APPLYING FOCUS ON FORM IN EFL CLASSES: FOCUS ON FORM THROUGH INPUT FLOOD, OUTPUT, AND CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

YAPIYA ODAKLANMA YÖNTEMİNİN İNGİLİZCE SINIFLARINDA UYGULANMASI: GİRDİ AKIŞI, ÜRETİM VE DÜZELTİCİ DÖNÜT YOLUYLA YAPIYA ODAKLANMA

Şener EŞ

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

Danışman: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Hasan ÇEKİÇ

Eskişehir

Anadolu Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü

Aralık 2003

APPLYING FOCUS ON FORM IN EFL CLASSES: FOCUS ON FORM THROUGH INPUT FLOOD, OUTPUT, AND CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

Şener EŞ

(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)

Eskişehir - 2003

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZ ÖZÜ

YAPIYA ODAKLANMA YÖNTEMİNİN İNGİLİZCE SINIFLARINDA UYGULANMASI: GİRDİ AKIŞI, ÜRETİM VE DÜZELTİCİ DÖNÜT YOLUYLA YAPIYA ODAKLANMA

Şener EŞ

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

Anadolu Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Aralık 2003

Danışman: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Hasan ÇEKİÇ

Son yıllarda ikinci dil edinimi alnında yapılan çalışmalar, Long (1991) tarafından sunulan ve öncelikli olarak anlama dayalı eğitim yapılan ortamlarda öğrencilerin dikkatini dilin dilbilgisel öğelerine çeken bir dil öğretim şekli olan "yapıya odaklanma" nın ikinci dil öğrenimindeki etkinliğini kanıtlamıştır (Ellis, 2001). Bu nedenle bu çalışma, hangi tip yapıya odaklanma öğretiminin – Girdi Akışı, Girdi+Üretim yada Girdi+Üretim+Dönüt'ün – İngilizce'nin yabancı dil olarak öğrenilmesinde kısa ve uzun dönemde daha etkili olduğunu deneysel olarak incelemektedir.

Bu amaçla, üç farklı yapı belirginleştirme öğretimi, üç deneysel gruba iki hafta boyunca altı saat süreyle uygulanmıştır. Çalışmaya Anadolu Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulu'ndan orta düzey dil seviyesine sahip toplam 65 öğrenci katılmıştır. Hedeflenen dil yapıları şimdiki ve geçmiş zamana ait gerçeğe aykırı koşul tümceleridir. Yapıya odaklanma öğretim tiplerinin öğrenme üzerine etkilerini görmek için öğrencilere çalışmadan hemen önce ve sonra bir öntest/sontest verilmiştir. Öğretim tiplerinin uzun dönemdeki etkilerini görmek için ise 5 hafta sonra aynı test tekrar verilmiştir.

Testlerden toplanan veriler, öğretim tiplerinin etkinliğini araştırmak amacıyla iki-yönlü varyans analizi ve Tukey testi ile analiz edilmiştir. Aynı zamanda, hangi öğretim tipinin diğerine göre daha etkili olduğunu bulmak içinse tek-yönlü varyans analizi ve Tukey testinden yararlanılmıştır.

Elde edilen verilerin istatiksel çözümlemesi sonucunda Girdi Akışı öğretim tipinin etkili olmadığı, fakat Girdi+Üretim ve Girdi+Üretim+Dönüt öğretim tiplerinin, aynı etkiye sahip olduğunu ve hedef yapıların öğrenilmesinde anlamlı derecede etkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Öğretim tiplerinin uzun dönemdeki etkileri için de benzer bulgulara varılmıştır. Sonuç olarak, üretime dayalı yapıya odaklanma öğretim tipinin, düzeltici dönüt ile desteklense de desteklenmese de, İngilizce'nin yabancı dil olarak öğrenilmesinde etkili olduğu görülmüştür.

ABSTRACT

The recent SLA research has lent support to the effectiveness of "focus on form", which was introduced by Long (1991) as a treatment that draws learners' attention to linguistic features of language in primarily meaning-based contexts, in learning the target language as a second language (Ellis, 2001). Therefore, the present study experimentally investigates which type of focus on form - Input Flood, Input+Output, or Input+Output+Feedback – is more effective in promoting the learning of English as a foreign language both in the short-term and in the long-term.

For this purpose, the three different focus-on-form treatments were delivered to three experimental groups throughout 6 hours in a 2-week period. In total, 65 intermediate level learners, studying at Anadolu University, School of Foreign Languages, participated in the study. The targeted forms were Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals in English. Before and after the treatment, the subjects were given a pretest and a posttest to see the differential effects of the three focus-on-form treatments, and a 5-week delayed posttest to see long-term effects of the treatments.

The data collected from the tests were analyzed through two-way ANOVA and a *post hoc* Tukey test to see whether the treatments are effective or not. Also, one-way ANOVA and a *post hoc* Tukey test were administered to see which treatment is superior to another.

The statistical analysis of the data demonstrated that the Input Flood treatment is not effective, while Input+Output and Input+Output+Feedback treatments, having similar effects, are significantly effective in learning the target forms. Similar results were found for the long-term effects of the treatments. Consequently, the results provide support for the claim that output-based focus-on-form treatment, whether it is complemented with corrective feedback or not, has positive effects on learning English as a foreign language.

JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI

Şener EŞ'in, " Applying Focus on Form in EFL classes: Focus on Form through Input Flood, Output, and Corrective Feedback" başlıklı tezi 04/12/2003 tarihinde, aşağıda belirtilen jüri üyeleri tarafından Anadolu Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Eğitim-Öğretim ve Sınav Yönetmeliğinin ilgili maddeleri uyarınca Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği yüksek lisans tezi olarak değerlendirilerek kabul edilmiştir.

	Adı-Soyadı	İmza
Üye (Tez Danışmanı)	:Yrd.Doç.Dr. Hasan ÇEKİÇ	.....
Üye	:Prof.Dr. Zülal BALPINAR	.....
Üye	: Doç.Dr Ferhan ODABAŞI	.....
Üye	:Doç.Dr. Ümit Deniz TURAN	.....
Üye	:Yrd. Doç.Dr Belgin AYDIN	.....

Prof.Dr. İlknur KEÇİK
Anadolu Üniversitesi
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürü

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank all the people who have contributed to this study.

First of all, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my thesis advisors, Asst. Prof. Bahar Gün and Asst. Prof. Hasan Çekiç, for their invaluable advice and encouragement throughout all stages of this thesis.

I am also grateful to Prof. Dr. Zülal Balpınar, Assoc. Prof. Hülya Özcan, Asst. Prof. Aysel Bahce, Asst. Prof. Belgin Aydın, and Asst. Prof. Mine Dikdere, for their guidance and insightful comments. Special thanks are also due to Prof. Dr. İlknur Keçik for her helpful suggestions on the preparation of the tests used in this study.

I am also indebted to the students who participated in the study for their willingness and sincerity.

Finally, I owe special thanks to my mother, sisters, and friends for their sympathy, support, and understanding throughout my work.

Şener EŞ

ÖZGEÇMİŞ

Şener EŞ

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

Yüksek Lisans

EĞİTİM

Ls.	1999	Anadolu Üniversitesi, Eğitim Fakültesi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü
Lise	1994	Eskişehir Süleyman Çakır Lisesi

İş

1999	İngilizce Okutman, Anadolu Üniversitesi, Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulu

Kişisel Bilgiler

Doğum yeri ve yılı: Eskişehir / 24-05-1978 Cinsiyet: Erkek

Yabancı Dil: İngilizce ve Almanca

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

YÜSEK LİSANS TEZ ÖZÜ ii
ABSTRACT iv
JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI v
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS vi
ÖGEÇMİŞ vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS viii
LIST OF TABLES xi
LIST OF FIGURES xiii

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY 1
1.1. Background of the Study 2
1.2. Statement of the Problem 6
1.3. Purpose of the Study 7
1.4. Research Questions 8
1.5. Significance of the Study 9
1.6. Limitations of the Study 10
1.7. Definitions of the Terms 10

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW 12
2.1. Form-focused Instruction 13
2.1.1. Focus on Forms 13
2.1.1.1. Focus on Meaning 15
2.1.2. Focus on Form 18
2.1.2.1. Types of Focus on Form 21
2.1.2.1.1. Incidental Focus-on-Form 21
2.1.2.1.1.1. Preemptive Focus-on-Form 21
2.1.2.1.1.2. Reactive Focus-on-Form 22
2.1.2.1.2. Planned Focus-on-form 25

2.1.2.1.2.1. Enriched Input 26
2.1.2.1.2.1.1. Input Flood 26
2.1.2.1.2.1.2. Input Enhancement .. 26
2.1.2.1.2.1.3. Noticing Hypothesis .. 26
2.1.2.1.2.2. Focused Communicative Tasks 29
2.1.2.1.2.2.1. Output Hypothesis 30
2.2. Conclusion 36

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY 38
3.1. Setting and Subjects 38
3.2. Target Forms 40
3.3. Treatment 42
3.3.1. Treatment Package for the IG 43
3.3.2. Treatment Package for the IOG 44
3.3.2.1. Dictogloss 45
3.3.2.2. Text Reconstruction Tasks 46
3.3.3. Treatment Package for the IOFG 46
3.4. Testing Instruments 47
3.4.1. Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest 47
3.4.1.1. Production Test 48
3.4.1.2. Multiple-Choice Recognition Test 49
3.4.1.3. Grammaticality Judgment Test 49
3.4.1.4. Comprehension Test 50
3.4.2. Pilot Test 50
3.4.2.1. Test Reliability 51
3.4.2.2. Test Validity 52
3.4.3. Scoring the Testing Instruments 52
3.4.4. Statistical Analysis 55

CHAPTER IV: DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION 57
4.1. Introduction 57
4.2. Data Presentation and Analysis 58

4.2.1. Within-Group Comparisons in terms of the Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest 59
4.2.1.1. Input Flood Group Comparisons 59
4.2.1.2. Input+Output Group Comparisons 62
4.2.1.3. Input+Output+Feedback Group Comparisons 65
4.2.2. Between-Group Comparisons in terms of the Posttest 69
4.2.3. Between-Group Comparisons in terms of the Delayed Posttest 72
4.3. Data Discussion 75

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSIONS and CONCLUSIONS 78
5.1. Summary of the Study 78
5.2. Assessment of the Study 79
5.3. Pedagogical Implications 82
5.4. Implications for Further Research 83
5.5. Conclusion 84

APPENDICES 85

REFERENCES 117

LIST OF TABLES

		Page
Table 4.1	Results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Pretest scores from the complete test	58
Table 4.2	Results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Pretest scores from each part of the test	58
Table 4.3	Results of two-way ANOVA for the IG's complete test scores (the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest).....	60
Table 4.4	Results of Tukey test for the IG's complete test scores (the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest)	60
Table 4.5	Results of two-way ANOVA for each part of the IG's pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest	61
Table 4.6	Results of Tukey test for each part of the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest	62
Table 4.7	Results of two-way ANOVA for the IOG's complete test scores	63
Table 4.8	Results of Tukey test for the IOG's complete test scores	63
Table 4.9	Results of two-way ANOVA for each part of the IOG's pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest	64
Table 4.10	Results of Tukey test for each part of the IOG's pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest	65
Table 4.11	Results of two-way ANOVA for the IOFG's complete test scores (the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest)	66
Table 4.12	Results of Tukey test for the IOFG's complete test scores (the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest)	66
Table 4.13	Results of two-way ANOVA for each part of the IOFG's pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest	67
Table 4.14	Results of Tukey test for each part of the IOFG's pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest	68

Table 4.15	**Results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Posttest scores from the complete test**	**69**
Table 4.16	**Results of Tukey for all the groups' Posttest scores from the complete test**	**70**
Table 4.17	**Results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Posttest scores from each part of the test**	**70**
Table 4.18	**Results of Tukey for all the groups' Posttest scores from each part of the test**	**71**
Table 4.19	**Results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Delayed Posttest scores from the complete test**	**72**
Table 4.20	**Results of Tukey for all the groups' Delayed Posttest scores from the complete test**	**73**
Table 4.21	**Results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Delayed Posttest scores from each part of the test**	**73**
Table 4.22	**Results of Tukey for all the groups' Delayed Posttest scores from each part of the test**	**74**

LIST OF FIGURES

		Page
Figure 1.1.	Types of form-based instruction	4
Figure 1.2.	Treatment groups and the treatment types they received	8
Figure 2.1.	Focus-on-form tasks and techniques on the basis of obtrusiveness	20
Figure 3.1.	Students selected for the study and the treatment types they received	39
Figure 3.2.	Subjects remained for the data analysis and their profile	39
Figure 3.3.	Treatment design for the study	42
Figure 3.4.	The distribution of scores for each part of the test	53
Figure 3.5.	The scoring procedure for each item in the GJT	55

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Throughout the development of language teaching methodologies, researchers have continuously been in search of innovative ideas in order to make language teaching and learning process most effective and efficient for learners. Some of these ideas have been derived from second language acquisition (SLA) research and referred to language classroom applications and concerns. One of the most frequently debated concerns so far has been whether to instruct the linguistic features of the language or to set the learners free to pick up these features of the language on their own (Pica, 2000). Although some theoreticians, like Krashen, claim that grammar teaching has no effect on second/foreign language learning, teaching formal aspects of the language has gained an important place in the field of language teaching in the last two decades (Ellis, 2001). Since then, much research, seeking to find an answer to the question "How can language acquisition be promoted best?", has proven that focusing on form in language classes increases the level of language acquisition (e.g., DeKeyser, 1995; Doughty and Williams, 1998a; Ellis, 2002; Harley, 1998; Izumi, 2002; Lightbown and Spada, 1990; Muranoi, 2000; Swain, 1998 White J., 1998, and see Ellis 2001; Long and Robinson, 1998; Norris and Ortega, 2000, for reviews). Majority of this research has been motivated by the learners' frequent grammar mistakes in written or/and oral production in ESL (English as a Second Language) settings, especially by ones in immersion programs.

The problem is the same at Anadolu University, School of Foreign Languages. As a researcher, my observations in my classes and my informal talks with the colleagues reveal the reality that EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners at this school also fail to use grammatically accurate language in their written and oral production.

Therefore, considering the related SLA research and the problems that EFL learners are experiencing, the study addresses the issue of incorporating focus-on-form treatment into EFL classes for the purpose of promoting L2 learning. In this study, "focus on form" is considered as a means of focusing learners' attention to formal aspects of language in meaning-based contexts (Long, 1991) through "noticing" which is seen as a key factor of language acquisition by Schmidt (1990). Thus, in this study, an experimental research is conducted to find out what kind of focus-on-form approach is most effective to promote L2 learning in EFL classes.

1.1. Background of the Study

In the very early stages of the developments in the language-teaching field, the term *language teaching* used to refer to the explicit teaching of grammatical features of a language; and the term *language learning* used to refer to the conscious learning of discrete grammar points of a language (Richards and Rogers, 1986). Especially in the heyday of Grammar-Translation Method, the instructors' primary goal was to enable learners to produce the linguistic forms accurately through deductive presentation and controlled practice activities (Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

In the following years, SLA research, however, gave rise to the controversies over such traditional formal language teaching methodologies. In the early 1980s, researchers argued that the application of such methodologies in language classrooms had no effect on language acquisition (Richards and Rogers, 1986). For example, Krashen's Input Hypothesis claimed, "comprehensible input is the only causative variable in second language acquisition" (1986, in Brown, 1994, p. 281). According to this hypothesis, both explicit grammar teaching and error correction are unnecessary elements for acquisition in language classrooms. To put it another way, providing learners with comprehensible input and engaging them in communicative activities in which the primary focus is on meaning are sufficient conditions for acquisition to take place automatically (Richards and Rogers, 1986).

However, learners were found to fail to acquire some forms of language although they had been exposed to comprehensible input for a long time (Doughty and Williams, 1998b; Ellis, 2002; White, 1998). This finding led SLA researchers to propose that comprehensible input is not sufficient for language learners to pick up the formal properties of language. For that reason, Long (1991) suggests "focus-on-form" instruction which clearly draws "students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning, or communication" (Long, 1991 p. 46). In his suggestion, Long distinguishes focus-on-form treatment from both traditional formal instruction and meaning-focused communicative approaches.

In traditional approaches to grammar instruction, what Long (1991 p. 45) calls "focus on forms", lesson contents are based on a pre-planned structural syllabus and learners are expected to focus their attention on a discrete linguistic item that is being targeted. On the contrary, "focus on form" occurs incidentally while "the primary focus of attention is on meaning" (Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen, 2002 p. 420). Secondly, there is no or little place for meaningful communication in focus on forms whereas focus on form takes place while the learners are dealing with a meaning-centered activity.

On the other hand, focus on form is also different from meaning-focused instruction (Long, 1991). While formal instruction is totally banned in meaning-focused approaches, focus on form allows instructors to draw learners' attention to a structure when a problem occurs in either comprehension or production of that structure. Consequently, focus-on-form approach reconciles both focus on forms and meaning-focused instruction.

Further investigations in SLA led researchers to suggest that focus on form need not necessarily occur incidentally during a communicative activity as opposed to Long's (1991) definition. Thus, it can be pre-determined. Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen, (2002) distinguish Long's (1991) "incidental focus-on-form" from "planned focus-on-form."

In planned focus-on-form, learners are supplied with "focused tasks, i.e. communicative tasks that have been designed to elicit the use of a specific linguistic form in the context of meaning-centered language use" (Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen, 2002 p.420). For that reason, planned focus-on-form allows instructors to design their lessons so that learners can focus on a single linguistic feature intensively, while incidental focus-on-

form instruction addresses many forms extensively. Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2002) illustrate formal instruction types as can be seen in Figure 1.1.

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

Figure 1.1. Types of form-based instruction

No matter whether incidental focus-on-form or planned focus-on-form is conducted, the primary aim is to enable learners to acquire the language best. Alcon (1998) summarizes the SLA research that suggests the necessary conditions for acquisition to take place as follows:

1) comprehension of the input
2) production of the output which helps learners to notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target language
3) attention to form in meaning-centered contexts

In order to make focus-on-form approach fit the conditions that SLA research suggests, the types and ways of focusing on form (see e.g., Doughty and Williams, 1998a; Ellis, 2001; Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen, 2002; Long and Robinson, 1998) can be compiled as a three-step process. This process is outlined below.

1) providing learners with 'input flood'
2) providing learners with 'focused communicative tasks' to promote output
3) providing learners with 'corrective feedback' to their errors in production

Input Flood: This process involves providing learners with plentiful examples of the target structure (Ellis, 2001). In this process, learners are invited to focus on meaning, rather than form. However, learners are required to comprehend the meaning that the target form conveys in order to get the overall understanding of the text. In so doing, that is, increasing the number of the target form in the input, learners are expected to notice the particular structure naturally as Krashen and Terrell (1983 in Richards and Rogers, 1986) propose. This is also in line with Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1990). According to him, noticing the structures is an essential condition for those structures to be acquired by learners. However, Sharwood Smith (1993) claims that such noticing does not always assure acquisition. Therefore, throughout the acquisition process, learners are required to take further steps as explained in the following sections.

Focused communicative tasks: This stage includes the application of tasks which have all the characteristics of communicative tasks (see Nunan, 1989; Willis, 1996, for communicative tasks). However, focused communicative tasks are designed to encourage learners to produce a specific form with the purpose of communication (Ellis, 2001). Therefore, learners are again engaged in communicating meaning, not practicing the form. In other words, learners do not view the form as an end in itself, but they perceive the form as a means to convey the intended meaning.

The rationale behind the application of such tasks is based on Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985, 1998). The Output Hypothesis maintains that output production pushes learners to pay attention to the form. Thus, output promotes acquisition by enabling learners to notice the gap between their existing interlanguage and the target language. It also forces learners to overcome their problems in producing the form. However, it should be noted that output does not overlook the necessity of input for language acquisition. In fact, as Swain (1985) states, learners' attempts to produce the targeted form, which has been made available through the input supply, should be seen as a complementary stage for learners to acquire that form.

As can be seen, language production is accepted as another factor promoting acquisition. In addition, it creates opportunities for learners to receive feedback, which is considered to assist language acquisition.

Corrective Feedback: Providing learners with corrective feedback on their grammatical errors in production is termed as "reactive focus-on-form" by Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2002, p. 423). According to them, in reactive focus-on-form instruction, the teacher can provide the corrective feedback either explicitly or implicitly. However, in focus-on-form approach, the implicit feedback should be preferred to the explicit one. Otherwise, the students would be spoon-fed, and noticing function of the corrective feedback would not be utilized. Therefore, as Swain (1995) puts forward, the corrective feedback given in response to learners' formal errors in production enables them to modify their incorrect output by noticing the gap between what they produce and what they are supposed to produce.

All in all, a type of focus on form which comprises the provision of input flood, focused communicative tasks, and corrective feedback agree with the factors that promote language learning. That is why the implementation of such a focus-on-form treatment can be suggested as a remedial for learners' problems in learning, hence accurate language production.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Anadolu University School of Foreign Languages provides first-year students with an English preparatory program. The skill-based curriculum of the school is made up of six courses. These are Grammar, Core-Course, Writing, Speaking, Reading, and Listening. That is, the teaching of grammar rules is isolated from the other courses, in which the students deal with the target language in meaningful contexts. However, as it is widely

accepted in the SLA literature (see, for example, Long and Robinson, 1998), explicit instruction of discrete grammar points through a structural syllabus in a separate course has nothing to do with language acquisition. For this reason, it is highly possible to come across the inaccurate use of the grammatical forms in the students' oral or written products, although these forms have already been covered in Grammar courses. For example, as a writing teacher, in my classes, I observe that the students are not able to produce sufficient amount of grammatically correct language in their written outputs. This may be because the students do not mentally transfer their grammar knowledge into the skill courses, mistakenly considering grammar as a separate unit of the language. Thus, although the students know about the grammar rule of a particular form, they fail to produce that form accurately in their written products. As a result, the need arises to implement an alternative approach to grammar instruction, which is incorporated into meaningful contexts in order to promote language learning, and hence accurate language production.

As explained in the previous paragraph, in order to enable learners to make form-meaning connections, the instruction of grammar should be carried out in primarily meaningful contexts. In other words, drawing learners' attention to grammatical features of language in primarily meaning-based or communicative contexts through "focus-on-form treatment" may be a more effective way of enhancing language learning, as Doughty and Williams (1998), Lightbown (1998), Long (1991), Long and Robinson (1998), and Williams and Evans (1998) propose.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

As stated in the previous section, the students at Anadolu University School of Foreign Languages often produce grammatically incorrect language in both oral and written outputs. However, the question how to improve these students' performance in oral production through focus-on-form treatment is outside the scope of this study. In this regard, the study explores the issue of the incorporation of focus-on-form treatment into Writing classes in order to improve these students' grammatical accuracy in written

production. Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to investigate which type of focus-on-form treatment has greater and more durable effects on the EFL students' language learning.

For this purpose, the study employs an investigation on the comparison of the possible effects of three types of focus-on-form treatment on the learning of the target form. Therefore, a pretest-posttest design is conducted with three groups, each of which receives a different focus-on-form treatment. The groups and the treatment types they receive are shown in the following figure.

Groups	**Type of Focus-on-Form Treatment**
1. Group (IG)	Input Flood
2. Group (IOG)	Input Flood + Output
3. Group (IOFG)	Input Flood + Output + Corrective Feedback

Figure 1.2. Treatment groups and the treatment types they received

1.4. Research Questions

Because the study aims to investigate which type of focus-on-form instruction is more effective in learning the target forms, the following questions are asked.

1) Do learners who receive the three focus-on-form treatment types (i.e., Input Flood, Input+Output, and Input+Output+Feedback) show improvement in learning the target form?
2) Do learners who receive Input+Output treatment outperform those who receive Input Flood treatment?
3) Do learners who receive Input+Output+Feedback treatment outperform those who receive Input Flood treatment and those who receive Input+Output treatment?

4) Which of the three focus-on-form treatment types (i.e., Input Flood, Input+Output, and Input+Output+Feedback) has more durable effects on learning the target form than the others?

1.5. Significance of the Study

The present study's significance is two fold; theoretical and pedagogical. On the theoretical level, as Ellis (2001) states, the forthcoming research should be designed to examine how focus-on-form treatment can be best conducted and which type of focus on form has greatest effects on language learning, because the previous SLA research has already lent support that focus on form indeed worked. In line with Ellis' recommendation, this study aims to provide a basis for what type of focus-on-form treatment is most beneficial in inducing language learning. In addition, in this study, it is intended to provide empirical evidence for the contribution of focus on form to language learning in EFL settings, because most research to date has investigated it in ESL contexts, especially in immersion programs (see Ellis, 2002; Long and Robinson, 1998, for review).

On the pedagogical level, the study is motivated by the EFL students' failure in producing grammatically correct language in their written tasks. Because the existing Writing classes are designed to improve the students' academic writing skills, course content is mostly concerned with enabling them to write in a more organized way, and thus little attention to form is devoted in Writing classes by both the teachers and the students. Consequently, the study specifically aims to explore and offer ways of incorporating focus-on-form treatment into Writing classes in order to eliminate the students' grammatical inaccuracies in their written products.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

The study has the following limitations:

a) The subjects of the study had been exposed to some kind of language instruction in the preceding years of university. However, what kind of instruction (i.e., explicit or implicit) they had received is not known, and this variety may have effects on their subsequent language learning in university. This issue is not considered in the discussion of the findings.
b) Focus-on-form treatment may have different effects on learners due to their varying learning styles and strategies. However, this point is not taken into account while discussing the findings of the study.
c) Throughout the experimental treatment, the subjects may have consulted a grammar reference book or received individual assistance from their teachers or friends about the target forms of the study outside the classroom. This may have affected their posttest scores. However, this issue is not addressed in the discussion of the findings.
d) The teacher, who delivers the focus-on-form treatment to the three groups, is, at the same time, the researcher of the study. This may have had a "teacher/researcher effect" on the results of the study. However, this issue is not considered in the discussion of the findings.

1.7. Definitions of the Terms

Form: According to Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2001a, p. 415), the term 'form' refers to phonology, vocabulary, grammar, or discourse. However, in most of the focus-on-form studies, the term has often been used to refer to only grammar. Therefore, in the present study, form is taken to mean grammar of the target language.

Input Flood treatment: In this study, input flood treatment is used to refer to the type of language teaching in which learners are exposed to audio or visual texts that include artificially increased incidence of the target form. To put it differently, in this kind of treatment, the learners do not produce the target form orally or in the written form; however, they just deal with the form for the purpose of comprehension through primarily meaning-focused activities.

Output treatment: Unlike the one above, output treatment requires learners to produce the target form orally or in the written form. However, in this treatment, learners produce the target form in order to achieve a communicative purpose, not to just practice the form, as it is the case in traditional approaches to grammar teaching.

Corrective feedback: Throughout the study, corrective feedback is used to refer to the implicit corrections that the teacher has made on the learners' grammatical inaccuracies in written products, so that the learners can see the differences between their interlanguage and the target language. However, in the study, only written inaccuracies of the learners' were corrected through the provision of either oral or written corrective feedback.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the SLA literature, obviously, one of the most frequently debated issues has been the teaching of formal characteristics of language. Although instruction of forms received much criticism from the proponents of the communicative approaches to language teaching, many SLA researchers have recently come to a consensus that formal teaching plays an important, even a necessary, role in the learning of a foreign/second language (L2 henceforth). They have claimed that when L2 classroom applications are purely communicative and meaning-oriented, and if there is no room for drawing learners' attention to form, it is impossible for learners to achieve high levels of accuracy in L2 production, though they may be fluent (see, for example, Doughty and Williams, 1998b; Ellis, 2002; Long and Robinson, 1998; Swain, 1998).

In this regard, if the teaching of form is inevitable in L2 classrooms, there arises a crucial question as to how form should be instructed. In order to find convincing answers to this question, the review of current SLA literature, which will also make up the basis of this study, is presented in this chapter. Specifically, the chapter deals with the concepts of; form-focused instruction, focus on forms, focus on meaning, focus on form, incidental focus-on-form, planned focus-on-form, feedback, input, noticing, output, and, along with these, the chapter analyzes the related studies and their findings.

2.1. Form-focused Instruction

Ellis (2001) uses 'form-focused instruction' (FFI) as an umbrella term to refer to any kind of (i.e., explicit vs. implicit, deductive vs. inductive, or planned vs. incidental) instructional activity that directs L2 learners' attention to a specific linguistic property of the language. That is, the term FFI covers a variety of teaching techniques that range from the most traditional approaches (e.g., use of mechanical drills) to modern meaning-focused communicative approaches (e.g., use of grammar consciousness-raising tasks (see Fotos, 1993; Fotos, 1994)).

A large body of FFI research to date has revealed not only that FFI contributes to L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2002; Long and Robinson, 1998), but also that the positive effects of FFI are durable (Norris and Ortega, 2000). However, such a generalization cannot be made for any kind of FFI because it includes a variety of instruction techniques (i.e., from the most explicit to the most implicit).

Norris and Ortega (2000) reviewed 49 FFI studies and realized that the studies conducted to measure the effectiveness of exclusively FFI reveal negative findings. They detected that the explicit instruction of forms does not work when the subjects' gains are measured via posttests that require the subjects to produce the target form in communicative contexts. Therefore, the question of "What kind of FFI should be implemented in order to make L2 learning process most effective for learners?" is examined in the following sections.

According to Ellis (2001), FFI, on the whole, involves two distinctive types; *focus on forms* and *focus on form.*

2.1.1. Focus on Forms

"Focus on forms" (as termed by Long 1991, p. 45) refers to the application of a structural and syntactic syllabus that presents discrete grammar points separately in order for them to be learnt by L2 learners, as it is the case in traditional approaches to language

teaching (like GTM or ALM). Therefore, during the class time, the learners are conscious that they are focusing primarily on one of the pre-selected language forms.

White L. (1991 in Long and Robinson, 1998) conducted a study to reveal the effectiveness of explicit instruction by comparing the pre/post and follow-up test scores of two instructed classes, which received a 2-week explicit rule presentation followed by corrective feedback, with those of three uninstructed classes. The targeted structures were auxiliaries *can, be, and do* and question forms *what, where, and when*. The results of this study showed that the instructed learners, in contrast to the control group, both made significant gains in the accurate use of the target forms and maintained these gains as measured by follow-up test after five weeks.

That explicit instruction is more effective than implicit instruction has been revealed by DeKeyser (1995) and Robinson (1996).

DeKeyser (1995) compared the effects of explicit-deductive (E-D) teaching with implicit-inductive (I-I) teaching implemented through 20 computerized sessions of 25 minutes each. The target form was an artificial Implexan linguistic system, which was designed for this experiment. 61 subjects in total took part in the study, and the learners in the I-I condition were not provided with instruction, but just exposed to sentence-picture pairs. On the other hand, the ones in the E-D condition were provided with an additional instruction and asked to produce the target form. The results showed that the E-D group was significantly superior to I-I group in terms of the accurate production of simpler categorical rules while I-I teaching was not more effective than E-D teaching in the learning of complex prototypical rules.

In line with DeKeyser's results, Robinson (1996) also found that instructed learners outperformed other learners in learning simple rules. He involved 104 ESL learners, who were randomly divided into four computerized instruction groups; a) an incidental group (asked to read sentences solely for meaning), b) an instructed group (taught rules and asked to apply them to sentences), c) a rule-search group (asked to identify the rules by themselves), and d) an implicit group (asked to memorize sentences). He targeted two grammatical rules, one of which was considered as simple rule (subject-verb inversion e.g., *Into the house John ran / ran John*) and the other as hard rule (pseudoclefts of location e.g.,

Where Mary and John live is in Chicago not in New York). The posttest scores, supporting DeKeyser's findings, revealed that instructed learners were more accurate than those in the other three groups were on a transfer grammaticality judgment test regarding the simple rule. However, instructed learners performed worst regarding the hard rule, yet there was no significant difference between the instructed and implicit learners on the hard rule.

To sum up, the shared outcome of these studies is that explicit teaching of discrete forms is beneficial only when the targeted form is easy to learn, but implicit teaching is not superior to explicit teaching when the form is hard to acquire.

Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2002) consider traditional "PPP" as a typical focus on forms lesson. In such a lesson, the teacher first presents a specific linguistic feature (i.e., Present Continuous Tense), then the students are asked to practice the structure through controlled exercises, and, at last, the students are encouraged to produce the target form in a freer manner. Although the learners are trying to convey a meaning in the production phase, they are conscious that the ultimate aim of such a production is to practice the correct use of the newly learnt grammar point. In case of any error in the production of the target structure, generally the teacher overtly and immediately provides corrective feedback. Clearly, the teachers and learners' focus is exclusively on form, not on meaning. However, the lack of meaning in classroom procedures received much criticism from the advocates of meaning-focused instruction. Therefore, at his point, it would be appropriate to discuss the meaning-focused instruction before the second type of FFI (i.e., focus on form).

2.1.1.1. Focus on Meaning

In the early 1980s, the increasing awareness of the significance of communication in L2 teaching/learning gave rise to the debates over totally FFI (Pica, 2000; Richards and Rodgers, 1986). According to some theoreticians, especially Krashen and Terrell, learning of an L2 should be identical to first language (L1) acquisition; thus, explicit instruction of the formal features of the language is not effective; it is even harmful. Instead, in their view, exposing learners to large amounts of comprehensible language samples is well

enough for learners to pick up the rules by themselves. In this way, without paying any conscious attention to forms, learners implicitly learn the language that they can use communicatively.

Therefore, meaning-focused classroom activities, unlike focus on forms, are directed by "Prabhu's procedural syllabus" (Long and Robinson, 1998, p. 19) and include communicative tasks (e.g., info-gap activities) that require learners to negotiate meaning. Put another way, focus on meaning, in stark contrast to focus on forms, discards the explicit instruction, the controlled practice, and the correction of linguistic items in L2 classrooms.

One typical example of studies that lent support to the effectiveness of focus on meaning is that of Doughty (1991 in Ellis, 1999). She examined the effects of three types of computerized instruction on the learning of relative clauses by adult intermediate ESL learners. The first group was the Control Group (COG) and just viewed the texts seeded with sentences of the target structure. The Rule-Oriented Group (ROG) read the same texts and received explanation of the target rule along with example sentences. The third group, the Meaning-Oriented Group (MOG), received reading tasks to have a general understanding of the texts and then read each sentence separately together with a further assistance in the form of lexical and semantic rephrasing. She concluded that all the groups had some gains in oral and written posttests with the MOG and the ROG having similar gains, but more than the COG. Additionally, the MOG was superior to the ROG and the COG in comprehension tests. However, as it is obvious, the results that Doughty derived from her study contradict with those of DeKeyser (1995) and Robinson (1996). The superiority of meaning-oriented implicit teaching over instruction in Doughty's study is due to the different posttest type (i.e., comprehension test) that she conducted.

On the other hand, focusing learners' attention totally on meaning and communication is not without its problems. For example, Pica exemplifies the shortcomings of focus-on-meaning approaches stating:

> "Such communicative experiences weaken opportunities for learners to notice how L2 sounds and structures relate to the meanings of messages they encode, how social norms are observed and maintained linguistically, and how concepts such as time, action and activity, space, number, and gender, are expressed lexically and/or

> morphosyntactically. Such communicative experiences can also limit access to L2 features such as functors and particles, that convey grammatical information, but carry little semantic meaning" (Pica, 2000, p. 6).

In line with Pica's statement, Long and Robinson (1998) discuss the negative aspects of focus on meaning as follows:

1. Adult learners do not any longer have "the same capacity as young children to attain native norms in a new language simply from exposure to its use; that is, there appear to be maturational constraints on language learning" (p. 20).
2. Passing through a large amount of exposure, learners do not become nativelike, so "premature stabilization and nonincorporation of input despite plenty of learning opportunity" is apparent in focus-on-meaning approaches (p. 20).
3. Some L1–L2 grammatical contrasts are impossible for learners to learn through solely exposure of L2 samples.
4. Even though one can learn much of an L2 by being exposed to it, it is "inefficient" (p. 21).

Long and Robinson (1998) base this failure of focus on meaning on the findings of related studies. Especially, the studies conducted in French immersion programs in Canada, where the "overall context of second language learning is communicative and experiential – and thoroughly content-based" (Swain, 1998, p. 65; and also see Swain, 2000 for general description of these programs), have revealed that learners cannot gain target-like ability in the use of some linguistic features when the classroom procedures are totally experiential and meaning-focused (Doughty and Williams, 1998b; Ellis, 2002; White, 1998). That is, although the learners in immersion programs are exposed to comprehensible input in quantity (as suggested by Krashen) and given opportunities to use the language in communicative contexts, they seem to fail to acquire, hence use correctly, some linguistic forms of the target language.

Considering the weaknesses of both focus on forms and focus on meaning, Long (1991) suggests the application of "focus on form" in L2 classrooms.

2.1.2. Focus on Form

An approach that reconciles meaning-focused and form-focused instruction is first introduced by Long (1991). According to him, "focus on form ... overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning, or communication" (pp. 45-46).

However, Doughty and Williams (1998b) consider this definition rather theoretical, and they claim that it provides teachers with a limited practicability of focus on form in L2 classrooms. When compared to the above definition, Long's revised definition of focus on form provides both teachers and researchers with better and flexible opportunities to perform focus on form.

> During a[n]... meaning focused classroom lesson, focus on form often consists of an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features – by the teacher and /or one or more students – triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production. (Long and Robinson, 1998, p. 23)

As it is apparent in both of the definitions, the most essential characteristic of focus on form is that it should be employed in primarily meaningful contexts. Also, this feature is the one that distinguishes it from focus on forms. That is to say, focus on form aims to help L2 learners become accurate, more than just helping them become communicative, in the use of L2.

Long bases focus-on-form approach on his Interaction Hypothesis, which claims that "a crucial site for language development is interaction between learners and other speakers, especially, but not only, between learners and more proficient speakers, and between learners and certain types of written texts especially elaborated ones" (Long and Robinson, 1998, p. 22). In light of this hypothesis, Long (1991) maintains that enabling learners to

attend to form is always most useful if their primary aim is to convey a meaning to the second speaker during a conversation or to undertsand the meaning in a reading text. In this way, learners themselves need to pay attention to form in order to achieve a sort of interaction either with other speakers or with a text. Similarly, Lightbown (1998) asserts that focus on form should be integrated into interactive or communicative procedures so that it can be more effective than focusing on isolated forms and/or focusing entirely on meaning.

In order to see if focus-on-form instruction is effective in meaning-oriented classrooms, Lightbown and Spada (1990) conducted an exploratory study and observed 4 communicative ESL classes taught by different teachers and reported positive effects of focus on form. The teachers observed differed from one another regarding the amount of time they spent focusing on form. The time spent focusing on form was 29 % in one class and between 10% and 13% in the other classes. The teachers often tended to focus on form by providing corrective feedback to learners' errors. A picture-description task revealed results that the class in which the teacher provided most focus on form was more accurate in the use of progressive *–ing* and possessive determiners *his* and *her* than the others. These results led Lightbown and Spada to propose that learners become more accurate in the use of the target language if teachers make the form more salient to learners by focusing on form (e.g., by providing finely tuned feedback without impeding the flow of communication).

However, the issue "how to focus on form in language classrooms" has received much attention in the recent SLA literature. Therefore, many strategies and techniques have been offered to show ways as to how teachers can draw learners' attention to form while they are dealing with a primarily meaning-based activity. For instance, giving a vital importance to the integration of form and meaning in L2 instruction, Doughty and Williams (1998c, p. 258) present the possible focus-on-form tasks and techniques reflecting the degree to which focus on form interrupts the flow of communication (see Figure 2.1).

	Unobtrusive					Obtrusive
Input flood	X					
Task-essential language	X					
Input enhancement		X				
Negotiation		X				
Recast			X			
Output enhancement			X			
Interaction enhancement				X		
Dictogloss					X	
Consciousness-raising tasks					X	
Input processing						X
Garden path						X

Figure 2.1. Focus-on-form tasks and techniques on the basis of obtrusiveness

For the same purpose, Long and Robinson (1998, pp. 24-25) offer three ways of focusing on form in language classrooms, as summarized below.

a) Asking the students to work in pairs, the teacher gives a reading passage, seeded with the target form, and the following production task (e.g., a writing task) pushes them to use this form in a meaningful context.
b) Having realized that the students make the same mistake in a group work, the teacher may interrupt them and draw their attention to the problematic structure in a suitable manner.
c) The teacher may provide implicit negative feedback (i.e., recasts).

However, Ellis (2001) and Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen's (2002) categorization of focus on form is a more structured one. According to them, focus on form may emerge in two main ways; incidentally and/or in a planned manner, depending on the teachers' manipulation of the course design. That is, either the teachers may prepare classroom activities without considering any specific linguistic form to be focused, or they, in advance, may decide upon the form to be focused in the classroom and prepare appropriate materials in accordance with that.

2.1.2.1. Types of Focus on Form

2.1.2.1.1. Incidental Focus-on-Form

Long (1991) strongly advises that focus on form should occur "incidentally" (p. 46). That is, it should not be pre-planned. This type of focus on form is also in line with his Interaction Hypothesis, which claims that conversational adjustments done by the teachers and learners make the meaning more understandable and, thus, assist acquisition (Long and Robinson, 1998). According to Long (1991) and Long and Robinson (1998), focus on form should emerge at the time of the absence or the failure of a formal feature uttered by a learner during communication. In short, this type of focus on form is not foreseeable.

One of the recent studies which looked at the efficiency of incidental focus-on-form is that by Williams (2001). She analyzed the 65-hour of audiotapes of language-related episodes recorded in intensive ESL classes throughout a period of 8 weeks. She realized that unplanned focus-on-form might arise in a variety of ways – like in learner requests for assistance, learner-learner negotiation, and feedback on error – each of which is facilitative for the form in focus to be processed by the learners. Also, she observed that higher proficiency learners were more likely to benefit from 'negotiation of form' than lower level learners were. Thus, as a pedagogical implication, she suggested that incidental focus-on-form addresses the needs of the learners and creates a collaborative learning atmosphere and learner autonomy.

Ellis (2001) offers two ways of focusing on form incidentally; preemptive focus-on-form and reactive focus-on-form.

2.1.2.1.1.1. Preemptive Focus-on-Form

This type of focus on form appears when the teacher or learners perceive a form to be problematic, even though the learners have not yet showed any failure in the use of the

form (Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen, 2002). Therefore, the teachers or the learners may give a short pause during a communicative activity and discuss a challenging form that will be essential to complete the task.

For instance, Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2001a) observed 12 hours of two intact ESL classes, in which the teachers predominantly focus on meaning. They found that preemptive focus on form actually occurs very frequently (one per 1.6 minutes), and it is not "unduly obtrusive" (p. 426); that is, it does not interrupt the flow of communication. As a conclusion, Ellis and his colleagues (2001a) suggest that L2 teachers should pay attention to preemptive focus on form in their classroom applications.

2.1.2.1.1.2. Reactive Focus-on-Form

This type of focus on form appears as a response to a learner's inaccurate production of a form and, thus, involves the teacher's provision of corrective feedback to learners' errors. There are two types of negative feedback: implicit and explicit. Naturally, implicit negative feedback is much more common than explicit one in focus-on-form applications (Ellis, 2001).

Pica (2000) states that learners need feedback to adjust their utterances toward greater comprehensibility, appropriateness, and correctness. "Otherwise, without an appropriate model, they may simply repeat themselves, make the same errors, or come up with new ones, and find that their experience of L2 learning is even more frustrating and complex than they thought it could be" (p. 6). In the same vein, Lightbown and Spada (1999, p119, in Han, 2002, p.544) warn, "allowing learners with too much 'freedom' without correction and explicit instruction will lead to early fossilization of errors."

A number of recent classroom studies suggest that negative feedback in the context of communicative activities promotes interlanguage development (see, for example, Carroll and Swain, 1993; Doughty and Varela, 1998; Han, 2002; Iwashita, 2003; Long, Inagaki and Ortega, 1998).

Agreeing that the provision of feedback on learners' linguistic problems is beneficial in promoting L2 learning, Lyster and Ranta (1997) set out to examine what type of corrective feedback the teachers provide in 4 elementary French immersion programs in Canada. They analyzed both the frequency and the distribution of six corrective feedback types provided by the teachers and the students' responses to the feedback (i.e., uptake). They came to the conclusion that, among the six feedback types (i.e., explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition), recasts, which are "the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus error" (p. 46), are the most widely used feedback types, although they lead to little uptake.

Addressing the issue "uptake", Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2001b p. 281) maintain, "uptake was higher and more successful in reactive focus on form and in student-initiated focus on form than in teacher-initiated focus on form" (i.e., preemptive focus-on-form).

Running parallel to Lyster and Ranta (1997), Panova and Lyster (2002) also aimed to examine the patterns of error correction in an adult ESL classroom. This study is similar to that of Lyster and Ranta in terms of that the subjects shared the same L1. On the other hand, the differences between the two studies lay in the age of subjects, the level of proficiency, and the instructional context. However, the results of this study do not differ from those of Lyster and Ranta. It was found that the class teacher implemented seven types of feedback, translation additionally, and preferred implicit feedback types (i.e., recasts) more frequently than the other types in her error treatment. Although recasts were less likely to push learner uptake than the more explicit feedback types, Panova and Lyster concluded that recasts enabled learners to notice problems in their production and created opportunities for learners to reprocess their nontarget output, as Swain (1995) put forward.

In order to provide empirical data on the effectiveness of recasts, Doughty and Varela (1998) integrated recasts as a technique of focusing on form in one of the two intact content-based classes which were studying science. In the focus on form group, recasts were delivered orally and in the written form during the treatment phase. That is, while the focus on form teacher was walking around the class helping the students, whenever the need arose, she provided oral feedback not only on the targeted forms (i.e., past tense and

past conditional) but also on the science content. In addition to this, the teacher provided written corrective feedback on the written lab reports considering the targeted structures and content. The participants who were in the feedback group improved significantly in their use of the forms in focus on the oral and written immediate posttests and maintained the ability they gained over time. On the contrary, the comparison group who carried on the regular science classes without receiving feedback did not have the same gains as the focus-on-form group did.

Similar results to those of Doughty and Varela (1998) were obtained by Han (2002) with respect to the positive effects of recasts on L2 learning. Han conducted a small-scale study in which 8 adult L2 learners of English participated. The subjects were divided into two groups (a recast group and a nonrecast group, each consisting of 4 participants) and involved in written and oral narrative tasks throughout 11 sessions over a period of 2 months. During the treatment, while the recast group received recasts on tense consistency, the other group acted as a control group and received no recasts. The immediate and delayed posttest scores indicated that the recast group outperformed the nonrecast group on both written and oral narrative tasks. As a conclusion of his study, Han suggested that these four conditions be maintained for recasts to be effective: (a) individualized attention, (b) consistent focus, (c) developmental readiness, and (d) intensity.

In line with Han (2002) and Doughty and Varela (1998), Long, Inagaki, and Ortega (1998) reported the outcomes of two studies carried out to assess the use of models and recasts in L2 Spanish and Japanese. Both of the studies proved that implicit corrective feedback is more beneficial than preemptive positive input (i.e., models) for learners to achieve short-term gains on a previously unknown L2 structure.

To sum up, whether it is preemptive or reactive, the teacher focuses on a large number of different linguistic features in a single lesson in case of incidental focus-on-form. In this regard, Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2002) caution practitioners that incidental focus-on-form may not be enough to ensure acquisition, because each form is focused very briefly. Bearing this shortcoming of incidental focus-on-form in mind, Ellis (2001) proposed that focus on form could also be planned.

2.1.2.1.2. Planned Focus-on-form

In planned focus-on-form, the linguistic feature to be targeted is selected in advance and classroom activities are prepared in accordance with that. In so doing, the teacher deals with one form intensively during the lesson instead of dealing with many forms for a short time, as it is the case in incidental focus-on-form (Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen, 2002).

Lightbown (1998) states that the advantages of planned focus-on-form outweigh those of incidental focus-on-form. She claims that, when the target linguistic feature is pre-planned, the teacher may have a chance of referring to some problematic forms, which are very infrequent in natural contexts and thus will be unlikely to appear in classroom activities when they are not planned. Consequently, if it is not planned, "instruction may leave learners in the position of failing to learn certain language features simply because they are not available in the language that occurs in the classroom environment" (p. 195).

Considering this, in planned focus-on-form, the classroom activities may include the use of "enriched input" and "focused communicative tasks" (Ellis, 2001).

However, it is highly probable that this type of focus on form may look very similar to focus on forms, because planned focus-on-form also employs the pre-selection of the target structure like focus on forms. For example, Ellis (2001) discusses that the provision of adjusted input and production tasks may be considered as focus on forms. However, he differentiates between "structured input" and "enriched input" (p. 19). While the former is designed by the teacher to draw learners' attention primarily to the form (as it is the case in focus on forms), the latter is designed to push learners to attend primarily meaning (as it is the case in focus on form). Similarly, in focused communicative tasks, the learners' primary aim is still to exchange meaning rather than practicing the target form. In short, keeping the primacy of meaning in classroom activities, the most essential characteristic of focus on form is maintained.

2.1.2.1.2.1. Enriched Input

Ellis (2001) presents two options for enriching input in terms of the target structure: input flood and input enhancement.

2.1.2.1.2.1.1. Input Flood

Input flood denotes to "input that has been enriched by including plentiful exemplars of the target feature without any device to draw attention to the feature" (Ellis, 2001, p. 20). In other words, only the number of the form to be targeted is increased in a text so that the learners can be confronted with the target form many times. This type of text adjustment is seen as the most "unobtrusive" way of focusing on form by Doughty and Williams (1998c, p. 258).

2.1.2.1.2.1.2. Input Enhancement

The second way of directing learners' attention to the target form in a text is highlighting the form typographically. For example, the target form in the text can be italicized, underlined, bolded, or enlarged (White, 1998). In so doing, as Sharwood Smith (1993) proposes, the target form becomes more "salient" for the learners to draw their attention and thus "notice" the form (p. 177).

2.1.2.1.2.1.3. Noticing Hypothesis

According to Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1990), "noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake" (p. 129); that is, it is essential for acquisition to take place. Schmidt's further claim is, "that target language forms will not be

acquired unless they are noticed and that one important way that instruction works is by increasing the salience of target language forms in input so that they are more likely to be noticed by learners" (1994, p. 195, in Harley, 1998, p. 157). Thus, enriching input seems one way of helping learners to notice the target form and leading them to acquire it.

Although, in the SLA literature, there has been a consensus that noticing is a prerequisite for acquisition to take place and that enriching input is one way of enabling learners to notice the targeted linguistic aspects of a language, Sharwood Smith (1993) puts forward that it is not right to believe that external manipulation of the input does always lead learners to attend to the targeted form. He emphasizes that artificially induced noticing might not be enough to lead the target forms to be integrated into the developing interlanguage. Put differently, enriched forms in the input may be noticed perceptually, but not linguistically.

In support of Sharwood Smith, Tomlin and Villa (1994) claim that learners can detect linguistic features in the input subconsciously. Although noticing is necessary, it is insufficient for acquisition because not everything that becomes intake is incorporated into the learner's developing interlanguage system.

Empirically, Trahey and White (1993) proved that enriched input can trigger the acquisition of new rules, but it is not effective in getting learners to unlearn non-target interlanguage rules. The researchers exposed the learners of ESL to a plenty of sentences with three correct adverb placement that English permits (i.e., at the beginning of a sentence, between subject and verb, and at the end of a sentence). The focus-on-form treatment in the form of input flood took 1 hour a day for 10 days. After the treatment phase an immediate posttest and a 3-week delayed posttest, which consist of a grammaticality judgment task, a preference task, a sentence manipulation task, and a guided oral production task, was administered. The test results indicated that input flood contributed to the learning of correct adverb placement, but, at the same time, that input flood failed to get learners to stop using incorrect adverb placement (i.e., between verb and object).

Comparing input flood with explicit instruction, Alanen (1995 in Ellis, 1999) found that enriched input was not as effective as explicit instruction in the teaching of L2 Finnish

locative suffixes and consonant gradation to beginner level learners. On the other hand, the group that received enriched input tended to use a variety of forms, though they were inaccurate, whereas the control group used no suffix forms in their production. This demonstrated that textual enhancement at least led to greater awareness of suffixes. The reason for the ineffectiveness of input enhancement in this study might be that the amount of exposure was very small.

Seeing input flood treatment as the most implicit and as the least disruptive focus-on-form technique, Williams and Evans (1998) investigated the effects of provision of a flood of input on the learning of participle adjectives and passives. The researchers compared the input flood group with the control group, which worked on the same materials, without increase in the number of forms in focus, and with the instruction group, which received the same flooded input plus explicit instruction and feedback. The subjects in the three conditions were intermediate level ESL writing class students. The posttest scores of the study revealed that the input flood group did not outperform the control group, but the instruction group outperformed both the control group and the input flood group in the use of participle adjectives. As for the learning of passives, the instruction group and the input flood group showed significantly greater gains than the control group, but they were not significantly different from each other. Basing her discussion on these findings, Williams and Evans suggested that more explicit treatments (i.e., provision of explicit feedback) might be more suitable for the teaching of these forms.

Besides enriched input studies, one of the input-based studies which aimed to investigate the effects of input enhancement on L2 acquisition was conducted by White J. (1998). In her study, White J. compared the effects of three types of input-based treatment on the learning of possessive determiners in English. Three intensive ESL intact classes were chosen for the investigation. She provided one of the groups with typographically enhanced input (i.e., the target form was bolded, underlined, and italicized) plus extensive reading and listening. The second group received only the typographically enhanced input flood, while the control group read the same texts with no manipulation. Although all the groups showed increase in the frequency of the use of the possessive determiners from pretest to posttest, no statistically significant differences were found among the groups.

Bearing these findings in mind, White J. concluded that, although drawing learners' attention to a linguistic form through the increased salience of the form in the input may be sufficient to accelerate the acquisition of that feature, this kind of implicit focus on form might not be enough to enable learners to acquire L1-L2 contrasts.

Ellis (1999, p. 70), in his review article on input-based studies, summarizes the common conclusions drawn from studies which investigated enriched input as follows:

1. Enriched input through highlighting induces noticing of the target structures.
2. Enriched input can enable language learners to acquire new structures and use these more accurately, only if the exposure of the input is prolonged and only if learners encounter the target structure with a high frequency.
3. Provision of enriched input is not capable of getting learners to stop using non-target interlanguage structures.
4. If enriched input is large in quantity, it may be more successful than explicit instruction in the teaching of complex grammatical structures. Conversely, explicit instruction seems more useful with simple structures.

In short, the studies aimed to investigate the effectiveness of enriched input in the teaching of L2 suggest that enriching input with the target form (through either increasing the number of the instances or enhancing the form typographically) helps learners to notice the form. However, it is insufficient to lead learners to acquire the target language completely.

2.1.2.1.2.2. Focused Communicative Tasks

The second way of focusing learners' attention on the form is the inclusion of "focused communicative tasks" into the classroom activities (Ellis, 2001, p. 21). Such tasks, having all the features of communicative tasks (see, for example, Nunan, 1989; Willis, 1996), push learners to produce the form in focus in meaningful contexts.

In addition to this, Lightbown (1998) warns that the tasks that require the use of specific language form should not be "awkward and unnatural" (p. 195). In the same vein, Locshky and Bley-Vroman put forward that there are three degrees of involving a pre-selected linguistic feature in a task, which are task naturalness, task utility, and task essentialness.

> "In task-naturalness, a grammatical construction may arise naturally during the performance of a particular task, but the task can often be performed perfectly well, even quite easily, without it. In the case of task-utility, it is possible to complete a task without the structure, but with the structure, the task becomes easier. The most extreme demand a task can place on a structure is essentialness: the task cannot be successfully performed unless the structure is used" (1993, p. 132, in Doughty and Williams, 1998c, p. 209).

Naturally, in the case of planned focus-on-form, task essentialness is the most necessary to guarantee the use of the targeted form. If task-essentialness is achieved, then the likelihood of learners' focusing on the target form is increased.

The benefits of the application of 'focused communicative tasks' in focus-on-form approach can be related to Output Hypothesis, introduced by Swain (1995).

2.1.2.1.2.2.1. Output Hypothesis

Swain's Output Hypothesis (1995, 1998) claims that receiving comprehensible input is not enough and that learners must also be given opportunities to produce output. Moreover, Swain adds that output does have positive effects not only on fluency but also on accuracy. She lists three functions of output that promote language acquisition as follows.

1) Output promotes noticing. To put it clearly, while learners are producing the target language orally or in the written form, they come to see their linguistic deficiencies, and

this enables them to realize the gap between their interlanguage and the target language. In this way, they can notice their problems with the language and try to solve these in the course of the production of output, so that they can realize the communication effectively.

Swain (1995) asserts that the noticing in 'output' is different and more effective than the noticing in 'input', simply because learners are more active, responsible and, most importantly, alone with "their own internalized knowledge" (p. 127) in the process of production than they are in the process comprehension.

2) Output also enables learners to test their hypotheses. According to Swain (1995), learners use their output "as a way of trying out new language forms and structure as they stretch their interlanguage to meet communicative needs; they may output just to see what works and what does not" (p.132). Moreover, if there is an external feedback, learners can test their hypotheses and try to reproduce their output in an acceptable manner.

3) Output has a metalinguistic function. This function refers to that learners use their output to reflect on their own language by means of 'metatalk', and thus their awareness of the rule increases. Swain (1998) maintains, "This metatalk ... - *in the context of 'making meaning'* – may well serve the function of deepening the students' awareness of forms and rules, and the relationship of the forms and rules to the meaning they are trying to express" (p. 69).

In support to Swain (1995), de Bot (1996) treats Output Hypothesis from a psycholinguistic view and considers that output plays an important role in L2 acquisition by both activating learners' cognitive systems in the course of production and turning learners' "declarative" (i.e., explicit) knowledge into "procedural" (i.e., implicit) knowledge (p. 529).

A number of studies intended to prove the functions of output in L2 learning empirically (e.g., Swain and Lapkin, 1995; Swain, 1998; Izumi and Bigelow, 2000; Izumi, 2002)

One of the studies evaluating the output hypothesis is that by Swain and Lapkin (1995). The researchers looked at if producing an L2 output enabled learners to become

aware of the gaps in their linguistic knowledge, and, if so, how they dealt with these gaps. 18 adolescent learners from a French immersion class were involved in the study; however, 9 of them were chosen for the data analysis. In the data collection phase, the participants were told to write an article and to think aloud meanwhile. Later, language-related episodes were analyzed in order to see what cognitive processes they had passed through when a problem occurred in their output. The results of the data analysis showed that the learners became aware of the gaps through either internal or external feedback and used various strategies to reach a solution for their problems in their output. According to these findings, Swain and Lapkin asserted, "what goes on between the first output and the second ... is part of the process of second language learning" (p. 386).

In an another study, Swain (1998) sought to investigate if involving learners in collaborative language production tasks (dictogloss, in this case) promoted L2 learning by encouraging learners to utilize the third function of output; that is, metalinguistic function. At the same time, she also aimed to see if the teachers' modeling the students how to process 'metatalk' while reconstructing a text had effects on the students' utilization of the metatalk. For this purpose, Swain involved two classes of students from French immersion program in her study. Prior to the data collection phase, the class teacher and the researcher demonstrated both groups how to reflect on their linguistic knowledge while reconstructing a text. However, the demonstrations were different for each group. In the metalinguistic (M) group, the model metatalk included the provision of rules and metalinguistic terminology in order to lead the M group to deploy their explicit linguistic knowledge to solve a problem in their output. Conversely, the comparison (C) group's modeling did not include the rules and metalinguistic terminology. After that, in order to familiarize the participants with the procedures of the dictogloss activity, two dictogloss sessions were conducted. Then, in order to collect data, the third session was tape-recorded while the students were working in pairs on the task. The examinations of the transcripts disclosed that the M group used two and half times more metatalk than the C group. Additionally, the participants' answers to 1-week delayed posttest showed that there was a relation between the learners' successful language-related episodes and their accurate performance on the relevant posttest item 1 week later. This means that language-related episodes, in which

learners consciously reflect upon their production, may be a source of language learning. The conclusions that Swain (1998) drew from this study can be summarized as follows;

a) the results refer to the pedagogical benefits of collaborative production tasks in promoting output and L2 acquisition
b) the tasks must be carefully designed so that they can ensure metatalk
c) learners' familiarity with the task procedures is crucial
d) the teacher's provision of feedback to the final product is of vital importance

Izumi and Bigelow (2000) set out to see if output promotes the noticing of a linguistic feature in subsequent input and if output-input activities lead to a more accurate production of the target form. The target form selected for the study was English past hypothetical/counterfactual conditional. They conducted a treatment, which aimed to give the experimental group (EG) opportunities for output immediately followed by exposure to a text seeded with the target form. During this treatment, the control group (CG), however, did not produce any output, but instead answered True-False questions for the purpose of comprehension. In total, 18 ESL students in an academic writing class took part in the study – 9 were in the EG and the other 9 were in the CG. The analysis of the participants' underlining of the input passages, which addressed the noticing issue, showed that the output conditions for the EG did not lead to greater noticing of the target form as hypothesized to do. Additionally, the multiple-choice recognition and the picture-cued production posttest scores, which addressed the learning issue, showed significant improvement for both groups, not merely for the output group. In addition, the difference between the posttest scores of the EG and the CG did not reach statistical significance. Overall, the study's outcome was that output does not always achieve to draw learners' attention to the target form. Izumi and Bigelow discuss the failure of their research by relating it to the treatment's short duration and the types of the tasks used in the study. They pointed out that the failure was due to that short-term treatment might underestimate the potential effects of output on L2 acquisition. The other reason was considered to be the use of essay-writing tasks. They were highly susceptible to greater individual variation and

led the learners to attend to various different forms rather than the form in focus. Accordingly, they suggested the following points for the further studies:

a) the use of awareness-raising activities
b) the use of texts including enhanced input
c) the completion of reconstruction tasks (rather than essay-writing tasks) by pairs to induce more noticing of the targeted form
d) the provision of feedback on the learners' production in terms of content and grammar
e) the juxtaposition of the target language model sentence by sentence on the learners' interlanguage output to increase the salience of the gap

In a more recent study, Izumi (2002) accepts the general agreement that drawing learners' attention to form promotes L2 acquisition; however, he refers to the issue that SLA theoreticians and researchers disagreed on the amount and type of attention needed for learning. Considering visual input enhancement (i.e., typographical enhancement) as an external attention-drawing device and output as an internal attention-drawing technique, Izumi set out to experimentally examine "whether input enhancement and output, in isolation or in combination promote noticing and learning" of English relative clauses by ESL learners (p. 547).

For this purpose, 61 participants were randomly assigned to five groups: (1) the control (C) group (pretest-posttest only, no treatment); (2) the output plus enhanced input (+O +IE) group; (3) the output plus unenhanced input (+O -IE) group; (4) the nonoutput plus enhanced input (-O +IE) group; (5) the nonoutput plus unenhanced input (-O -IE) group.

The computerized treatment consisted of 6 sessions throughout a period of 2 weeks and differed from one group to another. To put it clearly, the input material provided was a short essay, divided into parts of three sentences to lighten the learners' processing, and it was enhanced though underlining only for the +IE groups, but not for –IE groups. The output task used was text reconstruction tasks for +O groups; on the other hand, -O groups

were expected to answer extension questions after reading input. The noticing issue was measured through the notes the participants took while reading the materials. Besides the noticing issue, the researcher conducted a pretest/posttest design in order to address the learning of the target form. The tests included a sentence combination test and a picture-cued sentence completion test (to measure productive knowledge), and an interpretation test and a grammaticality judgment test (to measure receptive knowledge).

Considering the effects of the four types of treatment on noticing, there was no statistical difference between the +O and the –O groups, whereas the two +IE groups scored statistically higher than the two –IE groups.

As for the learning issue, the two +O groups did statistically better than the –O groups on the production tasks, whereas there was no difference between the +IE and the –IE groups on the same production tasks. On the other hand, the two tasks that aimed to measure receptive knowledge of the participants' yielded no statistical difference between the four experimental groups. However, when the four experiment groups were compared to the C group, they scored statistically higher than the C group over the two testing sessions.

Izumi, basing his discussion on the interpretation of these results, raised a remarkable argument on the three issues in focus-on-form instruction: input enhancement, output, and noticing. He drew the conclusion that in addition to looking at the quantity of noticing, SLA researchers should also look at the quality of noticing. The higher quantity of noticing shown in enhanced input groups did not mean that they processed the input deeply enough to achieve learning. He considers noticing as detection plus further cognitive processing. He argued that output, the internal attention-drawing device, "promotes not only detection of forms but also integrative processing to conceive a coherent structure among the detected elements" (p. 571). Whereas, visual input enhancement, the external attention-drawing device, achieved only detection and did not reach deeper cognitive processing. This was explained by the reason why output promotes more learning, although enhanced input yielded higher amounts of noticing. Moreover, he suggested three psycholinguistic functions of output: 1) detection of forms, 2) integrative processing of target structures, 3) noticing the mismatches between one's interlanguage form and the target language form. In

brief, Izumi provided both empirical proof and a noteworthy discussion on the integration of enhanced-input and output activities in focus-on-form approaches to language teaching.

As it is obvious in the studies on output in SLA literature, pushing learners to produce the target language through output activities is an important way of leading learners to focus on form. Thus, application of focused communicative activities is one of the most essential elements of focus on form that enhances the acquisition of the L2. To sum up, as Kowal and Swain (1994 in Muranoi, 2000) proposed, language production tasks promote L2 learning by;

a) making learners aware of the gaps between their interlanguage and the targetlanguage
b) heightening their awareness of form-function-meaning connection
c) creating opportunities for them to get feedback

2.2. Conclusion

As can be seen in the definitions of the focus on forms, focus on meaning, and focus on form, the three instruction types are, indeed, divergent from each other in theory. However, in practice, it may sometimes be difficult for language instructors to distinguish one from another, simply because they have some common characteristics, and thus they can overlap. Bearing this in mind, Norris and Ortega (2000) list the characteristics of focus-on-form treatment in order to make a clear-cut distinction between focus on form and the other two. According to them, for an instruction to be considered as focus on form, it should correspond to the following criteria:

a) designing tasks to promote learner engagement with meaning prior to form
b) seeking to attain and document task essentialness or naturalness of the L2 forms
c) attempting to ensure that instruction was unobtrusive
d) documenting learner mental processes ("noticing")

(Norris and Ortega, 2000, p. 438)

The theories discussed and the focus-on-form studies analyzed throughout this chapter, lend support to the incorporation of the three types of focus on form, which are input flood, output, and corrective feedback, in order to integrate form and meaning in L2 classrooms, and thus to enable learners attain higher learning of the target language.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Based on the recent SLA theories and the findings of focus-on-form studies, the present study intends to investigate the effects of three different types of focus-on-form treatment, which are input flood, input flood plus output, and input flood plus output complemented with corrective feedback on the learning of the target language. More specifically, this study attempts to offer the incorporation of most effective and durable focus-on-form treatment into Writing courses that may enable Turkish learners of EFL to produce grammatically accurate language in the written form. In order to achieve this aim, the study compares the statistical differences between the effects of these three types of focus-on-form treatment by conducting a pretest-posttest design.

3.1. Setting and Subjects

The study was carried out in three intact Intermediate level EFL classes in Anadolu University, School of Foreign Languages in the spring semester of the academic year 2002-2003. The school provides students with a full-year intensive English preparation program throughout their first year at the university. Therefore, each class in the school is made up of students from various faculties such as Engineering, Science, Civil Aviation, Literature, Fine Arts, and so on. However, in School of Foreign Languages, the students are placed in classes according to their English levels. For that reason, the subjects, involved in the study, had almost equivalent English proficiency as determined by a departmentally administered placement test, which was conducted at the beginning of the program.

The three Intermediate classes, which the researcher was teaching Writing for four hours a week, were randomly assigned as the experimental groups of the study, as seen in Figure 3.1. Because the earlier research, as Ellis (2001) points out, has already proved that focus on form is beneficial in the acquisition of an L2, in the present study, there was no control group to compare a group that received focus-on-form treatment with an uninstructed group. Instead, the three groups acted as experimental groups in order to reveal which type of focus on form is superior to another. The experimental groups differed from each other with regard to the type of focus-on-form treatment they received (see Figure 3.1). That is, the first group (IG) received only Input Flood treatment, the second group (IOG) received Input Flood and Output treatment, and the third group (IOFG) received Input Flood, Output, and Corrective Feedback treatment.

Group	Level	Class	Population	Type of Focus-on-Form Treatment
1	Intermediate	3	30	Input Flood
2	Intermediate	4	29	Input Flood + Output
3	Intermediate	5	29	Input Flood + Output + Corrective Feedback

Figure 3.1. Students selected for the study and the treatment types they received

However, when the students' participation was taken into account, the students who did not take part in one of the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest were dropped out of the total population of the groups. Therefore, the remaining students were considered as the subjects of the study, and their profile is shown in Figure 3.2.

Group	Population	Gender Distribution		Age Bracket	Mean Age
		Males	Females		
IG	23	14	9	18 – 22	20
IOG	22	12	10	18 – 23	19.6
IOFG	20	11	9	18 – 23	19.4
Total	65	37	28	18 – 23	19.7

Figure 3.2. Subjects remained for the data analysis and their profile

As can be seen in Figure 3.2, in total, 65 (37 males and 28 females) students, who were also nearly at the same age bracket that ranged from 18 to 23 (mean age 19.7), were the subjects of the study. Thus, only the scores of these subjects on the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest were taken into account for data analysis.

3.2. Target Forms

In focus-on-form research area, the choice of the target form has been particularly important for the focus-on-form treatment to reveal positive results. This is because not every form can be best taught via focus-on-form approaches (see, for example, DeKeyser, 1998; Doughty and Williams, 1998c; Williams and Evans, 1998). As shown by the studies (for example, DeKeyser, 1995; Robinson, 1996), difficult structures are the best candidates for more explicit focus on form. In the same vein, Hulstijn and De Graaff (1994 in DeKeyser, 1998) strongly insist that complex rules need to be taught through focus on form while simple rules do not need such an instruction because they are easy for learners to discover by themselves. Similarly, Harley (1993 in Williams and Evans, 1998) proposes that the forms which have the following characteristics are the best candidates for a focus-on-form treatment to be successful.

a) nonobvious L1-L2 contrasts
b) ones which are not salient because they are irregular or infrequent in the input
c) ones which are not important for successful communication
d) ones which are likely to be misinterpreted or misanalyzed by learners

Considering these research findings and the suggestions for the choice of the target form, present and past hypothetical conditionals (Type 2 and Type 3 conditional sentences;

e.g., *If I were not busy now, I would help you with your homework* and *If I had seen him yesterday, I would have talked to him*) are selected as the target forms of this study.

There are two main reasons for determining these structures as the targeted form of the study. The first reason is that, as Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983 in Izumi and Bigelow, 2000) assert, conditional sentences, especially Type 2 and Type 3, are difficult for many language learners to produce correctly due to these structures' syntactic and semantic complexities. Therefore, as it is obvious, the choice of Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals as the target forms of the study is in correspondence with the theoretical considerations.

The second reason depends on the pedagogical basis. Because the study's ultimate aim is to investigate ways of enabling learners to produce grammatically accurate language, the forms targeted in the study must be the ones which are already problematic for the learners. Moreover, it is very likely to come across incorrectly-constructed conditional sentences, especially Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals, in the students' oral and written products. Thus, the study focuses on the structures that need a sort of further treatment.

Examples of ungrammatical production of Type 2 and 3 conditional sentences that the researcher has been confronted with in the last three years of his teaching experience of Writing classes are listed below.

* If a person is drunk, he would make a car accident. (2002, assignment paper)
* If I didn't won the university, I am in Denizli now. (2000, classroom task)
* If Hakan could kick the ball, we would win the match. (2000, assignment paper in which the student intended to use past hypothetical)

The rationale behind the choice of both Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals together as the target forms of the study comes from Izumi and Bigelow (2000, p. 268). According to him, the further studies that investigate the effects of focus-on-form treatment on the acquisition of hypothetical conditionals should focus on both present and past hypothetical conditionals together in order to enable learners to distinguish the two and grasp the form-meaning connections correctly.

As can be seen, the target forms chosen for the study fit into the criteria suggested by SLA theoreticians, and, as it is apparent in the examples, the students do really experience difficulty in producing these forms.

3.3. Treatment

In order to compare the effects of the three types of focus-on-form instruction on the acquisition of Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals, each of the groups received a different type of instructional treatment after the pretest (see Figure 3.3). The treatment spanned 6 hours in a 2-week period. In addition, during the treatment, none of the groups was explicitly told by the teacher that they were studying on Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals in order not to cause the subjects to focus primarily on the forms.

IG	IOG	IOFG
Pretest	Pretest	Pretest
Treatment: 6 Hours • Enriched Input • No Focused Productive Tasks • Feedback – only on content & organization	*Treatment: 6 Hours* • Enriched Input • Focused Productive Tasks • Feedback – only on content & organization	*Treatment: 6 Hours* • Enriched Input • Focused Productive Tasks • Feedback – on content & organization – corrective feedback on grammatical inaccuracies in written products
Immediate Posttest	Immediate Posttest	Immediate Posttest
Delayed Posttest	Delayed Posttest	Delayed Posttest

Figure 3.3. Treatment design for the study

All the treatment types (and also the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest) were conducted in the Writing classes of the learners. There are two main reasons for doing so. Firstly, on the theoretical level, focus on form, as Long (1991) stipulates, should be integrated into contexts where the learners' primary focus is on meaning, not on form (see part 2.1.2). This in mind, Writing classes seem to be an optimum context in which focus on form can be incorporated. This is because, during Writing classes, the students' primary aim is to learn how to express themselves in a meaningful and organized way. Thus, in Writing classes, the students' primary focus remains mostly on meaning, rather than form (as it would be in Grammar classes, conversely) (see, for example, Williams and Evans, 1998). The second reason, on the pedagogical level, is related to the ultimate aim of the study. Because the study sets out to offer most effective ways of focusing on the formal characteristics (i.e., grammar) of the language in Writing classes, the implementation of the treatment in a writing context is of vital importance for the appropriateness of the pedagogical implications of the study.

Two different instructional packages were prepared for the treatment phase by the researcher; one for the IG and one for both the IOG and the IOFG. The instructional difference between the IOG and the IOFG lies in the teachers' approach to the learners' errors in their products. While the IOG subjects received no corrective feedback to their errors, the IOFG subjects received corrective feedback when they erred during their productions. The content of the treatment packages was based on the assertions of Izumi (2002, see part 2.1.2.1.2.2.1), Long and Robinson (1998, see part 2.1.2), Norris and Ortega (1999, see part 2.2), and Swain (1998, see part 2.1.2.1.2.2.1.).

3.3.1. Treatment Package for the IG

The IG subjects, throughout the treatment, were exposed to 6 contextualized texts which were seeded with a number of exemplars of the target structures (i.e., Type 2 and Type 3 hypothetical conditionals). During the exposure of the flooded texts, the IG participants were expected to understand the meaning conveyed in the texts, and this was

checked through comprehension and fill-in-the-blank activities, which were following the reading of the texts (see Appendix A). However, the language that these follow-up activities elicit was quite important, because while the subjects were working on these activities, they were not to produce the target structures at all. On the other hand, in order to be able to accomplish the tasks successfully, they were required to understand the meaning conveyed by the target structures. That is, the activities that the IG subjects dealt with were carefully designed in a way that did not push them to produce the target forms, but also in a way that required them to comprehend the meaning the target forms conveyed.

The first two input paragraphs (i.e., *The Portrait of the World* and *Accidental Discoveries*, see Appendix A) required the participants to produce a similar paragraph to the model. However, these production tasks did not specifically promote the use of the target forms; rather they promoted the use of the general language. Also, after each task was accomplished, the subjects in this group obtained feedback on the content and the organization of their written products.

As for the other four texts (i.e., *No Regrets, Helen's Story, Unbearable Life,* and *Alex's Girl Problem*, in Appendix A), they also included numerous examples of the target structures and served as input flood for the subjects. After the students had read these texts, they dealt with follow-up activities to comprehend the texts in depth.

Overall, the subjects in the IG were only exposed to 'comprehensible input', in Krashen's term, with plentiful exemplars of the target forms, but they were not pushed to produce these forms during any treatment.

3.3.2. Treatment Package for the IOG

The activities designed for this group primarily aimed the subjects to produce the target forms through focused production tasks (see Appendix B). Moreover, the subjects were encouraged to work in pairs on each of the production tasks to promote collaboration between the students, as suggested by Kowal and Swain (1994 in Muraoni, 2000) (see part 2.1.2.1.2.2.1).

Similar to the IG subjects, the IOG subjects were exposed to the same input paragraphs (i.e., *The Portrait of the World* and *Accidental Discoveries*, see Appendix B). However, after reading these paragraphs and answering the follow-up comprehension questions, the IOG subjects, unlike the IG subjects, were engaged in focused production tasks that pushed them to use the target structures. Later, they were provided with only content and organization related feedback by the teacher, as it was the case in the IG. The following four texts served as dictogloss activity (i.e., *Helen's Story* and *Alex's Girl* Problem) and text reconstruction tasks (i.e., *No Regrets* and *Unbearable Life*) in order to guarantee the production of the forms in focus by the subjects (see Appendix B).

3.3.2.1. Dictogloss

The dictogloss activity was unfamiliar to the subjects in the IOG (and also the ones in the IOFG), because they had never dealt with such a task in their previous classroom activities. Therefore, as Swain (1998) suggests, the activity was modeled and explained to the subjects one week prior to the commencement of the study so as to make them familiar with the procedure they would pass through, and thus to make the dictogloss more efficient for the subjects (see part 2.1.2.1.2.2.1.).

During the treatment period, the texts, *Helen's Story* and *Alex's Girl Problem*, which were densely seeded with the target structures, were implemented as dictogloss (see Appendix B). Firstly, the texts were read aloud twice at normal speed by the teacher. Meanwhile, each student noted down only words and phrases they were able to hear. However, they were not allowed to write down complete sentences. After that, the students were paired and asked to bring their notes together. Then they were expected to reconstruct the text as correctly as possible, in terms of both grammar and content. During this, they were required to talk with their peers about the correct formation of the texts, that is suggested to lead to 'noticing' of the formal characteristics of the language (see, for example, Swain, 1998; Swain, 1998; Izumi and Bigelow, 2000; Izumi, 2002).

3.3.2.2. Text Reconstruction Tasks

The other two texts (i.e., No *Regrets* and *Unbearable Life* (see Appendix B)) served as text reconstruction tasks, as proposed by Izumi and Bigelow (2000) and Izumi (2002). Izumi regards text reconstruction tasks as linguistic problem-solving tasks. However, the difference between dictogloss and text reconstruction tasks lies in the provision of the original texts (i.e., input). While the texts were read aloud by the teacher in dictogloss, the texts were given to the students as handouts in the application of text reconstruction tasks. Then the subjects were asked to read and underline the parts they thought to be necessary to reconstruct the texts, but they were not allowed to take notes. The rest of the activity is the same as dictogloss. After turning their handouts back to the teacher, they, in pairs, tried to reconstruct a text, which was as similar to the original one as possible, regarding both grammar and content.

However, the teacher did not allow the IOG subjects to return to the original texts in order to conceal the correct use of target structures from the subjects. Otherwise, the subjects could have made comparisons between their own text and the original one, and this comparison could have provided them with a sort of feedback. Instead, the teacher provided only content related feedback and tolerated the grammar errors.

In short, throughout the treatment, the subjects in the IOG produced the target structures through focused production tasks (i.e., dictogloss and text reconstruction tasks) without receiving any corrective feedback on their grammatical inaccuracies.

3.3.3. Treatment Package for the IOFG

The IOFG subjects were engaged in the same focused production tasks as the IOG subjects did. However, as mentioned earlier, the IOFG differed from the IOG in terms of the teacher's error treatment style. In this group, the teacher provided both oral corrective feedback by walking around the classroom, while the learners were writing their own

paragraphs, and written feedback by editing their final products with regard to grammar and content. In addition, the teacher provided feedback by enabling the students to return to the original texts in dictogloss and text reconstruction tasks. Thus, the students were able to make interlanguage-targetlanguage comparisons and to notice the gap between what they actually produced and what they were supposed to produce (Izumi, 2002, p. 551). Moreover, the corrective feedback specifically focused on the grammatical inaccuracies in the use of the target forms of the study.

3.4. Testing Instruments

3.4.1. Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest

In order to measure both short-term and long-term effects of the three focus-on-form treatment types on the learning of Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals, a pretest-posttest design was conducted (see Appendix C for the tests). The pretest was administered to the three groups just before the commencement of the instructional treatment, and the posttest immediately after the end of the treatment. Five weeks after the posttest, the delayed posttest was given to examine long-term effects of the treatment. The pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest were the same and developed by the researcher

Hulstijn (1997) warns that measuring the subjects' language performance by means of tests which include only one type of task may be a threat to the validity of the study. That is, he urges that tests used in language research should include more than one type of task to measure the language gains thoroughly. In the same vein, Ellis (2001) states, "acquisition has been measured in terms of grammaticality judgments, comprehension, and production" (p. 33), and different testing instruments have revealed different results. Considering these, the tests in this study were made up of the combination of four different subtests: a production test, a grammaticality judgment test, a multiple-choice recognition test, and a comprehension test. Thus, it was aimed to measure the subjects' knowledge of the target forms thoroughly.

The tests were administered in the above order so that the subjects could not cheat within the parts. That is, if the comprehension test had been given first, that would have provided the subjects with a sort of input, and thus they could have copied the target structures from the passages in the comprehension test to the subsequent parts, especially to the production part.

While the subjects were taking the tests, they were assured that the results of these tests would not affect their success in the school. Also, they were expected to answer each question sincerely and as far as their knowledge allowed. In addition, in order not to allow unknown vocabulary hinder the subjects' understanding, L1 explanations were used by the teacher when needed. The allocated time for the tests was 40 minutes, which was set depending on the results obtained from the pilot tests.

3.4.1.1. Production Test

The production test (PT) was designed to see if the subjects were able to produce the target structures in the written form accurately. The PT consisted of two separate contextualized paragraphs: *Dissatisfaction*, eliciting Type 2 conditionals and *A Terrible Holiday*, eliciting Type 3 conditionals. In each paragraph, four sentences were omitted, and the subjects were expected to complete the blanks with the help of the context-clues given in the preceding sentences to the blanks. In order to guarantee the use of the conditional sentences, the beginnings of the sentences were given (e.g., *So, he usually daydreams saying, "If I ....* see Appendix C).

The rationale behind measuring the subjects' production through contextualized paragraphs was to make the testing instrument parallel with the treatment. This is because, as it has been mentioned earlier, the treatment was made up the provision of the target structures through contextualized paragraphs (see parts 3.3.1, 3.3.2, and 3.3.3).

3.4.1.2. Multiple-Choice Recognition Test

The multiple-choice recognition test (MCRT) was adapted form Izumi and Bigelow (2000) and consisted of four items: two of them (items A and D) focused on Type 2 conditionals, and the other two (items B and C) on Type 3 conditionals. Since there are two clauses (i.e., a main clause and an if-clause) in English conditional sentences, a separate blank for each clause was given. That is, there were two blanks (each with four choices) in an item. Otherwise, the subjects would have chosen the correct choice, even if they had knowledge about only one of the clauses. Therefore, in this case, the subjects had to know what structures constitute each clause in order to answer the item correctly. In order for the subjects to decide whether the sentences referred to present or past (i.e., Type 2 or Type 3 conditionals), each sentence contained a time adverbial (e.g., *yesterday, right now*).

3.4.1.3. Grammaticality Judgment Test

The grammaticality judgment test (GJT) was administered to see if the subjects gained an ability to differentiate between the accurate use of the target structures and the inaccurate ones. The GJT comprised eight items in total. Of the eight items, four items (no 2, 4, 5, and 8) were referring to Type 2, and the other four items (no 1, 3, 6, and 7) were Type 3. Of the four Type 2 sentences, two were grammatically correct, and the other two were grammatically incorrect. This was the same for the other four sentences including Type 3 conditionals.

The subjects were asked to decide whether each item was correct or incorrect in terms of grammar. If they decided that the sentence was correct, they were to check the CORRECT box. On the other hand, if they decided that the sentence included a grammatical mistake, they were to check the INCORRECT box, and then write the grammatically correct form of the sentence in the given space.

3.4.1.4. Comprehension Test

The comprehension test (CT) was given to see if the subjects were able to understand the hidden meaning in Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals. The CT consisted of two separate contextualized reading passages: *Malaysian Family,* including Type 2 conditionals and *Plane Crash,* including Type 3 conditionals. Below each paragraph, four statements, related with the information presented in the conditional sentences, were given, and the subjects were asked to identify whether the statements were TRUE or FALSE. Therefore, in the CT, there were eight items in total.

Comprehension of these structures has always been problematic for learners because Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals refer to imaginary situations which are contrary to fact. For that reason, the subjects' answers in the CT reflected whether they were aware of this characteristic of Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals or not.

3.4.2. Pilot Test

The tests had passed through a series of pilot studies before they reached their final form. In light of the conclusions drawn from these pilot studies, necessary corrections, omissions, and additions were made on the tests. Later, the final version of the tests was piloted before the study was conducted in order to verify its validity and reliability.

The group to whom the pilot test was given included Intermediate level students studying at Anadolu University, School of Foreign Languages. The group comprised 24 (7 males and 17 females) students whose ages ranged from 18 to 22 (mean age 19.8). Consequently, the pilot test was administered to the students who had similar characteristics to those of the students assigned as the subjects of this study.

3.4.2.1. Test Reliability

Test reliability is a necessary characteristic for a test to be a good one. In order to verify the reliability of the test used throughout the present study as pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest, "split-half method" was used (see Brown, 1996, p. 194; Ekmekçi, 1999, p. 35). To do so, the complete test was divided into equivalent halves, and each half was scored separately. Thus, the test had two different scores. Then the scores of the first half were correlated with the second half. The obtained Pearson r was **0.802**. However, this reflected only the reliability for the half test. For this reason, in order to assess the reliability of the whole test, the Spearman-Brown Prophecy Formula, a mathematical way of estimating what the reliability would be for the whole test, was applied to this correlation as follows:

$$rK = \frac{2rl}{1+rl}$$

rK = reliability of full test

rl = reliability of half of the test

(Ekmekçi, 1999 p.35)

$$rK = \frac{2.\ (0.802)}{1+\ (0.802)} = \frac{1.604}{1.802} = \mathbf{0.89}$$

As can be seen in the above calculation, the obtained reliability coefficient for the whole test was **0.89**. This figure, being higher than 0.70, indicated that the test was reliable enough to employ in the actual study.

3.4.2.2. Test Validity

In addition to test reliability, test validity is also important for a test to be used in academic research. This is because; the more a test is content valid, the more accurately it measures what it is supposed to measure (Hughes, 1989, p. 22). One of the ways of determining the content validity of the test is to make experienced teachers (or testers) to analyze the test thoroughly and item-by-item (Brown, 1996, p. 233; Tekin, 2003 p. 47). Considering this suggestion, the comments of six experienced Grammar teachers at Anadolu University School of Foreign Languages were asked. The teachers had been teaching Grammar at least for four years, and, at the same time, they had also taken active roles in preparing and assessing grammar tests, as the Skill Coordinators or the Level Coordinators at the school. The teachers were asked to judge the degree to which each item tested what it intended to test. Besides this, they were also asked to comment on whether whole of the test tested the target forms thoroughly. In the end, all of the teachers were in consensus that the test measures the target structures as it claims to measure. Therefore, the test can be considered content valid to test the target forms of the study.

3.4.3. Scoring the Testing Instruments

All the quantitative data obtained from the pretest, posttest, and delayed test results were analyzed in two ways.

In the first way, each pretest, posttest, and delayed test was considered as a complete test. Therefore, the data obtained from each part of the test (i.e., the PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT) were combined to reach a composite test score. To this end, each test item in each part was given a different score on the basis of the task demands, and thus the total score of the composite test was equated to 100 points (see Figure 3.4).

Parts	Item no.	Score of The Incorrect Answer	Score of the Correct Answer	Total Score
PT	8	0	5	40
MCRT	4	0	3	12
GJT correct	4	0	2	8
incorrect	4	0	6	24
CT	8	0	2	16
Complete test	28		Total Score:	100

Figure 3.4. The distribution of scores for each part of the test

Consequently, after this analysis, there were three kinds of data for each group.

1. the IG's scores from the composite pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest
2. the IOG's scores from the composite pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest
3. the IOFG's scores from the composite pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest

In the second way of analysis, the data were calculated separately for each part of the tests (i.e., PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT). The reason for doing so was to have an opportunity to calculate and compare each group's scores from different tasks that required different sub-skills to employ (see parts 3.4.1.1, 3.4.1.2, 3.4.1.3, and 3.4.1.4). In so doing, the data analyzed will allow not only to discuss whether the three treatment types are effective in the learning of the target forms, but also to discuss whether the treatment types are effective in the development of any sub-skills (i.e., production, recognition, accuracy judgment, or comprehension).

Thus, after this analysis, the following data were obtained for each group.

1. the IG's scores from the PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT in the pretest
2. the IG's scores from the PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT in the posttest
3. the IG's scores from the PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT in the delayed posttest
4. the IOG's scores from the PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT in the pretest
5. the IOG's scores from the PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT in the posttest

6. the IOG's scores from the PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT in the delayed posttest
7. the IOFG's scores from the PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT in the pretest
8. the IOFG's scores from the PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT in the posttest
9. the IOFG's scores from the PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT in the delayed posttest

In scoring of the PT, 5 points was assigned for each correct answer. In order for an answer to be accepted as correct, it had to be grammatically accurate and meaningfully appropriate. However, if an item, that is a sentence, had a mistake, it received 0. Thus, a maximum of 40 points was possible for this part of the test.

As for scoring of the MCRT, there were 4 items, each consisting of two answers (i.e., one for the main clause and one for the if-clause). If a subject failed to choose the correct choice of any clause type, s/he received 0 for that item. On the other hand, if both of the clauses were correct, s/he received 3 points for that item. Accordingly, the maximum score that a subject could take was 12 points for the MCRT.

Because of different nature of the GJT, the scoring procedure was also different for this part of the test. There were two kinds of sentences in this part. Four of them included grammatical mistakes whereas the other four were grammatically correct. The subjects were to identify whether the sentences were correct or not, and if they thought it to be incorrect, they were to write the correct form. Therefore, three different scores were given in scoring of the GJT, as explained below.

1. The score of 0 was given if the subject could not identify the correctness or the incorrectness of the sentence or if the subject identified that the sentence was incorrect but could not provide the correct form.
2. The score of 2 was given if the subject identified the correctness of the statement.
3. The score of 6 was given if the subject identified the incorrectness of the statement and provided the correct form.

Therefore, because there were eight items, and half of them included correct sentences (4x2=8 points) and the other half incorrect (4x6=24), the maximum score was 32 for this test (see Figure 3.5).

Item	Conditional Type	Grammatical Feature	Possible Scores	
			Incorrect Answer	Correct Answer
1	Type 3	Incorrect	0	6
2	Type 2	Correct	0	2
3	Type 3	Correct	0	2
4	Type 2	Incorrect	0	6
5	Type 2	Correct	0	2
6	Type 3	Incorrect	0	6
7	Type 3	Correct	0	2
8	Type 2	Incorrect	0	6
			Total Score:	32

Figure 3.5. The scoring procedure for each item in the GJT

Finally, in the CT, the subjects were to decide whether the eight items were TRUE or FALSE according to the paragraphs. For each correct decision, the subjects were given 2 points, and 0 for incorrect decision. Thus, a maximum of 16 points was possible for the CT.

3.4.4. Statistical Analysis

As will be seen in the next chapter, the data obtained from the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores of the subjects were analyzed statistically in order to answer the research questions of the present study.

First, mean scores of each group were calculated both for the composite pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores and for each part of the tests separately (i.e., PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT) (see Appendix D for Descriptive Statistics).

Later, in order to see the statistical effectiveness of the Input Flood, Input+Output, and Input+Output+Feedback treatment types on the learning of the target forms, within-group comparisons were conducted among the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest mean

scores. Each group's pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest mean scores were separately submitted to two-way analysis of variance (two-way ANOVA). This was followed by the application of a *post hoc* Tukey multiple comparison test in order to see in which test the subjects made statistically significant improvement. The same procedure was also followed for the mean scores that the subjects obtained from each part of the test.

Next, between-group comparisons were conducted as regard to mean scores that each group obtained from the complete posttest and delayed posttest. To this aim, one-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) and a *post hoc* Tukey test were administered. The between-group comparison of the posttest mean scores revealed the statistical differences among the effects of the treatment types on the learning of the target forms. On the other hand, the comparison of delayed posttest mean scores addressed the question as to which treatment type has more durable effects than the other does. Additionally, the same procedure was followed for the mean scores that the subjects obtained from each part of the test to see in the development of which skills the treatment types are more effective.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

In this study, it was aimed to investigate which type of focus-on-form treatment has greater and more durable effects on the learning of the target forms, and accordingly the following questions were asked.

1) Do learners who receive the three focus-on-form treatment types (i.e., Input Flood, Input+Output, and Input+Output+Feedback) show improvement in learning the target form?
2) Do learners who receive Input+Output treatment outperform those who receive Input Flood treatment?
3) Do learners who receive Input+Output+Feedback treatment outperform those who receive Input Flood treatment and those who receive Input+Output treatment?
4) Which of the three focus-on-form treatment types (i.e., Input Flood, Input+Output, and Input+Output+Feedback) has more durable effects on learning the target form than the others?

In order to answer these questions, the scores obtained from the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest have been analyzed statistically, and the results are presented in the following tables.

4.2. Data Presentation and Analysis

Before examining the effects of the three types of focus-on-form treatment on the subjects' gains, the pretest scores of the three groups were compared in order to see if the subjects' prior knowledge of Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals was statistically equivalent. Because the number of the groups was higher than two, one-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) was used. The ANOVA was conducted for both the complete test and the parts of the test separately. The results can be seen in Table 4.1 (for the complete test) and Table 4.2 (for each part of the test).

Table 4.1

Results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Pretest scores from the complete test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Complete Test	Between Groups	116,113	2	58,056	,212	,810
	Within Groups	16975,826	62	273,804		
	Total	17091,938	64			

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 4.2

Results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Pretest scores from each part of the test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
PT	Between Groups	67,898	2	33,949	,762	,471
	Within Groups	2760,563	62	44,525		
	Total	2828,462	64			
MCRT	Between Groups	16,578	2	8,289	,824	,443
	Within Groups	623,668	62	10,059		
	Total	640,246	64			
GJT	Between Groups	21,730	2	10,865	,246	,783
	Within Groups	2736,670	62	44,140		
	Total	2758,400	64			
CT	Between Groups	7,034	2	3,517	,166	,847
	Within Groups	1310,751	62	21,141		
	Total	1317,785	64			

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
PT: Production test, **MCRT:** Multiple-Choice Recognition test, **GJT:** Grammaticality Judgment Test, **CT:** Comprehension Test

In all of the comparisons, the results show that there is no statistically significant difference between the three groups prior to the treatment ($p > .05$). Thus, the possible development can be attributed to the effects of the treatments conducted.

4.2.1. Within-Group Comparisons in terms of the Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest

In order to see whether each focus-on-form treatment type is effective or not, the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores of each group (i.e., the IG, the IOG, and the IOFG) were compared within the groups. To do so, the data was submitted to two-way analysis of variance (two-way ANOVA) for dependent samples. This is because the same subjects' scores from different tests were compared. In the cases when a statistically significant difference was found, a *post hoc* Tukey multiple comparison test was conducted. This was in order to show the contrasts among the three tests. The within-group comparisons were made both in terms of the complete test scores and in terms of each part of the composite tests (i.e., the PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT), and the results are presented in the following tables (Table 4.3 – Table 4.14).

4.2.1.1. Input Flood Group Comparisons

Table 4.3 shows the two-way ANOVA results for the IG subjects' complete test scores that they obtained from the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest. The results indicate that there is a significant difference among the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores ($p < .05$).

Table 4.3

Results of two-way ANOVA for the IG's complete test scores (the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest)

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	P
Tests	1318,290	2	659,145	7,469	,002*
Subjects	17202,957	22	781,953	8,861	
Error	3883,043	44	88,251		

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Finding a significant difference among the test scores of the IG, a *post hoc* Tukey test was conducted to see which test caused the difference. Table 4.4 shows the results of the *post hoc* Tukey multiple comparison tests for the IG subjects' complete test scores.

Table 4.4

Results of Tukey test for the IG's complete test scores (the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest)

		Mean Difference	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
Test Comparison					**Lower Bound**	**Upper Bound**
Pretest	Posttest	-6,2609	2,770	,072	-12,9799	,4582
	Delayed	-10,6522*	2,770	,001	-17,3713	-3,9331
Posttest	Delayed	-4,3913	2,770	,263	-11,1104	2,3278

* The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.

Although pretest-delayed posttest comparison yields a significant difference ($p < .05$), the table indicates no significant difference between the pretest and the posttest scores ($p > .05$), and between the posttest and the delayed posttest scores ($p > .05$). Accordingly, the IG subjects did not improve by means of the Input Flood treatment because the significant difference is not observable in the comparison of pretest-posttest. In that case, the significant difference between the pretest and the posttest scores may be due to an extra instruction on conditionals conducted in another lesson.

In addition to this holistic comparison, the scores that the IG participants obtained from each part of the test were also compared. Table 4.5 shows the two-way ANOVA

results for the PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT scores that the IG subjects obtained in the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest.

Table 4.5

Results of two-way ANOVA for each part of the IG's pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest

	Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	P
PT	TESTS	132,609	2	66,304	1,881	,164
	SUBJECTS	3810,145	22	173,188	4,914	
	Error	1550,725	44	35,244		
MCRT	TESTS	122,348	2	61,174	9,423	,000*
	SUBJECTS	413,217	22	18,783	2,893	
	Error	285,652	44	6,492		
GJT	TESTS	111,420	2	55,710	2,632	,083
	SUBJECTS	2073,275	22	94,240	4,453	
	Error	931,246	44	21,165		
CT	TESTS	19,826	2	9,913	1,272	,290
	SUBJECTS	579,942	22	26,361	3,383	
	Error	342,841	44	7,792		

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
PT: Production test, **MCRT:** Multiple-Choice Recognition test, **GJT:** Grammaticality Judgment Test, **CT:** Comprehension Test

The results demonstrate that the IG subjects did not exhibit any significant improvement in the PT, GJT, and CT ($p > .05$). The only significant difference is in the comparison of MCRT ($p < .05$). However, the Tukey test conducted reveals that this difference is between the pretest and the delayed posttest, not between the pretest and the posttest (see Table 4.6). Thus, it was not the Input Flood treatment which caused this difference. On the other hand, the effects of that extra instruction caused the IG learners to get significantly higher scores from the MCRT part of the delayed posttest.

Table 4.6

Results of Tukey test for each part of the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest

			Mean Difference	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
	Test Comparison					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
PT	Pretest	Posttest	-2,8261	1,751	,250	-7,0722	1,4200
		Delayed	-3,0435	1,751	,203	-7,2896	1,2026
	Posttest	Delayed	-,2174	1,751	,992	-4,4635	4,0287
MCRT	Pretest	Posttest	-1,6957	,751	,073	-3,5180	,1267
		Delayed	-3,2609*	,751	,000	-5,0833	-1,4385
	Posttest	Delayed	-1,5652	,751	,105	-3,3876	,2572
GJT	Pretest	Posttest	-,9565	1,357	,762	-4,2470	2,3339
		Delayed	-3,0435	1,357	,075	-6,3339	,2470
	Posttest	Delayed	-2,0870	1,357	,283	-5,3774	1,2035
CT	Pretest	Posttest	-,7826	,823	,611	-2,7791	1,2139
		Delayed	-1,3043	,823	,263	-3,3008	,6922
	Posttest	Delayed	-,5217	,823	,802	-2,5182	1,4748

* The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.

PT: Production test, **MCRT:** Multiple-Choice Recognition test, **GJT:** Grammaticality Judgment Test, **CT:** Comprehension Test

4.2.1.2. Input+Output Group Comparisons

The same data analysis procedure was also conducted for the IOG subjects' scores from the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest. As reported in Table 4.7, two-way ANOVA for the complete test scores of the IOG subjects reveal that there is a significant difference among the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores ($p < .05$).

Table 4.7

Results of two-way ANOVA for the IOG's complete test scores

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	P
Tests	12931,030	2	6465,515	55,825	,000*
Subjects	18040,924	21	859,092	7,418	
Error	4864,303	42	115,817		

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

To determine which test contributed to the significance found among the tests, a *post hoc* Tukey test was performed (see Table 4.8).

Table 4.8

Results of Tukey test for the IOG's complete test scores

		Mean Difference	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
Test Comparison					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pretest	Posttest	-26,8182*	3,245	,000	-34,7015	-18,9349
	Delayed	-31,9091*	3,245	,000	-39,7924	-24,0258
Posttest	Delayed	-5,0909	3,245	,270	-12,9742	2,7924

* The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level

The *post hoc* Tukey test analysis reveals that the IOG subjects significantly improved within the time interval between the pretest and the posttest ($p < .05$) and between the pretest and the delayed posttest ($p < .05$). On the other hand, posttest-delayed posttest comparison did not reveal any significant difference ($p > .05$). That is, the IOG subjects seemed to maintain their gains five weeks later. However, as stated earlier, it is difficult to interpret delayed posttest scores, because an extra instruction conducted in another lesson might have effects on the scores that the IOG subjects obtained from the delayed posttest.

According to these results, it can be asserted that the Input+Output treatment is significantly effective for improving the learners on Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals in English.

In order to see in which skills the IOG subjects improved by means of the Input+Output treatment, the subjects' scores form the PT, MCRT, GT, and CT were

submitted to two-way ANOVA separately. As reported in Table 4.9, the results indicate that the IOG subjects had significant gains in all four parts of the test after the treatment ($p<.05$).

Table 4.9

Results of two-way ANOVA for each part of the IOG's pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest

	Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	P
PT	TESTS	3096,212	2	1548,106	24,971	,000*
	SUBJECTS	4360,985	21	207,666	3,350	
	Error	2603,788	42	61,995		
MCRT	TESTS	232,636	2	116,318	13,085	,000*
	SUBJECTS	357,273	21	17,013	1,914	
	Error	373,364	42	8,890		
GJT	TESTS	1184,485	2	592,242	17,841	,000*
	SUBJECTS	1580,364	21	75,255	2,267	
	Error	1394,182	42	33,195		
CT	TESTS	117,939	2	58,970	4,973	,012*
	SUBJECTS	978,485	21	46,595	3,929	
	Error	498,061	42	11,859		

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
PT: Production test, **MCRT:** Multiple-Choice Recognition test, **GJT:** Grammaticality Judgment Test, **CT:** Comprehension Test

Moreover, as presented in Table 4.10, the *post hoc* Tukey test analysis demonstrates that there is a significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores obtained from each part of the tests ($p < .05$), and that there is a significant difference between the pretest and delayed posttest scores obtained from the PT, MCRT, and GJT ($p < .05$). Only the CT test does not show any significant difference between the pretest and delayed posttest scores ($p > .05$). Also, posttest-delayed posttest comparisons do not reveal any significant difference for any part of the tests ($p > .05$).

Table 4.10

Results of Tukey test for each part of the IOG's pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest

			Mean Difference	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
	Test Comparison					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
PT	Pretest	Posttest	-12,0455*	2,374	,000	-17,8131	-6,2778
		Delayed	-16,1364*	2,374	,000	-21,9040	-10,3687
	Posttest	Delayed	-4,0909	2,374	,209	-9,8586	1,6767
MCRT	Pretest	Posttest	-3,6818*	,899	,001	-5,8659	-1,4978
		Delayed	-4,2273*	,899	,000	-6,4113	-2,0432
	Posttest	Delayed	-,5455	,899	,817	-2,7295	1,6386
GJT	Pretest	Posttest	-7,8182*	1,737	,000	-12,0386	-3,5978
		Delayed	-9,8182*	1,737	,000	-14,0386	-5,5978
	Posttest	Delayed	-2,0000	1,737	,489	-6,2204	2,2204
CT	Pretest	Posttest	-3,2727*	1,038	,008	-5,7953	-,7502
		Delayed	-1,7273	1,038	,231	-4,2498	,7953
	Posttest	Delayed	1,5455	1,038	,307	-,9771	4,0680

* The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.
PT: Production test, **MCRT:** Multiple-Choice Recognition test, **GJT:** Grammaticality Judgment Test, **CT:** Comprehension Test

Considering these results, it can be claimed that the IOG subjects had significantly great gains immediately after the treatment and maintained their gains over time based on the comparisons conducted both for the complete test scores and for the scores obtained from each part of the test.

4.2.1.3. Input+Output+Feedback Group Comparisons

As for the analysis of the data obtained from the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores of the IOFG subjects, the same procedure was followed to reveal within-group improvement due to the Input+Output+Feedback treatment conducted in this group.

Table 4.11 illustrates the two-way ANOVA results for the IOFG subjects' complete test scores obtained from the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest. The results show that there is a significant difference among the test scores of the IOFG ($p < .05$).

Table 4.11

Results of two-way ANOVA for the IOFG's complete test scores (the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest)

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	P
Tests	13281,433	2	6640,717	33,336	,000*
Subjects	12910,850	19	679,518	3,411	
Error	7569,900	38	199,208		

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

The *post hoc* Tukey test shows that the posttest and the delayed posttest are significantly different from the pretest ($p < .05$), whereas there is no statistically significant difference between the posttest and the delayed posttest ($p > .05$). Those *post hoc* comparison results suggest that the Input+Output+Feedback treatment is significantly beneficial both in learning the target structures and in maintaining the gains.

The results of the *post hoc* Tukey test can be seen in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12

Results of Tukey test for the IOFG's complete test scores (the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest)

		Mean Difference	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
Test Comparison					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pretest	Posttest	-29,10*	4,463	,000	-39,9852	-18,2148
	Delayed	-33,55*	4,463	,000	-44,4352	-22,6648
Posttest	Delayed	-4,45	4,463	,583	-15,3352	6,4352

* The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.

Besides the analysis of the complete test scores for the IOFG, the scores from each part of the tests were also analyzed separately. The following table (Table 4.13) shows the results of two-way ANOVA for the IOFG subjects' scores from PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT that they obtained in the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest.

Table 4.13

Results of two-way ANOVA for each part of the IOFG's pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest

	Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	P
PT	TESTS	2327,500	2	1163,750	16,145	,000*
	SUBJECTS	2524,583	19	132,873	1,843	
	Error	2739,167	38	72,083		
MCRT	TESTS	278,100	2	139,050	14,764	,000*
	SUBJECTS	390,000	19	20,526	2,179	
	Error	357,900	38	9,418		
GJT	TESTS	1758,400	2	879,200	20,688	,000*
	SUBJECTS	2247,667	19	118,298	2,784	
	Error	1614,933	38	42,498		
CT	TESTS	70,933	2	35,467	9,464	,000*
	SUBJECTS	673,600	19	35,453	9,461	
	Error	142,400	38	3,747		

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
PT: Production test, **MCRT:** Multiple-Choice Recognition test, **GJT:** Grammaticality Judgment Test, **CT:** Comprehension Test

In the above table, it is apparent that the IOFG subjects made significant improvement in all parts of the whole test ($p < .05$).

The *post hoc* Tukey test (see Table 4.14) demonstrates that there is a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest, and between the pretest and delayed posttest in terms of the PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT scores ($p < .05$). However, there is no significant difference between the posttest and delayed posttest scores considering each part of the test ($p > .05$). This shows that Input+Output+Feedback treatment had significantly great impacts on the learners' both short-term and long-term achievements in each part of the tests.

Table 4.14

Results of Tukey test for each part of the IOFG's pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest

			Mean Difference	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
	Test Comparison					**Lower Bound**	**Upper Bound**
PT	Pretest	Posttest	-12,25*	2,685	,000	-18,7979	-5,7021
		Delayed	-14,00*	2,685	,000	-20,5479	-7,4521
	Posttest	Delayed	-1,75	2,685	,792	-8,2979	4,7979
MCRT	Pretest	Posttest	-4,05*	,970	,000	-6,4169	-1,6831
		Delayed	-4,95*	,970	,000	-7,3169	-2,5831
	Posttest	Delayed	-,90	,970	,627	-3,2669	1,4669
GJT	Pretest	Posttest	-10,60*	2,062	,000	-15,6277	-5,5723
		Delayed	-12,20*	2,062	,000	-17,2277	-7,1723
	Posttest	Delayed	-1,60	2,062	,720	-6,6277	3,4277
CT	Pretest	Posttest	-2,20*	,612	,003	-3,6930	-,7070
		Delayed	-2,40*	,612	,001	-3,8930	-,9070
	Posttest	Delayed	-,20	,612	,943	-1,6930	1,2930

* The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.

PT: Production test, **MCRT:** Multiple-Choice Recognition test, **GJT:** Grammaticality Judgment Test, **CT:** Comprehension Test

Based on these statistical results, it can be maintained that the Input+Output+Feedback treatment was significantly effective for the learners' development on Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals and for the learner's maintaining this development over time, as measured by both the complete test scores and the scores they obtained from each part of the test.

In conclusion, within-group comparisons through two-way ANOVA and *post hoc* Tukey test were conducted for each group to reveal the effectiveness of the focus-on-form treatment types. Results of two-way ANOVA for the three groups indicate that each of the three treatment types is effective for the improvement of learners in the learning of the target forms. However, the *post hoc* Tukey test results show that the Input Flood treatment did not lead to any improvement because the pretest-posttest comparison did not reach statistical significance. On the contrary, it was seen that the two output treatment types (i.e., both Input+Output and Input+Output+Feedback) had significant impacts on the learning of the target forms by the learners.

4.2.2. Between-Group Comparisons in terms of the Posttest

In order to see if there is a difference between the effects of the three treatment types, each group's posttest scores were compared. To do so, one-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) was administered. One-way ANOVA was conducted separately for both complete test scores and the scores obtained from each part of the whole test. In the cases when a significant difference was found, a *post hoc* Tukey multiple comparison test was used to see which group, or which groups, caused the difference. The results are presented in the following tables (Table 4.15 – Table 4.18).

The results of the one-way ANOVA in Table 4.15 show that there is a significant difference between the effects of the three focus-on-form treatment types ($p < .05$). That is, treatment types have significantly different impacts on the learning of the target forms.

Table 4.15

Results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Posttest scores from the complete test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Complete Test	Between Groups	8418,704	2	4209,352	9,776	,000*
	Within Groups	26695,512	62	430,573		
	Total	35114,215	64			

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

When the *post hoc* Tukey test was run on the same data, the contrasts among the groups were revealed. As illustrated in Table 4.16, both the Input+Output treatment and the Input+Output+Feedback treatment are significantly more effective than the Input Flood treatment ($p < .05$). However, no significant difference was found between the Input+Output treatment and the Input+Output+Feedback treatment in the comparison of complete test scores ($p > .05$).

Table 4.16

Results of Tukey for all the groups' Posttest scores from the complete test

			Mean Difference	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
Dependent Variable	**Group Comparison**					**Lower Bound**	**Upper Bound**
Complete Test	IG	IOG	-21,1601	6,188	,003*	-36,0192	-6,3009
		IOFG	-25,9783	6,344	,000*	-41,2124	-10,7441
	IOG	IOFG	-4,8182	6,411	,734	-20,2125	10,5762

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Put another way, it is clear that the output-based treatment (whether it is complemented with corrective feedback or not) has a significant impact on the learning of Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals in English, whereas input-based treatment fails to induce an equally beneficial effect on learning.

The same data analysis was conducted for the discrete parts of the whole posttests, and the one-way ANOVA results are presented in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17

Results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Posttest scores from each part of the test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
PT	Between Groups	1379,293	2	689,647	5,731	,005*
	Within Groups	7460,707	62	120,334		
	Total	8840,000	64			
MCRT	Between Groups	155,777	2	77,889	5,804	,005*
	Within Groups	832,007	62	13,419		
	Total	987,785	64			
GJT	Between Groups	1224,571	2	612,286	9,296	,000*
	Within Groups	4083,490	62	65,863		
	Total	5308,062	64			
CT	Between Groups	56,729	2	28,364	1,640	,202
	Within Groups	1072,133	62	17,292		
	Total	1128,862	64			

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

PT: Production test, **MCRT:** Multiple-Choice Recognition test, **GJT:** Grammaticality Judgment Test, **CT:** Comprehension Test

As can be seen in Table 4.17, there is a significant difference between the results of the PT, MCRT, and GJT ($p < .05$). This result reveals that the treatment types had significantly different effects on the subjects' achievement in these tests. On the other hand, only the CT scores do not significantly differ from one group to another ($p > .05$). This could be due to the ceiling effect of the CT scores. Because the subjects in the three conditions obtained high scores from the CT in the pretest, there was no room for the improvement in the subsequent tests, and thus the possible difference did not reach statistical significance.

The *post hoc* Tukey test which was conducted for each single part of the posttests indicate similar results to those obtained from the comparison of complete test scores. For the results, see Table 4.18.

Table 4.18

Results of Tukey for all the groups' Posttest scores from each part of the test

			Mean Difference	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
Dependent Variable	**Group Comparison**					**Lower Bound**	**Upper Bound**
PT	IG	IOG	-8,0435	3,271	,044*	-15,8988	-,1881
		IOFG	-10,7935	3,354	,006*	-18,8471	-2,7399
	IOG	IOFG	-2,7500	3,389	,697	-10,8883	5,3883
MCRT	IG	IOG	-2,8874	1,092	,028*	-5,5106	-,2641
		IOFG	-3,5283	1,120	,007*	-6,2177	-,8388
	IOG	IOFG	-,6409	1,132	,838	-3,3586	2,0768
GJT	IG	IOG	-8,1660	2,420	,004*	-13,9775	-2,3545
		IOFG	-9,8478	2,481	,001*	-15,8060	-3,8896
	IOG	IOFG	-1,6818	2,507	,781	-7,7027	4,3390
CT	IG	IOG	-2,0632	1,240	,227	-5,0411	,9146
		IOFG	-1,8087	1,271	,336	-4,8617	1,2443
	IOG	IOFG	,2545	1,285	,979	-2,8305	3,3396

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
PT: Production test, **MCRT:** Multiple-Choice Recognition test, **GJT:** Grammaticality Judgment Test, **CT:** Comprehension Test

Post hoc analyses reveal that both the IOG subjects and the IOFG subjects significantly outperformed the IG subjects on the PT, MCRT, and GJT ($p < .05$), whereas the IOG subjects and the IOFG subjects do not significantly differ from one another on the performance of these three tests ($p > .05$). The significant difference between the groups

does not appear only in the CT scores, which may be caused by the ceiling effect of the CT. These results indicate that the Input+Output and the Input+Output+Feedback treatment, having similar effects, are more effective than the Input Flood treatment in learners' performance in production, recognition, and accuracy judgment tasks.

4.2.3. Between-Group Comparisons in terms of the Delayed Posttest

Following the same procedure as the one conducted for the comparison of the posttest scores, the delayed posttest scores of the three groups were also compared so as to see which treatment has more durable effects than the other does. The results are shown in the following tables (Table 4.19 – Table 4.21).

Table 4.19 shows that comparison of complete delayed posttest scores among the three groups. As reported in Table 4.19, a significant difference is observable among the delayed posttest scores of the three groups ($p < .05$).

Table 4.19

Results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Delayed Posttest scores from the complete test

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	P
Complete Test	Between Groups	8635,576	2	4317,788	12,870	,000*
	Within Groups	20800,640	62	335,494		
	Total	29436,215	64			

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

A *post hoc* Tukey test (see Table 4.20), which was administered to the same data, indicates that the statistically significant difference is again between the IG and the IOG ($p<05$), and between the IG and the IOFG ($p < .05$), not between the IOG and the IOFG ($p>.05$).

Table 4.20

Results of Tukey for all the groups' Delayed Posttest scores from the complete test

			Mean Difference	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
Dependent Variable	**Group Comparison**					**Lower Bound**	**Upper Bound**
Complete Test	IG	IOG	-21,8597*	5,462	,000	-34,9760	-8,7433
		IOFG	-26,0370*	5,600	,000	-39,4843	-12,5896
	IOG	IOFG	-4,1773	5,659	,742	-17,7660	9,4115

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

These results suggest that the Input+Output treatment and the Input+Output+Feedback treatment, having similar effects, are significantly more effective than the Input Flood treatment for learners to maintain their gains over time.

The one-way ANOVA was also conducted for each part of the complete delayed posttest. The results obtained from this analysis are given in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21

Results of One-way ANOVA for all the groups' Delayed Posttest scores from each part of the test

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	P
PT	Between Groups	2181,877	2	1090,939	9,180	,000*
	Within Groups	7368,123	62	118,841		
	Total	9550,000	64			
MCRT	Between Groups	91,869	2	45,935	3,946	,024*
	Within Groups	721,731	62	11,641		
	Total	813,600	64			
GJT	Between Groups	1139,354	2	569,677	11,690	,000*
	Within Groups	3021,508	62	48,734		
	Total	4160,862	64			
CT	Between Groups	30,694	2	15,347	1,143	,325
	Within Groups	832,444	62	13,427		
	Total	863,138	64			

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

PT: Production test, **MCRT:** Multiple-Choice Recognition test, **GJT:** Grammaticality Judgment Test, **CT:** Comprehension Test

The above table indicates that the difference between the PT, MCRT, and GJT scores that the subjects obtained in their delayed posttests was significant ($p < .05$). The same significant difference was not found for the CT ($p > .05$), which may be due to the ceiling effect, as mentioned earlier.

A *post hoc* Tukey test (see Table 4.22) illustrates that the IOG and the IOFG subject's scores were significantly higher than those of the IG subjects in the PT and GJT ($p < .05$). However, only the IOFG subjects significantly outperformed the IG subjects in the MCRT ($p < .05$). Also, there seems to be no significant difference between the IOG and the IOFG in terms of all the tests ($p > .05$).

Table 4.22

Results of Tukey for all the groups' Delayed Posttest scores from each part of the test

			Mean Difference	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
Dependent Variable	**Group Comparison**					**Lower Bound**	**Upper Bound**
PT	IG	IOG	-11,9170*	3,251	,001	-19,7234	-4,1106
		IOFG	-12,3261*	3,333	,001	-20,3295	-4,3226
	IOG	IOFG	-,4091	3,368	,992	-8,4967	7,6785
MCRT	IG	IOG	-1,8676	1,017	,167	-4,3108	,5756
		IOFG	-2,8630*	1,043	,021	-5,3679	-,3582
	IOG	IOFG	-,9955	1,054	,615	-3,5267	1,5358
GJT	IG	IOG	-8,0791*	2,082	,001	-13,0781	-3,0800
		IOFG	-9,3609*	2,134	,000	-14,4861	-4,2357
	IOG	IOFG	-1,2818	2,157	,824	-6,4609	3,8973
CT	IG	IOG	0,0039	1,093	1,000	-2,6200	2,6279
		IOFG	-1,4870	1,120	,386	-4,1771	1,2032
	IOG	IOFG	-1,4909	1,132	,391	-4,2093	1,2275

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
PT: Production test, **MCRT:** Multiple-Choice Recognition test, **GJT:** Grammaticality Judgment Test, **CT:** Comprehension Test

Considering these results, it can be claimed that the Input+Output treatment and the Input+Output+Feedback treatment are superior to the Input Flood treatment in terms of having durable effects on the learning of Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals. However, the analysis also confirms that the Input+Output treatment and the Input+Output+Feedback treatment are not superior to one another.

4.3. Data Discussion

As it was stated earlier, there are two sets of data; one analyzed in terms of the complete test scores and one analyzed in terms of the scores obtained from each part of the whole tests (i.e., the PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT). While answering the research questions, the analysis of the complete test scores will be used. However, the analysis of the scores that the subjects obtained from each part of the whole tests will also contribute to the in-depth discussion of the findings.

The first research question was asked to investigate if the learners would improve through the focus-on-form treatment types conducted in the study. The within-group comparisons of pretest-posttest gain scores through two-way ANOVA and the *post hoc* Tukey test revealed different results for the groups. The complete test analysis showed that the IG learners did not make any significant improvement after the treatment (see Tables 4.3 and 4.4). This finding was confirmed by the analyses conducted for each part of the test, as can be seen in Table 4.5 and 4.6. The IG learners did not show a significantly higher achievement in the PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT of the posttest than they did in the pretest. Thus, Input Flood treatment neither led to learning of the target forms nor assisted the development of any of the sub-skills.

On the other hand, the analysis of complete test scores revealed that both the IOG and the IOFG learners exhibited a statistically significant improvement after the treatment (see Tables 4.7, 4.8, 4.11, and 4.12). These two output groups' improvement was proved not only by the analysis of the complete test scores, but also by the analysis of the scores they obtained from each part of the tests (see Tables 4.9, 4.10, 4.13, 4.14). That is, both groups had a significantly higher achievement in the PT, MCRT, GJT, and CT of the posttest than they did in the pretest.

Overall, it can be concluded that Input Flood treatment is not an effective way of focusing on form, whereas Input+Output and Input+Output+Feedback treatment types are effective in the learning of Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals in English.

The second and the third research questions were asked to investigate which focus-on-form treatment type(s) is superior to one another in the learning of the target forms. The

between-group comparisons of the posttest gain scores via one-way ANOVA and the *post hoc* Tukey test revealed answers to these questions.

The answer to the second question is positive. In other words, the learners in the IOG significantly outperformed those in the IG, as illustrated in Table 4.16. That is, Input+Output treatment is more effective than the Input Flood treatment in the learning of the target forms. In line with this finding, Input+Output treatment is also more effective than the Input Flood treatment in the development of production, recognition, and accuracy judgment sub-skills. This is because there appeared significant differences between the scores that the IG and the IOG learners obtained from the PT, MCRT, and GJT (see Table 4.18). Only the scores of the CT were not significantly different. This could be due to the ceiling effect of the CT scores. Because the learners in the three conditions obtained high scores from the CT in the pretests, the possible improvement did not reach statistical significance.

The answer to the third question is partly positive and partly negative. Put it more clearly, the learners in the IOFG significantly outperformed those in the IG; on the contrary, the learners in the IOFG did not outperform those in the IOG, as shown in Table 4.16. In addition to these, the IOFG learners outperformed the IG learners in the PT, MCRT, and GJT; conversely, the IOFG learners did not outperform the IOG learners in these tests (see Table 4.18).

These findings indicate that the Input+Output+Feedback treatment is more effective than the Input Flood treatment, and that the Input+Output treatment and the Input + Output +Feedback treatment have similar effects on the learning of the target forms. Thus, providing learners with corrective feedback on the errors in their products is not so effective in learning as pushing the learners to produce output.

As for the last question, it was asked to investigate which of the focus-on-form treatment type(s) has effects that are more durable. The between-group comparisons of the delayed posttest scores, conducted through one-way ANOVA and *post hoc* Tukey test, revealed similar results to those obtained in between-group comparisons of the posttest gain scores (see Tables 4.19 and 4.20). That is, the IOG learners and the IOFG learners were significantly superior to the IG learners in maintaining their gains over 5-week time. However, the IOFG learners did not outperform the IOG learners in the delayed posttests.

These results indicate that the Input+Output treatment and the Input+Output+Feedback treatment, having similar durable effects, are more effective than the Input Flood treatment in terms of the learners' maintaining their gains over 5-week time.

However, it is not appropriate to attribute these findings to the effects of focus-on-form treatment types on the maintenance of the gains. This is because it was detected that the learners in the three treatment conditions received a sort of instruction on Type 1, Type 2, and Type 3 conditionals in another lesson (i.e., Core Course) within the time period between the posttest and the delayed posttest. Therefore, the scores that the learners in the three conditions obtained from delayed posttests were possibly affected by this extra instruction (see Tables 4.4, 4.8, and 4.12). However, because this instruction took place between the posttest and delayed posttest, it is safe to claim that the learners' posttest scores reflect their actual gains due to the focus-on-form treatments conducted in the study.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSIONS and CONCLUSIONS

5.1. Summary of the Study

This study set out to investigate which type of focus on form – Input Flood, Input+Output, or Input+Output+Feedback – is more effective in promoting the learning of Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals in English by the EFL learners in Anadolu University, School of Foreign Languages. It also aimed to investigate which of the focus-on-form treatments has effects on learning the target forms that are more durable. To this end, the three focus-on-form treatment types were delivered to three experimental groups throughout 6 hours in a 2-week period. The data obtained from the pretest, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest scores were analyzed through analyses of variance (i.e., one-way ANOVA, two-way ANOVA) and *post hoc* Tukey multiple comparison tests. The statistical results indicated three evident findings of this study, as summarized below.

1. The Input Flood treatment is not effective in the learning of the target forms.
2. Both the Input+Output and the Input+Output+Feedback treatment types are effective in the learning of the target forms.
3. The Input+Output and the Input+Output+Feedback treatment types have similar effects in the learning of the target forms.

5.2. Assessment of the Study

The insertion of the Input Flood treatment into the study was based on the two SLA theories. These were Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1986, in Brown, 1994, p. 281) and Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1990). Krashen claimed that provision of a sufficient amount of 'comprehensible input' in meaningful contexts is enough for acquisition to take place. In the same vein, Schmidt claimed that learners must first notice the target form in the input in order to acquire that form. Thus, considering 'noticing' as a prerequisite for acquisition, he maintained that if the target forms are made salient for learners by either artificially increasing the number of the incidence in the input or typographically highlighting the target forms, it will be easier for learners to notice, and thus acquire these forms. On the other hand, in opposition to Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis, Sharwood Smith (1993) warned that external manipulation of input (i.e. through typographical enhancement or seeding the input with the target structure) does not always guarantee the learners' noticing of the structure in focus. Bearing these in mind, in the present study, the Input Flood learners were provided with plentiful exemplars of the target forms in primarily meaningful contexts. Moreover, these learners, after receiving the input through reading passages, were asked to answer the comprehension questions in order to ensure that they comprehended the meaning that the target structures conveyed. At the end, the study came up with contradictory findings with what Krashen and Schmidt offer because the learners in this group did not show any statistically significant improvement by means of the Input Flood treatment. However, the study confirmed Sharwood Smith's (1993) assertions.

Moreover, this finding of the study is parallel with the research findings in the SLA literature. For example, Alanen (1995 in Ellis, 1999), and Williams and Evans (1998) examined the effects of input flood treatment (see part 2.1.2.1.2.1.3). At the end of their research, these researchers came to a consensus and concluded that input flood is not effective in drawing learners' attention to formal features of the language. Therefore, they suggested that more explicit treatment types could be more beneficial in inducing the acquisition of the target language. That is, the findings of the present study do also agree with those of Alanen and Williams and Evans.

As Ellis (1999) discusses in his review article, the reason for the ineffectiveness of the enriched input treatment in the recent input-based studies might be that the input provided was not enough in terms of quantity to induce noticing. The reason for the failure of the Input Flood treatment in this study might be the same as what Ellis discusses. That is, if the IG subjects had been exposed to a larger amount of input flood throughout a longer time-period, the results might have been positive for this kind of treatment. Alternatively, the target forms in the input could have been typographically highlighted in order to make these forms more salient for the learners, as Schmidt (1990) offers. In this way, the likelihood of noticing of the forms could have been increased.

As for the second major finding that reveals both the Input+Output and the Input+Output+Feedback treatment types are effective on the learning of the target forms, it is consistent with the findings of other output-based studies in the SLA literature (for example, Izumi, 2002; Swain, 1998; Swain and Lapkin, 1995). The learners in the IOG and the IOFG were pushed to produce the target forms through controlled paragraph writing activities and collaborative production tasks, which were dictogloss and text reconstruction tasks (see parts 3.3.2 and 3.3.3). The application of this output-based treatment was based on Swain's Output Hypothesis (1995, 1998). According to her, receiving only comprehensible input is not sufficient for learners to acquire the target language, as opposed to what Krashen claimed. Additionally, Swain claims that learners must be encouraged to produce the language for primarily communicative purposes in order to promote acquisition. She explains how output can enhance acquisition in three ways: a) by enabling learners to notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target language, b) by creating opportunities for learners to test their language-related hypotheses, and c) by enabling learners to reflect upon their own language through metatalk. The second finding of the present study agrees with what Swain (1995, 1998) proposes about the effects of output on language acquisition. This is because the learners who received output-based treatment significantly outperformed those who received input-based treatment in the study.

In light of this finding, it can be asserted that output as an "internal attention-drawing device" is more effective in language learning than input, which is considered to be an "external attention-drawing device" by Izumi (2002 p. 543). In his study, he also revealed that output-based treatment led learners to focus on form, and that language

production tasks enhanced acquisition, whereas input-based treatment failed to achieve these.

In that case, considering the second research finding of this study, it is possible to conclude that output-based treatment (irrespective of whether it is complemented with corrective feedback or not) is a successful way of enabling learners attend to formal features of the language in primarily meaning-based contexts. In this way, learners can also have opportunities to make form-function-meaning connections, as Kowal and Swain (1994 in Muranoi, 2000) propose.

As a result, it seems that pushing learners to produce output in meaningful contexts is a beneficial way of inducing the learning of the target language.

The last finding of this study is an interesting one. It reveals that Input+Output and Input+Output+Feedback treatment types have similar effects on the learning of the target forms. A logical interpretation of this finding is that providing learners with corrective feedback did not have any additional effect on the acquisition of the target forms. However, this finding of the study contradicts what other feedback-based studies revealed in the recent SLA literature (Doughty and Varela, 1998; Han, 2002; Long, Inagaki, and Ortega, 1998). For example, Doughty and Varela (1998) and Han (2002) provided their subjects with corrective feedback (in the form of recasts) when the learners erred during oral or written narrative tasks. When the researchers compared the subjects who received feedback with those who did not, the results led them to conclude that provision of feedback to learners' grammatical errors is effective in the learning of these forms, as long as this error treatment does not interrupt the communicative flow of the lesson.

Similar to those of these two studies, the design of the present study also allowed the IOFG learners to get involved in productive tasks and receive corrective feedback on their both grammatical and content-related errors. However, the results of this study did not show any significant effect for the teacher's error treatment.

The reason for the ineffectiveness of the teacher's provision of corrective feedback in this study may be related to the four conditions that Han (2002) proposes for error correction to be beneficial in language classrooms (see part 2.1.2.1.1.2). That is, if the teacher had provided each individual learner with more intensive feedback in terms of solely the target structures, then it might have been easier for the learners to attend to these structures. Thus, the results related to the error treatment might have been positive.

5.3. Pedagogical Implications

The present study intended to reveal which type of focus on form is most effective in enhancing language learning in EFL settings. In light of the research findings, the study aimed to offer ways of incorporating focus on form into meaning-based Writing classes. Considering the findings of the study, several pedagogical implications can be suggested.

The most important pedagogical implication of this study is that the students do not need to be explicitly instructed on the grammatical features of the language, as it was the case in traditional approaches to language teaching. Instead, depending on the findings of the study, it can be suggested that providing learners with opportunities to produce the language in meaningful contexts may also be pedagogically effective in promoting the learning of the language forms, rather than teaching grammar in isolation. That is, through focused production tasks, the teachers can enable learners to focus on form in Writing classes, instead of teaching the forms explicitly in isolated grammar courses. In so doing, the learners will possibly have opportunities to make connections between the linguistic form and the meaning it conveys. Thus, in their future outputs, the learners will be able to produce both grammatically accurate and meaningfully appropriate language.

Another pedagogical implication that can be made in this study is that language production tasks may be more beneficial if they are done collaboratively by pairs of students. This is because collaborative production tasks lead learners to reason about the correct use of the language forms, and thus they increase learners' awareness of form-meaning connections (as also suggested by Izumi, 2002). At the same time, as Swain (1995) asserts, production tasks, enabling learners to activate "their own internalized knowledge" (p. 127), lead them to notice the gap between what they know and what they are supposed to know. This mental reasoning is considered as a process of language learning by Swain and Lapkin (1995). Thus, insertion of collaborative language production tasks into the curriculum may bring about positive pedagogical results in EFL teaching.

Lastly, since most focus-on-form research has been conducted in contexts where the learners are learning their second language, the results of these studies are attributable to the issue of language teaching in ESL settings. However, this study is conducted in

Anadolu University School of Foreign Languages, where the learners are learning English as a foreign language. Therefore, the pedagogical implications of this study contribute to the issue of language teaching in EFL settings.

5.4. Implications for Further Research

The present study has provided empirical evidence that output-based focus on form treatment (whether it is accompanied by error treatment or not) is effective in learning Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals in English by intermediate level EFL learners, while input-based focus on form treatment is not effective in the learning of these forms. Therefore, the findings of the study are limited to this level of learners and these linguistic forms. The need to use learners at different levels (i.e., beginner, elementary, or more advanced) and different linguistic forms (i.e., simpler forms) in order to arrive at a more general claim for the effects of focus on form in EFL settings is certainly apparent. In addition, there is a need for further focus-on-form investigation to employ learners from different age groups (i.e., young learners). Consequently, future research can be carried out to examine the effects of focus on form on the learning of different linguistic forms, involving learners from different language levels and from different age groups.

Moreover, the present study has intended to contribute to the incorporation of focus-on-form treatment (through input flood, output, and corrective feedback) into Writing Classes for the purpose of improving the learners' grammatical accuracy in written production. Therefore, the issue of incorporating focus on form in Speaking classes needs further investigation. For this reason, in future research, one may want to examine the effects of focus on form on language learning by conducting spontaneous production tasks to see if subjects generalize their skills to oral production.

Furthermore, in the present study, the data obtained from the delayed posttest scores came to be difficult to interpret, because the learners in the three conditions were exposed to an extra instruction on the target structures of the study in the interval between the posttest and the delayed posttest. As discussed earlier, the learners' performance on the

delayed posttest might have been affected by this. Therefore, long-term effects of the treatment types under investigation can be re-examined to arrive at a more robust claim for the long-lasting effects of the focus-on-form treatment types.

In addition to the above, it can be argued that the teacher of the three groups was, at the same time, the researcher. That might mean that he could have been biased towards one treatment type or another. Therefore, the following focus-on-form investigation may avoid this by employing a different teacher to deliver the treatment.

Lastly, the present study's aim was to investigate if drawing learners' attention to a specific form through input flood, output, and corrective feedback is effective to learn that form. Therefore, only the tests that directly measure the learners' language gains were employed (see part 3.4.1). However, direct measures of attention were not employed to examine the 'noticing' issue. Thus, future research may want to investigate the 'noticing' of the linguistic forms, and, in this way, it may relate the findings regarding noticing with the learning issue.

5.5. Conclusion

This study has intended to reveal which type of focus on form – Input Flood, Input+Output, or Input+Output+Feedback – is more effective in promoting the learning of the target language by EFL learners in Anadolu University, School of Foreign Languages. In light of the statistical findings, it has been found that provision of solely input-based focus on form treatment is ineffective in inducing a significant level of learning the target forms. On the other hand, the statistical results have presented evidence regarding the effectiveness of output-based focus on form treatment, whether it is accompanied by error treatment or not, in promoting significant levels of learning the target forms. That is, it can be concluded that the provision of corrective feedback to learners' grammatical inaccuracies in the written form does not have a significant effect on learning as output-based focus on form treatment does.

APPENDICES

		Page
APPENDIX A:	Treatment Package for the Input Flood Group	86
APPENDIX B:	Treatment Package for the Input+Output Group and the Input+Output+Feedback Group	96
APPENDIX C:	The Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttests	108
APPENDIX D:	Descriptive Statistics for the Complete Test Scores and Each Part of the Tests	114

APPENDIX A

Treatment Package for the Input Flood Group

Model Paragraph 1

Read the model paragraph below.

The Portrait of the World*

The conditions of today's world make me very desperate for life on earth. First of all, because people destroy huge areas of forests, many species of animals become extinct in the wild. However, if we were more sensitive to the balance of the nature, tigers, for example, wouldn't die out. Secondly, the world's oil supplies are running out. Therefore, the scientists are searching for new energy sources, but they haven't been successful yet. But, if we were using other forms of energy sources for transportation and heating, the oil supplies wouldn't run out. Thirdly, the earth's climate is becoming warmer day by day due to ozone depletion. However, if we didn't use gases and perfumes which are harmful for the ozone layer, it wouldn't be depleted, and thus the climate wouldn't get warmer. In short, if we took more care of nature, we wouldn't face such threatening dangers.

Answer the following questions according to the paragraph.

1. How does the writer feel about the world's situation?
2. Throughout the paragraph, does the writer talk about past, present, or future?
3. Do tigers become extinct? If so, what should we do to prevent this?
4. Do oil supplies run out? Why? Why not?
5. What causes ozone depletion?
6. According to the writer, what is the main cause of the bad conditions of the world?

* Created by the researcher

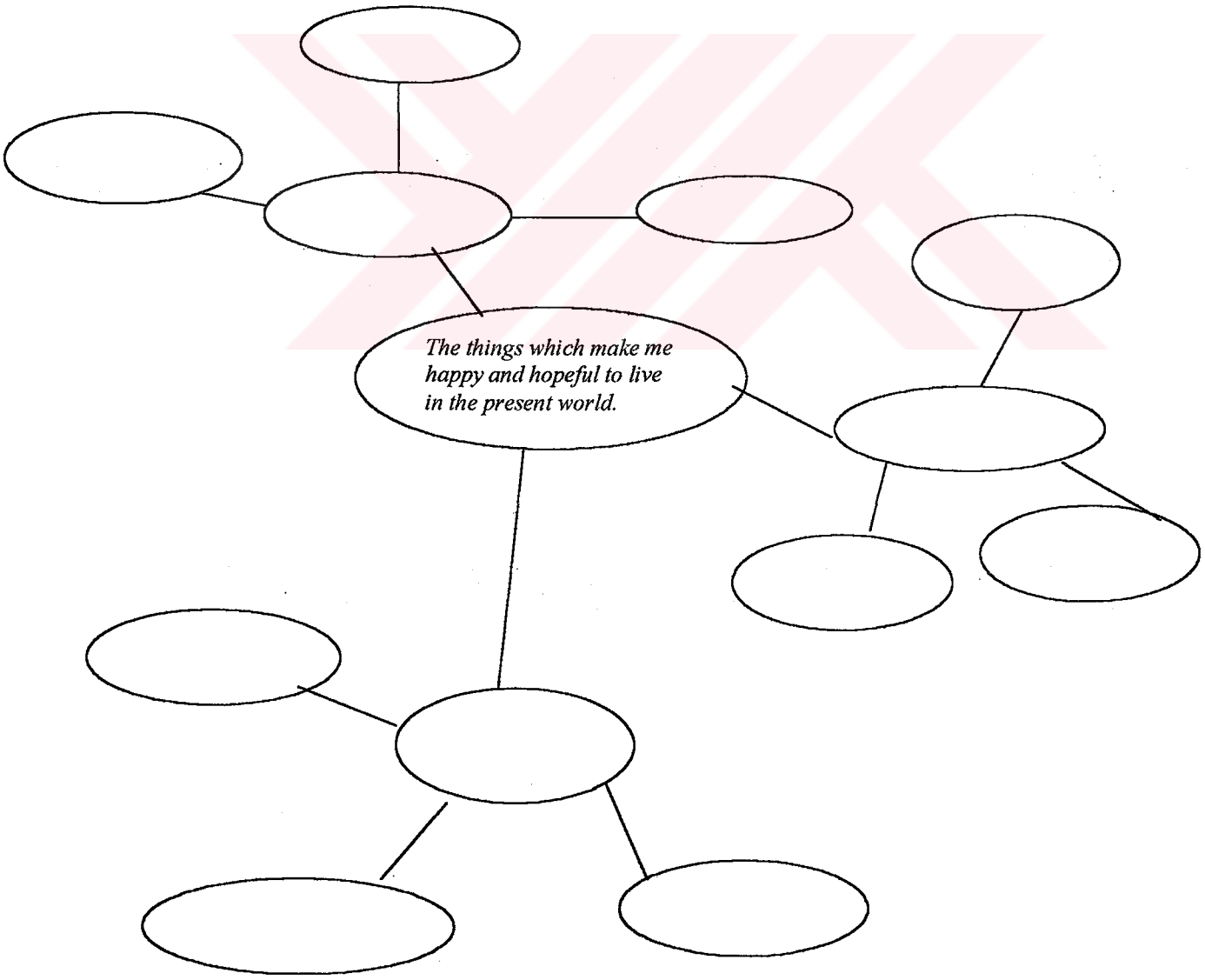
In general, the paragraph above is about the world's worsening situation. However, the main message the writer is trying to convey is; "It is the people who cause the conditions to get worse." Of course, the things would be different, if the human being were not so selfish and thoughtless.

Do you know of any other dangers which are threatening life on earth? If you do, exchange it with your friends.

Now it is your turn!

Pre-writing:

The model paragraph we have just read takes a very pessimistic point of view, and it accuses people of destroying nature. Of course, many other things are going well in the world, and people are very keen on nature. Use the clustering below and brainstorm ideas in order to write a paragraph, which contradicts the previous model paragraph.



Using the information you have just clustered, write your own paragraph emphasizing that people, in fact, are doing very nice things to have better life conditions and that there are very promising developments.

Model Paragraph 2

Read the model paragraph below.

Accidental Discoveries*

Many important scientific developments or discoveries have happened by chance. Firstly, Sir Isaac Newton came up with the idea of the Law of Gravity thanks to an accident. To put it more clearly, if he hadn't decided to take a nap under an apple tree, an apple wouldn't have fallen on his head, and thus he wouldn't have claimed that there must be a force that causes things to move toward the ground. Secondly, Alexander Fleming's discovery of penicillin is due to his forgetfulness. In other words, if he hadn't left a sandwich on a windowsill, and if he hadn't forgotten about it, he wouldn't have discovered the fungus and mold that contains penicillin. Lastly, Christopher Columbus's wrong calculation of the size of the earth enabled him to discover America. If he had calculated it correctly, he would have never tried to reach Asia by sailing west. If that hadn't happened, the European discovery of the New World would have occurred in 1592, instead of 1492. Overall, it is quite possible to see that some discoveries were coincidental.

Answer the following questions according to the paragraph.

1. Throughout the paragraph, does the writer talk about past or present?
2. What does the Law of Gravity refer to?
3. Can you explain how Newton discovered the Law of Gravity with your own words?
4. Was Fleming conducting an experiment when he discovered penicillin?
5. Why did mold grow on that sandwich?
6. What was Columbus's original destination when he set sail in 1492?
7. Why / how did he reach America?

The paragraph above is about some discoveries that were often made because someone was in the right place at the right time or because someone made a mistake and got an unexpected result.

Do you know of any other discoveries that occurred by chance? If you do, exchange it with your friends.

* Adapted from "Exercise 19" by Thewlis, 2000, p. 288.

Now it is your turn!

Pre-writing:

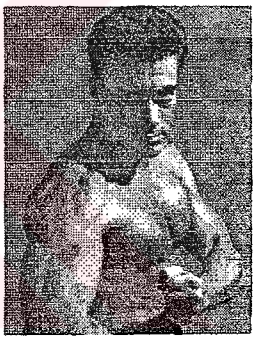
Not only may people discover things coincidentally but they may also become famous by chance. In the following extracts taken from a magazine, three famous people's rise to fame are given.

*Ashley Judd was not the first choice to play the lead role of the movie "Double Jeopardy". Judie Foster was. But Judie was pregnant, so the director offered Ashley the role that made her a world-wide known actress.**

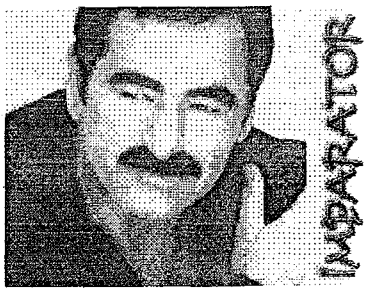
A. Judd

J. Foster

*Jean- Claude Van Damme begged many producers for a chance to star in a movie, but no producer gave him a role in any movie. Then, while this man was having a drink with his friends in a bar, he luckily met Menahem Golan, who was a film producer and looking for an actor for his new film. This film required the actor to be good at karate. In his first movie "Bloodsport", Van Damme's fighting skills attracted many other producers. As a result, this movie opened the door to Van Damme's career.***



*One could never guess that a construction worker would become the greatest arabesk singer of Turkey. Actually, İbrahim Tatlıses didn't have any such intention when he moved to Istanbul to earn money. One day, while he was singing, a music producer passing by heard his voice and decided to produce a record for Tatlıses. His first record "Ayağında kundura" was a big hit, and his great success in music led him to star in movies as well.****



* Adapted from an article "Judd, Jury & Executioner" by King [On-line]
** Adapted from an advertisement by "the Digital Bits" [On-line]
*** Created by the researcher.

Using the information above, write your own paragraph emphasizing how chance helped the above personalities to become famous.

Reading Passage 1

Below you see a newspaper article about an old man who had an unexpected guest too. Read it and answer the questions below.

No Regrets*

The old age pensioner who shot two burglars last week said he had no regrets as he left court yesterday. He said he had to take the law in his own hands. Luckily, the burglars were slightly injured.

He added, "It's their own fault. If they hadn't been in my house, I wouldn't have fired the gun. If I had called the police, the burglars would have disappeared before the police arrived."

He received a lot of support from the public. One of his neighbors said, "My house was burgled a year ago, and if I had had gun then, I would have done the same thing."

Answer the following questions according to the article.

1. What did the old man do when he saw the burglars? Why?
2. How does he feel about the situation?
3. Did the old man call the police? Why? Why not?
4. What happened to the thieves?
5. Did one of his neighbors also shoot the burglar last year? Why? Why not?
6. Do you think he had the right to behave so?

* Adapted from "No Regrets" by Hutchinson, 2000, p. 104.

Reading Passage 2

Below given a commentary of the process in which Helena tried to catch 2:30 train. Read it together with your teacher, and it will help you see what enabled her to catch the train.

Helen's Story*

There are several important considerations for Helen to change her traveling plans and catch the train. Firstly, if she had decided to take a bus to the station, she would have had to wait there long because one had just left. Then, if she hadn't hailed a taxi, and if the taxi driver hadn't known a shortcut to the station, she wouldn't have had any chance to get to the station on time. After the accident, if she hadn't got off the taxi and taken a bus, she would have had to wait for the drivers to stop quarreling. As a result, if she hadn't made quick and practical decisions, she would possibly have missed the train.

Fill in the blanks with appropriate verbs according to the commentary.
(Note: the verbs may be positive or negative)

1. Helen _____ a bus to the station, so she _____ at the bus stop long.
2. After that decision, she _____ a taxi, and the taxi driver _____ a shortcut, so she could get to the train station on time.
3. While she _____ to the station in a taxi, the taxi driver _____ an accident.
4. Then the drivers _____ to quarrel, but Helen _____ for them to stop, and she _____ the taxi.
5. At the end, she _____ the train because she _____ quick and practical decisions.

* Created by the researcher

Reading Passage 3

In order to create a meaningful text, fill in the blanks with the appropriate words in the box below. Then compare it with your classmate's version. After that the teacher will give the correct answers.

themselves	wars	different	aggressive	catastrophic
unbearable	sexes	technological	world	control

_____ Life*

Have you ever thought of the absence of one of the _____? What would happen to the women if all the men in the _____ disappeared? Or, what would happen to the men if there were no women? I think if men and women lived in _____ worlds, the results would be _____. For example, men are too _____to live on their own. If women didn't _____ them men would start more _____. On the other hand, women don't have the _____ skills to live in their own world. If men didn't help them, women wouldn't be able to make the things easier by _____.

Answer the following questions.

1. What kind of a world does the writer create in the paragraph?
2. How do women help men? Why?
3. How do men help women? Why?

* Adapted from "The Disappearance" by Fuchs and Bonner, 2000, p. 345.

Reading Passage 4

As far as we understood, the writer and the guy she described are dating, and they are possibly having a nice relationship. However, sometimes asking girls out is too difficult for boys. Boys create imaginary fears of being refused, and they daren't ask them out. Here is such a problem that Alex suffers from.

Alex's Girl Problem*

Alex has just fallen in love with a girl, Cindy. But, he is indecisive to ask her out because he is unsure of himself. First, if he had a car, he could pick her up from home at nights, and if he had more money, he could take her to a nice restaurant. In addition, Alex is shorter than she is. If he were taller than Cindy, he wouldn't hesitate to take her dancing. So, if he were more self-confident, he would certainly ask her out and they would be dating, because Cindy also likes Alex very much.

Answer the following questions.

1. Does Alex have a car?
2. Why daren't Alex take her dancing?
3. What is Alex's main reason to not to ask her out?
4. Have you ever had such an experience?
5. Do you think Alex is totally wrong? Why? Why not?
6. Do you think your partner's having much money or a nice car is important for you?
7. What kind of people do you like? Describe her/him orally.

* Created by the researcher.

APPENDIX B

Treatment Package for the Input+Output Group and the Input+Output+Feedback Group

Model Paragraph 1

Read the model paragraph below.

The Portrait of the World*

The conditions of today's world make me very desperate for life on earth. First of all, because people destroy huge areas of forests, many species of animals become extinct in the wild. However, if we were more sensitive to the balance of the nature, tigers, for example, wouldn't die out. Secondly, the world's oil supplies are running out. Therefore, the scientists are searching for new energy sources, but they haven't been successful yet. But, if we were using other forms of energy sources for transportation and heating, the oil supplies wouldn't run out. Thirdly, the earth's climate is becoming warmer day by day due to ozone depletion. However, if we didn't use gases and perfumes which are harmful for the ozone layer, it wouldn't be depleted, and thus the climate wouldn't get warmer. In short, if we took more care of nature, we wouldn't face such threatening dangers.

Answer the following questions according to the paragraph.

1. How does the writer feel about the world's situation?
2. Throughout the paragraph, does the writer talk about past, present, or future?
3. Do tigers become extinct? If so, what should we do to prevent this?
4. Do oil supplies run out? Why? Why not?
5. What causes ozone depletion?
6. According to the writer, what is the main cause of the bad conditions of the world?

* Created by the researcher

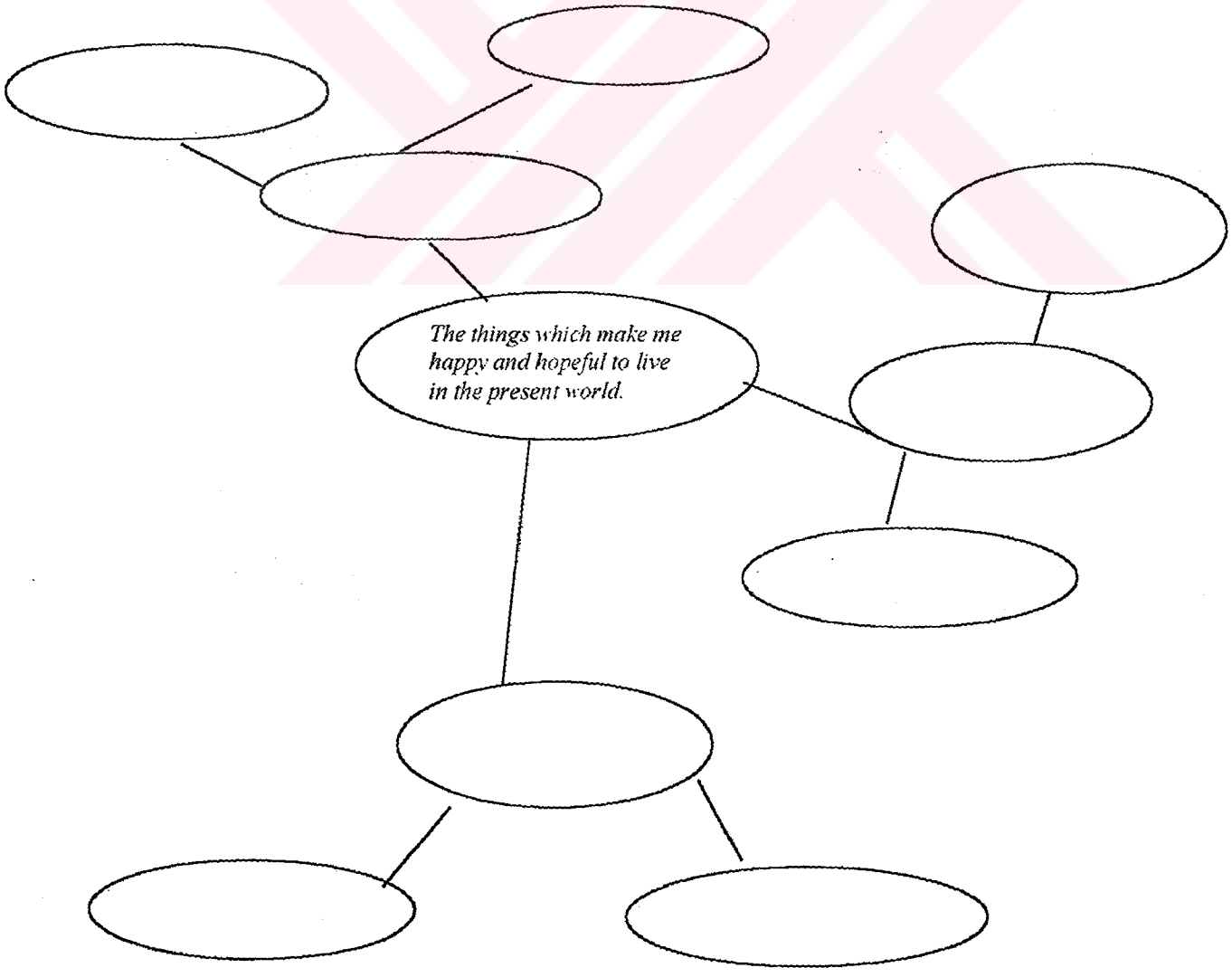
In general, the paragraph above is about the world's worsening situation. However, the main message the writer is trying to convey is; "It is the people who cause the conditions to get worse." Of course, the things would be different, if the human being were not so selfish and thoughtless.

Do you know of any other dangers which are threatening life on earth? If you do, exchange it with your friends.

Now it is your turn!

Pre-writing:

The model paragraph we have just read takes a very pessimistic point of view, and it accuses people of destroying nature. Of course, many other things are going well in the world, and people are very keen on nature. Use the clustering below and brainstorm ideas in order to write a paragraph, which contradicts the previous model paragraph.



Using the information you have just clustered, write your own paragraph emphasizing that people, in fact, are doing very nice things to have better life conditions and that there are very promising developments.

Note that, in the model paragraph "The Portrait of the World", in order to emphasize that people are responsible for the worsening situation of the world, the writer presents his unreal hypotheses by using "If ... not..., ..." or "If..., ...". In your supporting sentences, try to use such sentences in order to create an opposite impression.

Model Paragraph 2

Read the model paragraph below.

Accidental Discoveries*

Many important scientific developments or discoveries have happened by chance. Firstly, Sir Isaac Newton came up with the idea of the Law of Gravity thanks to an accident. To put it more clearly, if he hadn't decided to take a nap under an apple tree, an apple wouldn't have fallen on his head, and thus he wouldn't have claimed that there must be a force that causes things to move toward the ground. Secondly, Alexander Fleming's discovery of penicillin is due to his forgetfulness. In other words, if he hadn't left a sandwich on a windowsill, and if he hadn't forgotten about it, he wouldn't have discovered the fungus and mold that contains penicillin. Lastly, Christopher Columbus's wrong calculation of the size of the earth enabled him to discover America. If he had calculated it correctly, he would have never tried to reach Asia by sailing west. If that hadn't happened, the European discovery of the New World would have occurred in 1592, instead of 1492. Overall, it is quite possible to see that some discoveries were coincidental.

Answer the following questions according to the paragraph.

1. Throughout the paragraph, does the writer talk about past or present?
2. What does the Law of Gravity refer to?
3. Can you explain how Newton discovered the Law of Gravity with your own words?
4. Was Fleming conducting an experiment when he discovered penicillin?
5. Why did mold grow on that sandwich?
6. What was Columbus's original destination when he set sail in 1492?
7. Why / how did he reach America?

The paragraph above is about some discoveries that were often made because someone was in the right place at the right time or because someone made a mistake and got an unexpected result.

Do you know of any other discoveries that occurred by chance? If you do, exchange it with your friends.

* Adapted from "Exercise 19" by Thewlis, 2000, p. 288.

Now it is your turn!

Pre-writing:

Not only may people discover things coincidentally but they may also become famous by chance. In the following extracts taken from a magazine, three famous people's rises to fame are given.

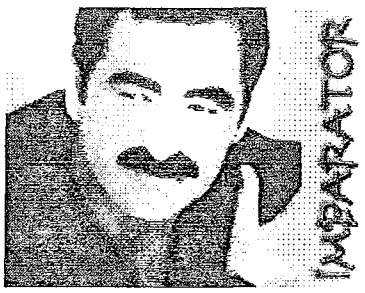
*Ashley Judd was not the first choice to play the lead role of the movie "Double Jeopardy". Judie Foster was. But Judie was pregnant, so the director offered Ashley the role that made her a world-wide known actress.**

A. Judd

J. Foster

*Jean- Claude Van Damme begged many producers for a chance to star in a movie, but no producer gave him a role in any movie. Then, while this man was having a drink with his friends in a bar, he luckily met Menahem Golan, who was a film producer and looking for an actor for his new film. This film required the actor to be good at karate. In his first movie "Bloodsport", Van Damme's fighting skills attracted many other producers. As a result, this movie opened the door to Van Damme's career.***

*One could never guess that a construction worker would become the greatest arabesk singer of Turkey. Actually, İbrahim Tatlıses didn't have any such intention when he moved to Istanbul to earn money. One day, while he was singing, a music producer passing by heard his voice and decided to produce a record for Tatlıses. His first record "Ayağında kundura" was a big hit, and his great success in music led him to star in movies as well.****



Using the information above, write your own paragraph emphasizing how chance helped the above personalities to become famous.

* Adapted from an article "Judd, Jury & Executioner" by King [On-line]
** Adapted from an advertisement by "the Digital Bits" [On-line]
*** Created by the researcher

Note that, in the model paragraph above, in order to emphasize that all the three discoveries occurred accidentally, the writer presents his unreal hypotheses by using "If ... not..., ..." or "If..., ...". In your supporting sentences, try to use such sentences in order to give a similar impression.

Text Reconstruction Task 1

Class Discussion

If you saw a burglar in your house, what would you do? Would you do something on your own? Would you shout or escape? Or, would you call the police?

Preparation

The teacher is going to give you a separate handout of a short newspaper article about an old man who was burgled. With your pair read the article very carefully and try to memorize it. Then the teacher is going take the handout back.

Rewriting

Now work with your partner and start to rewrite the newspaper article you have just read. Remember that your article should be identical to the original one.

(Note: while creating the text, discuss with your friend if your sentences are correct)

No Regrets

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

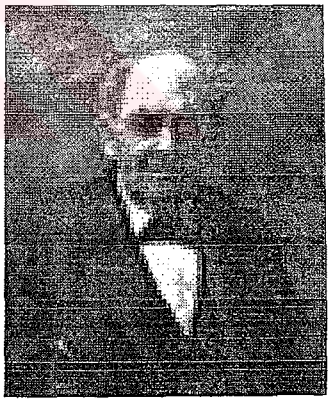
.....

.....

.....

.....

.....



Dictogloss 1

Note Taking

The teacher is going to read aloud a commentary of the process in which Helena tried to catch 2:30 train twice. In the first time, just listen to your teacher carefully. In the second, take notes to help you reconstruct the text. Use the given space below to take notes.

Now work with your partner. Bring your notes together and compare them. Then start to recreate a text which is identical to the one the teacher has just read. *(Note: while creating the text, discuss if with your friend your sentences are correct)*

Helen's Story

Text Reconstruction Task 2

Class Discussion

Although there are some conflicts between the two sexes, the men and the women complement each other very well. Imagine a world where only men lived? Or, imagine a world where only women lived? Would it be possible? What would happen? What kind of life would they lead, if only one of the sexes existed?

Preparation

Now the teacher is going to give you a separate handout of a short text about such an imaginary world. With your pair read the text very carefully and try to memorize it. Then the teacher is going take the handout back.

Rewriting

Now work with your partner and start to rewrite the text you have just read. Remember that your text should be identical to the original one.

(Note: while creating the text, discuss with your friend if your sentences are correct)

Unbearable Life

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Dictogloss 2

As far as we understood, the writer and the guy she described are dating, and they are possibly having a nice relationship. However, sometimes asking girls out is too difficult for boys. Boys create imaginary fears of being refused, and they daren't ask them out. Here is such a problem that Alex suffers from.

Note Taking

The teacher is going to read aloud a short text about Alex's hesitation to ask for a date twice. In the first time, just listen to your teacher carefully. In the second listening, take notes to help you reconstruct the text. Use the given space below to take notes.

Now work with your partner. Bring your notes together and compare them. Then start to create a text which is identical to the one the teacher has just read. *(Note: while creating the text, discuss with your friend if your sentences are correct)*

Alex's Girl Problem

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

HANDOUTS FOR THE TEXT RECONSTRUCTION TASKS

Text Reconstruction Task 1

No Regrets*

The old age pensioner who shot two burglars last week said he had no regrets as he left court yesterday. He said he had to take the law in his own hands. Luckily, the burglars were slightly injured.

He added, "It's their own fault. If they hadn't been in my house, I wouldn't have fired the gun. If I had called the police, the burglars would have disappeared before the police arrived."

He received a lot of support from the public. One of his neighbors said, "My house was burgled a year ago, and if I had had gun then, I would have done the same thing."

Text Reconstruction Task 2

Unbearable Life**

Have you ever thought of the absence of one of the sexes? What would happen to the women if all the men in the world disappeared? Or, what would happen to the men if there were no women? I think if men and women lived in different worlds, the results would be catastrophic. For example, men are too aggressive to live on their own. If women didn't control them, men would start more wars. On the other hand, women don't have the technological skills to live in their own world. If men didn't help them, women wouldn't be able to make the things easier by themselves.

* Adapted from "No Regrets" by Hutchinson, 2000, p. 104.

** Adapted from "The Disappearance" by Fuchs and Bonner, 2000, p. 345.

TEXTS READ ALOUD FOR DICTOGLOS ACTIVITIES

Dictogloss 1

Helen's Story*

There are several important considerations for Helen to change her traveling plans and catch the train. Firstly, if she had decided to take a bus to the station, she would have had to wait there long because one had just left. Then, if she hadn't hailed a taxi, and if the taxi driver hadn't known a shortcut to the station, she wouldn't have had any chance to get to the station on time. After the accident, if she hadn't got off the taxi and taken a bus, she would have had to wait for the drivers to stop quarreling. As a result, if she hadn't made quick and practical decisions, she would possibly have missed the train.

Dictogloss 2

Alex's Girl Problem**

Alex has just fallen in love with a girl, Cindy. But, he is indecisive to ask her out because he is unsure of himself. First, if he had a car, he could pick her up from home at nights, and if he had more money, he could take her to a nice restaurant. In addition, Alex is shorter than she is. If he were taller than Cindy, he wouldn't hesitate to take her dancing. So, if he were more self-confident, he would certainly ask her out and they would be dating, because Cindy also likes Alex very much.

* Created by the researcher.

** Created by the researcher.

APPENDIX C

The Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttests

Name: ..... **Class:** .....: **Age:** ..... **Sex:** .....

I. PRODUCTION TEST

There are two paragraphs below. Read the paragraphs and complete the paragraphs with appropriate sentences. Note that your sentences should be meaningful and grammatical.

Complete all the blanks. Don't leave anything out.

a) Dissatisfaction

Some people are often dissatisfied with what they have got. People of that kind always want to have more. For example, Uncle George is living in a flat now. However, he always wants to buy a house with a swimming pool, but he cannot buy one because he doesn't have enough money. So, he usually daydreams saying, "If I _____ _____, _____." Another example is my cousin, Judy. She is never happy with her physical appearance. She thinks that other people do not show interest in her because she doesn't look like a top model. So, according to her, _____ if _____. The third example is a friend of mine, James. He often complains about his grades. He is never able to get 'A' in his exams. To be frank, he doesn't study hard. But, of course, instead of whining, if he _____, _____ _____. The last example of people of that kind is me. I have many acquaintances around me; however, I want to be known worldwide like Celine Dion. So, if I _____, _____ _____. All in all, George, Judy, James, and I never seem to be content with what we have got.

b)

A Terrible Holiday

Thomas had a terrible summer holiday in Miami last year. This was going to be the first one-week holiday he had ever gone on his own. He wanted to be independent. He didn't book a room in advance, so he spent his first day looking for a free room. However, if he _____ _____, _____ _____. Anyway, he had six more days ahead to savor every minute of the holiday. Next morning, he decided to lie on the beach and get some sun, so he left the hotel room early in the morning and spent all day sunbathing on the beach. Because of the hot sun, he got sunstroke and spent the next three days in hospital. Of course, he _____ if _____. When he left the hospital, he had only two days left, so he decided at least to visit some souvenir shops in the city. However, because he had taken very little money with him, he wasn't able to buy any souvenirs. But, if _____ _____, _____ _____. Then, having nothing to do, he decided to stop his holiday and return home. When he arrived home, he found the door open, and soon after he realized that a thief had broken into the house. At that moment, he remembered that he had forgotten to lock the door. But, if he _____, _____. All in all, the holiday in Miami turned out to be disaster for Thomas.

II. MULTIPLE-CHOICE RECOGNITION TEST

First, read each sentence carefully. Then read all the choices for both parts of each sentence. Next, **circle** the letter of the correct answer that completes the sentence.

Answer all the questions. Don't leave anything out.

A. If I _____ have to go to class today, I _____ to the cinema with you.

1. a) don't
b) didn't
c) wouldn't
d) can't

2. a) would have come
b) come
c) can come
d) would come

B. If I _____ you were still in bed on Sunday afternoon, I _____ you.

3. a) could have known
b) knew
c) had known
d) would know

4. a) wouldn't call
b) wouldn't have called
c) won't call
d) didn't call

C. You _____ the final exam yesterday if you _____ hard last semester.

5. a) could have passed
b) could pass
c) passed
d) had passed

6. a) studied
b) would study
c) had studied
d) would have studied

D. What _____ you do if you _____ a ghost right now?

7. a) can
b) will
c) would
d) do

8. a) saw
b) had seen
c) would see
d) will see

III. GRAMMATICALITY JUDGMENT TEST

There are eight sentences below. However, some of them include **grammatical mistakes**. Read each sentence carefully. First, decide whether the sentence is grammatically correct or incorrect. Then,

- **check** (√) the box beside CORRECT or INCORRECT
- Next, if you think it is CORRECT, do not write anything. However, if you have checked INCORRECT, write the sentence out correctly.

Answer all the questions. Don't leave anything out.

1. I would have talked to Betty if I saw her yesterday.

☐ CORRECT

☐ INCORRECT

.....

2. If I were you, I would immediately stop smoking.

☐ CORRECT

☐ INCORRECT

.....

3. The newspaper wouldn't have printed the news if it hadn't been true.

☐ CORRECT

☐ INCORRECT

.....

4. If I have 100 billion TL now, I would buy a sports car.

☐ CORRECT

☐ INCORRECT

.....

5. If I knew George's telephone number, I would give it to you.

☐ CORRECT

☐ INCORRECT

.....

6. You don't break your leg if you hadn't played football yesterday.

☐ CORRECT

☐ INCORRECT

.....

7. If I had had enough time yesterday, I would have gone to the park.

☐ CORRECT

☐ INCORRECT

.....

8. If I am not tired now, I would do the washing-up.

☐ CORRECT

☐ INCORRECT

.....

IV. COMPREHENSION TEST

a)

Read the following paragraph and then answer True/False questions.

Answer all the questions. Don't leave anything out.

Malaysian Family

The very nature of the family in Malaysia is changing. According to some sociologists, this change is caused by two main factors: the economy and technology. If Malaysia had better economic conditions, women who have to bring money to their homes wouldn't have to go to work. Therefore, if women stayed at home longer, they would be able to spare more time to fulfill their domestic roles. Moreover, if Malaysian people were not following technological developments like TV or the Internet, they wouldn't be informed about the family structure of other countries. But, of course, if such technologies as TV and the Internet were easy to access, the change in family norms would be even faster.

Circle True or False according to the newspaper article above.

1. Malaysian women cannot spare enough time for their domestic roles.

   True False

2. Malaysian people follow the technological developments.

   True False

3. They aren't informed about the family structure of other countries.

   True False

4. It is easy to access TV or the Internet in Malaysia.

   True False

b)

Plane Crash

On 13 October 1992, a plane carrying 45 passengers and crew crashed in a remote part of the High Andes. It was reported that the crash was due to a technical problem. If the plane had had its regular maintenance before the departure, the engines wouldn't have caused such a problem. Moreover, if the pilot hadn't managed to take control of the plane, the plane would have crashed into the peaks of the High Andes, and thus all the passengers would have been killed.

Circle True or False according to the text above.

1. Before the plane took off, the maintenance technicians checked it.

   True False

2. The pilot took control of the plane.

   True False

3. All the passengers were killed in the plane crash.

   True False

4. The plane crashed into the peaks of the High Andes.

   True False

APPENDIX D

Descriptive Statistics for the Complete Test Scores and Each Part of the Tests

Descriptive Statistics for the Complete Test Scores

Groups		Pretest	Posttest	Delayed Posttest
	Mean	**25,3**	**31,5**	**35,9**
IG (23)	Std. Deviation	18,5	17,2	17,9
	Std. Error	3,9	3,6	3,7
	Mean	**25,9**	**52,7**	**57,8**
IOG (22)	Std. Deviation	14,7	24,4	5,2
	Std. Error	3,1	5,2	3,6
	Mean	**28,4**	**57,5**	**62,0**
IOFG (20)	Std. Deviation	16,0	20,1	20,4
	Std. Error	3,6	4,5	4,6

Note: Maximum possible score was 100.

Descriptive Statistics for the Production Test Scores

Groups		Pretest	Posttest	Delayed Posttest
	Mean	**4,1**	**7,0**	**7,2**
IG (23)	Std. Deviation	8,7	8,5	9,7
	Std. Error	1,8	1,8	2,0
	Mean	**3,0**	**15,0**	**19,1**
IOG (22)	Std. Deviation	4,8	13,3	11,5
	Std. Error	1,0	2,8	2,5
	Mean	**5,5**	**17,8**	**19,5**
IOFG (20)	Std. Deviation	5,6	10,7	11,5
	Std. Error	1,3	2,4	2,6

Note: Maximum possible score was 40.

Descriptive Statistics for the Multiple –Choice Recognition Test Scores

Groups		Pretest	Posttest	Delayed Posttest
	Mean	**1,8**	**3,5**	**5,1**
IG (23)	*Std. Deviation*	3,2	3,6	2,9
	Std. Error	,7	,7	,6
	Mean	**2,7**	**6,4**	**7,0**
IOG (22)	*Std. Deviation*	2,6	4,0	3,5
	Std. Error	,6	,8	,7
	Mean	**3,0**	**7,1**	**8,0**
IOFG (20)	*Std. Deviation*	3,6	3,4	3,8
	Std. Error	,8	,8	,9

Note: Maximum possible score was 12.

Descriptive Statistics for the Grammaticality Judgment Test Scores

Groups		Pretest	Posttest	Delayed Posttest
	Mean	**8,7**	**9,7**	**11,7**
IG (23)	*Std. Deviation*	6,8	6,6	6,9
	Std. Error	1,4	1,4	1,4
	Mean	**10,0**	**17,8**	**19,8**
IOG (22)	*Std. Deviation*	6,2	8,8	5,0
	Std. Error	1,3	1,9	1,1
	Mean	**8,9**	**19,5**	**21,1**
IOFG (20)	*Std. Deviation*	6,9	8,9	8,7
	Std. Error	1,5	2,0	2,0

Note: Maximum possible score was 32.

Descriptive Statistics for the Comprehension Test Scores

Groups		Pretest	Posttest	Delayed Posttest
	Mean	**10,6**	**11,4**	**11,9**
IG (23)	*Std. Deviation*	4,2	3,9	3,1
	Std. Error	,9	,8	,6
	Mean	**10,2**	**13,5**	**11,9**
IOG (22)	*Std. Deviation*	5,2	4,8	4,5
	Std. Error	1,1	1,0	,9
	Mean	**11,0**	**13,2**	**13,4**
IOFG (20)	*Std. Deviation*	4,3	3,7	3,3
	Std. Error	,9	,8	,7

Note: Maximum possible score was 16.

REFERENCES

Alcon, E. "Input and Input Processing in Second Language Acquisition". **International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching**, 36, 4, 1998.

Brown, J. D. **Testing in Language Programs.** Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1996.

Brown, H. D. **Principles of Language Learning and Teaching.** USA: Prentice Hall Regents, 1994.

Carroll, S., & Swain, M. "Explicit and Implicit Negative Feedback: An Empirical Study of the Learning of Linguistic Generalizations". **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**, 15, 357-366, 1993.

de Bot, K. "Review Article: The Psycholinguistics of the Output Hypothesis". **Language Learning**, 46:3, 529-555, 1996.

DeKeyser, R. M. "Learning Second Language Grammar Rules: An Experiment with a Miniature Linguistic System". **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**, 17, 379-410, 1995.

_____. "Beyond Focus on Form: Cognitive Perspectives on Learning and Practicing Second Language Grammar". In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), **Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition** (pp. 42-63). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1998.

Doughty, C., & Varela, E. "Communicative Focus on Form". In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), **Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition** (pp. 114-138). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1998.

Doughty, C., & Williams, J. (Eds.). **Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition.** Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1998a.

_____. "Issues and Terminology". In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), **Focus on Form in Classroom second Language Acquisition** (pp. 1-11). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1998b.

_____. "Pedagogical Choices in Focus on Form". In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), **Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition** (pp. 197-261). New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998c.

Ekmekçi, F. Ö. **Research Manual for Social Sciences.** Volume II. Turkey: Nesil Ofset, 1999.

Ellis, R. "Input-based Approaches to Teaching Grammar: A Review of Classroom-oriented Research". **Annual Review of Applied Linguistics**, 19, 64-80, 1999.

Ellis, R. "Introduction: Investigating Form-focused Instruction". **Language Learning**. 51 (Suppl. 1). 1-46, 2001.

_____. "Does Form-focused Instruction Affect the Acquisition of Implicit Knowledge? A Review of the Research". **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**, 24, 223-236, 2002.

Ellis, R., Basturkmen, H., & Loewen, S. "Preemptive Focus on Form in the ESL Classroom". **TESOL Quarterly**, 35, 407-432, 2001a.

_____. "Learner Uptake in Communicative ESL Lessons". **Language Learning**, 51, 281-318, 2001b.

_____. "Doing Focus-on-form". **System**, 30, 419-432, 2002.

Fotos, S. "Consciousness Raising and Noticing through Focus on Form: Grammar Task Performance versus Formal Instruction". **Applied Linguistics**, 14:4, 389-407, 1993.

_____. "Integrating Grammar Instruction and Communicative Language Use through Grammar Consciousness-raising Tasks". **TESOL Quarterly**, 28, 323-351, 1994.

Fuchs, M., & Bonner, M. **Focus on Grammar. A High-intermediate Course for Reference and Practice.** Second Edition. New York: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc., p. 345, 2000.

Han, Z. "A Study of the Impact of Recasts on Tense Consistency in L2 Output". **TESOL Quarterly**, 36, 543-572, 2002.

Harley, B. "The Role of Focus-on-form Tasks in Promoting Child L2 Acquisition". In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), **Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition** (pp. 156-174). New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998.

Hughes, A. **Testing for Language Teachers.** Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1989.

Hulstijn, J. H. "Second Language Acquisition Research in Laboratory: Possibilities and Limitations". **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**, 19, 131-143, 1997.

Hutchinson, T. **Lifelines Intermediate Student's Book.** Sixth Impression. Oxford: Oxford University Press, p. 104, 2000.

King, R. **Judd, Jury & Executioner: Ashley Judd takes the law into her hands in the thriller Double Jeopardy.** [On-line] Available: http://www.geocities.com/Hollywood/Camera/3946/judd_executioner.html

Iwashita, N. "Negative Feedback and Positive Evidence in Task-based Interaction". **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**, 25, 1-36, 2003.

Izumi, S. "Output, Input Enhancement, and the Noticing Hypothesis". **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**, 24, 541-577, 2002.

Izumi, S., & Bigelow, M. "Does Output Promote Noticing and Second Language Acquisition?". **TESOL Quarterly**, 34, 239-278, 2000.

Larsen-Freeman, D. **Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching**. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1986.

Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. "Focus on Form and Corrective Feedback in Communicative Language Teaching: Effects on Second Language Learning". **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**, 12, 429-448, 1990.

Lightbown, P. M. "The Importance of Timing in Focus on Form". In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), **Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition** (pp. 177-196). New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998.

Long, M. "Focus on form: A Design Feature in Language Teaching Methodology". In K. de Bot, R. Ginsberg, & C. Kramsch (Eds.), **Foreign Language Research in Cross-cultural Perspective** (pp. 39-52). Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 1991.

Long, M., Inagaki, S., & Ortega, L. "The Role of Implicit Negative Feedback in SLA: Models and Recasts in Japanese and Spanish". **The Modern Language Journal**, 82, 357-371, 1998.

Long, M., & Robinson, P. "Focus on Form: Theory, Research, and Practice". In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), **Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition** (pp. 15-41). New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998.

Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. "Corrective Feedback and Learner Uptake: Negotiation of Form in Communicative Classrooms". **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**, 19, 37-66, 1997.

Muranoi, H. "Focus on Form through Interaction Enhancement: Integrating Formal Instruction into a Communicative Task in EFL Classrooms". **Language Learning**, 50, 617-673, 2000.

Norris, J., & Ortega, L. "Effectiveness of L2 Instruction: A Research Synthesis and Quantitative Meta-analysis". **Language Learning**, 50, 417-528, 2000.

Nunan, D. **Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom**. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1989.

Panova, I., & Lyster, R. "Patterns of Corrective Feedback and Uptake in an Adult ESL Classroom". **TESOL Quarterly**, 36, 573-595, 2002.

Pica, T. "Tradition and Transition in English Language Teaching Methodology". **System**, 28, 1-18, 2000.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. **Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching: A Description and Analysis**. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1986.

Robinson, P. "Learning Simple and Complex Second Language Rules under Implicit, Incidental, Rule-search, and Instructed Conditions". **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**, 18, 27-67, 1996.

Schmidt, R. "The Role of Consciousness in Second Language Learning". **Applied Linguistics**, 11, 129-158, 1990.

Sharwood Smith, M. "Input Enhancement in Instructed SLA: Theoretical Bases". **Studies in Second Language Acquisition,** 15, 165-179, 1993.

Swain, M. "Three Functions of Output in Second Language Learning". In G. Cook & B. Seidhofer (Eds.), **Principles and Practice in Applied Linguistics: Studies in Honour of H. G. Widdowson** (pp. 125-144). Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1995.

_____. "Focus on Form through Conscious Reflection". In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), **Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition** (pp. 64-81). New York: Cambridge University Press, 1998.

_____. "French Immersion Research in Canada: Recent Contributions to SLA and Applied Linguistics". **Annual Review of Applied Linguistics**, 20, 199-212, 2000.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. "Problems in Output and the Cognitive Processes They Generate: A Step towards Second Language Learning". **Applied Linguistics**, 16, 371-391, 1995.

Tekin, H. **Eğitimde Ölçme Değerlendirme**. 15. Basım. Ankara: Yargı Basım Yayım Dağıtım Ltd. Şti, 2003.

The Digital Bits. **Van Damage! Jean-Claude Van Damme on DVD**. [On-line] Available: http://www.thedigitalbits.com/reviews/vandamme.html

Thewlis, S. H. **Grammar Dimensions: Form, Meaning, and Use**. Platinum Edition 3. USA: Heinle&Heinle Publishers, p. 288, 2000.

Tomlin, R., & Villa, V. "Attention in Cognitive Science and Second Language Acquisition". **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**, 16, 183-203, 1994.

Trahey, M., & White, L. "Positive Evidence and Preemption in the Second Language Classroom". **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**, 15, 181-204, 1993.

White, J. "Getting the Learners' Attention: A Typographical Input Enhancement Study". In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), **Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition** (pp. 85-113). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1998.

Williams, J. "The Effectiveness of Spontaneous Attention to Form". **System**, 29, 325-340, 2001.

Williams, J., & Evans, J. "What Kind of Focus and on Which Forms?". In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), **Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition** (pp. 139-155). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1998.

Willis, J. (1996). **A Framework for Task-based Learning**. England: Addison Wesley Longman Limited, 1996.