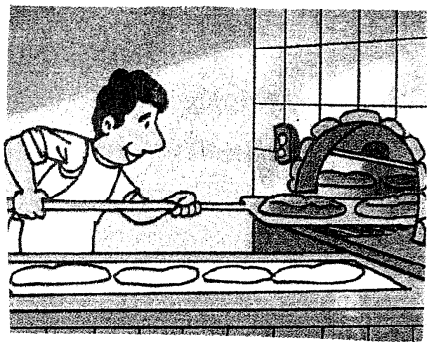
ACTIVITY 1: Student Worksheet

Listen to the sentences and choose the correct pictures described by the sentences.

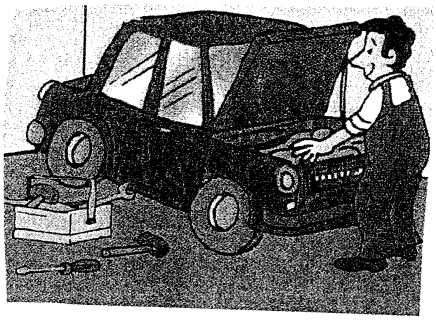


(.....)

(....)

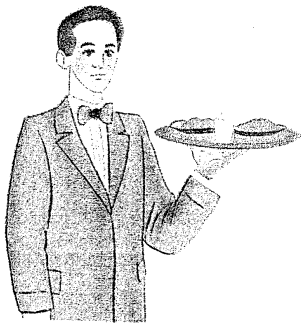


(.....)

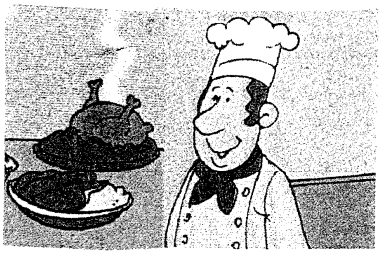


(.....)

(....)



(....)



(....)

ACTIVITY 2: Read the following sentences and put a tick for the sentences including passive.

	Tick (√)
1. Brazilians produce coffee.	
2. Flowers are sold by florists.	
3. Nurses look after patients.	
4. Postmen deliver the letters.	
5. Tea is grown by farmers in Rize.	
6. Everybody likes Barış Manço.	
7. Sezen Aksu is listened by many people in Turkey.	
8. İstanbul is known by a lot of people around the world.	
9. A lot of people speak English around the world.	
10. The Topkapı Palace is visited by many tourists every year.	

ACTIVITY 3 : Make sentences using the given cues in columns A, B, C. Then, compare your sentences with your partner.

A	B	C
Books **Turkish** **Photographs** **I** **A lot of rice** **English** **Cars** **We** **The newspaper 'Hürriyet'**	**am** **is** **are**	**called to the board by the teacher** **developed in dark rooms** **eaten in China** **taught in all Turkish schools** **sold at the bookstores.** **spoken by many people around the world** **read by a lot of people.** **given a test every week.** **produced in factories.** **taken at studios.** **grown by Chinese.** **mended at the garages.** **written by authors.** **spoken in Turkey.** **loved by a lot of friends.** **sold at newsagent's.**

ACTIVITY 4 : Think about your family and decide whether you agree or not with the following sentences. Then compare your views with your partner.

In your family,	Agree	Disagree
1. Meals are cooked by your mother.		
2. Bread is bought by your father.		
3. Grandparents are visited by children.		
4. Newspaper is read every day.		
5. Computer is used.		
6. Pop music is listened every day.		
7. Your mother is helped by your sister / brother		
8. Living room is cleaned by your mother every day.		

APPENDIX C

MEANINGFUL OUTPUT-BASED INSTRUCTION ACTIVITIES

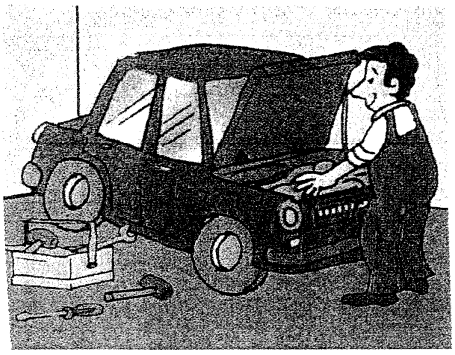
AORIST PASSIVE VOICE

ACTIVITY 1. Fill in the blanks with the correct forms of passive, using the verbs in parentheses.

MAKING BREAD

Flour ……(buy) by the bakers. It ……..(bring) to the bakery. Some water and salt……..(add) into it. Dough ……..(make) by the workers or machines. It ……(bake) in big ovens. Bread ……(deliver) to the supermarkets. It ……..(sell) there. Bread …….(eat) by millions of people every day.

ACTIVITY 2. Look at the following pictures and make sentence in passive form

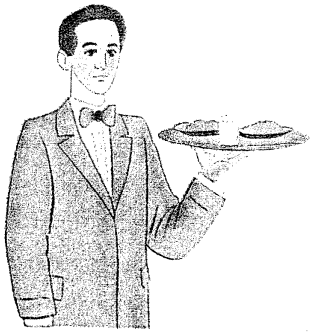


Cars - repair - by mechanic.

.....

Books - write - by writers

.....



Food - serve - by waiters - in restaurants

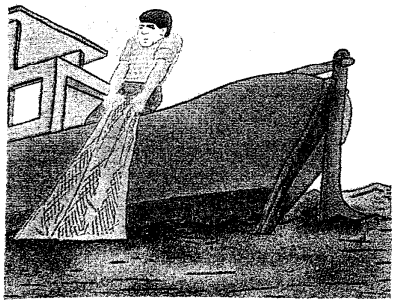
.....

Letters - deliver - by postman

.....

Vegetables - grow - by farmers

.....



Fish - catch - by fisherman

.....

Meals - cook - by cooks

English - speak - in England

ACTIVITY 3. Turn the following sentences into passive voice.

1. Cats catch the mice.

   …….

2. Hasan posts the letters.

   ……

3. The doctor examines the patients.

   ……

4. A lot of tourists visit the Topkapı Palace every year.

   ……..

5. The students answer the questions.

   ……

6. Florists sell flowers.

   …….

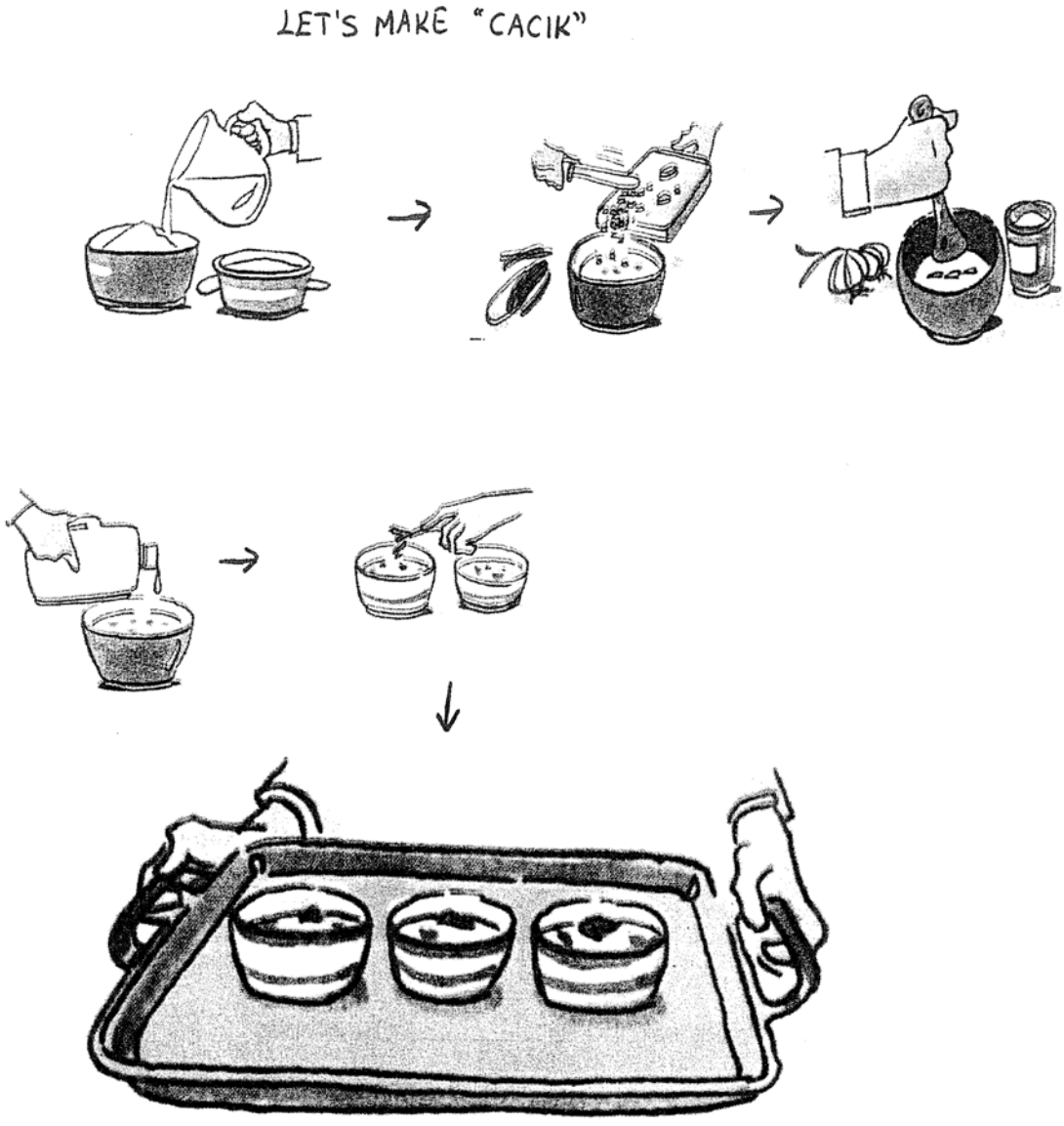
7. Brazilians produce coffee.

   …….

8. Many people listen to Sezen Aksu in Turkey.

   ……

ACTIVITY 4. Look at the following pictures and put the following sentences into the correct order to write a paragraph. After that, compare your paragraph with your partner.



- The cucumber is chopped into small pieces and mixed with the yoghurt.
- It is served in small bowls and garnished with a few mint leaves.
- A little olive oil is poured onto the top of mixture.
- Enjoy your cacik!
- Some yoghurt is put into a bowl and a little water is added.
- One or two cloves of garlic are crushed and stirred into the mixture with a pinch of salt.

✻ WRITE A PARAGRAPH ABOUT HOW "CACIK" IS MADE.

APPENDIX D

ASSESSMENT TASKS

(RECOGNITION AND WRITTEN PRODUCTION TESTS)

a. Recognition Test

Listen to the sentences read by the teacher and decide whether the sentence is active or passive.

1. **Questions are answered.**
2. **Everybody watches TV.**
3. **Criminals are caught.**
4. **Cotton is grown.**
5. **Stamps are sold in post office.**
6. **Lots of people visit Anıtkabir every year.**
7. **Cars are stopped.**
8. **Soldiers wear uniform in Turkey.**
9. **You are invited to the party.**
10. **Italians eat pizza very much.**
11. **French food is served in this restaurant.**
12. **Students read books in the library.**
13. **Lessons are taught.**
14. **The flowers are watered every day.**
15. **Meat is sold at butcher's.**

Student worksheet

	Active	Passive	I can't tell
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			
11			
12			
13			
14			
15			

b. Written Production Test

Look at the pictures and make sentences by using the cues below.

Nouns - verbs	**Nouns - verbs**
Greengrocer - sell fruit	Kemal - clean the room
Jockey - ride horse	Sema - wash the dishes
Hakan - post letters	Children - watch cartoons
Ms. Alptekin - make a cake	Firemen - put out fires
Electrician - repair electrical equipments	Tailors - make clothes

1…… **2……** **3……**

4…….. **5……** **6……**

7…… **8……..**

9…… **10……..**

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