## T.C

DOKUZ EYLÜL UNIVERSITY INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAMME MA THESIS

# THE EFFECTS OF DEDUCTIVE AND INDUCTIVE INSTRUCTION ON <br> <br> GRAMMAR 

 <br> <br> GRAMMAR}

Tuğba HAN

İzmir

## T.C

DOKUZ EYLÜL UNIVERSITY INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAMME MA THESIS

# THE EFFECTS OF DEDUCTIVE AND INDUCTIVE INSTRUCTION ON GRAMMAR 

Tuğba HAN

Advisor

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Feryal ÇUBUKÇU

İzmir

## Yemin Metni

Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak sunduğum "The Effects of Deductive and Inductive Instruction on Grammar" adlı çalışmanın, tarafımdan, bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı düşecek bir yardıma başvurmaksızın yazıldığını ve yararlandığım eserlerin kaynakçada gösterilenlerden oluştuğunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanılmış olduğunu belirtir ve bunu onurumla doğrularım.

12 / $06 / 2012$

TUĞBA HAN

Signature
高.

İşbu çalışma, jürimiz tarafından Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans Programında YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Başkan : Doç. Dr. Feryal ÇUBUKÇU

Üye : Yr. Doç. Dr. Ayfer ONAN


Üye : Yr. Doç. Dr. Aylin KÖYALAN


Onay
Yukarıda imzaların, adı geçen öğretim üyelerine ait olduğunu onaylarım.

02/07/2012

Prof. Dr. h. c. İbrahim ATALAY
Enstitü Müdürü

T．C
YÜKSEKÖĞRETIM KURULU
ULUSAL TEZ MERKEZi

TEZ VERI GIRiŞi VE YAYIMLAMA IZIN FORMU

| Referans No | 435512 |
| :---: | :---: |
| Yȧzar Adı／Soyadı | TUGBA HAN |
| Uyruğu／T．C．Kimlik No | T．C． 20600446282 |
| Telefon／Cep Telefonu |  |
| e－Posta | tugbanigdeli＠hotmail．com |
| Tezin Dili | İngilizce |
| Tezin Özgün Adı | The Effects od Deductive and Inductive Instruction on Grammar |
| Tezin Tercümesi | Tümevarım ve Tümdengelim Öğretim Metotlarımı Dilbilgisi Eğitimine Katkısı |
| Konu Başılıları |  |
| Üniversite | Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi |
| Enstitü／Hastane | Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü |
| Bölüm |  |
| Anabilim Dalı | İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı |
| Bilim Dalı／Bölüm | İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bilim Dalı |
| Tez Türü | Yüksek Lisans |
| Yill | 2012 |
| Sayfa | 138 |
| Tez Danışmanlanı | Doç．Dr．Feryal ÇUBUKÇU |
| Dizin Terimleri | Açik bilgi＝Explicit knowledge <br> Yabancı dil öğretimi＝Foreign language learning |
| Önerilen Dizin Terimleri | Explicit grammar instruction，Implicit grammar instruction，language learning，deductive，inductive |
| Yayımlama Izni | i $⿴ 囗 ⿰ 丿 ㇄$ |

a．Yukarıda başlı̆ıı yazılı olan tezimin，ilgilenenlerin incelemesine sunulmak üzere Yükseköğretim Kurulu Ulusal Tez Merkezi tarafindan arşivenmesi，kağr，mikroform veya elektronik formatta，internet dahil olmak üzere her türlü ortamda çoğatulması，ödünç verilmesi，dağıtmı ve yayımı için，tezimle ilgili fikri mülkiyet haklarım saklı kalmak üzere hiçbir ücret（royalty）ve erteleme talep etmeksizin izin verdiğimi beyan ederim．


## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to express my gratitude for my thesis supervisor Doc. Dr. Feryal Çubukçu for her great interest, invaluable guidance, continuous encouragement throughout my study. The preparation of this thesis would not have been possible without her support.

My gratitude goes to the students of the School of Foreign Languages of Dokuz Eylül University who helped me by participating in the study. Many thanks to all of my friends who have listened, and encouraged me in my work. I particularly thank to Ayşegül Özcan and Eda Can. It was you that made me smile.

My greatest thanks go to my family; my parents Saadet Niğdeli and Ahmet Niğdeli, and brother Tolga Niğdeli who have always been around to encourage and help me whenever I needed. I am deeply grateful to my grandmother whose prayers have helped me in every corner of my life. I owe deepest gratitude to my uncle Mustafa Özarabacı. He is the person who has shaped my life into a far better way than I could never hope it to be. I am also indebted to the family of my husband. It was you who supported me at all times and gave power to continue.

Last but certainly not least, I owe a great debt of gratitude to my husband Timuçin Han for his continuous encouragement, support and great patience throughout this study and my life. I must also express my deep appreciation to him whose technical support made it possible to deal with the computer challanges I experienced through many stages of the study. It was also his knowledge on SPSS that enabled me to analyze the data.

To my mother, who has devoted all her life to her children,

Saadet Niğdeli

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

## Page

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ..... i
TABLE OF CONTENTS ..... ii
LIST OF TABLES ..... vi
LIST OF FIGURES ..... viii
ÖZ ..... ix
ABSRACT ..... x
1.INTRODUCTION ..... 1
1.1.Background of the Study .....  1
1.2.Significance of the Study .....  2
1.3. Purpose of the Study ..... 3
1.4. Statement of the Problem ..... 3
1.4.1. Subresearch Problems ..... 4
1.5. Scope of the Study ..... 4
1.6. Variables of the Study ..... 5
1.7. Definition of the Terms ..... 5
2. LANGUAGE LEARNING ..... 7
2.1. Theoretical Background of the Study ..... 7
2.1.1. The 1950s and 1960s ..... 7
2.1.2. The 1970s and 1980s ..... 9
2.1.3. The 1990s ..... 11
2.2. Grammar Teaching ..... 11
2.2.1. What is Grammar? ..... 11
2.2.2. Role of Grammar in Language Teaching ..... 12
3. FORM- FOCUSED INSTRUCTION ..... 16
3.1. Role of Instruction in Second Language Teaching ..... 16
3.2. Form- Focused Instruction and Grammar ..... 17
3.2.1. Focus on Form ..... 18
3.2.2. Focus on FormS ..... 18
3.2.3. Ellis's Three Types of Form-focused Instruction ..... 19
3.2.3.1. Type 1 ..... 19
3.2.3.2. Type 2 ..... 19
3.2.3.3. Type 3 ..... 20
3.3. Explicit and Implicit ..... 22
3.3.1. Explicit and Implicit Second Language Knowledge ..... 22
3.3.1.1. Implicit Knowledge ..... 22
3.3.1.2. Explicit Knowledge ..... 23
3.3.1.3. Distinction of Implicit/Explicit Knowledge from Controlled/Automatic
Processing ..... 23
3.3.2. Relationship Between Explicit and Implicit Knowledge ..... 24
3.3.2.1. Noninterface Position ..... 24
3.3.2.2. Strong Interface Position ..... 25
3.3.2.3. Weak Interface Position ..... 26
3.3.3. Implicit and Explicit Instruction ..... 27
3.3.3.1. Lesson Planning and Approaches in Explicit and Implicit Instruction30
3.3.3.1.1. Explicit Lesson Planning ..... 30
3.3.3.1.2. Implicit Lesson Planning ..... 31
3.3.3.2. Lesson Planning and Pedagogy in Explicit and Implicit Instruction ..... 31
3.3.3.2.1. Explicit Lesson Pedagogy ..... 31
3.3.3.2.2. Implicit Lesson Pedagogy ..... 32
3.4. Literature Review on Explicit and Implicit Instruction ..... 32
4. METHODOLOGY ..... 38
4.1. The Present Study ..... 38
4.1.1. Participants ..... 38
4.1.2. Reliability of the Test ..... 39
4.1.3 Instruments ..... 39
4.1.3.1. Pre- , Post- and Delayed Post -Test. ..... 39
4.1.3.2. Instructional Packets ..... 40
4.2. Procedures ..... 40
4.3. Timetable of the Treatments ..... 40
4.3.1. Treatment ..... 41
4.4.Data Analysis ..... 42
4.5. Limitations ..... 42
5. RESULTS ..... 44
5.1.The Present Study ..... 44
5.2. Analysis of Data ..... 44
5.3. Results of All Tests ..... 44
5.3.1. Results of Pre - Test ..... 44
5.4. All Test Results for Both Treatment Groups ..... 46
5.4.1. All Test Results for Explicit - Deductive Group ..... 46
5.4.2. All Test Results for Implicit - Inductive Group ..... 49
5.3.2. Comparison of the Results of the Post - Test ..... 51
5.3.3. Results of the Delayed Post - Test ..... 53
5.3.4. Post - Test Results According to Gender ..... 55
5.3.4.1. Explicit - Deductive Group ..... 55
5.3.4.2. Implicit - Inductive Group ..... 58
5.3.5. Conclusion of the Findings According to Gender ..... 61
5.5. Students' Attitudes Towards Explicit and Implicit Instruction ..... 61
6. CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS ..... 66
6.1. The Study ..... 66
6.2. Conclusion ..... 68
6.3. Discussion of Findings ..... 68
6.4. Limitations of the Study and Future Considerations ..... 72
REFERENCES ..... 74
APPENDICIES ..... 88

## LIST OF TABLES

Table Page
3.1.Implicit and Explicit Instruction ..... 28
4.1. Timetable of the Treatments ..... 40
5.1.Comparisons of the Grammar Pre -test Results of the Experimental and the Control Groups ..... 45
5.2.Lowest and Highest Scores of Pre - Test for Both Groups ..... 45
5.3.Results of All Tests for Explicit - Deductive Group ..... 46
5.4. T- Test for All Test Scores of Explicit- Deductive ..... 47
5.5. Results of All Tests for Implicit- Inductive Group ..... 49
5.6. T- Test for All Test Scores of Implicit - Inductive Group ..... 50
5.7. Comparisons of the Grammar Pre -test and Post -test T-Test Results of the Control and Experimental Group ..... 51
5.8. Lowest and Highest Scores of Post - Test for Both Groups ..... 52
5.9. Comparisons of the Grammar Post -test T-Test Results of the Experimental and the Control Group ..... 52
5.10. Results of Delayed Post - Test for All Groups ..... 53
5.11. Significance Level of all Tests ..... 54
5.12. Lowest and Highest Scores of Delayed Post - Test for Both Groups ..... 54
5.13. Comparisons of the Grammar Delayed Post - test T-Test Results of the Explicit - Deductive and the Implicit - Inductive Group ..... 54
5.14. Scores of Post - test for Explicit- Deductive Group According to Gender ..... 55
5. 15. Comparisons of the Grammar Pre -test and Post -test T-Test Results of the Explicit- Deductive Group According to Gender ..... 57
5. 16. Scores of Post - test for Implicit- Inductive Group According to Gender ..... 58
5. 17. Comparisons of the Grammar Pre - test and Post -test T - Test Results of the Implicit - Inductive Group According to Gender ..... 60
5.18. Answers of First Question by Explicit- Deductive Group ..... 62
5.19. Answers of the First Question by Implicit- Inductive Group ..... 62
5.20. Answers of the Second Question by Explicit- Deductive Group ..... 63
5.21. Answers of the Second Question by Implicit - Inductive Group ..... 64

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure Page
3.1. Types of Explicit and Implicit Instruction ..... 29
5.1. Percentages of the Scores of Post -test for Female Students in Explicit

- Deductive Group ..... 56
5.2. Percentages of the Scores of Post -test for Male Students in Explicit - Deductive Group ..... 57
5.3. Percentages of the Scores of Post -test for Female Students in Implicit
- Inductive Group ..... 59
5.4. Percentages of the Scores of Post - test for Male Students in Implicit - Inductive
Group ..... 59


## TEZ ÖZÜ

# TÜMEVARIM ve TÜMDENGELİM ÖĞRETİM METOTLARININ DİLBİLGİSİ EĞíTİMİNE KATKISI 

TUĞBA HAN

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü

Danışman: Doç. Dr. Feryal ÇUBUKÇU

Bu çalışmanın amacı, tümdengelim ve tümevarım öğretim metotlarının öğrencilerin gramer dersi performanslarında önemli etkiye sahip olup olmadığını araştırmaktır. Öğretim metotlarının etkilerini ölçmek amacıyla ön - test son - test desenli bir çalışma uygulanmıştır. Çalışmanın katılımcıları Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu orta seviyede okuyan hazırlık sınıfı öğrencileridir. Çalışmaya katılan 70 katılımcı rastgele iki gruba ayrılmıştır: tümevarım grubu ve tümdengelim grubu. Gramer bilgileri açısından her iki sınıf aynı seviyededir. Deney sürecinden önce her iki öğretim yöntemine ait ayrıntılı ders planları, ön ve son testler hazırlanmıştır. İki grup ön testi aldıktan sonra araştırmacı tarafından bir ay uygulamaya tabi tutulmuştur. Dört hafta süren deney sürecinin sonunda öğrencilerin aldıkları gramer metoduna bağlı olarak gramer bilgisi seviyelerindeki değişimi saptamak amaciyla bir son test uygulanmıştır. Sekiz hafta sonra ise gruplar aynı testi geciktirilmiş son test olarak almışlardır.

Ön, son ve geciktirilmiş son testlerin sonuçlarına göre yapılan analizler, hem tümevarım hem de tümdengelim metodunun hedef formun öğretilmesinde ve hedef formun katılımcılarda kalıcı olmasında etkili olduğunu göstermiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Açık gramer anlatımı, imalı gramer anlatımı, dil öğrenimi, tümevarım, tümdengelim.


#### Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether there is a significant difference in students' academic success in grammar depending upon the teaching of grammar through explicit - deductive and implicit - inductive instruction. An experimental study was with a pre-, post - test design was conducted to test the efficiency of these instruction types. The subjects of the study were the intermediate level students of the School of Foreign Languages of Dokuz Eylül University in the Fall Term of 2011-2012 academic year. 70 subjects were randomly assigned as explicit - deductive and implicit - inductive groups. Both classes had the same level of English in terms of their grammar knowledge. Each group was given the pre - test and later they received treatment. After having been taught grammar implicitly and explicitly, the students were given the post which inquired their grammar knowledge and the same test was given as delayed post - test after eight weeks.

Analyses of pre - test, post - test and delayed post- test reveal that both explicit - deductive and implicit - inductive group were effective in the teaching of the target form. As for the delayed post - test, both instruction types stayed well in the interlanguage of subjects.


Key words: Explicit grammar instruction, implicit grammar instruction, language learning, grammar teaching, deductive, inductive.

## CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. Background of the Study

Foreign language teachers use several approaches and methods to present new grammatical structures. In many language classrooms in high schools and universities, students generally learn the language by being exposed to two instructions: deductive and inductive. When compared, deductive approach is used more frequently than inductive approach. In deductive approach, foreign language teachers offer rules first and then examples. This approach is directly related to explicit instruction which provides guided instruction in the basic understanding of required skills which students can then build on through practice, learners are aware that they have learned something and can put into words what they have learned. However, explicit instruction can be presented both deductively and inductively. As for inductive approach, learners induce grammatical rules from exposure to input when their attention is focused on meaning. This approach is directly related to implicit instruction which occurs in instructional tasks that do not provide specific guidance on what is to be learned from the task. As well as explicit instruction, implicit instruction can include both deductive and inductive reasoning. It may provide example uses, instances, and illustrations without a direct rule that specifically directs the learner on what is to be learned. In this type of learning, learners are unaware of the learning that has taken place, although it is evident in the behavioral responses they make.

The importance of distinction between implicit and explicit for language learning is clearly shown by N.Ellis (1994: 1):

Implicit learning is like things we just come able to do, like walking or making simple utterances in our native language. We have little insight into the nature of the process involved - we learn to do them implicitly like swallows learn to fly. In case of explicit learning, our abilities depend on knowing how to do them, like multiplication, playing chess. We learn these abilities explicitly like aircraft designers learn aerodynamics.

Language learners practice and apply the use of the grammatical structure, yet, there are advantages and disadvantages of both approaches in language classrooms (Rivers \& Temperley, 1978). The deductive approach can be effective with students of a higher level, who already know the basic structures of the language, or with students who are accustomed to a very traditional style of learning and expect grammatical presentations (Goner, Philips \& Walters, 1995). The deductive approach however, is less suitable for lower level language students, for presenting grammatical structures that are complex in both form and meaning, and for classrooms that contain younger learners. The advantages of the inductive approach are that language learners can focus on the use of the language without being held back by grammatical terminology and rules that can inhibit fluency. The inductive approach also promotes increased student participation and practice of the target language in the classroom, in meaningful contexts. The use of the inductive approach has been noted for its success in language classrooms world-wide, but its disadvantage is that it is sometimes difficult for students who expect a more traditional style of teaching to induce the language rules from context. Understanding the disadvantages and advantages of both approaches, may help the teacher to vary and organize lessons, in order to keep classes interesting and motivating for the students.

### 1.2. Significance of the Study

In many language classrooms at high schools and universities, deductive instruction is used. It may have lots of reasons. It is a traditional type of teaching. Therefore, teachers may feel more confident as it is predetermined and planned. They do not take any risks of spontaneous teaching environment in which unexpected questions can be asked. Another reason is that explicit learning is a lot easier to demonstrate. Teachers can easily ask learners to report what they have learned. Learning of some kind, intended by the researcher to be implicit takes place; but whether or not the learners actually engaged in implicit learning is not demonstrated. (Doughty, 1991; Shook, 1994; Gass, 2003). Another reason may be that it is generally thought that students learn better if they are aware of what they are learning and exposed to rules first and then examples. Three studies investigate the
effects of learners' awareness of the structures on learning. Rosa and O'Neill (1999) replicate Leow's (1997) finding; learners who demonstrate high awareness during learning outperform those with low awareness. N.Ellis and Robinson (1993) both test the learners' ability to verbalize the rule they have been learning, but with different results. N.Ellis finds that the most explicit group in his study were able to verbalize the rule, whereas Robinson reports that very few learners in any of his conditions could, although where the simple rule is concerned, the most explicit group outperforms the rest. Moreover, most of the textbooks use deductive instruction. They present new grammatical structures by giving the rules firstly, and then students are expected to answer the questions about them. However, all students need variety. So, in this study a different view is investigated. Explicit - deductive and Implicit - inductive instruction are compared according to their efficiency in second language learning. Thanks to this study, hopefully teachers will renew their teaching styles and strategies in grammar teaching.

### 1.3. Purpose of the Study

Throughout the history of second language teaching and learning, lots of methods have been used to teach second languages. It is so important how to present a new grammatical structure in the classroom because learning mainly depends on it. The type of instruction may make learners experts in their fields or cause them to remain at their current levels. So, the purpose of this study is to investigate whether there is a significant difference in students' academic success in grammar depending upon the teaching of grammar through explicit- deductive or implicit - inductive instruction. The study will attempt to compare students' academic success in grammar by giving a grammar achievement test which inquires their grammar knowledge before and after instruction.

### 1.4. Statement of the Problem

Does the teaching of grammar through explicit - deductive or implicitinductive instruction have a significant effect on university prep class students' academic performance in grammar?

### 1.4.1. Subresearch Problems

1. What effects does the explicit- deductive instruction of grammar have on university students' grammar knowledge?
2. What effects does the implicit- inductive instruction of grammar have on university students' grammar knowledge?
3. What effects does gender have on university students' academic success in grammar depending upon the instruction type through which they learn grammar?
4. Does the teaching of grammar through explicit - deductive or implicitinductive instruction have a significant effect on the retention of university prep class students?
5. What effects does gender have on university students' academic success in grammar depending upon the instruction type through which they learn grammar?
6. What are students' perceptions and attitudes towards explicit - deductive and implicit - inductive?

### 1.5. Scope of the Study

To answer the research questions, a quantitative study was conducted over nearly a 1 - month period. There were two treatments covering the same grammatical structure. The number of correct items on the three (pre- test, post- test, delayed posttest) tests was the dependant variable. Grammar achievement test developed by the researcher was used as the assessment tool in all tests.

The participants were intermediate prep class students. There were $\mathrm{N}=70$ students in the study divided into two treatment groups with $\mathrm{N}=35$ in each group. Both classes were assigned as intermediate by the school using a placement test at the beginning of the semester. Two different treatments over the targeted grammar structures were administered for four weeks.

Grammar tests over the targeted grammatical structures were administered three times during the study: a pre-test, post-test and delayed-post. The number of the correct items for each student in each treatment group was counted. The treatments,
testing, data collecting and processing were done by the same researcher to help ensure uniformity.

The two groups were called explicit - deductive and implicit - inductive. The major difference between the treatments was the type of instruction. The explicitdeductive treatment was teacher-directed whereas the implicit- inductive treatment was task- based. Both groups had different lesson plans over the same grammatical structure which was First Conditional.

The data collected was from the pre-, post-, and delayed-post grammar tests. The number of the correct items counted. That data was recorded according to treatment groups was compared to show which instruction type was more influential.

### 1.6. Variables of the Study

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

Independent Variables: Explicit - deductive Instruction, Implicit - inductive Instruction.

Control Variables: Proficiency Level, L1 background, the time spent for the treatments

### 1.7. Definitions of the Study

Acquisition: Acquisition takes place when a learner begins to incorporate the new learning in the interlanguage.

Declarative Knowledge: also called explicit knowledge. It is of rules often without the ability to use the rules.

Deductive: the building to a conclusion by carefully analyzing the pieces of the rule; often rule first then example and use.

Explicit Knowledge: also called declarative knowledge. It is conscious knowledge rules usually learned formally in a classroom. To use explicit knowledge, language learners usually need time to think and apply the rules.

Grammar - discovery approach: a somewhat implicit approach to grammar learning which is more student-centered than traditional teacher-directed approach. (Ellis, 1998, 2002)

Implicit Knowledge: also called procedural knowledge. It is unconscious knowledge of structures which has somehow been internalized by language learners.

Inductive: rule formation after observing the patterns in examples or tasks; often examples first, and then forming of the rule.

Procedural Knowledge: also called implicit knowledge. It is knowing how to proceed without necessarily knowing why. It is more automatic use of rules with or without the ability to state them.

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

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

## CHAPTER TWO

## LANGUAGE LEARNING

It is generally agreed that learning is important. However, people have different views on the causes, processes and consequences of learning. Although there is no definition of learning accepted universally, it is possible to mention different definitions. Shuell (1986: 412) defines learning as: 'Learning is an enduring change in behavior, or in the capacity to behave in a given fashion, which results from practice or other forms of experience.'

As for language learning, what must be done is to define the most basic concept for this study, 'second language learning'. Second language learning is the learning of any language, to any level, provided only that the learning of the 'second' language takes place some time later than the acquisition of first language. Although most of the people have experience of second language learning, it is still a complex phenomenon as it is difficult to understand how the process happens.

### 2.1. Theoretical Background in Second Language Learning

With a view to understanding current developments in second language learning research, it is helpful to retrace its recent history. It is aimed to explore the theoretical foundations of today's thinking

### 2.1.1. The 1950s and 1960s

In the behaviorist view, language learning is like any other kind of learning to form new habits. Learning of any kind of behavior is based on stimulus and response. According to this view, people are exposed to several stimuli in their environment. If the response given to stimuli is successful, it is reinforced. Through repeated reinforcement, a certain stimulus will elicit the same response time and again, which will then become a habit (Watson, 1924; Thorndike, 1932; Bloomfield, 1933; Skinner, 1957). This process is simple in a first language as children learn a set of new habits to respond to stimuli in their environment. The behaviorist psychologists argue that language learning should be thought as nothing more than habit formation (Mowrer, 1960). The problem starts with second language learning,
because people have already a set of responses in their mother tongue. Second language learning requires people to replace those habits by a set of new ones. In this case, first language habits may inhibit or help the process. If they are similar to new ones, learning takes place easily. According to Dulay (1982), it is clear from many examples that grammatical structures of our mother tongue are transferred to the foreign language and this is the point where we have the difficulty or ease to learn the foreign language. Different structures are difficult to learn. As a solution to this problem, it is claimed that the best pedagogical tool for teachers is to concentrate on the areas of difference. This is termed as Contrastive Analysis. The best materials are thought to be the ones compared with a parallel description of native language of the learner (Fries, 1945, cited in Dulay et al., 1982). However, teachers find that different constructions are not difficult at all times and similar constructions are not necessarily easy. This causes researchers and teachers to be interested in the language produced by learners. This is the origin of Error Analysis, the systematic investigation of second language learners' errors. Ellis (1985) finds out that the majority of the errors made by second language learners do not result from their first language.

1950s and 1960s witness major developments in the fields of linguistics and psychology. There is a shift from structural linguistics to generative linguistics that emphasized the rule governed and creative nature of human language. At that time, second language learning is seen as different from other types of learning because it involves linguistic systems. Behaviorism loses ground in favor of more developmentalist views of learning. Chomsky (1959) argues that viewing language as a conditioned response ignores complexities of both language structure and cognition. He emphasizes the creativity of language. Children create new sentences that they have never learnt before as they internalize the rules. It is quite clear in the examples of utterances such as 'Daddy goed'. Therefore, Chomsky claims that children have an innate faculty that helps them in their learning of language. When children are given an utterance, they are programmed to discover its rules, and are guided in doing that by an innate knowledge of what the rules should look like. Persuaded by these arguments, second language researchers turned away from behaviorist psychology and sought the explanation for language acquisition in
universals of language structure. (Dulay \& Burt, 1974). Chomsky first resorts to the concept of Universal grammar as he believes that children could not learn their first language so quickly and effortlessly without the help of an innate faculty that guides them. Universal Grammar-based researchers put the emphasis on the language. As for the second language learning, learners have to construct a grammar of the second language, but do they have difficulty in the same way as children? It is true that second language learners also go through stages when learning second language; but they are cognitively mature and they already know at least one another language. Therefore, there are still a number of possibilities concerning Universal Grammar's role in second language learning.

### 2.1.2. The 1970s and 1980s

During the 1970s and 1980s, language learning has a shift toward nativist linguistics. In the late 1970s, the first comprehensive model of second language acquisition evolved, Krashen's Monitor Model. He bases his general theory around a set of five basic hypotheses. The most important one is the Acquisition - Learning Hypothesis, which differentiates between language acquisition and learning. 'Acquisition refers to the subconscious process identical in all important ways to the process children utilize in acquiring their first language and learning refers to the conscious process that results in knowing about language.' (Krashen, 1985: 1)

Unlike Universal Grammar theorists, Cognitivists put more emphasis on the learning component of second language learning. According to them, second language learning process can be understood better by examining how the human brain processes and learns the new information. However, the opposition between cognitivists and innatists should be seen more in terms of the two ends of a continuum rather than a dichotomy.

In some respects, both the claims of Piaget and Chomsky are correct. There is evidence that acquisition of some aspects of language, notably syntax, are independent of other aspects of cognitive development. At the same time, however, there is no doubt that full understanding of a great deal of language requires other, more general, cognitive abilities. (Butterworth and Haris, 1994: 124)

Cognitive theorists can be classified into two groups. The first one is that theorists such as Towell and Hawkins (1994) believe that the knowledge of a language may be special in some way. They investigate how second language learners process linguistic information and how their ability to process the second language develops over time. According to McLaughin (1987), second language learning is like the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill. In order to learn the second language, we should learn a skill as the second language must be practiced and turned into fluent performance. Therefore, it is necessary to automize component sub-skills.

The second one is the acquisition of language from the constructionist or emergentist point of view. They share a usage-based view of language development, which is driven by communicative needs. They refute to posit an innate, language specific, acquisition device. 'The children are picking up frequent patterns from what they hear around them, and only slowly making more abstract generalizations as the database of related utterances grows" (Ellis, 2003: 70). The second language is acquired through usage, by extracting pattern and regularities from the input and building stronger associations in the brain.

It is also useful to mention Anderson's $(1983,1985)$ ACT Model from cognitive psychology. It enables declarative knowledge (knowing that something is the case) to become procedural knowledge (knowledge how to do something). Anderson (1980) thinks that when we come to the classroom to learn a foreign language, we are aware of the rules of the language. So, at that time our knowledge is declarative. However, if we are lucky to know a foreign language as we know our native language, we forget the rules of the foreign language. It means that declarative knowledge has been transformed into procedural form.

Since the mid-1980s especially, there have been a growing number of studies applying a connectionist framework to the general study of learning. More recently, connectionism has been applied to second language learning. Connectionists think that the brain is like a computer that would consist of neural networks, complex clusters of links between information nodes. These connections become weakened or strengthened through activation or non-activation. Learning in this view occurs on the
basis of associative processes. They believe that learning is no rule-governed, but is based on the construction of associative patterns.

### 2.1.3. The 1990s

Cognitive, structural aspects of language learning of 1950s and 1960s have gained importance again in the 1990s and researchers agree upon the need of grammar instruction. (Hinkel \& Fotos, 2002). Studies suggest that if second language learning is only experiential and focused on communicative success, target like accuracy is not achieved in some linguistic features. (Williams, 1999). Therefore, this resulted in a number of second language researchers to claim that communicative instruction should involve systematic treatments to draw second language learners' attention to linguistic forms to develop wel-balanced competence ( Long \& Robinson, 1998; Lightbown \& Spada, 1990; Loewen, 2005; Muranoi, 2000). Therefore, pedagogists in this field give importance to inclusion of focus on form in classes that are primarily focused on meaning and communication ( Doughty \& Williams, 1998).

## 2. 2. Grammar Teaching

### 2.2.1. What is Grammar ?

To start with the definition of grammar would be a good step to understand grammar teaching. According to Crystal (2004: 24):

Grammar is the structural foundation of our ability to express ourselves. The more we are aware of how it works, the more we can monitor the meaning and effectiveness of the way we and others use language. It can help foster precision, detect ambiguity, and exploit the richness of expression available in English. And it can help everyone not only teachers of English, but teachers of anything, for all teaching is ultimately a matter of getting to grips with meaning.

Higgs (1985: 13) defines grammar as 'a system for converting meaning into language'. To make this definition more obvious, Tonkyn (1994) distinguishes between descriptive grammar, pedagogical grammar and psycholinguistic grammar. Seliger (1979) points out that the goal of pedagogical grammar rules is to cause
someone to produce a language form. Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1988: 4) state Pedagogical Hypothesis as follows:

Instructional strategies which draw the attention of learner to specifically structural regularities of the language, as distinct from the message content, will under certain specified conditions significantly increase the rate of acquisition over and above the rate expected from learners acquiring that language under natural circumstances where attention to form may be minimal or sporadic.

Descriptive grammar refers to the structure of a language as it is actually used by speakers and writers. Specialists in descriptive grammar study the rules or patterns that underlie our use of words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. As for psycholinguistic grammar, it represents the grammar in the minds of language users. Garret (1996) argues that psychological processing approach will be more useful for language learners' teaching and learning of grammar than a grammar instruction focusing on the production of language.

### 2.2.2. Role of Grammar in Language Teaching

When and to what extent one should teach grammar to language learners have always been controversial issues. Rutherford (1987) thinks that the teaching of grammar has often been synonymous with foreign language teaching and it shows the importance of grammar in language learning. This importance is emphasized by Radilova (1997: 1) noting that ".... knowledge of grammar is the central area of the language system around which the other areas resolve; however important the other components of language may be in themselves, they are connected to each other through grammar'".

Ellis (2006: 83) defines grammar teaching as follows:
Grammar teaching involves any instructional technique that draws learners' attention to some specific grammatical form in such a way that it helps them either to understand it metalinguistically and / or process it in comprehension and / or production so that they can internalize it.

Celce-Murcia (1991) argues that grammar had a central importance in language teaching and then less importance and then moved back to a position of renewed importance during the past twenty five years. Concerning the teaching of grammar
two extreme positions have caused these changes. At one extreme, the proponents of Audiolingualism argue that grammar must be core of language instruction and that all student errors must be corrected. At the other extreme, Krashen and Terrell think that grammar should not be taught explicitly and errors should not be corrected.

Nassaji and Fotos (2004) argue that grammar is a necessary part of language instruction because of four reasons:

- Learners should notice the target forms in input; otherwise input is processed for input only, not for specific forms, so they are not acquired by learners.

Schmidt $(1990,1993,2001)$ suggests that conscious attention to form, or what he calls "noticing," is a necessary condition for language learning. Although some SLA investigators agree that noticing or awareness of target forms plays an important role in L2 learning ( Bialystok, 1994; Bygate, Skehan, \& Swain, 2001; DeKeyser, 1998, Doughty, 2001; R. Ellis, 2001, 2002; Ellis, Basturkmen, \& Loewen, 2001,; Fotos, 1993, 1994, 1998; Nassaji, 1999, 2000, 2002; Nassaji \& Swain, 2000; Robinson, 1995, 2001; Skehan, 1998; Swain \& Lapkin, 2001)

- Some morpheme studies prove that learners pass through developmental stages.

Grammar instruction does not enable learners to 'beat' the natural route of acquisition (i.e. the order in which learners have been found to acquire specific grammatical features and the stages of development involved in this). Studies comparing instructed and naturalistic learners (e.g. Ellis, 1989; Pica, 1983) report the same order of acquisition for grammatical morphemes and the same sequence of acquisition for syntactic structures such as English relative clauses and German word order rules. Based on empirical evidence from German learners of English, Pienemann $(1984,1988,1999)$ developed what has been known as the teachability hypothesis, which suggests that while certain developmental sequences are fixed and cannot be altered by grammar teaching, other structures can benefit from instruction
any time they are taught. Based on this hypothesis, it is possible to influence sequences of development favorably through instruction if grammar teaching coincides with the learner's readiness to move to the next developmental stage of linguistic proficiency (Lightbown, 2000).

- Several studies show that teaching approaches that focus only on communication not on grammar are inadequate.

Extensive research on learning outcomes in French immersion programs by Swain and her colleagues show that, despite substantial long-term exposure to meaningful input, the learners did not achieve accuracy in certain grammatical forms (Harley \& Swain, 1984; Lapkin, Hart, \& Swain, 1991; Swain, 1985; Swain \& Lapkin, 1989). This research suggests that some type of focus on grammatical forms was necessary if learners were to develop high levels of accuracy in the target language. Thus, communicative language teaching by itself is found to be inadequate.

- Positive effects of grammar instruction in the second language classroom are so clear.

This evidence comes from a large number of laboratory and classroom-based studies as well as extensive reviews of studies on the effects of instruction over the past 20 years (R. Ellis, 1985, 1990, 1994, 2001, 2002; Larsen-Freeman \& Long, 1991; Long, 1983, 1988, 1991). For example, studies of the effects of instruction on the development of specific target language forms ( Cadierno, 1995; Doughty, 1991; Lightbown,1992; Lightbown \& Spada, 1990) as well as corrective feedback on learner errors (Carroll \& Swain, 1993; Nassaji \& Swain, 2000) indicate that grammatical instruction has a significant effect on the attainment of accuracy. In an early review, Long (1983) concludes that grammar instruction contributes importantly to language learning.

Norris \& Ortega (2000) review 49 sample studies published between 1980 and 1998 in order to search for the positive effects of grammar instruction. Norris \& Ortega (2000: 500) conclude as:

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

Burgess and Etherington (2002) attempt to explore the beliefs of Iranian EFL teachers about the role of grammar in English language teaching in both state schools and private language institutes. Data are collected through a questionnaire developed by Burgess and Etherington (2002), which consists of 11 main subscales and is divided into two sections. The first section deals with approaches to grammar teaching and the second with student and teacher difficulties with grammar. An independent sample $t$-test is used on all the eleven subscales to check the differences among teachers' beliefs in both state and private language schools. Responses from 117 English language teachers from both settings indicate that they appreciate the value of grammar and its role in language teaching.

Having presented some of the studies which investigate whether grammar teaching is helpful and which reveal positive results, the study should go on trying to find out which type of formal instruction facilitate second language acquisition most: explicit or implicit? Long (1983) gives importance to role of instruction in second language acquisition. He both claims that instruction makes a difference in second language acquisition and shifts the principal focus of the research from the effects of instruction to the most effective types of instruction fostering second or foreign language learning.

## CHAPTER THREE FORM- FOCUSED INSTRUCTION

### 3.1. Role of Instruction in Second Language Acquisition

Whether formal instruction causes any difference in second language acquisition is questioned in this part. Ellis (2007) states that formal instruction is important because it is based on the assumption that grammar can be taught. If main focus is on the linguistic form, the acquisition of the form will be easier in many instructional methods.

Second language theorists cannot agree upon the effects of instructional intervention in second language acquisition. Some argue that instruction provides only an environment conducive to second language acquisition while others support the idea that it is necessary and effective.

Doughty (2003: 256) states the cases against and for instruction:
The debate concerning the effectiveness of L2 instruction takes place at two fundamental levels. At the first level, SLA theorists address in absolute terms any potential at all (even the best possible) instructional interventions in SLA. A small number of SLA researchers claim that instruction can have no effect beyond the provision of an environment conducive to SLA. At the second level of the debate, a case is made for the benefits of instruction. Then, assuming the effectiveness and sometimes even the necessity of relevant and principled instruction, researchers investigate the comparative efficacy of different types.

Long (1983) questions whether instruction makes a difference in his empirical studies. He argues that Krashen's influential claim of learning / acquisition distinction. Results show that for those who are exposed to second language input in classroom, instruction is beneficial.

Toth (2000) searches the role of instruction in his study and provides evidence for the effectiveness of second language instruction. The acquisition of the Spanish morpheme 'se' by 91 English speaking university students. Participants are
taught 'se' through form-focused, communicative instruction and are tested before and after the intervention period. Results show that participants have learned 'se'.

Having presented some of the studies which investigate whether instruction is helpful and which reveal positive results, the study should go on trying to find out which type of formal instruction facilitates second language acquisition most: explicit or implicit? Long (1983) gives importance to the role of instruction in second language acquisition. He both claims that instruction makes a difference in second language acquisition and shifts the principal focus of the research from the effects of instruction to the most effective types of instruction fostering second or foreign language learning.

## 3. 2. Form- Focused Instruction and Grammar

According to Long (1991), focus on form has been derived from the communicative language teaching approach and in this type of instruction; the primary focus is on meaning and communication. Long $(1991,1988)$ also argues that there are two types of form-focused instruction: focus on form and focus on formS. Focus on form supports a more non-interventionist view of grammar instruction and is meaning based whereas focus on formS support a more traditional, interventionist view and is structure based.

Many researchers have adopted the term form-focused instruction to help explain different approaches to grammar instruction. Skehan (1998: 268) states that "Focus on form typically involves the use of communicative tasks as activities where meaning is primary; there is a goal that needs to be worked towards; the activity is outcome evaluated; and there is a relationship between the task and real life".

Form-focused instruction is divided into two main camps: focus on form and focus on formS. Both of them are communicative in methodology by attempting to marry instruction with meaningful tasks.

## 3. 2.1. Focus on Form

Long and Robinson (1998: 22) state that:

Focus on form is motivated by the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996) which holds that second language acquisition is a process... (and) a crucial site for language development is interaction between learning and other speakers, especially ... more proficient speakers... and written texts, especially elaborated ones within content - focused, needs - based tasks.

In this type of form -focused instruction, a more implicit grammar instruction is emphasized. Hinkel and Fotos (2002:136) state that "focus on form has meaningfocused use of form in such a way that the learner must notice, then process the target grammar structure in purely communicative input''.

According to Long's position, if focus on form is incidental or results from a communicative need or is generated by a task-based syllabus, this is the best way to achieve a communicative interaction. Therefore, focus on form can be said to aid acquisition as it uses meaning-focused tasks and language learners are not overtly aware of specific grammar forms. Long and Crookes (1992) and Wilkins (1976) define the syllabus design for focus on form as 'analytical'. As for feedback, unobtrusive feedback such as recasting is used in this type of form-focused instruction.

### 3.2.2. Focus on FormS

This type of form-focused instruction emphasizes a more traditional grammar instructional methodology in which target grammatical structures are often presented sequentially, taught deductively or inductively and then practiced communicatively. Focus on formS gives more importance to explicit grammar instruction methodology in the input and aims to use communicative methodology in the output. According to Ellis (2001), the syllabus design for focus on formS is termed as 'synthetic', forms taught are specifically selected and taught from a proactive stance.

### 3.2.3. Ellis’ Three Types of Form-focused Instruction

Ellis (2001) decides that there are in fact three types of form-focused instruction after a long discussion of Long's two types. According to him, Type 1 is much the same as Focus on FormS and Focus on Form is divided into two groups as Type 2 and Type 3 . While Type 2 is planned, Type 3 is incidental. Therefore, only Type 1 and Type 2 can be experimentally researched and in this study, Type 1 and Type 2 will be compared according to their effects on grammar.

### 3.2.3.1. Type 1

In this type, form is the main focus. Ellis sub-divides Type 1 into explicit and implicit instruction. While communicative tasks on only output are focused in explicit, communicative tasks on both input and output are emphasized in implicit. In explicit instruction, a proactively selected form is intensely taught. This form can be taught either by the presentation of the rules and then giving the examples, in other words deductive reasoning or by giving the examples and then eliciting the rules from the students, that is inductive reasoning. Robinson (1996) calls deductive reasoning as ‘didactic’ and inductive reasoning as 'discovery’ instruction.

Ellis' explanation of implicit focus on forms is like the inductive reasoning, which is classified as being explicit instruction. However, Ellis clarifies this confusion by stating that in implicit instruction, the input is done not by the teacher but by the task.

### 3.2.3.2. Type 2

Type 2 is planned focus on form and emphasizes meaning over the form. This form is pre-selected and practiced a lot. In Type 2, it is aimed to lead language learners to notice the target form naturally.

Although the goal of Type 2 is meaning focused and form comes next, it is said to be similar to Type 1 implicit focus on forms with its task-driven input.

Type 2 planned focus on form includes two parts: enriched input and focused output. With a view to describing enriched input, Ellis introduces two terms. The
first one is 'input flood' which is the use of many examples and the second one is 'input enhancement' which is the use of text, question and activities.

### 3.2.3.3. Type 3

Type 3 is incidental focus on form and emphasizes meaning over the form as in Type 2; but unlike Type 2, there is no form selected for instruction. In this type, there are two types of feedback as pre-emptive focus on form which is mainly brief checks for student understanding and reactive focus-on-form which is actual attention to errors. Ellis (2001:22) states 'the first one is time out from a communicative activity to initiate attention to a form that is perceived to be problematic even though no ... error... or difficulty with ... comprehension has arisen''. In the second kind of feedback that is reactive, the teacher responds to errors implicitly and explicitly',

The significance of form-focused instruction has been recognized by teachers (Bastürkmen; Loewen; Ellis; 2004) and by researchers and a number of empirical studies aimed at determining the effects of form-focused instruction have been conducted.

Muranoi (2000) examines the impact of interaction enhancement (IE) on the learning of English articles. IE is a treatment that guides learners to focus on form by providing interactional modifications and leads learners to produce modified output within a problem-solving task. This study examines the impact of interaction enhancement on the learning of English articles. IE is a treatment that guides learners to focus on form by providing interactional modifications and leads learners to produce modified output within a problem-solving task (strategic interaction). Two different IE treatments are employed: IE plus formal debriefing (IEF), and IE plus meaning - focused debriefing (IEM). Outcomes of these treatments are compared with the effects of non-enhanced interaction in a quasi-experimental study involving 91 Japanese EFL learners. Progress is measured with a pre- test and two post-tests, yielding these major findings: (1) IE has positive effects on the learning of English articles; (2) the IEF treatment has a greater impact than the IEM treatment.

Lightbown and Spada (1990) examine the effects of corrective feedback and form-focused instruction on second language acquisition in the context of intensive ESL programs and report positive effects for focus on form. The overall aim of the study is to investigate the relationships between instruction, interaction and acquisition. The subjects in this study are all native speakers of French enrolled in five-month intensive ESL courses in either grades five or six in Quebec. The findings suggest that overall language skills are best developed through meaning-based instruction in which form-focused activities and corrective feedback are provided.

Lightbown and Spada (1993) then report on a quasi-experimental study with franco-phone children (aged 10-12) learning English in Quebec. The focus of this particular study is on the effects of form-focused instruction and correction on the use of questions in an oral communication task. They provide form-focused activities and exercises and corrective feedback over a two-week period within the context of an intensive ESL program. Results support their earlier conclusion that form-focused instruction within a communicative language teaching is beneficial in L2 acquisition by ESL learners.

Lyster (2004) investigates the effects of form-focused instruction (FFI) and corrective feedback on immersion students' ability to accurately assign grammatical gender in French Four teachers and their eight classes of 179 fifth - grade (10-11-year-old) students participate in this quasi - experimental classroom study. The FFI treatment, designed to draw attention to selected noun endings that reliably predict grammatical gender and to provide opportunities for practice in associating these endings with gender attribution, is implemented in the context of regular subjectmatter instruction by three of the four teachers, each with two classes, for approximately 9 hours during a 5 -week period, while the fourth teacher teaches the same subject matter without FFI to two comparison classes. Additionally, each of the three FFI teachers implements a different feedback treatment: recasts, prompts, or no feedback. Analyses of pretest, immediate-posttest, and delayed-posttest results show a significant increase in the ability of students exposed to FFI to correctly assign grammatical gender. Results of the written tasks in particular, and to a lesser degree the oral tasks, reveal that FFI is more effective when combined with prompts than
with recasts or no feedback, as a means of enabling L2 learners to acquire rule-based representations of grammatical gender and to proceduralize their knowledge of these emerging forms.

Several studies show that Form-focused instruction has a positive effect on second language acquisition (Ellis, 2002) and students learn the grammatical structure they are taught through form-focused instruction. To take learners' attention to form in form - focused instruction, several instruction types are used. The main goal of the study in hand is to search which of these instruction types are more effective: explicit - deductive or implicit - inductive. Therefore, in the following sections the reader will be presented with explicit and implicit instruction types.

### 3.3. Explicit and Implicit

Closely related with grammar and form-focused instruction, but easily confused, are the terms explicit and implicit instruction. This is especially so when the terms implicit and explicit knowledge are added to mix. Therefore, this part of the study gives general explanation of implicit and explicit knowledge.

### 3.3.1. Implicit and Explicit Second Language Knowledge

It is a well-known fact that children acquire their first language by engaging with their parents or caretakers in natural meaningful communication. Therefore, they automatically acquire complex structures of their language. However, paradoxically they cannot describe this knowledge. This is the difference between explicit and implicit knowledge. (Ellis, 2008) If a young child is asked how to form plural and she says she doesn't know, ask her 'here is a wug, here is another wug, what have you got?' she is able to answer, 'two wugs'.

### 3.3.1.1. Implicit knowledge

Implicit language knowledge is about the knowledge of a language that can come out instantaneously during spontaneous comprehension or production. Implicit language knowledge enables language learners to use language spontaneously. As for second language acquisition, implicit knowledge is referred in many ways: tacit knowledge (Reber, 1989), acquired knowledge (Krashen, 1981), procedural
knowledge (DeKeyser, 1998), interlanguage (Birdsong, 1989; Hamilton, 2001; Pienemann, 2005; Selinker, 1992; Tarone, 1979), or learner language (R. Ellis \& Barkhuizen, 2005).

Ellis (1994) categorizes implicit knowledge into two groups as formulaic and internalized expressions. Chunks of language such as 'Where are you from?' constitute formulaic expressions whereas a generalized and an abstract concept about language that has become internalized constitutes rule-based knowledge.

## 3. 3.1.2. Explicit Knowledge

'Explicit knowledge is the knowledge about the language and about the uses to which language can be put.' (R.Ellis, 2004: 244) It is also referred as declarative knowledge (DeKeyser, 1998), language awareness (Alderson, Clapham\& Steel, 1997) or learned system (Krashen, 1981).

It can be said that explicit knowledge includes all declarative rules about a language; but it doesn't mean that all explicit knowledge is shown in metalinguistic terminology in all cases.

### 3.3.1.3. Distinction of Implicit/Explicit Knowledge from Controlled / Automatic Processing

It is important to distinguish implicit and explicit knowledge from automatic and controlled processing to understand how language acquisition occurs. According to an information processing perspective, second language acquisition initially requires 'the use of controlled processes with focal attention to task demands' but as performance improves, 'attention demands are eased and automatic processes develop, allowing other controlled operations to be carried out in parallel with automatic processes’ (McLaughlin, Rossman, \& McLeod, 1983: 142).

Whereas it is rapid and easy to access the procedures comprising implicit knowledge, attentional processes are necessary to access declarative rules existing as explicit knowledge. To access declarative rules, it is necessary to give enough time to language learners. Therefore, it can be said that explicit knowledge may not be readily available in spontaneous language use. However, there are some possibilities
of explicit knowledge becoming automized through practice. DeKeyser (2003) thinks that automazied explicit knowledge can be considered 'functionally equivalent' to implicit knowledge. According to Ellis (1994), it is not the rules that become implicit, but they are the sequences of language that the rules are used to construct. Explicit knowledge is used initially with deliberate effort, but may later be used with less effort and relative speed, provided the second language user is developmentally ready. Novel implicit knowledge is slow and inconsistent at first, but may later become effortless after form-focused practice or meaningful communication.

### 3.3.2. Relationship between Implicit and Explicit Knowledge

The question of whether there is an interface between implicit and explicit knowledge; that is, the possibility of one knowledge type becoming or transferring to the other is an ongoing debate. Interface issue has several questions: to what extent and in what ways are implicit and explicit learning related? Does explicit knowledge convert into or facilitate the acquisition of implicit knowledge? Supporters of the interface hypothesis are those who consider the possibility of an interface promoting explicit instruction in language teaching to be worthwhile (Sharwood Smith, 1981). However, those who do not support the interface hypothesis, hardly see much benefit or role for explicit instruction (Krashen, 1981). The interface and non-interface positions are considered to be at opposite extremes of the interface, in between which there is a third middle position known as a weak interface.

### 3.3.2.1. The Noninterface Position

According to noninterface position, it is not possible for learned knowledge to turn into acquired knowledge. According to this position, there is no possibility of explicit knowledge converting directly into implicit knowledge and vice versa. Krashen (1981) claims that explicit knowledge is available as a monitor of performance and it involves different acqusitional mechanisms. He argues that adult second language learners of grammar-translation methods, who can tell more about a language than a native speaker, yet whose technical knowledge leaves them totally in the lurch in conversation, testify that conscious learning about language and subconscious acquisition of language are different things.

According to Ellis (1993) implicit and explicit knowledge are accessed for performance by means of different processes, automatic versus controlled. Crowell (2004) argues that declarative knowledge is not transformed into procedural knowledge; but they are learnt and stored separately and they involve different neural loops. Paradis (2004) also considers procedural memory and declarative memory as distinct memory systems. However, Ullman (2004) argues that these memory systems may not be exactly related to implicit and explicit knowledge and it is possible that declarative memory includes both implicit and explicit knowledge.

Schwartz (1993) and Truscott (1996; 1998) claim that learning a second language is similar to first language acquisition under this position as explicit instruction is not necessary. Pedagogical intervention's role is to provide input that is easily comprehended. Zobl (1995:5) considers acquisition of implicit knowledge "comes about simply through carrying out more successful computations on intake data'" that is 'arrived at by deducing unknowns from available representations in the course of processing an input string'". The need to access explicit knowledge for acquisition to take place is non-existent.

### 3.3.2.2. The Strong Interface Position

The strong interface position claims that both explicit knowledge can be derived from implicit knowledge and also explicit knowledge can be transformed into implicit knowledge through practice. This position has been promoted by Dekeyser (2003: 315) whose ideas typify views of strong interface position:

Even though implicitly acquired knowledge tends to remain implicit, and explicitly acquired knowledge tends to remain explicit, explicitly learned knowledge can become implicit in the sense that learners can lose awareness of its structure over time, and learners can become aware of the structure of implicit knowledge when attempting to access it, for example for applying it to a new context or for conveying it verbally to somebody else.

There are some studies of second language learning investigating direct consequences of explicit instruction and their results confirm that the explicit knowledge will transform into implicit knowledge. However, there are different means of explicit knowledge becoming implicit such as output practice (de Bot,
1996), tasks requiring attention on form (Hu, 2002; Sorace, 1985), increased awareness or consciousness raising (Sharwood Smith, 1981).

Bialystok (1978) assumes that implicit knowledge of second language can be made explicit by inference. It is sometimes possible to become aware of implicit language knowledge which may then be expressed verbally when learners are consciously seeking a descriptive rule for language knowledge.

### 3.3.2.3. The Weak Interface Position

The weak interface has three versions, all of which agree on the possibility of explicit knowledge to become explicit. However, there are some limitations about how and when this becomes possible.

The first version claims that explicit knowledge can transform into implicit knowledge provided that the learner is developmentally ready to acquire the linguistic form. The main argument of Ellis's (1994) weak interface is that if explicit knowledge about a particular language structure is provided when the language user is developmentally ready, it may facilitate the development of implicit knowledge. Views regarding developmental readiness as being a criterion for language acquisition are also held by others. Pienemann (1989) recommends matching instructional input with developmental stages.

According to the second version, explicit knowledge contributes indirectly to the acquisition of implicit knowledge. Ellis (2008) argues that implicit and explicit knowledge cooperate in second language acquisition and that they are dynamic, and happens consciously; but also they have enduring effects on implicit knowledge.

According to third version, learners can use their explicit knowledge to produce output that then serves as 'auto-input' to their implicit learning mechanisms (Schmidt \& Frota, 1986 ; Sharwood Smith, 1981).

Based on the existence of a distinction between explicit / implicit knowledge and suggestion that these types of processes are indistinct and interface in some way, the ideal learning environment would be one that promotes both implicit and explicit knowledge.

### 3.3.3. Implicit and Explicit Instruction

The debate over the place of grammar in instruction has played a dominant role in the history of language teaching. The question of whether grammar instruction helped learners gain proficiency in a second language was the main debate in the previous century. The many answers to this question could be placed along a continuum with extremes at either end (Gascoigne, 2002). At one end are highly explicit approaches to grammar teaching, and at the other end lie implicit approaches that avoid mention of form.

If grammar instruction is concerned in language teaching, how the forms will be presented should be concerned. In order to do this, there are two common ways. Firstly, forms can be presented with following activities or planned activities can be presented and the form can be gleaned from them. The first one is a more explicit instruction because the process includes forms being presented to learners through metalingual explanations, next examples and then activities that aid learners to practice the forms. The second one is more implicit and is related to inductive reasoning because the process includes activities' being presented firstly, learners' discovering and inducing the form with varying degrees of teacher intervention. Even though it is not perfectly precise, Focus on Form, inductive and implicit are often used interchangeably, as in the examples of Focus on FormS, deductive and explicit.

Scott (1990: 779) defines explicit and implicit approaches in grammar teaching as follows:

An explicit approach to teaching grammar insists upon the value of deliberate study of grammar rule, either by declarative analysis or inductive analogy, in order to recognize linguistic elements efficiently and accurately. An implicit approach, by contrast, is one which suggests that students should be exposed to grammatical structures in a meaningful and comprehensible context in order that they may acquire, as naturally as possible, the grammar of the target language.

To have a better understanding of implicit and explicit instruction, it is necessary to revise interface issue. There are opposing thoughts about it. Krashen
(1981) thinks that it is impossible for explicit knowledge to become implicit knowledge as the two are located in separate parts of the brain and language can only be acquired. On the opposite extreme Noonan (2004) thinks that explicit knowledge can become implicit knowledge through practice and interaction with the targeted forms. Moreover, there is a middle road advocating that explicit knowledge cannot be implanted into a learner's implicit knowledge through practice; but language learners can construct their own implicit knowledge base by being made aware of regularities and irregularities through instruction. Batstone (1996) argues that it is impossible to find ways to help language learners to notice certain language features especially during input.

Table 1. Implicit and explicit instruction (Housen \& Pierrad, 2006: 10)

| Implicit Instruction | Explicit Instruction |
| :--- | :--- |
| Attracts attention to target form | Directs attention to target form |
| Is delivered spontaneously (e.g. in an <br> otherwise communication-oriented <br> activity) | Is predetermined and planned (e.g. as the <br> main focus and goal of a teaching activity) |
| Is unobtrusive (minimal interruption of <br> communication of meaning) | Is obtrusive (interruption of <br> communicative meaning) |
| Present target forms in context | Presents target forms in isolation |
| Makes no use of metalanguage | Uses metalinguistic terminology (e.g. rule <br> explanation) |
| Encourages free use of the target form | Involves controlled practice of target form |

In implicit instruction, language learners should induce forms from some kind of task input or examples whereas forms are presented first and then tasks are provided in explicit instruction. Learning implicitly is like children's learning a second language and is natural, automatic acquiring of language. However, learning
explicitly is like adults' learning a second language and is structured classroom learning of language rules. (Ellis 1997; Gass \& Selinker, 2001; Hulstijin, 2002)

It is aimed to enable learners to infer rules without awareness in implicit instruction. Learners are provided with specific exemplars of a rule when they are focused on meaning, in other words when they are not attending to learn. Therefore, they internalize the rule when they are not concentrated on it explicitly.

Explicit instruction involves 'some sort of rule being thought about during the learning process'" (DeKeyser, 1995: 379). What learners are supposed to do is to develop metalinguistic awareness of the rule. This can be done in two ways: deductively and inductively. In deductive instruction, learners are provided with a grammatical description of the rule while they are assisted to discover the rule for themselves from data provided in inductive instruction. Table 1 refers to Housen's and Pierrad's analysis of the differences between implicit and explicit instruction.


Figure 3. 1. Types of Explicit and Implicit Instruction

In explicit instruction, it is aimed that students develop metalinguistic awareness of the rule. It can be done in two ways: First, the teacher can provide learners with a grammatical description of the rule, i.e. deductively or the teacher can help learners to discover the rule for themselves from the data provided, i.e.
inductively. Similarly, deductive and inductive ways can be used in implicit instruction. Tasks can be designed to elicit the use of specific linguistic target or language learners can infer the rules without awareness when the focus is on meaning.

### 3.3.3.1. Lesson Planning and Approaches In Explicit and Implicit Instruction

Explicit instruction is more structure - controlled and teacher-directed. Implicit instruction, on the other hand, is more task-directed and student-discovered. Therefore, when lesson planning is concerned, these characteristics of instruction types should be taken into consideration.

Recently, how lessons are planned has been affected by the thought that explicit instruction only helps to add to explicit knowledge and implicit instruction is better as it tries to affect implicit knowledge. However, as most teachers are comfortable with the lesson format of present, practice and then produce. Therefore, the shift is not so easy.

There are advocates for both explicit and implicit instruction in planning lessons. Some believe that explicit instruction is better, quicker way to cause awareness (Rosa \& O’Neill, 1999). On the other hand, some believe in implicit knowledge as the communicative need arises with it.

### 3.3.3.1.1. Explicit Lesson Planning

Explicit instruction gives importance to the need for learning foundational skills. With the help of several approaches, the first step is usually grammar presentation. In explicit instruction, skills are presented in an order: focused attention on forms, controlled practice of the forms and then authentic opportunity to use the forms until automacy (Hinkel \& Fotos, 2002; Nassji, 1999; Raimes, 1991; Scheen, 2003).

The main difficulty of this instruction type is that explicit grammar lesson and authentic task should be integrated because "although many second language learners become quite skilled ... they often do not associate ... knowledge ... attained
in grammar classes with other language production tasks, such as writing'" (Hinkel, 1997 cited in (Hinkel \& Fotos, 2002: 183).

### 3.3.3.1.2. Implicit Lesson Planning

Implicit lesson planning gives importance to communicative tasks over grammar structures (Ellis, 1995). The pre-selected forms are presented indirectly through well-planned tasks (Ellis, 1994; Ellis 1997). In this type of instruction, it is believed that if the input is enhanced enough by providing opportunities to use structures, language learners will notice, unconsciously analyze, begin to form rules and successfully use the targeted-forms (Long, 1991; Long\&Robinson, 1998; Robinson, 2003; Skehan, 1996; Trahey\& White, 1993)

Implicit instruction is more successful in English-as-a-second-language classroom rather than the English-as-a-foreign-language because awareness of the targeted form by exposure to the outside community helps support intake of the form (Fotos, 2002).
3.3.3.2. Lesson Planning and Pedagogy in Explicit and Implicit Instruction

There are some pedagogical categories both in implicit and explicit lesson plans. These categories include noticing, comparing and integrating (Ellis \&Gaies, 1998; Richards, 2005). Both implicit and explicit instruction can be communicative and use the same methodologies; but the techniques employed in the presentations may vary.

## 3. 3.3.2.1. Explicit Lesson Pedagogy

In the explicit, teacher-directed approach, the process includes these categories: Noticing- by the teacher explaining and drawing attention to forms, Comparing-by the teacher giving examples on the board, Integrating, error correction and feedback- by the students practicing exercises and correcting the forms.(de, Graaff, 1997; Ellis, 2001; Ellis \&Gaies, 1998; Noonan,2004; Richards, 2005; Schmidt, 1990 ;Stigler \& Heibert ,1999).

### 3.3.3.2.2. Implicit Lesson Pedagogy

In the implicit, grammar-discovery approach, the process includes these categories: Noticing - by being aware of or attuning to targeted forms in pieces of authentic text, Comparing - by writing, highlighting or discussing the text which is hoped to draw attention to forms in some way, Integrating, error correction and feedback- by peer discussions of practice opportunity to use forms (Chandler, 2003; Ellis, 2003)

Noticing category is an important difference between explicit and implicit lesson planning. In explicit noticing, the teacher directs the attention to the form. However, in implicit lesson noticing, the task directs the attention to the form. Therefore, it can be said that although explicit and implicit use the same terminology to aid learners to focus on form, implementation in class is different. Explicit is teacher-directed and form-first while implicit is student-discovered and task-first.

### 3.4. Literature Review on Explicit and Implicit Instruction

Several recent literature reviews provide an overview concerning the role of explicit and implicit instruction on second language learning. As these reviews show, several studies suggest that there is a positive role for attention to form, either through explicit teaching of grammar or explicit error correction. Therefore, the next step will be reviewing the studies done in this field to provide different kinds of evidence.

Doughty (1991) compares the effects of 'meaning oriented instruction' and 'rule oriented instruction' in an article titled 'Second Language Instruction Does Make a Difference'. The study involves teaching relative clauses to 20 international university students from different language backgrounds who are not using the relative clause in their speech. Both groups read a number of short stories presented on sentence at a time on a computer screen. At the end of each story, they answer questions about it to check understanding. Meaning oriented group also view material in a second window on the screen that enhances their understanding of the stories such as definitions of the keywords. Rule oriented group view in a second window a programme called ' animated grammar' which explain the structure of relative clauses encountered in the story. All of the students are tested for their
knowledge of relative clauses before and after the intervention period and the gains in the scores are compared. Results show that both groups have made about equal gains.

Norris and Ortega (2000) conduct a meta-analysis of various research studies focused on determining the effectiveness of grammar teaching. They investigate the following questions: Is an implicit or an explicit approach more effective for L2 instruction? Can raising learners' metalinguistic awareness of specific L2 forms facilitate acquisition? Is attention to forms in meaning-focused lessons more effective than an exclusive focus on meaning and content? Is negative feedback beneficial for L2 development? Is comprehension practice as effective as production practice? The research concludes that the explicit analysis of grammar is more beneficial than the indirect, implicit treatment of grammar. More specifically, Norris and Ortega argue that: Explicit types of instruction are more effective than implicit types and Focus on Form (exclusive focus on meaning and content) and Focus on Forms (attention to forms in meaning-focused lessons) approaches produce similar outcomes.

Andrews (2007) aims at investigating the influence of implicit and explicit teaching of both simple and complex grammatical structures on the English as second language learners' learning of these structures. The ESL learners here are at 3 levels of proficiency. Among the purposes relevant to focus of the review, the researcher seeks to discover if a certain structure must match the learner's current level of proficiency. The researcher wants to find out if one method of teaching is better than others regarding the nature of the structure itself. The study is guided by three questions: the researcher asks whether there is a significant difference between explicit and implicit grammar teaching approaches in learning simple and complex rules. The other two questions are relevant to the effect of language proficiency on the learning of simple and complex structures. There are 70 participants in this quantitative study, and they are divided into 2 groups, 35 in each group and each group is divided into 3 level groups with a minimum of 11 in each subgroup. The proficiency levels are beginner, intermediate, and advanced. The researcher conducts 2 treatments; the first one is explicit grammar teaching of a simple rule which is subject-verb agreement and a complex rule which is relative clauses. The other
treatment uses the same structures and content but adopting the implicit approach. The researcher uses instrumental procedures to collect data: a pre-test, a post-test and a delayed post - test. Both groups have identical content and tests; the only difference is the teaching method. As for the findings of the study, she points out that the method of teaching makes a difference indicating that explicit teaching of grammar results in better learners' performance particularly with complex rules, so the variable of structure type is related to the method of teaching grammar. The findings also indicate that there is no difference in learners' performance regarding explicit / implicit grammar teaching of simple rules. This indicates that explicit grammar teaching is as effective as implicit grammar teaching with regard to simple rules.

Radwan (2005) aims at investigating the influence of the explicit teaching on facilitating language learning. The researcher wants to find out if the degree of explicitness affects the learning of the target structure, whether this degree affects the learners' awareness and whether the level of awareness correlates positively with the learners' future use of the target structure. The researcher randomly selects 42 English as foreign language learners in 2 universities in Washington; he divides them into 4 groups and randomly assigns four learning conditions: textual enhancement, role-oriented, content-oriented and non treatment of grammar teaching in the control group. The target structure is the use of indirect object and its position regarding word order. All participants have a pre-test. The treatment differs in the degree of explicitness ranging from extremely form focused in the rule oriented group to no focus on form at all in the content group. In addition to using instrumental procedures such as test, the researcher also uses observational procedures such think - aloud verbal protocols to gather his data. The participants sit for 2 post tests. The results show that rule-oriented group whose degree of explicitness is high outperforms other groups of implicit instruction or no instruction at all.

Mohamed (2004) aims at exploring the learner's attitude and preference of the grammar teaching method. This study is an exploratory, applied and quantitative study that used instrumental procedures in form of tests and questionnaire to collect the data. The research question is what learner's attitudes and preferences are regarding two techniques of grammar teaching: deductive and inductive, therefore, the researcher aims at finding out which of these grammar teaching techniques
appeals to ESL learners. The sample consisted of 53 ESL New Zealanders at the tertiary or university level of education. They are classified according to their language proficiency level, and each level is assigned a different structure to be learned once inductively and another time deductively. To illustrate, the relative clause structure is assigned to the lower-intermediate group, the structure of negative adverbs is assigned to the intermediate group and the ergative verbs structure is assigned to the upper intermediate group. Two treatments are given: a consciousnessraising (CR) task using deductive grammar teaching with 23 students from the 3 different levels and a CR task using inductive grammar teaching 28 students from the 3 levels working in pairs. Both groups are asked to complete a similar grammar activity after completing a different grammar task. The deductive group students do the activity after studying the rule explicitly while the other inductive group predict and form the rule before completing the activity. When the tasks are done, both groups are asked to fill out a questionnaire that aims at determining their preferences and attitudes. The results indicate that students regard both task types equally effective and useful in language learning. It is also discovered that proficiency does not seem to affect task preference. The researcher recommends the integration of both explicit and implicit teaching procedures with stress on the explicit approach especially with lower-level learners whose attention should be directed to important structure.

Akakura (2009) conducts a study titled as Effect of Explicit Instruction on Implicit and Explicit Second Language Knowledge, an Empirical Study on English Article Acquisition The purpose of this study is to investigate the effectiveness of explicit instruction on the development of both knowledge about language (explicit knowledge) and knowledge of language that is available for fluent use (implicit knowledge). This study examines the effect of explicit instruction on English articles on measures of implicit and explicit knowledge. Lessons on generic and non-generic articles are delivered through a web-based computer program to adult L2 users with some prior knowledge of articles. A control group participates in the pre- and posttests only. The tests consist of two oral production tasks designed to measure implicit knowledge; elicited production and spontaneous production tests, and two written tasks designed to measure explicit knowledge: grammaticality judgment and
metalinguistic knowledge tests. The results suggest that explicit instruction adequately facilitates the development of L2 language knowledge on non-salient forms in terms of both implicit and explicit knowledge. Pedagogically, these results suggest that explicit instruction on English articles based on a cognitive grammar approach may be of some benefit to English L2 users.

Weinert (2009) compares the deductive and inductive modes of learning in a study called Deductive and Inductive modes of learning: similarities and differences from a developmental perspective. The article reports on a series of studies designed to test for similarities and differences between the implicit and explicit learning of categories and rules in children and adults. While explicit learning processes have been shown to develop rather late, preschool children appear as capable as adults when implicitly inducing the formal morphophonological and syntactic regularities of complexly structured input. The study shows that not only deductive but also inductive learning is highly dependent on input structure. Specifically, children and adults succeed in learning more complex morphophonological regularities and formal word categories only if the input contains additional cues to structure. Moreover, contrary to inductive learning, explicit learning is comparatively more focused on visual conceptual cues and regularities.

Heo (2007) conducts a study on the Effects of Grammar Instruction with Three Noticing Levels on ESL Learners' Grammar Tests. The purpose of the study is to investigate the relationship among noticing levels, difficulty in rules, and types of grammar knowledge. Sixty participants are divided into three groups. The first group takes implicit instruction where visual input enhancement is used in the reading material. The second group takes explicit instruction with out-of-context examples. The third group receives the combination of instructions of the first and the second group. The results show that higher noticing levels in grammar learning significantly influence L2 learners' explicit knowledge of an easy rule. Overall, explicit is the most effective. In addition, implicit and explicit knowledge are fundamentally different in terms of retention and are possibly interfaced depending on the combination of rule complexity, time pressure and grammaticality.

Graaff (1997) investigates the interaction between the presence or absence of explicit instruction and the variables complexity and morphology/syntax in the acquisition of four L2 structures in the study titled the Experanto Experiment: Effects of Explicit Instruction on Second Language Acquisition. Participants are two groups of 27 university students, differing in the exposure to explicit instruction. They follow a computer-controlled self-study course in an artificial language. Results from computer-controlled post-tests confirm the general hypothesis that explicit instruction facilitates the acquisition of L2 grammar. However, no evidence could be reported for the hypotheses predicting a differential effect of explicit instruction depending on the variables complexity and morphology/syntax.

In the light of these and other studies done in this field, this study attempts to find if implicit and explicit inputs of grammatical structures have any effect on the learning of those structures for language learners at the intermediate level. It addresses the following questions: (1) Is there a significant difference in the learning of First Conditional between explicit - deductive instruction and implicit- inductive instruction? (2) Is there a significant difference in the learning of First Conditional between explicit- deductive instruction and implicit- inductive instruction in terms of gender? In this study, instruction groups have been narrowed as explicit - deductive and implicit - inductive since explicit - deductive instruction provides learners with a grammatical description of the rule so they are encouraged to develop metalinguistic awareness of the rule whereas in implicit- inductive instruction, a specific grammatical structure is pre-determined; but is masked from learners so that they are not aware of the target so this type of instruction involves creating a learning environment that is enriched with the target feature, but without drawing learners' explicit attention to it.

## CHAPTER FOUR

## METHODOLOGY

The present study, involving prep class language learners at intermediate level, sought to investigate the possible effects of two different instruction types on grammar teaching. The aim of the study was to compare the two instruction types: explicit - deductive instruction and implicit - inductive instruction. It is aimed to find the most effective instruction type that can be used in second language classes. Both the explicit - deductive and implicit - inductive treatment were administered by the same teacher to already intact groups. The dependant variable was the number of the correct items on three grammar tests administered as a pre-test, a post-test and a delayed-post test.

The study aimed at exploring if teachings of grammar through explicitdeductive or implicit - inductive instruction have a significant effect on university prep class students' academic performance in grammar.

In this study, targeted grammatical structure was First Conditional and it was chosen intentionally as language learners have difficulty in understanding it. Celce Murcia (2001) and Larsen - Freeman (1983) stated that conditional sentences in general cause problems for many second language learners. Since Conditional sentences are made up of two clauses: a main clause and if clause, the structure is difficult. Therefore, language learners should have a good understanding of English tense system and the model auxiliaries.

### 4.1. The Present Study

### 4.1.1. Participants

The participants of the study were chosen among the intermediate level (C2 Level) students of the School of Foreign Languages of Dokuz Eylül University in the Fall term of 2011-2012 academic year. The subjects were students enrolled at an intensive English preparatory class and they had classes 25 hours a week.

The level of the students was determined on the basis of a standard placement test, which was administered at the beginning of the Fall semester of 2011-2012. The students were grouped according to the results of the test which was scored out of 100 .

The selection of the participants was determined on the basis of a recognition test of the chosen target form namely Type 1 Conditional sentences. According to the results of the recognition test, the total number of students was 70 . These students were divided into two groups in order to form the experimental and control group, both of which were assigned randomly.

### 4.1.2. Reliability of the Test

Reliability is defined as the extent to which a questionnaire, test, observation or any measurement procedure produces the same results on repeated trials. In short, it is the stability or consistency of scores over time or across raters. In order to test it, another group of participants (22) from prep class students at the upper- intermediate level from Dokuz Eylül University was chosen. This group was asked to take the test before administering it to the real participant group. Result $(0,79)$ showed that the test was reliable.

### 4.1.3. Instruments

### 4.1.3.1. Pre, Post and Delayed Post-Test

The recognition test was administered to two C2 level students at the School of Foreign Languages of Dokuz Eylül University. The test included 20 multiple choice questions. The recognition test was developed by the researcher for the study.

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

### 4.1.3.2. Instructional Packets

An instructional packet was prepared for both experimental group and control group. In each instructional packet, there was a lesson plan and related activities. In the process of development of packets, the number of the activities, the time given for the activities and the level of the language were considered and tried to be kept equal for both groups. To do this, the same text was used for both groups with different types of activities. (See Appendix A Lesson Plans)

### 4.2. Procedures

The intervention started with the permission issued by the Institute of Graduate Studies for the Head of the School of Foreign Languages of Dokuz Eylül University. Two classes were chosen from C2 intermediate level and the researcher herself presented First Conditional. Before the treatment, the students were given a pre-test. One of the classes was assigned as an experimental group and the other one was assigned as a control group randomly.

Following the pre-test, these two groups were taught the target form by the researcher using the lesson plans developed for each group. Both groups were presented by the researcher to eliminate the teacher function. The treatment took four weeks for both groups. Both groups were given the post-test immediately after the intervention period. The participants were given 30 minutes for the tests. As for the delayed post-test, it was given eight weeks after the treatment, the results showed the most effective instruction type in terms of retention.

### 4.3. Timetable of the Treatments

Table 4.1. Timetable of the Treatments

|  | Pre - Test | Treatment | Post - Test | Delayed Pt |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Explicit Group | $1^{\text {st }}$ week | 4 weeks | $5^{\text {th }}$ week | 2 months later |
| Implicit Group | $1^{\text {st }}$ week | 4 weeks | $5^{\text {th }}$ week | 2 months later |

### 4.3.1. Treatment

The two treatments were explicit - deductive and implicit - inductive instruction of grammar lessons and were administered to intact groups by the same instructor. The grammar lessons included the same grammatical structure which was First Conditional. Within this grammar subject, three categories were positive sentences, negative sentences and questions. These categories also included the usage of 'might', the usage of 'can' and explanation of situations where First Conditional is used such as warning, advice, promise, advantages and disadvantages. Each treatment group covered the same grammatical structures for the same amount of time.

Treatment procedures were different for both groups. Explicit - deductive was teacher-directed whereas implicit - inductive was grammar discovery. In explicit deductive instruction, metalingual explanations were given by the teacher. It was more like a traditional approach to grammar tasks in several examples, and form was emphasized. In addition to examples of forms, rules were presented by the teacher and practice and production stages were conducted. Implicit - inductive, on the contrary, was a student-discovery instruction type. Meaningful tasks were presented with the form - focused tasks to follow. There was no metalinguistic explanation by the teacher at any time during the study. The tasks were developed to lead language learners to realize the need to focus on the targeted forms.

To summarize the differences, the explicit - deductive group was teacherdirected. Therefore, the teacher caused the students to focus on the forms. In contrast, the implicit- inductive was task- based, student discovery of the forms. Therefore, the task caused the students to focus on forms. Both treatments tried to make students notice the forms.

In the explicit - deductive, teacher-directed group, treatment followed these steps: Noticing: teacher made students listen to a script containing the targeted form just to familiarize them with the grammatical structure as a warm-up activity and then, teacher explained the forms and rules; Comparing: Teacher wrote examples on the board about the rules; Integrating, Error Correction and Feedback: Students
practiced forms, rules with exercises. If needed, the teacher used metalingual explanations as feedback; Assessment: grammar achievement test was applied.

In the implicit - inductive, grammar discovery group, treatment followed these steps: Noticing: Students listened to a script containing the targeted structure; they did not have a copy of the script, they simply listened; Comparing: Students listened to the script again with the targeted form missing from a handout of the script, they tried to write missing forms as they heard them; Integrating, Error Correction and Feedback: Students did peer discussions of lessons, answers and unclear forms. The teacher used only repetitions or recasts as implicit feedback; Assessment: grammar achievement test was applied.

### 4.4. Data Analysis

Both groups were given a pre-test, which determined the levels of the participants before the treatment. All of the test data were scored five points for each correct response. There were 20 questions on the test and pre-, post- and delayedpost tests were scored in the same way.

The analysis of the data started by grading of the pre-test, post-test and delayed-post-test papers. For each subject who participated in the study, there were three types of data: 1. Pre - test scores before treatment, 2. Post-test scores after treatment, 3. Delayed-post- test scores obtained after eight weeks.

All the scores were calculated with SPSS programme. After calculating the scores of all tests, the first thing done was to compare the scores of pre and posttests for each class. Then, the results of post- tests for both groups were compared with T-test. Finally, the scores of pre and delayed- post-test were compared for each class to show which instruction type retained well over time.

### 4.5. Limitations

The number of the participants was 70 in this study, and this number is questionable in terms of generalizability. Therefore, a larger of participants would make the study stronger.

The data collected was limited to knowledge of rules measured by the number of the correct items on grammar test; it does not measure usage as in writing or speaking examples. Another possible problem is selecting the correct items as the dependent variable may favor one treatment over the other and may not be the best indicator of learning.

## CHAPTER FIVE

## RESULTS

### 5.1. The Present Study

The purpose of this study was to provide empirical data on the effects of explicit- deductive and implicit - inductive instruction on grammar by language learners at intermediate level.

This was a quasi - experimental study as the subjects were not assigned to the experimental groups randomly. The researcher randomly assigned the explicit deductive and implicit - inductive groups among the ones which were assigned by the manager of the School of Foreign Languages of Dokuz Eylül University, and there were two groups: explicit- deductive and implicit- inductive; but this study lacked a control group. The participants, 70 intermediate level students of School of Foreign Languages of Dokuz Eylül University were given a pre-test. Following the pre-test, researcher taught target grammar structures for four weeks on First Conditional. After the intervention period, both groups were given post-test. The delayed-post-test was applied eight weeks after the treatment.

### 5.2. Analysis of Data

The first step was the assessment of the tests in the analysis of data. There were three test results for both groups. The test used as pre-test, post-test and delayed-post-test had 20 questions about First Conditional. Since there were 20 First Conditional questions to be scored on the test, each correct item was given 5 points and a total 100 was reached. Incorrect items received a score of 0 .

### 5.3. The Results of All Tests

### 5.3.1. The Results of the Pre - Test

Table 5.1. shows the results of pre-test for both groups. The mean score of the pre-test for the explicit - deductive group is 6,31 whereas the implicit- inductive group has 6,14 score. The difference is only 0,17 . The total mean of the pre-test is

6,22 . The explicit- deductive group is slightly higher than the total mean, and the implicit- inductive is slightly lower than the total mean.

Table 5.1. Comparisons of the Grammar Pre-test Results of the Explicit Deductive and the Implicit - Inductive Groups

| Groups | n | Means | Std.dev | t | p |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Explicit - Deductive | 35 | 6,314 | 3,065 |  |  |
| Implicit - Inductive | 35 | 6,142 | 3,734 | , 259 | , 797 |

The level of the participants' knowledge before the intervention was almost the same. Close mean scores $(6,31$ and 6,14$)$ between the two groups showed that students of both groups had the same level. It can be said that the participants' knowledge of Type 1 Conditional sentences was almost the same. Therefore, statistical analysis indicated no statistically significant difference between the groups according to the results of pre-test $\mathrm{p} \leq, 797$ which is higher than 0,05 ; therefore, it is not significant. Saying it is not significant, it is meant that students from both groups got close scores, or at least not very different from each other.

Table 5. 2. Lowest and Highest Scores of Pre-Test for Both Groups

| Groups | Lowest | Highest | Mean |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Explicit - <br> Deductive | 5 | 80 | 6,314 |
| Implicit - <br> Inductive | 5 | 95 | 6,142 |

Table 5.2. shows the lowest and highest scores obtained by the participants of both groups from the pre - test. As seen in the table, the lowest scores for both groups are the same. As for the highest scores, they do not show a big difference.

### 5.4. All Test Results For Both Treatment Groups

### 5.4.1. All Test Results for the Explicit - Deductive Group

Table 5.3. Results of All Tests for Explicit - Deductive Group

| Participants | Pre - Test | Post - Test | Delayed Post - Test |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 20 | 70 | 40 |
| 2 | 55 | 65 | 40 |
| 3 | 45 | 90 | 95 |
| 4 | 25 | 70 | 45 |
| 5 | 20 | 95 | 85 |
| 6 | 20 | 75 | 55 |
| 7 | 50 | 70 | 55 |
| 8 | 30 | 75 | 80 |
| 9 | 45 | 85 | 80 |
| 10 | 50 | 60 | 60 |
| 11 | 15 | 55 | 90 |
| 12 | 30 | 95 | 90 |
| 13 | 35 | 100 | 80 |
| 14 | 25 | 90 | 85 |
| 15 | 30 | 65 | 85 |
| 16 | 15 | 60 | 75 |
| 17 | 35 | 75 | 70 |
| 18 | 25 | 35 | 50 |
| 19 | 25 | 85 | 65 |
| 20 | 20 | 95 | 95 |
| 21 | 55 | 100 | 100 |
| 22 | 30 | 45 | 80 |
| 23 | 5 | 25 | 40 |
| 24 | 25 | 95 | 90 |
| 25 | 20 | 100 | 75 |
| 26 | 55 | 80 | 85 |
| 27 | 25 | 45 | 30 |
| 28 | 20 | 85 | 40 |
| 29 | 45 | 80 | 35 |
| 30 | 20 | 90 | 90 |
| 31 | 25 | 50 | 60 |
| 32 | 20 | 55 | 60 |
| 33 | 40 | 80 | 100 |
| 34 | 80 | 95 | 100 |
| 35 | 25 | 95 | 100 |
| Mean | 6,31 | 15,02 | 14,31 |

Table 5.3. for the pre-test shows that the scores differed from 5 to 80 , and the mean score is 6,31 . The mean score of this group has doubled from 6,31 to 15,02 from pre-test to post-test and has been found to be 14,31 for the delayed-post-test. An increase from 6,31 to 15,02 can really be taken as an evidence for learning the target structure. Statistically, an increase of 8,71 points between two mean scores of two tests is a sign for the effect of treatment.

As well as the scores obtained from each test, pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test results for explicit- deductive group should also be compared. With t-test, pairs of tests for each group were compared and the table below shows the results.

Table 5.4. T- Test for All Test Scores of Explicit- Deductive

|  | Mean | t | df | Sig. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Results of Pre -Test | 6,31 | $-12,140$ | 34 | , 000 |
| Results of Post -Test | 15,02 |  |  |  |
| Results of Pre -Test | 6,31 | $-9,971$ | 34 | , 000 |
| Results of Delayed Post -Test | 14,31 |  |  |  |
| Results of Post - Test | 15,02 | 1,105 | 34 | , 277 |
| Results of Delayed Post -Test | 14,31 |  |  |  |

It is clear from the table above that there is significant difference between the test scores of explicit- deductive group gained from the pre-test and the post-test ( t $=-12,140 ; \mathrm{df}=34 ; \mathrm{p} \leq, 000$ ) which means there are differences between the performances of the students after the treatments. However, when test score of posttest and delayed post-tests are compared, it is seen that there is no significant difference. It can be concluded that if language learners are taught the target form by explicit- deductive instruction, they learn the new structure well.

The second comparison is between the test scores of pre-test and delayed post-tests. The comparison shows there is a statistical difference between the test scores. ( $\mathrm{t}=-9,971 ; \mathrm{p} \leq 000$ ) Therefore, it is quite clear that students have learned and have not forgotten what they have learned from the treatment given after the pre-
test to the delayed post-test. The statistical difference between the pre-test and delayed post-test scores reveals that learning has gone on until the delayed post - test.

As for the comparison between the post-test and delayed- post test, it shows that the mean score slightly decreased from 15,02 to 14,31 . However, language learners did not forget what they learned completely because their delayed post- test results $(14,31)$ are not lower than their pre -test results $(6,31)$.

The third comparison is between the test scores of post- test and delayed posttest. The comparison does not reveal a significant difference between the test scores as P value $(, 277)$ is higher than 0,05 . This means that the scores gained after the posttest and delayed post-test are statistically not different from each other. This result is a sign for the evidence for retention. It is clear that they have kept what they have learned in their interlanguage.

It can be concluded that students have significantly developed their knowledge of First Conditional after the treatment in comparison of pre-test and post - test results for the Explicit - Deductive group.

### 5.4.2. All Test Results for Implicit- Inductive Group

Table 5.5. Results of All Tests for Implicit- Inductive Group

| Participant | Pre -Test | Post - Test | Delayed Post - Test |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 30 | 55 | 25 |
| 2 | 15 | 70 | 65 |
| 3 | 35 | 95 | 90 |
| 4 | 15 | 55 | 90 |
| 5 | 35 | 90 | 95 |
| 6 | 20 | 60 | 45 |
| 7 | 25 | 15 | 45 |
| 8 | 10 | 80 | 55 |
| 9 | 40 | 30 | 30 |
| 10 | 30 | 50 | 60 |
| 11 | 20 | 45 | 20 |
| 12 | 10 | 75 | 80 |
| 13 | 25 | 95 | 100 |
| 14 | 35 | 30 | 25 |
| 15 | 25 | 80 | 100 |
| 16 | 40 | 95 | 85 |
| 17 | 20 | 85 | 80 |
| 18 | 30 | 65 | 50 |
| 19 | 35 | 5 | 70 |
| 20 | 5 | 100 | 100 |
| 21 | 35 | 90 | 70 |
| 22 | 45 | 80 | 70 |
| 23 | 10 | 65 | 60 |
| 24 | 30 | 75 | 60 |
| 25 | 50 | 25 | 25 |
| 26 | 85 | 95 | 100 |
| 27 | 30 | 75 | 90 |
| 28 | 45 | 95 | 65 |
| 29 | 30 | 65 | 75 |
| 30 | 20 | 80 | 100 |
| 31 | 95 | 100 | 90 |
| 32 | 25 | 65 | 65 |
| 33 | 30 | 95 | 100 |
| 34 | 75 | 75 | 95 |
| 35 | 50 | 100 | 95 |
| Mean | 6,14 | 13,22 | 14,11 |

Table 5.5. for the pre-test shows that the scores differed from 5 to 95 , and the mean score is 6,14 . The mean score of this group has doubled from 6,14 to 13,22 from pre-test to post-test and has been found to be 14,11 for the delayed- post test. An increase from 6,31 to 13,22 can really be taken as an evidence for learning the target structure. Statistically, an increase of 7,08 points between two mean scores of two tests is a sign for the effect of treatment.

As well as the scores obtained from each test, pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test results for explicit - deductive group were computated. With t- test, pairs of tests for each group were compared and the table below shows the results.

Table 5.6. T- Test for All Test Scores of Implicit- Inductive Group

|  | Mean | t | df | Sig. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Results of Pre -Test <br> Results of Post- Test | 6,14 | $-7,321$ | 34 | , 000 |
| Results of Pre -Test |  |  |  |  |
| Results of Delayed Post -Test | 13,22 |  |  |  |
| Results of Post - Test | 14,14 | $-8,228$ | 34 | , 000 |
| Results of Delayed Post -Test | 14,11 | $-1,416$ | 34 | , 166 |

It is clear from the table above that there is significant difference between the test scores of implicit - inductive group gained from the pre-test and the post-test which means there are differences between the performances of the students after the treatments. ( $\mathrm{t}=-7,321 ; \mathrm{df}=34 ; \mathrm{p} \leq, 000$ ) It can be concluded that if language learners are taught the target form by implicit - inductive instruction, they learn the new structure well.

The second comparison is between the test scores of pre-test and delayed post-tests. The comparison shows there is a statistical difference between the test scores ( $\mathrm{t}=-8,228 ; \mathrm{df}=34 ; \mathrm{p} \leq, 000$ ). Therefore, it is quite clear that students have learned and have not forgotten what they have learned from the treatment given after the pre-test to the delayed post-test. The statistical difference between the pre-test
and delayed post-test scores reveals that learning has gone on until the delayed posttest.

The third comparison is between the test scores of post- tests and delayed post -test, which is quite surprising since mean score of delayed post-test $(14,11)$ is slightly higher than the mean score of the post-test $(13,22)$. It is generally expected delayed post-test to be lower than post-test because as time passes, it is possible for language learners to forget grammar structure. However, it is not the case in this study. Moreover, the comparison does not reveal a significant difference between the test scores as $p$ value $(, 166)$ is higher than 0,05 .This means that the scores gained after the post-test and delayed post-test are statistically not different from each other. This result is a sign for the evidence for retention. It is clear that they have kept what they have learned in their interlanguage.

### 5.3.2. Comparison of the Results of the Post - Test

Table 5.7. shows the results of post-test for both groups. Post-test was applied to each group eight weeks after the treatment. The mean score $(15,02)$ is higher for Explicit - Deductive group than the one for Implicit - Inductive group (13, 22). The difference is 1,80 points.

Table 5.7. Comparisons of the Grammar Pre-test and Post-test T-Test Results of the Explicit - Deductive and Implicit - Inductive Groups

|  |  | Pre -Test |  |  | Post-Test |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | N | Means | Std. Dev. | Means | Std. Dev. | p. |
| Explicit <br> Deductive | -35 | 6,314 | 3,065 | 15,028 | 3,996 | , 000 |
| Implicit <br> Inductive | 35 | 6,142 | 3,734 | 13,228 | 4,994 | , 000 |

Both groups learned First Conditional a lot from the treatment as they both doubled the mean scores (explicit - deductive increased from 6,31 to 15,02 ). Likewise, implicit - inductive increased from 6,14 to 13,22 ). However, the mean score of post- test for explicit - deductive group $(15,02)$ is slightly higher than that of implicit- inductive group $(13,22)$.

The p value , 000 showed that there is a difference between the levels of students' knowledge in Type 1 Conditional. Therefore, it can be said that students in both groups have learned First Conditional. As a conclusion, it is possible to say instruction is beneficial in language teaching.

Table 5.7. clearly shows that there is a big increase in the mean scores of both groups from pre-test to post- test. This reveals that whichever type of instruction they have been exposed to, they have learned the target form.

Table 5. 8. Lowest and Highest Scores of Post-Test for Both Groups

| Groups | Lowest | Highest | Mean |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Explicit - Deductive | 25 | 100 | 15,02 |
| Implicit - Inductive | 5 | 100 | 13,22 |

When the lowest and the highest scores of both groups are taken into consideration, it is seen that the highest scores are the same (100). However, the lowest scores range from 5 to 25 , which can be thought as a big difference. It is quite surprising that one student got only 5 and another student got 100 from the same group.

Table 5.9. Comparisons of the Grammar Post -test T-Test Results of the Explicit

- Deductive and the Implicit - Inductive Group

|  | N | Means | Std.Dev. | t |  |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Explicit - Deductive | 35 | 15,028 | 3,966 | 1,730 | , 093 |
| Implicit - Inductive | 35 | 13,228 | 4,994 |  |  |

The value of ,093 indicates that there is no significant difference between control and experimental groups. Therefore, it can be said that both explicitdeductive and implicit - inductive instruction are successful in teaching grammar; but their effects do not have significant difference.

The results so far reveal that both explicit - deductive and implicit- inductive instruction types are effective for Intermediate level English learners of Turkish students studying at Dokuz Eylül University, School of Foreign Languages with First Conditional because the mean scores for both groups are very close to each other.

### 5.3.3. Results of the Delayed Post-Test

Table 5.10. shows the results of the delayed post-test for both groups. Delayed post-test was applied to each group eight weeks after the treatment. It was aimed to find out which type of instruction helped students to keep the structure in their interlanguage well as the time passed.

The researcher aimed at testing the retention of the taught target grammatical structure in the long term memory of subjects. Therefore, a delayed post-test was given eight weeks after the treatment and the retention of the newly learned grammatical structure in the long- term memory was tested.

Table 5. 10 Results of Delayed Post - Test for All Groups

|  | N | Pre-test <br> Means | Post-test <br> Means | Delayed p.t <br> Means |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Explicit - Deductive | 35 | 6,314 | 15,028 | 14,314 |
| Implicit - Inductive | 35 | 6,142 | 13,228 | 14,114 |

Explicit- deductive group had slightly higher mean score for the delayed posttest. However, it is as low as the score 0,20 . Therefore, it can be concluded that both groups have not forgotten what they learned.

Table 5.11. Significance Level of all Tests

| Groups | Pre vs. Post | Pre vs. Delayed | Post |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Explicit -Deductive | $\mathrm{p}=, 000$ | $\mathrm{p}=, 000$ | $\mathrm{p}=, 093$ |
| Implicit - Inductive | $\mathrm{p}=, 000$ | $\mathrm{p}=, 000$ | $\mathrm{p}=, 093$ |

It should also be touched on that it is the explicit - deductive group which had slightly higher mean score which is 14,1 in the post- test.

Table 5.12.Lowest and Highest Scores of Delayed Post-Test for Both Groups

| Groups | Lowest | Highest | Mean |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Explicit - Deductive | 30 | 100 | 14,31 |
| Implicit - Inductive | 25 | 100 | 14,11 |

Table 5.12. reveals the lowest and the highest scores of the delayed post-test for both groups. The lowest score for the implicit- inductive group is 25 while it is 30 for the explicit - deductive group. As for the maximum scores, they do not differ. Both scores are the same (100).

Table 5.13.Comparisons of the Grammar Delayed Post-test T-Test Results of the Explicit - Deductive and the Implicit - Inductive Group

|  | N | Means | Std.Dev. | $t$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Explicit - Deductive | 35 | 14,314 | 4,330 | , 270 | , 837 |
| Implicit - Inductive | 35 | 14,114 | 5,057 |  |  |

According to table 5.13. both groups have very similar means; explicitdeductive mean score is 14,31 whereas implicit- inductive score is 14,11 .The difference is only 0,20 points. Moreover, $\mathrm{p}(, 837)$ value is higher than 0,05 . Therefore, there is no significant difference between two groups in terms of retention.

### 5.3.4. Post - Test Results According to Gender

Based on the thought that there should be no differentiation in the way girls and boys are taught, schools are established mixed. It is assumed that boys and girls learn in the same way. Moreover, if they are taught differently, it may be perceived as discriminatory. However, as it is known that boys and girls are raised differently, and these gender differences in growing may influence the way they perceive studying foreign languages. To test this thought, the last research question was 'What effects does gender have on university students' academic success in grammar depending upon the instruction type through which they learn grammar?' In order to answer this question, the percentages of the scores gained and post - test results were compared according to gender.

### 5.3.4.1. Explicit - Deductive Group

In the Explicit- Deductive group, there were 16 female students and 19 male students. Table 5.14. shows the scores obtained from post-test after the treatment according to gender.

Table 5.14. Scores of Post-test for Explicit - Deductive Group According to Gender

| Gender | $0-20$ |  | $20-40$ |  | $40-60$ |  | $60-80$ |  | $80-100$ |  | Total |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | N | $\%$ | N | $\%$ | N | $\%$ | N | $\%$ | N | $\%$ |  |
| Female | 0 | $0 \%$ | 0 | $0 \%$ | 2 | $13 \%$ | 5 | $33 \%$ | 8 | $53 \%$ | 15 |
| Male | 0 | $0 \%$ | 2 | $10 \%$ | 5 | $25 \%$ | 6 | $30 \%$ | 7 | $35 \%$ | 20 |

As can be seen in the table above, neither girls nor boys obtained zero from the post - test. However, while there are no girls getting between 20-40 scores, two
boys got between these scores. There is no significant difference in numbers of students getting other scores. As a whole, it can be concluded that girls are slightly more successful in the explicit - deductive group.


Figure 5.1.Percentages of the Scores of Post-test for Female Students in Explicit - Deductive Group

Figure 5.1. reveals that the percentage of female students obtaining between scores 0 - 40 is zero. Therefore, there were no female students who did not understand anything about First Conditional. While the percentage of female students getting between the scores $40-60$ is $13 \%$, it is $33 \%$ between the scores $60-80$. It is clearly shown that half of the female students obtained between the scores 80-100 and it is a sign for the effect of the treatment for female students.


Figure 5.2. Percentages of the Scores of Post-test for Male Students in Explicit Deductive Group

Figure 5.2. shows that there are no male students getting between the scores $0-20$. Therefore, it can be concluded that there are no male students who did not understand anything about First Conditional. However, the percentage of male students getting between the scores $20-40$ is $10 \%$. In the female group, there were no students in this portion. This shows that boys are slightly less successful than girls. While the percentage of male students getting between the scores $40-60$ is $23 \%$, it is $30 \%$ between the scores $60-80$. It is shown that $35 \%$ of the male students obtained between the scores 80-100. It can be concluded that boys learned First Conditional but not as well as the girls did.

Table 5.15. Comparisons of the Grammar Pre-test and Post-test T-Test Results of the Explicit- Deductive Group According to Gender

|  |  | Pre -Test |  | Post -Test |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | N | Means | Std. Dev. | Means | Std. Dev. | p. |
| Female | 15 | 7,000 | 3,273 | 16,466 | 2,924 | , 000 |
| Male | 20 | 5,800 | 2,876 | 13,950 | 4,358 | , 000 |

Results of pre - and post-tests in the Explicit - Deductive group according to gender were compared with a t -test to understand the difference in a better way. Results show that both groups have not very different mean scores in the pre-test. $($ Female $=7$; Male $=5,8)$. While mean scores increased from 7 to 16,46 in female students, in the male group it increased from 5,8 to 13,95 . P value, 000 shows that both male students and female students have learned First Conditional; it is a sign for the effect of the treatment.

Both the percentages of the scores and mean scores in $t$-test reveal that female students are more successful in explicit - deductive group. Percentages of the scores gained show that more than half of the female students got between the scores 80100. Male students also increased their learning; but not as much as female students did.

### 5.3.4.2. Implicit- Inductive Group

In the Implicit - Inductive group, there were 24 female students and 11 male students. Table 5.16. shows the scores obtained from post-test after the treatment according to gender.

Table 5.16. Scores of Post-test for Implicit- Inductive Group According to Gender

| Gender | $0-20$ |  | $20-40$ |  | $40-60$ |  | $60-80$ |  | $80-100$ |  | Total |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | N | $\%$ | N | $\%$ | N | $\%$ | N | $\%$ | N | $\%$ |  |
| Female | 0 | $0 \%$ | 1 | $4 \%$ | 2 | $8 \%$ | 9 | $38 \%$ | 12 | $50 \%$ | 24 |
| Male | 2 | $18 \%$ | 2 | $18 \%$ | 3 | $27 \%$ | 4 | $37 \%$ | 0 | $0 \%$ | 11 |

As can be seen in the table above, no girls obtained zero from the post - test. However, two boys got zero. There is no significant difference in numbers of students getting 20-40 and 40-60. Whereas nine female students got between the scores $60-80$, there were four boys in this portion. The most surprising result is that while no boys got between the scores $80-100$, twelve girls obtained between these scores. As a whole, it can be concluded that girls are more successful in the implicit inductive group.


Figure 5.3. Percentages of the Scores of Post-test for Female Students in Implicit - Inductive Group

Figure 5.3. reveals that the percentage of female students obtaining between scores $0-20$ is zero. Therefore, there were no female students who did not understand anything about First Conditional. While the percentage of female students getting between the scores $20-40$ is $4 \%$, it is $8 \%$ the scores between $40-60$ and $38 \%$ between the scores $60-80$. It is clearly shown that half of the female students obtained between the scores $80-100$ and it is sign for the effect of the treatment for female students.


Figure 5.4. Percentages of the Scores of Post - test for Male Students in Implicit - Inductive Group

Figure 5.4. shows that the percentage of male students getting the scores between $0-20$ is $18 \%$ whereas the percentage of male students getting between the scores $20-40$ is $18 \%$. While the percentage of male students getting between the scores $40-60$ is $27 \%$, it is $37 \%$ the scores between $60-80$. Amazingly, there are no male students getting the scores between $80-100$. It can be concluded that boys learned First Conditional but not as well as girls did.

Table 5.17. Comparisons of the Grammar Pre-test and Post-test T-Test Results of the Implicit - Inductive Group According to Gender

|  |  | Pre -Test |  | Post -Test |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | N | Means | Std. Dev. | Means | Std. Dev. | p. |
| Female | 24 | 6,791 | 4,075 | 16,166 | 3,534 | , 000 |
| Male | 11 | 6,181 | 3,842 | 9,363 | 4,985 | , 142 |

Results of pre- and post-tests in the Implicit- Inductive group according to gender were compared with a t- test to understand the difference in a better way. Results show that both groups do not have very different mean scores in the pre test. $\quad$ (Female $=6,79 ;$ Male $=6,18$ ). While mean scores increased from 6,79 to 16,16 in female students, in the male group it increased from 6,18 to 9,36 . P value ,000 shows that female students have learned First Conditional, there is significant difference between the results of pre-test and post-test. However, P value is ,142 in male students. This shows that there is no significant difference between the results of pre - and post-test in male students.

As in the Explicit - Deductive group, female students are more successful in Implicit- Inductive group. Both the percentages of the scores gained and mean scores in t-test reveal that female students significantly increased their learning on the First Conditional.

### 5.3.5. Conclusion of the Findings According to Gender

There are different arguments about which side of the gender outperforms the other in second language learning. Three main views have emerged over time. The first one claims that females outperform males (Baker and Maclntyre, 2000; Schueller, 2000). The second view states that males outperform females in various second language acquisition activities or skills (Branmeier, 200; D'Ailly, 2002;

Hassan, 2001; Kasanga, 1996). Third view has a middle- ground position. Researchers suggest that no significant difference exists between the performance of males and females in second language acquisition (Piske, Mackay and Flege, 2001).

The present study supports the view that females outperform males (Baker and Maclntyre, 2000, Schueller, 2000) since it is clearly shown that female students are more successful than male students both in Explicit- Deductive group and Implicit- Inductive group.

There are two problems in terms of generalizability of the gender issue. Firstly, the number of the students is 70 , a larger sample would be better and the number of the female students and male students are not equal. The second one is that this study is about only one item which is First Conditional. It is unknown whether female students would have outperformed males again if they had been taught other grammar structures.

### 5.5. Students' Attitudes Towards Explicit and Implicit Instruction

Learner beliefs and attitudes regarding different approaches to second language acquisition represent a significant component of the language learning process. Therefore, this study also attempted to describe students' perceptions of explicit and implicit instruction types. Participants are asked three questions after instruction. The first question asked participants to identify positive thing / things in instruction period. The second question asked participants to identify the most helpful activity. The third question asked students to give an overall impression of the instruction. The participants were asked to write answers in Turkish to enable them to provide more accurate descriptions. Analysis of the data started with the responses to each of three questions from each participant.

First question wanted participants to identify the positive thing / things in instruction period. Results vary according to groups.

Table 5.18. Answers of First Question by Explicit- Deductive Group

| ITEMS | N | $\%$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Traditional method | 10 | 26 |
| Variety of examples | 12 | 31 |
| Pace | 6 | 15 |
| Stimulating | 7 | 18 |
| Lasting | 3 | 7 |
| Total | 38 |  |

In Explicit - Deductive group, students found the variety of examples as the most positive thing. Therefore, it is so clear that different kinds of activities helped them to learn the target items. $26 \%$ of the students were satisfied with explicit in terms of its being a traditional method. They were content as they were used to that method. Pace was another positive thing for students. They had enough time to understand the rules and to answer the questions about them. Furthermore, $7 \%$ of the participants stated that they learned so well that they wouldn't forget the rules in short time.

Table 5.19. Answers of the First Question by Implicit- Inductive Group

| ITEMS | N | $\%$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Innovative (not traditional) | 8 | 21 |
| Variety of examples | 11 | 29 |
| No memorization | 5 | 13 |
| Stimulating | 6 | 16 |
| Lasting | 7 | 18 |
|  |  |  |
| Total | 37 |  |

As in Explicit - Deductive group, the favorite thing about the instruction was the variety of examples in the answers of $29 \%$ of the participants in ImplicitInductive group. $21 \%$ of the participants expressed that they got bored with the
traditional method, so it was interesting for them. $13 \%$ of them were happy as they did not have to memorize the rules. Finally, $18 \%$ of the participants stated that they would not have any problem in terms of retention as the instruction was lasting.

The second question was about activity found as the most helpful by participants. Tables 4.21 and 4.22 show the results for both groups.

Table. 5.20. Answers of the Second Question by Explicit- Deductive Group

| ITEMS | N | $\%$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Group work | 8 | 23 |
| Sentence completion | 12 | 35 |
| Promising activity | 5 | 14 |
| Persuasion activity | 7 | 20 |
| Listening | 2 | 5 |
|  |  |  |
| Total | 34 |  |

Sentence completion was found as the best activity by $35 \%$ of the students in Explicit - Deductive group. In this activity, one of the students tells something that he / she is likely to do in the future, another student tells the possible consequence of it. Then, it goes on like a chain. The most possible reasons for students to like this activity are that they are both creative and the complete sentences are generally interesting and funny. Group work was the second favorite. They possibly liked this activity as they had chance to interact with their friends. While $20 \%$ of the students liked the persuasion activity, it was only $5 \%$ of the students who liked listening. It was most probably as they found it difficult.

Table. 5.21. Answers of the Second Question by Implicit- Inductive Group

| ITEMS | N | $\%$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Group work | 9 | 27 |
| Sentence completion | 10 | 30 |
| Promising activity | 6 | 18 |
| Persuasion activity | 7 | 21 |
| Advantages/disadvantages | 1 | 3 |
| activity |  |  |
| Total | 33 |  |

In terms of activities, both groups reveal similar results. As in Explicit Deductive group, sentence completion was the best activity according to $30 \%$ of the students in Implicit- Inductive group. Group work was liked by $27 \%$ of the participants because of aforementioned reason. While $\% 18$ of the participants were happy with the promising activity, $21 \%$ of them like the persuasion activity. Finally, one of the students enjoyed stating advantages and disadvantages activity.

Answers given to the second question reveal that participants frequently comment on the desire for variety in the activities, which supports the argument for a balanced mix of learning process and instructional approaches.

The third question wanted students to give an overall impression of the instruction. Most of the students in both groups stated that they found instruction types effective. However, there were also different comments. One of the students stated that: "I would definitely want to know the rule first, then practice it, in terms of learning a new rule" whereas another student expressed: " Learning the rules first was important, but studying many examples of grammatical structures in the context was more useful than memorizing rules'. Similarly, while some students were content with the traditional way of explicit, others were pleased to learn a new grammar structure with implicit as they were active learners, tried to discover the rules themselves. Likewise, some students expressed that they got bored with learning the language with the same method in the explicit group; others stated that
they felt uncomfortable with this new type of instruction as they were not accustomed to it.

Participants' comments show that there is no specific tendency towards one type of learning over the other.Ideal instructionis an environment where there are a variety of learning opportunities is described by students. Although there are some participants favoring some preferences, no single preference expressed by all participants is available.

Overall conclusion is that theoretical need for a balance and a variety of explicit and implicit processes in second language learning is supported by participants' perceptions. Therefore, what second language teachers should do is to provide varied instruction that include both explicit and implicit processes to maximize their students' improvement in language learning.

## CHAPTER SIX

## CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter begins with a summary of the study. Then, discussion of the findings, conclusions and recommendations are examined.

### 6.1. The Study

This study is about the much- debated grammar instruction category, called form- focused instruction with its divided sub-categories namely focus on form (implicit - inductive) and focus on forms (explicit - deductive). It tried to find whether one or the other is better for teaching grammatical structures.

The purpose of the study was to provide empirical data on the effect of explicit - deductive and implicit - inductive instruction of grammatical structures. In order to understand the terminology used for the treatments, explicit - deductive and implicit - inductive, Ellis' three types of form-focused instruction has been utilized as the theoretical background. In explicit instruction, a pre-actively selected form is intensely taught by the presentation of the rules and then giving example as it is explicit - deductive. Language learners practise the form in communicative output tasks.

Implicit - inductive instruction, on the other hand, aims at students' understanding the meaning of the text, not the rule of the structure. In this type of instruction, many examples with the target structure are presented. The students might infer the rules from the example with or without being aware that they are doing so. The activities are designed to lead language learners to employ the form to accomplish the task. A difference between the two treatment groups from Ellis' model is that implicit - inductive is a grammar-discovery method. Therefore, no rule formation discussion is done.

This study aimed at investigating the effects of explicit - deductive and implicit - inductive instruction types on grammar. Furthermore, the retention level of
these instruction types, their effects on the learning of target structure according to gender, and students' perceptions about them were also explored.

A quantitive study was conducted for a month. There were two groups covering the same grammatical structure using three testing opportunities over the grammar forms. The number of the correct items on the three grammar tests was the dependant variable.

The participants were 70 students divided into two groups with $\mathrm{N}=35$ in each group. All of the students were enrolled in prep school at Dokuz Eylül University, School of Foreign Languages. They were at intermediate level and alreadyestablished classes assigned by the school. Group one was Explicit - Deductive, group two was Implicit - Inductive. Both groups were administered for four weeks. At the end of this period, they were given a post-test.

Grammar tests were applied three times during the study: a pre-test, a posttest, and a delayed post-test. The same number of total test items $(\mathrm{N}=20)$ was on each of the tree tests, and the kinds of exercises were the same. (Multiple Choice) The number of the correct items was the dependant variable.

Two treatments were called Explicit - Deductive and Implicit - Inductive. The same steps were followed in both of them: Noticing, comparing, integrating, error correction and feedback, and assessment. The main difference between these processes in instruction types is that while explicit - deductive was teacher-directed formal teaching of the rules, implicit- inductive was a task-based grammardiscovery of the same rules.

The data collected was from the pre-test, post-test and the delayed post-test. The number of the correct items was counted, and the data was computated. SPSS programme was used to find out if there were any increases or decreases in learning between the test opportunities, and to test for significant learning gains of the grammar rules. The results were placed within tables to present findings.

### 6.2. Conclusion

This study aimed at exploring the effects of explicit-deductive and implicitinductive instruction type on grammar. Furthermore, it tested the retention of the target items and the effects of gender on students' academic success in grammar depending upon the instruction type. The following conclusions can be drawn from the study:
> Explicit - Deductive and Implicit- Inductive do not have any statistically significant effects on the learning of the First Conditional sentences for Turkish learners of English. Both Explicit- Deductive and Implicit- Inductive treatment group significantly increased their learning of grammar rules after instruction. The number of the correct items increased from pre-test to post-test and from pre-test to delayed post- test for both groups.
> Explicit - Deductive and Implicit - Inductive do not have any statistically significant effects on the retention of the First Conditional sentences for Turkish learners of English. Therefore, both instruction types are effective in terms of durability.
> Female students are more successful than male students on the learning of First Conditional both in Explicit - Deductive group and Implicit - Inductive group.
> Participants' comments on two types of instruction show that there is no specific tendency towards one type of learning over the other.

Overall conclusion is that theoretical need for a balance and a variety of explicit and implicit types of instruction in second language learning is supported by participants' scores and perceptions. Therefore, second language teachers should try
to find ways of providing varied instruction that include both explicit and implicit processes to maximize their students' improvement in language learning.

### 6.3. Discussion

The results indicate that language learners in both explicit - deductive and implicit- inductive group significantly increased their learning of grammatical structures after instruction. Post - test and delayed post-test results show these significant increases. Despite the slight decrease in the delayed post-test, the increase in learning was still clear on the delayed post-test.

The study reveals that teaching does make a difference. Both treatment groups demonstrated a significant increase in the learning of the rules. Therefore, the findings show that both treatment groups learned the forms. It can be stated that results of this study are in agreement with the other second language research that claim the intervention in the form of some grammar instruction is effective.

The results duplicate brain-based research and studies on adult language learners. The participants in this study are adult language learners, and they are said to be able to learn a second language very well ( Brown \& Gonzo, 1995; Ellis, 1997; Johnson \& Newport, 1989). Furthermore, adult language learners are able to process forms cognitively - either consciously or subconsciously according to brain-based research ( Brown, 2000; Genessee, 2000; Jensen, 2004; Sousa, 2001; Wolfe, 2001). The findings reveal that both groups increased their knowledge on First Conditional. Adult participants were able to learn from instruction thanks to their capacity of abstract thinking.

The findings reveal that both the explicit - deductive and the implicitinductive group increased their learning of the grammar rules after the instruction on both the post-test and Delayed post-test. Both groups were able to learn the forms thanks to their cognitive processing abilities since the participants were adults. It is most probable that implicit - inductive group learned the grammatical structures subconsciously as they had only the chance to interact with the forms through input tasks. Explicit group, on the other hand, learned by teacher-directed instruction.

For the Explicit - Deductive group, the specific findings confirmed the Critical Period Hypothesis position (Brown, 2000) and Ellis' (1996) contention that formal language teaching is beneficial for adult language learners. According to these studies, adults do use deductive reasoning; they can benefit from structural presentations; they often relate new information to their first language. Since this group received formal instruction of the rules, the findings indicate that they may have used this method as advanced organizers to subsequently learn the structures.

For the Implicit - Inductive group, the overall findings agreed with the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996). If adult language learners are exposed to the new learning sufficiently, they have the cognitive ability to unconsciously analyze the material and transfer that learning to new experiences. They do not need explicit instruction of rules to correctly form the structures. The findings were that the learning of first conditional increased significantly. Since this group was not formally taught the rules, the findings indicate that they may have somehow learned them by interacting with the structures in the 'grammar - discovery' method.

The success of implicit instruction depends on abundant communicative opportunities in class and much exposure outside of class (Fotos, 2002). As our study takes place in English as a foreign language classroom, the participants do not have a lot of chances to be exposed to language outside the classroom. Thus, explicit instruction is expected to be more successful in English as a foreign language classroom than English as a second language classroom; but this was not the case in this study, since both groups were successful.

The study does not agree with the argument of Ellis (2002: 19) stating that 'students who have explicit grammar instruction as part of their study achieve a higher level of grammatical accuracy than those who not'". Because both ExplicitDeductive group and Implicit - Inductive group significantly increased their knowledge on First Conditional.

Several recent literature reviews provide an overview concerning the role of explicit and implicit instruction on second language learning. As these reviews show, several studies suggest that there is positive role for attention to form, either through
explicit teaching of grammar or explicit error correction. Therefore, the next step will be reviewing the studies done in this field to provide different kinds of evidence.

When the results of this study are compared with the previously conducted studies, it is seen that like in Doughty (1991), teaching does make a difference. In Doughty's study, results show that both meaning- oriented group and rule - oriented group made about equal gains. Similarly, the findings reveal that both implicit inductive and explicit - deductive group significantly increased their learning of First Conditional.

The findings contradict with Norris and Ortega's study (2000) which concludes that the explicit analysis of grammar was more beneficial than the indirect, implicit treatment of grammar. More specifically, Norris and Ortega argue that: Explicit types of instruction are more effective than implicit types. However, the results of the study in hand challenge their study since explicit - deductive group was not more successful than implicit - inductive group.

Andrews (2007) provides partial support for the explicit instruction. The study aimed at investigating the influence of implicit and explicit teaching of both simple and complex grammatical structures on the ESL learners' learning of these structures. As the results of the study in hand has revealed, the results of Andrew's study the findings also indicate that there is no difference in learners' performance regarding explicit / implicit grammar teaching of simple rules. This indicates that explicit grammar teaching is as effective as implicit grammar teaching with regard to simple rules. However, the same support cannot be found in terms of complex rules since explicit teaching of grammar resulted in better learner's performance particularly with complex rules.

The positive effect of explicit instruction was demonstrated in Heo's (2007) study which was conducted to investigate the relationship among noticing levels, difficulty in rules, and types of grammar knowledge. The first group took implicit instruction where visual input enhancement was used in the reading material. The second group took explicit instruction with out-of-context examples. The third group received the combination of instructions of the first and the second group. The results
show that higher noticing levels in grammar learning significantly influence L2 learners' explicit knowledge of an easy rule. Overall, explicit is the most effective.

Advantages for the explicit learning were also found in another study involving an artificial language called experanto (de Graff, 1997). Implicit group participated in a variety of structural as well as meaning-focused activities, explicit group received rule explanation as well as these activities. De Graff found a clear effect for explicit instruction, and it was better overall.

Scott's $(1989,1990)$ studies also give partial support to the present study. Two very similar experiments with college students of French as a foreign language were conducted. In both studies, an explicit group was presented with rules about relative pronouns and the subjunctive, without any practice, while an implicit group read a text flooded with relevant forms. Both studies showed a significant advantage for the explicit group on written tasks. However, 1989 study had also an oral posttest and it did not show any significant difference between the groups. Therefore, both explicit and implicit instruction were successful as in our study.

In conclusion, although most of the studies done (Norris and Ortega, 2000; Heo, 2007; de Graff; 1997) in this field are overwhelmingly in favor of explicit learning, there are some studies (Doughty,1991; Scott, 1989) suggesting that implicit learning is as effective as explicit learning as in the present study.

### 6.4. Limitations of the Study and Future Considerations

The lack of significant difference between the two treatment groups requires additional studies. This may have resulted from the limitation of time. The treatments lasted four hours. The question remains: if treatment had lasted longer, would results have changed? Moreover, two different types of instruction are investigated, and there is no significant difference between them. Thus, a blended instruction type (explicit - implicit) could be used in further studies to test the effects in comparison with the others.

This study is mainly about input stage of learning. Therefore, a different stage of learning such as feedback can be included in further studies. Moreover, the present study investigates only one target item which is First Conditional in this input stage.

Therefore, the study can only account for the First Conditional. It is unknown if the same results could be gained if other grammatical structure were presented with these instruction types. It is a problem in terms of generalizability of results of the present study. Thus, further studies can be carried out to test the same instruction types on the learning of different linguistic items.

There are 70 participants in this study. However, larger participant groups are better to extend the results of the study to whole population. It is another problem in terms of generalizability. Further studies can be carried out with larger sizes so that reliability will increase.

Changes in the grades of students from pre-test to post-test are defined as learning in this study. However, it is still debated whether students are able to use these forms accurately and productively in written essays and spoken discourse. Therefore, further studies can be done to test whether students can use the structure in their written or oral production.

Whether explicit knowledge of grammar rules are really integrated into language learners' interlanguage is uncertain. Therefore, more research about explicit - implicit knowledge is required. In further studies, writing samples can be used as the measure of learning so that it can provide learners with the time to show more reliable productive expressions.

## REFERENCES

Alderson, J. C., Clapham, C., \& Steel, D. (1997). Metalinguistic Knowledge, Language Aptitude and Language Proficiency. Language Teaching Research, 1, 2, 93-121.

Anderson, J. (1980). Cognitive Psychology and Its Implications. New York: NY. Freeman.

Anderson, J. (1983). The Architecture of Cognition. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University.

Anderson, J. (1985). Cognitive Psychology and its Implications. NY: Freeman.

Anderson, J. R \& Lebiere, C. (1998). The Atomic Components of Thought. Mahvah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Andrews, K. L. Z. (2007). The Effects of Implicit and Explicit Instruction on Simple and Complex Grammatical Structures for Adult English Language Learners. TESL-EJ, 11, 2. Retrieved from http://tesl-ej.org/ej42/a5.html

Basturkmen, H., Loewen, S., \& Ellis, R. (2004). Teachers' Stated Beliefs About Incidental Focus on Form and Their Classroom Practices. Applied Linguistics, 25, 2, 243-272.

Batstone, R. (1996). Key Concepts in ELT.: Noticing ELT Journal , 50, 8.
Bialystok, E. (1978). A Theoretical Model of Second Language Learning. Language Learning, 28, 1, 69-83.

Bialystok, E. (1994). Representation and Ways of Knowing: Three Issues in Second Language Acquisition. In N. Ellis (Ed.), Explicit and Implicit Learning of Languages, 549-569. London: Academic Press.

Birdsong, D. (1989). Metalinguistic Performance and Interlanguage Competence. Berlin, Germany: Springer-Verlag.

Bloomfield, L. (1933). Language. NY: Holt, Rinehart \& Winston.

Burgess, J. \& Etherington, S. (2002). Focus on Grammatical Form: Explicit or Implicit? System, 30, 433-458.

Butterworth, B. and Harris, M . (1994). Principles of Developmental Psychology. Hove : Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bygate, M., Skehan, P., \& Swain, M. (Eds.). (2001). Researching Pedagogic Tasks: Second language Learning, Teaching and Testing. New York: Longman.

Cadierno, T. (1995). Formal Instruction from a Processing Perspective: An Investigation into the Spanish Past Tense. Modern Language Journal, 79, 179-193.

Carroll, S., \& Swain, M. (1993). Explicit and Implicit Negative Feedback: An Empirical Study of the Learning of Linguistic Generalizations. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 15, 357-386

Celce- Murcia, M. (1991). Grammar Pedagogy in Second and Foreign Language Teaching. Tesol Quarterly, 25, 33, 458-480.

Chandler, J. (2003). The Efficacy of Various Kinds of Error Feedback for Improvement in the Accuracy and Fluency of L2 Student Writing. Journal of Second Language Writing. 12, 267-296.

Chomsky, N.(1959). Review of Skinner's Verbal Behavior. Language, 35, 26 - 58.

Crowell, S. (2004).The Neurobiology of Declarative Memory. In J. Schumann et al. (Eds.) The Neurobiology of Learning: Perspectives from Second Language Acquisition, 75-109. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

De Bot, K. (1996). The Psycholinguistics of the Output Hypothesis. Language Learning, 46, 3, 529-555.

DeGraaff, R. (1997). The "Experanto" Experiment: Effects of Explicit Instruction on Second Language Acquisition. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 19, 2, 249-276.

DeKeyser, R. (1998). 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, 4263. New York: Cambridge University Press.

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

DeKeyser, R. M. (1998). Beyond focus on form: Cognitive perspectives on learning and practicing second language grammar. In C. D. J. Williams (Ed.), Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition, 42-63. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

DeKeyser, R. M. (2003). Implicit and Explicit Learning. In C. J. Doughty \& M. H. Long (Eds.),The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition, 313-348. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Doughty, C. (1991). Second Language Instruction Does Make a Difference: Evidence from an Empirical Study of SL Relativization. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 13, 431-496.

Doughty, C. (2001). Cognitive Underpinnings of Focus on Form. In P. Robinson (Ed.), Cognition and Second Language Instruction, 206-257. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Doughty, C. \& Williams, J. (1998). Pedagogical Choices in Focus on Form. In Doughty C. \& Williams, J. (Edts.), Focus on Form in Second Language Acquisition. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Dulay, H., \& Burt, M.(1974). Natural Sequences in Child Second Language Acquisition. Language Learning. 24, 37-53.

Dulay, H., Burt, M. and Krashen, S. (1982). Languagetwo. NY: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, N. (1995). Consciousness in Second Language Acquisition: A Review of Field Studies and Laboratory Experiments. Language Awareness, 4, 3, 123-146.

Ellis, R. \& Gaies, S. (1998). Making an Impact.: Teaching Grammar AwarenessRaising .Retrived from http://www.impactseries.com/grammar/making.html

Ellis, R. (1994). A Theory of Instructed Second Language Acquisition. In N. C. Ellis (Ed.),Implicit and explicit learning of languages, 79-114. London: Academic Press.

Ellis, R. (1997). Second Language Research and language teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2001). Form-focused Instruction and Second Language Learning. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishers.

Ellis, R. (2001). Introduction: Investigating Form - Focused Instruction. Language Learning, 51, 1-46.

Ellis, R. (2001). Investigating Form-focused Instruction. In R.Ellis (Ed.) FormFocused Instruction and Second Language Learning, 1-46. MA: Blackwell.

Ellis, R. (2002). Does Form-Focused Instruction Affect the Acquisition of Implicit Knowledge. A Review of the Research. Studies in Second Language Acquisition. 24, 223-236.

Ellis, R. (2002). Does Form-Focused Instruction Affect the Acquisition of Implicit Knowledge? Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 24, 223-236.

Ellis, R. (2003). Second Language Acquisition. Tesol Program, Newport Asia Pacific University.

Ellis, R. (2006). Current Issues in the Teaching of Grammar: An SLA Perspective. Tesol Quarterly, 40,1, 83-107.

Ellis, R. (2008). Explicit Knowledge and Second Language Learning and Pedagogy. In J. Cenoz \& N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), Encyclopedia of Language and Education ,6, 143 - 153: Springer US.

Ellis, R. ,Baştürkmen, H., \& Loewen, S. (2002). Doing Focus-on-Form. System. 30, 419-432.

Ellis, R. (1997). SLA Research and Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R., \& Barkhuizen, G. (2005). Analysing Learner Language. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R., Basturkmen, H., \& Loewen, S. (2001). Learner Uptake in Communicative ESL Lessons. Language Learning, 51, 281-318.

Ellis, R., Basturkmen, H., \& Loewen, S. (2001). Preemptive Focus on Form in the ESL Classroom. Tesol Quarterly, 35, 407-432.

Ellis, R.(1985). Understanding Second Language Acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Fotos, S. (1993). Consciousness-raising and Noticing through Focus on Form: Grammar Task Performance Versus Formal Instruction. Applied Linguistics, 14, 385-407.

Fotos, S. (1994). Integrating Grammar Instruction and Communicative Language Use through Grammar Consciousness-raising tasks. Tesol Quarterly, 28, 2, 323-351.

Fotos, S. (1998). Shifting the Focus from Forms to Form in the EFL Classroom. ELT Journal, 52, 301-307.

Fotos, S. (2002). Structure-based Interactive Tasks for the EFL Grammar Learner. In E. Hinkel \& S. Fotos (Eds.), New Perspectives on Grammar Teaching in Second Language Classrooms, 135 - 154. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Gascoigne, C. (2002). The Debate on Grammar in Second Language Acquisition: Past, Present, and Future. New York: The Edwin Mellen Press.

Gass, S. M. (1991). Grammar Instruction, Selective Attention and Learning Processes. In R. Phillipson, E. Kellerman, L. Selinker, W. Sharwood Smith \& M. Swain (Eds.), Foreign/Second Language Pedagogy Research: A Commemorative Volume for ClausFærch, 134-141. Clevedon, Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters Ltd

Gass, S.M., \& Selinker, L. (2001). Second language acquisition: Past, Present and Future, 7. Lewiston, NY: Edwin Melen Press.

Gregg, K. (2003). SLA Theory: Construction and Assessment. In Doughty, C.J. and Long, M. H. (Eds.), The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, 65,831.

Hamilton, R. P. (2001). The Insignificance of Learners' Errors: a Philosophical Investigation of the Interlanguage Hypothesis. Language \& Communication, 21,1, 73-88.

Harley, B., \& Swain, M. (1984). The Interlanguage of Immersion Students and Its Implications for Second Language Teaching. In A. Davies, C. Criper, \& A. P.

Hedge, T. (2000). Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Higgs, T. V. (1985). Teaching Grammar for Proficiency. Foreign Language Annals, 18, 289-296.

Hinkel, E. (2002). From Theory to Practice: A teacher's View. In E. Hinkel \& S. Fotos (Eds.), New Perspectives on Grammar Teaching in Second Language Classrooms, 1-12. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum

Housen, A., \& Pierrad, M. (2006). Structure Complexity and the Efficacy of Explicit Grammar Instruction. In A. Housen \& M. Pierrad (Eds.), Investigations in Instructed Second Language Acquisition. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter

Hu, G. (2002). Psychological Constraints on the Utility of Metalinguistic Knowledge in Second Language Production. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 24, 3, 347-386.

Hulstijin, J. (2002). Towards a Unified Account of the Represantation, Processing and Acquisition of Second Language Knowledge. Second Language Research, 18, 3, 193-223.

Krashen, S. (1981). Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning . Oxford: Pergamon.

Krashen, S. (1982). Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition. Oxford: Pergamon.

Krashen, S. (1985). The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implication. Harlow: Longman.

Langacker, R.W. (1991). Foundations of Cognitive Grammar. Stanford University Press.

Lapkin, S., Hart, D., \& Swain, M. (1991). Early and Middle French Immersion Programs: French Language Outcomes. Canadian Modern Language Review, 48, 11-40.

Larsen-Freeman, D., \& Long, M. (1991). An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research. London: Longman.

Lightbown, P. (1992). What Have We Here? Some Observations on the Influence of Instruction on L2 Learning. In R. Philipson, E. Kellerman, L. Selinker, M. Sharwood Smith, \& M. Swain (Eds.), Foreign Language Pedagogy Research: A Commemorative Volume for Claus Faerch, 197-212. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Lightbown, P. (2000). Anniversary Article: Classroom SLA Research and Second Language Teaching. Applied Linguistics, 21, 431-462.

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

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

Long, M. (1983). Does Second Language Instruction Make a Difference? A Review of the Research. Tesol Quarterly, 17, 359-382.

Long, M. (1988). Instructed Interlanguage Development. In L. Beebe (Ed.), Issues in Second Language Acquisition: Multiple Perspectives, 115-141. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Long, M. H. (Ed). (1988). Instructed Interlanguage Development. Rowley, MA. Newbury House

Long, M. (1991). Focus on Form: A Design Feature in Language Teaching Methodology. In K. DeBot, R. Ginsberg, \& C. Kramsch (Eds.), Foreign Language Research in Cross-cultural Perspective, 39-52. Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Long, M. H. (1991). 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, 39-52. Amsterdam: John Benjamin

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

Long. M.\& Crookes, G. (1992) . Three Approaches to Task-based Syllabus Design. Tesol Quartely, 26, 27 -53.

Lyster, R. (2004). Differential Effects of Prompts and Recasts in Form-Focused Instruction. Studies in Second Language Acquisition. 26, 399-432.

Mackey, A., \& Philp, J. (1998). Conversational Interaction and Second Language Development: Recasts, Responses, and Red Herrings? The Modern Language Journal, 82, 3, 338-356

McLaughlin, B. (1987). Theories of Second Language Learning. London: Edward Arnold.

McLaughlin, B., Rossman, T., \& McLeod, B. (1983). Second Language Learning: An Information-Processing Perspective. Language Learning, 33, 2, 135-158.

Mitchell, R and Myles, F. (2004). Second Language Learning Theories. London: Oxford University Press

Mohamed, N. (2004). Consciousness-raising Tasks: a Learner Perspective. ELT Journal, 58, 3, 228-237.

Mowrer, O. (1960). Learning Theory and the Symbolic Processes. New York: Wiley.

Muranoi, H. (2000). Focus on FormThrough Interaction Enhancement: Integrating Formal Instruction into a Communicative Task in EFL Classrooms. Language Learning. 50, 4, 617-673.

Nassaji, H. (1999). Towards Integrating Form - focused Instruction and Communicative Interaction in the Second Language Classroom: Some Pedagogical Possibilities. Canadian Modern Language Review, 55, 3, 386404.

Nassaji, H. (2000). A reply to Sheen. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 56, 507-513.

Nassaji, H. (2002). Schema Theory and Knowledge-based Processes in Second
Language Reading Comprehension: A Need for Alternative Perspectives.
Language Learning, 52, 439-481.

Nassaji, H., \& Swain, M. (2000). A Vygotskian Perspective on Corrective Feedback: The Effect of Random Versus Negotiated Help on the Learning of English Articles. Language Awareness, 9, 34-51.

Nassaji, H., and Fotos, S. (2004). Current Developments in Research on the Teaching of Grammar. Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 24, 126145.
N. Ellis.(2008). Knowledge Creation Diffusion Utilization. Springer, 6, 20 , 1-13.

Noonan, F. J.I. (2004). Teaching ESL Students to 'Notice' Grammar. The Internet Tesol Journal, 7, 1-8.

Paradis, M. (2004). A Neurolinguistic Theory of Bilingualism. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Pica, T. (1983). Adult Acquisition of English As a Second Language Under Different Conditions of Exposure. Language Learning, 33, 465-497.

Pienemann, M. (1984). Psychological Constraints on the Teachability of Languages. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 6, 186-214.

Pienemann, M. (1988). Determining the Influence of Instruction on L2 Speech Processing. Aila Review, 5, 40-72.

Pienemann, M. (1989). Is Language Teachable? Psycholinguistic Experiments and Hypothesis. Applied Linguistics, 10, 52-79.

Pienemann, M. (1999). Language, Processing and Second Language Development: Processability Theory. Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Pienemann, M. (Ed.). (2005). Cross-linguistic Aspects of Processability Theory. Amsterdam; Philadelphia: J.Benjamins Pub. Co.

Radwan, A. A. (2005). The Effectiveness of Explicit Attention to Form in Language Learning. System: An International Journal of Educational Technology and Applied Linguistics, 33,1, 69- 87.

Raimes, A. (1991). Out of the woods: Emerging Traditions in the Teaching of Writing. Tesol Quarterly, 25, 3, 407-430.

Reber, A. S. (1989). Implicit Learning and Tacit Knowledge. Journal of Experimental Psychology: General, 118, 3, 219-235.

Richards, J.C. (2005). Role of Grammar. Questions and Answers. Retrieved from http://www.proffersorjackrichards.com/questions.htm

Rivers, Wilga M., Temperley, Mary S.(1978). A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language. London: Oxford University Press.

Robinson, P. (1995). Attention, Memory, and the Noticing Hypothesis. Language Learning, 45, 2, 283-331.

Robinson, P. (1996). Learning Simple and Complex Second Language Rules Under Implicit, Incidental, Rule-Search, and Instructed Conditions. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 18,1, 27-67.

Robinson, P. (2001). Task Complexity, Cognitive Resources and Syllabus Design: A Triadic Framework for Examining Task Influence on SLA. In P. Robinson (Ed.), Cognition and Second Language Instruction, 287-318. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Robinson, P. (2003). The Cognition Hypothesis, Task Design, and Adult Task-based Language Learning. Second Language Studies. 21, 2, 45-105.

Rosa, E. \& O'Neilll, M. (1999). Explicitness, Intake, and the Issues of Awareness: Another Piece to Puzzle. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 21, 511556.

Rumelhart, D. and McClelland, J. (1986). On Learning the Past Tense of English Verbs. In McClelland, J. and Rumelhart, D. (Eds) , Parallel Distributed Processing: Explorations in the Microstructure of Cognition Psychological and Biological Models, 2, 216-271. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Rutherford, W., \& Sharwood Smith, M. (1988). Grammar and Second Language Teaching. In Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Scheen, R. (2003). Focus on Form- a Myth in the Making? ELT Journal, 57, 3, 225233.

Schmidt, R. (1990). The Role of Consciousness in Second Language Learning. Applied Linguistics, 11, 2, 129-15

Schmidt, R. W. (1993). Awareness and Second Language Acquisition. Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 13, 206-226.

Schmidt, R. W. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), Cognition and Second Language Instruction, 3-32. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Schmidt, R., \& Frota, S. (1986). Developing Basic Conversational Ability in a Second Language: a Case - Study of an Adult Learner. In R. Day (Ed.), Talking to Learn: Conversation in Second Language Acquisition. Massachusetts: Newbury House.

Schmidt,R. (1994) . Deconstructing Consciousness in Search of Useful Definitions for Applied Linguistics. Aila Review, 11, 11-26.

Schmidt,R. (2001). Attention. In Robinson, P. (Ed.), Cognition and Second Language Instruction, 3-32. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Schwartz, B. (1993). On Explicit and Negative Data Effecting and Affecting Competence and Linguistic Behavior. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 15, 2, 147-163.

Scott, M. (1990). Explicit and Implicit Grammar Teaching Strategies: New Emprical Data. The French Review. 63,5, 779-789.

Seliger, H. W. (1979). On the Nature and Function of Language Rules in Language Teaching. Tesol Quarterly, 13, 3, 359-369.

Selinker, L. (1992). Rediscovering interlanguage. London ; New York: Longman.

Sharwood Smith, M. (1981). Consciousness-Raising and the Second Language Learner. Applied Linguistics, 2, 2,159-168.

Shekan, P. (1998) .Task Based Instruction. Annual Review of Applied Linguistics.18, 268-286.

Shuell T. J. (1986). Cognitive Conceptions of Learning. Review of Educational Research, 56, 411-436.

Skehan, P. (1996). Second Langıage Acquisition Research and Task-based Instruction. In J. Willlis \& D. Willis (Eds), Challange and Change in Language Teaching, 38 -61. Oxford: Heinemann.

Skehan, P. (1998). A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Skinner, B.F. (1957).Verbal Behavior. New York : Appleton- Century- Crofts.

Sorace, A. (1985). Metalinguistic Knowledge and Language Use in Acquisition-Poor Environments. Applied Linguistics, 6, 3, 239-254.

Spada, N., \& Lightbown P. (1993) . Instruction and the Development of Questions in L2 Classrooms. Studies in Second Language Acquisition. 15, 205 - 224.

Stern, H. H. (1983). Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Stigler, J. \& Heibert, J. (1999). The Teaching Gap, Best Ideas from the World's Teachers for Improving Education in the Classroom. New York: The Free Press.

Swain, M., \& Lapkin, S. (2001). Focus on Form through Collaborative Dialogue: Exploring Task Effects. In M. Bygate, P. Skehan \& M. Swain (Eds.), Researching Pedagogic Tasks: Second Language Learning, Teaching and Testing, 99-118. Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.

Tarone, E. (1979). Interlanguage as Chameleon. Language Learning, 29,1, 181-191.

Terrell, T. D. (1991). The Role of Grammar Instruction in a Communicative Approach. Modern Language Journal, 75,1, 52-63.

Thorndike, E. (1932). The Fundamentals of learning. NY. Columbia Teachers College.

Towell, R. and Hawkins, R. (1994) . Approaches to Second Language Acquisition. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Trahey, M. \& White, L. (1993). Positive Evidence and Preemption in the Second Language Classroom. Studies in Second Language Acquisition.15, 181 204.

Truscott, J. (1996). The Case Against Grammar Correction in L2 Writing Classes. Language Learning, 46, 2, 327-369.

Truscott, J. (1998). Noticing in Second Language Acquisition: A Critical Review. Second Language Research, 14, 2, 103-135.

Ullman, M. T. (2004). Contributions of Memory Circuits to Language: The Declarative / Procedural Model. Cognition, 92, 1-2, 231-270.

Watson, J. (1924). Behaviorism. NY: Norton.

White, J. (2008). Speeding up Acquisition of His and Her: Explicit L1/L2 Contrasts Help. In J. Philp, R. Oliver \& A. Mackey (Eds.), Second Language Acquisition and the Young Learner, Child's play?, 193-228. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Wilkins, D. (1976). National Syllabuses: A Taxonomy and Its Relevance to Foreign Language Curriculum Development. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Williams, J. (1999). Learner- Generated Attntion to Form. Language Learning. 49, 4, 583-625.

Zobl, H. (1995). Converging Evidence for the "Acquisition-Learning" Distinction. Applied Linguistics, 16, 1, 35-56.

## APPENDICES

Page
Appendix A Lesson Plan 1 (Positive Sentences) Explicit - Deductive Group ..... 89
Appendix B Lesson Plan 2 (Negative Sentences) Explicit - Deductive Group ..... 97
Appendix C Lesson Plan 3 (Questions) Explicit - Deductive Group ..... 101
Appendix D Lesson Plan Implicit - Inductive Group ..... 107
Appendix E Pre - Post Test ..... 120

## APPENDIX A

## LESSON PLAN 1 <br> (EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION)

## Teaching Aim:

This lesson aims to help students familiarize with form/use/meaning of conditional sentence type 1 (the real if conditional). The lesson is conducted in a meaning focused way.

## Background Information:

Teacher: Tuğba HAN
School: Dokuz Eylül University, School of Foreign Languages
Class: L40 C2
Class size: 35
Age: 19-20
Text and Materials: Face2Face, Intermediate, Cambridge University Press
Subject: Type 1 Conditionals Positive Sentences
Date: December
Time: 125 Minutes

## Warm- Up Activity ( 20 Minutes)

Questions:

1. Have you ever been to the United States?
2. If you go to the United States, which famous places would you like to visit and what would you like to do there?
3. How do people you know celebrate their wedding anniversary?

Please read and listen to a dialog in a travel agency and then answer questions

A: Good morning.
B: Good morning. May I help you?
A: It's my wedding anniversary next month. I want to surprise my husband with a wonderful vacation plan. Would you recommend some famous places?
B: Ofcourse. Em, if you go to Europe, you'll have a wonderful time for your wedding anniversary. If you go to London, you can go to Buckingham Palace and you might even see the Queen's guards there. If you goto France, you can go to the sidewalk cafe and drink French wine with your husband. And...
A: Well, it's outside the U.S.
B: Oh. If you go to California, you might go to Yosemite National Park or Disneyland.
A: Yosemite National Park? What will I see if I go to Yosemite Park?
B: If you go to Yosemite Park, you'll see giant trees, mountains, bears ....
A: But, I don't like bears.
B: If you go to Disneyland, you won't see any bears. You'll see Mickey Mouse. Isn't that interesting? Well, if you have children...
A: Well, it's interesting, but.... B: O.K. What do you like to do in your free time?
A: Well, I like skiing.
B: If you like skiing, you can go to Colorado.
A: But my husband doesn't like skiing.
B: If your husband doesn't like skiing, probably he won't like to go there What does he like?
A: He likes fishing.
B: Oh, you can still enjoy fishing at many beautiful lakes if you go to Colorado. A: But I don't like fishing. And if it rains, we can't go fishing.
B: Then, how about Hawaii? Hawaii is really great. If you go to Hawaii, you can go to Waikiki Beach, you can take a romantic cruise for two, you can see beautiful sunset at the beach, you can see palm trees, beautiful flowers, and pretty girls wearing leis.
A: It's gorgeous. But we went there on our honeymoon just after we got married.
B: Well, this is your wedding anniversary.You can relive your romantic honeymoon if you go there again.
A: Oh, that sounds good. I just love hula dances, and we can go surfing. We'll go to Hawaii.

## Comprehension questions:

1. What kind of trip will it be?
2. If you go to London, what place will you go to
3. If you go to California, what famous places will you visit?
4. If you go to Disneyland, what will you see?
5. What can you enjoy if you go to Colorado?
6. If you go to Hawaii, which place will you go to?
7. Which place did the woman decide to go to for her wedding anniversary?

## Presentation ( 15 minutes)

Conditional Sentence Type I expresses real or possible situations that can happen in the present or in the future. They are also called real conditional sentences because the expected result in the main clause depends on the real or possible condition in the dependent if clause.

The real or possible condition is expressed with if and the simple present, even when the situation refers to the future. The expected result is expressed with will : If Jack wants to go out tonight, I'll reject politely.

## Generalization: The Conditional If Clause

Teacher writes an example sentence on the board and asks students questions about it. The aim is to help students to infer the rules of conditional type 1 from the example.
'If I study hard, I will pass my exams.'

1. How many clauses are there?
2. Which is the main clause?
3. Which is the subordinate clause?
4. Which is the subordinator?
5. Does the if clause talk about things that are possible or certain?

The subordinate clause gives some details to the main clause. The detailed information is usually time or condition in the adverbial clause. In this sentence, does this subordinate clause tell us time or condition? (Condition). Then which word introduces a condition? (If) "If" introduces a condition that may or may or may not happen in the future. It is called an if-conditional clause. This condition is real in a sense that the condition can actually happen.
6. What does the main clause do? (It tells us the result if the condition happens. It is called a result clause.)
7. Now, tense. Which is the verb in the subordinate clause?
8. Which tense is the verb? (It takes simple present tense.)
9. Which is the verb in the main clause?
10. Which tense is the verb? (It takes future tense.)

## PART I: FORM

## A: Two Basic Structures

| IF | Condition (present si <br> mple) | Result (WILL + base <br> verb) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| If | I see Jane, | I will talk to her. |
| If | Tara has nothing to do <br> tomorrow, | He will invite her. |
| If | they do not pass their <br> exam, | Their parents will be <br> sad. |
| Result (WILL + base ve <br> rb) | IF | Condition (present sim <br> ple) |
| I will talk to Jane | if | I see her. |
| He will invite Tara | if | She has nothing to do <br> tomorrow. |
| Their parents will be sad | if | They do not pass their <br> exam. |

Explanation: In both structures, the meaning of Conditional Sentence Type 1 remains the same.

Punctuation: a coma follows when if dependent/subordinate clause is put in front. But when result clause is put in front, a coma is not needed.

## Complete the Conditional Sentences (Type I) by putting the verbs into the correct form. ( 10 MINUTES)

Some friends are planning a party. Everybody wants to party, but nobody's really keen on preparing and organizing the party. So everybody comes up with a few conditions, just to make sure that the others will also do something.

1. If Caroline and Sue ----- (prepare) the salad, Phil ----- (decorate) the house.
2. If Sue----- (cut) the onions for the salad, Caroline ----- (peel) the mushrooms.
3. If Bob ----- (tidy) up the kitchen, Anita ----- (clean ) the toilet.
4. Elaine ----- (buy) the drinks if somebody----- (help) her carry the bottles.
5. If Alan and Rebecca----- (organize) the food, Mary and Connor ----- (make ) the sandwiches.
6. If Bob ----- (look ) after the barbecue, Sue ----- (let) the guests in.
7. Alan ----- (mix) the drinks if Jane ------ (give) him some of her cocktail recipes.
8. If they all ----- (do) their best, the party ----- (be) great.

## Generalization: Might (10 MINUTES)

Teacher writes two sentences on the board and asks students to compare them in order to help students understand the form and meaning of 'might'

If I go to İstanbul, I will visit Topkapı Palace.
If I go to İstanbul, I might visit Topkapı Palace.

## Questions and Explanations:

1. What's different between these sentences? Compare the auxiliaries.
2. One tells that something is definite or decided. The other tells that something is not definite or not decided, but that it's possible. Which indicates "definite or already decided"? Which indicates "not decided yet, but possible"?

## Transformation Drill (will ---- might)

Directions: I'll use "will", and you'll change it into "might." e.g. I'll say: If I go to İstanbul , I'll visit the Topkapı Palace. You'll say: If I go to İstanbul, I might visit Topkapı Place.

- If I go to İstanbul , I will/might visit Topkapı Palace
- go to Taksim.
- go to Beşiktaş.
- visit my friend.
- stay at my friend's.
- need warm clothes.


## 9. Generalization: Can (10 MINUTES)

'If you go to a guitar course, you might meet new people.' 'If you go to a guitar course, you can play the guitar.'

1. What's different here about auxiliary?
2. How do they differ in meaning?
‘’Can" implies ability. However, "Might" implies "possibility" Besides, "might" also offers a suggestion to someone. "I suggest you to go to a guitar course.")

## Substitution Drill

Directions: Repeat: If speak English fluently, you can connect with a lot of people.

- Find a job.
- Have foreign friends.
- Read English books.
- Work in England.


## MEANING AND USE - Situations where Conditional Sentence Type 1 is

 usedConditional Sentence Type I is frequently used to give warnings, to offer advice, to make promise and to state advantages or disadvantages.

| Warning | If you drive too fast, you'll have an accident. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Advice | If you rest for a while, you'll feel better soon. |
| Promise | If you pass prep class, I will buy you a car. |
| Advantages/Disadvantages | If you buy a big house, you will do a lot of <br> cleaning. |

## Giving warnings ( 10 min )

- Read the following situations where the speaker is annoyed and is goin go to warn the listener. Make up appropriate warnings and threats for each situation.
For example:
'If you don't stop the music, I will call the police'.
- 1. Your friend always borrows money from you and he never pays it back. So, you are angry with him.
- 2. Your housemate never pays his share of rent .So, you have to pay his share, too and you are fed up with this situation.
- 3. Suppose you are a mother and your little son always forgets to tidy up his room.
- 4. Your friend is always trying to distract your attention and to make you speak during the lesson. When your teacher warns you, you feel ashamed because of him.


## Giving Advice ( 10 min )

Read these statements of advice and rewrite them. Notice that the meaning is the same. Example: Work harder and you will pass your exam.
'If you work harder, you will pass your exam

1. Take an aspirin and your headache will be over.
2. Do some sport and you'll feel better.
3. Feed the baby and he'll stop crying.
4. Drink a glass of hot milk and you'll fall asleep easily.

## Making Promises ( 10 min )

Imagine you are a candidate running for the mayor of the city you live. In your campaign speeches, you often make promises. Give promises using the words in parentheses and then announce them to the class.
Examples: (improving health service)
If I am elected mayor of this city, I will improve health service.

1. (Decrease the prices of buses)
2. (Build entertainment and sport clubs)
3. (Clean the parks, streets)
4. (Organize festivals)
5. (Protect animals in the street)

6-10. (Create your own promises)

## Stating Advantages and Disadvantages ( 15 min )

Work with a partner. Imagine you want to move. You are trying to decide between two places: a big city or a small town. Take turns making up sentences that describe the advantages and disadvantages of each place.
Example: 'If you live in a big city, you will have lots of things to do.'

## A Big City

| ADVANTAGES | DISADVANTAGES |
| :--- | :--- |
| More opportunities for development | Noisy, too crowded |
| More work places | More crimes |
| Social life | Traffic jam |

A Small Town

| ADVANTAGES | DISADVANTAGES |
| :--- | :--- |
| Big chance to relax | Infrequent bus service |
| Flowers and nice animals | No social life |
| Low cost of living | Less opportunities to work |

## Exercise ( 15 minutes)

Work in groups of three or four. Your partner will tell you about something they are likely or possible to do in the future. Tell them one consequence of that, e.g. "If you eat too much at lunch, your stomach might feel heavy all afternoon". Another person in your group will then make up some consequences of that, e.g. "If your stomach feels heavy all afternoon, you can fall asleep at your desk". Continue for four or five stages or until you run out of ideas.

## Ideas for future things to talk about

Times: Later today Next week / month / year (With) in the next week / month / year

The day after tomorrow / the week after next
Topics: Date
Appearance

Entertainment

Exercise Money Relationship Hobby
this evening / tonight
Meeting Eating out
Study / Qualification

Holiday (= Vacation) / Day off / Public holiday

## PRODUCTION

Talk with your partner and then write a short paragraph describing what you will see or do if you visit your partner's hometown/country. Use if-clauses and result clauses in your paragraph.

## APPENDIX B

## LESSON PLAN 2

## (EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION)

## Teaching Aim:

This lesson aims to help students familiarize with form/use/meaning of conditional sentence type 1 (the real if conditional). The lesson is conducted in a meaning focused way.

## Background Information:

Teacher: Tuğba HAN
School: Dokuz Eylül University, School of Foreign Languages
Class: L40 C2
Class size: 35
Age: 19-20
Text and Materials: Face2Face, Intermediate, Cambridge University Press
Subject: Type 1 Conditionals Negative Sentences
Date: December
Time: 45 Minutes
Negation of Conditional Sentence Type 1 ( 20 min )

|  | Affirmative Condition | Negative Result |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | If it rains, | We will postpone our sports meeting |
| $\mathbf{B}$ | Negative Condition | Affirmative Result |
|  | If it doesn't rain, | We will go fishing. |
| $\mathbf{C}$ | Negative Condition | Negative Result |
|  | If he doesn't like skiing, | He won't go to Colorado. |

## Generalization: Negation

## A. Affirmative Condition + Negative Result

If it snows, we can turn on the heating system.
If it snows, we can't go out.

1. What's different about the verb? (One is negated)
2. Which clause has the negative verb? (main clause)
3. What does "can't" mean? (contraction of "can not" ) Repeat: can't
4. An affirmative condition can cause a negative result.

## B. Negative Condition + Affirmative Result

If it doesn't snow, we'll go out.

1. Which clause is negated? (main clause)
2. Which is the main verb in the first clause? (snow)
3. How do you make the verb, snow negative? (Use "doesn't" or "does not." )
4. A negative condition can cause an affirmative result.

## C. Negative Condition + Negative Result

If he doesn't like swimming, he won't go to Çeşme.

1. Which clause is negated? (Both clauses)
2. A negative condition can cause a negative result.
3. Repeat: won't: - o-

Therefore, negation can be expressed in three ways.
(+)condition,(-)result
(-)condition,(+)result
$(-)$ condition, (-) result

## Substitution Drill

Directions: Repeat: If it rains, we can't go out.
Go swimming: If it rains, we can't go swimming.

If it rains, we can't go swimming. go for a walk.

- go for a drink.
- go to the cinema.
- go on a picnic.
- work in the garden.


## Substitution Drill

Directions: Repeat: If it doesn't rain, we'll go out.
Go fishing: If it doesn't rain, we'll go fishing.

- If it doesn't rain, we'll go fishing.
- go on a trip.
- go on a picnic.
- go shopping.
- take a cruise on the sea.
- look around the city.


## Substitution Drill

Directions: Repeat: If he doesn't want to be ill, he won't drink cold water.

Drink cold water: If he doesn't want to be ill, he won't drink cold water

- If he doesn't want to be ill, he won't drink cold water.
- eat ice-cream.
- open the windows.
- wear summer clothes.


## Sentence Completion and Transformation: Complete the sentence first and then change it from affirmation to negation ( 10 minutes)

- Example: If the movie is interesting,
- $\rightarrow$ If the movie is interesting, I'll go and see it.
- $\rightarrow$ If the movie isn't interesting, I won't go and see it.
- 1. If it is rainy tomorrow,
- 3. If he arrives on time,
- 4. If my brother drinks all the water at home,
- 5. I will visit my grandparents if $\qquad$
- 6. My family will go shopping if $\qquad$
- 7. He will find a job if $\qquad$
- 8. I will lend you some money if $\qquad$


## Complete Sentences Meaningfully ( $\mathbf{1 5}$ Minutes)

- If I don't earn enough money,
- If ----------------------------------------------------------- , I won’t go shopping.
- If the weather isn't rainy tomorrow, $\qquad$
- If there isn't any food at home, $\qquad$
- If he doesn't ask me out, $\qquad$
- If she won't work tomorrow.
- If Thursday and Friday (after the festival) aren't holiday, students ----------------------------------------------------------------
- If you won't lose any weight.
- If my mother doesn't let me go out, I $\qquad$
- If you give me a secret,


## APPENDIX C

## LESSON PLAN 3

## (EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION)

## Teaching Aim:

This lesson aims to help students familiarize with form/use/meaning of conditional sentence type 1 (the real if conditional). The lesson is conducted in a meaning focused way.

## Background Information:

Teacher: Tuğba HAN
School: Dokuz Eylül University, School of Foreign Languages
Class: L40 C2
Class size: 35
Age: 19-20
Text and Materials: Face2Face, Intermediate, Cambridge University Press
Subject: Type 1 Conditionals Questions
Date: December
Time: 90 Minutes

## YES / NO QUESTION FORMS

## Presentation ( 15 minutes)

Conditional Questions Type I asks about real or possible situations that can happen in the present or in the future. They are also called real conditional questions because the expected result in the main clause depends on the real or possible condition in the dependent if clause.

The real or possible condition is expressed with if and the simple present, even when the situation refers to the future. The expected result is asked with will: If Jack wants to go out tonight, will you reject him?

## A: Two Basic Structures

| IF | Condition (present simple) | Result (WILL + subject <br> + base verb) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| If | you finish your work, | Will you go out? |
| If | he asks you to marry him, | Will you accept? |
| If | she apologizes to you, | Will you talk to her? |
| Result (WILL + <br> subject + base <br> verb) | IF | Condition (present simple) |
| Will you go out | if | You finish your work? |
| Will you accept | if | He asks you to marry him? |
| Will you talk to <br> her | if | She apologizes to you? |

Explanation: As well as conditional sentences, structure can be reversed without changing the meaning, question can also be changed by starting with the if clause.

Punctuation: a coma follows when if dependent/subordinate clause is put in front. But when result clause is put in front, a coma is not needed.

## Complete the Conditional Questions(Type I) by putting the verbs into the correct form. ( 10 MINUTES)

Example: If I need money, will you lend me some?

1- If I ----------- (to follow) these steps, ----------- I succeed in your business?
2. ------------ I cry if I -----------(cut) an onion?
3. If I $\qquad$ (take) the car, $\qquad$ it be difficult to find a parking place?
4. $\qquad$ I save the file if I $\qquad$ (press) ctrl+s?
5. If you $\qquad$ (send) this letter now, $\qquad$ she receive it tomorrow?
6. my parents are proud of me if I $\qquad$ (get) A from my exam tomorrow?
7. If she $\qquad$ the lottery, $\qquad$ she get a lot of money?
8. If you $\qquad$ (get) a rise in your salary next month, you buy a new car?

## Negation of Conditional Questions Type 1 ( 10 minutes)

| $\mathbf{A}$ | Negative Condition | Positive Question |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | If it doesn't rain, | Will you go fishing? |
| $\mathbf{B}$ | Negative Condition | Negative Question |
|  | If I don't pass prep class, | Won't I go to my department? |
| C | Positive Condition | Negative Question |
|  | If she does cleaning all day | Won't she be tired? |

## Generalization

## A. Negative Condition + Affirmative Question

If it snows, will we stay in?
If it doesn't snow, will we go out?

1. What's different about the verb? (One is negated)
2. Which clause has the negative verb? (If clause)

## B. Negative Condition + Negative Questions

If I don't tidy up my room, won't you let me go out?

1. Which clause is negated? (Both clauses)
2. How do you make the verb, tidy up negative? (Use "doesn't" or "don't")

## C. Positive Condition + Negative Question

If you wear T-shirt, won't you be cold?

1. Which clause is negated? (Main clause)
2. Repeat: won't: - o-

Therefore, questions can be expressed in three ways.
(-)condition,(+)question
(-)condition,(-)question
$(+)$ condition, (-) question

This is a first conditional construction (as a negative question) activity based on the following construction in the lyrics: 'If I stay here, won't you listen to my heart?'".Match the lyrics 1-12 to A-L. ( 10 minutes)

| 1 | If I touch that wet paint, | A | Won't you offer me your <br> handkerchief? |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 | If I jump in the sea, | B | Won't you be hungry? |
| 3 | If you park too close to that car, | C | Won't you help me? |
| 4 | If I sneeze again, | D | Won't you even taste it? |
| 5 | If they don't turn off the car <br> alarm | E | Won't my fingers be sticky? |
| 6 | If he copies your exam paper <br> again, | F | Won't someone complain? |
| 7 | If I lend you some money, | G | Won't the door hit it? |
| 8 | If I cook you a new dish, | H | Won't you say something nice? |
| 9 | If I don't do my homework, | I | Won't you report him for <br> cheating? |
| 10 | If I introduce you to my new <br> friend, | J | Won't you at least put your <br> fingers in your ears? |
| 11 | If the teacher gives us another <br> test, | K | Won't you go to the market <br> with me this afternoon? |
| 12 | If I eat your sandwiches, | L | Won't I get wet? |

## WH QUESTION FORMS (15 minutes)

| IF | Positive condition (present simple) | Result (Wh question word +WILL <br> + <br> + <br> base verb)subject |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| If | you finish your work, | What will you do? |
| IF | Negative condition (present simple) | Result (Wh question word + <br> WILL <br> + <br> + <br> base verb) |
| If | It doesn't rain tomorrow | Where will you go? |
| Result (Wh  <br> question  <br> word + <br> WILL + <br> subject  <br> +  | IF | Condition (present simple) |
| When will he come to your house | if | You tell him your address? |

As well as conditional sentences, structure can be reversed without changing the meaning, question can also be changed by starting with the if clause.

## Write Wh- questions about the words written in bold as in the example.(10 $\underline{\text { minutes) }}$

Example: 'I will wash the car if she cleans the house.'
'What will you do if she cleans the house?'

1. If we catch the bus, we will arrive at nine o'clock.
2. If I have free time tomorrow, I will play tennis.
$\qquad$
3. If he doesn't work this night, he will go to disco.
$\qquad$
4. I will visit my parents at the weekend if I find a bus ticket.
$\qquad$

## Answer the Questions. (20 minutes)

1. Will you get married if you finish university four years later? Why / Why not?
2. What will you buy if you have enough money?
3. Which places will you advise if tourists ask you where to go in Turkey?
4. What food will you advise if someone from England asks you what to eat in İzmir?
5. Which country will you visit if you have a green passport next summer? Why do you choose this country?
6. If your family buys a house this year, how will you decorate your room?
7. If you go to the cinema next weekend, which type of film will you watch?
8. If you buy a car, which brand will you choose?
9. If someone buys you a Mp3 as a present, which type of music will you load it?
10. If you have time to watch television this weekend, which comedy programme will you watch? Why?
11. If you have time to watch television this night, which soap opera will you watch?

## APPENDIX D

## LESSON PLAN <br> (IMPLICIT INSTRUCTION)

## Teaching Aim:

This lesson aims to help students familiarize with form/use/meaning of conditional sentence type 1 (the real if conditional). The lesson is conducted in a meaning focused way.

## Background Information:

## Teacher: Tuğba HAN

School: Dokuz Eylül University, School of Foreign Languages
Class: L42 C2
Class size: 35
Age: 19-20
Text and Materials: Face2Face, Intermediate, Cambridge University Press
Subject: Type 1 Conditionals
Date: December
Time: 260 Minutes

## Warm- Up Activity ( 20 Minutes)

## Questions:

1. Have you ever been to the United States?
2. If you go to the United States, which famous places would you like to visit and what would you like to do there?
3. How do people you know celebrate their wedding anniversary?

## Please read and listen to a dialog in a travel agency and fill in the gaps.

A: Good morning.
B: Good morning. May I help you?
A: It's my wedding anniversary next month. I want to surprise my husband with a wonderful vacation plan. Would you recommend some famous places?
B: Of course. Me, if you (1)---------- to Europe, you (2)----- have a wonderful time for your wedding anniversary. If you go to London, you (3) ---------go to Buckingham Palace and you (4) ---------- even see the Queen's guards there. If you go to France, you can go to the sidewalk cafe and drink French wine with your husband. And...
A: Well, it's outside the U. S.
B: Oh. You want to stay in the U. S. If you go to California, you (5)---------go to Yosemite National Park or Disneyland.
A: Yosemite National Park? What (6)----------- I see if I go to Yosemite Park?
B: (7) ------------ you go to Yosemite Park, you'll see giant trees, mountains, bears ....
A: But, I don't like bears.
B: If you go to Disneyland, you (8) ---------- see any bears. You'll see Mickey Mouse. Isn't that interesting? Well, if you have children...
A: Well, it's interesting, but.... B: O.K. What do you like to do in your free time?
A: Well, I like skiing.
B: If you like skiing, you can go to Colorado.
A: But my husband doesn't like skiing.
B: If your husband doesn't like skiing, probably he won't like to go there. What does he like?
A: He likes fishing.
B: Oh, you can still enjoy fishing at many beautiful lakes if you go to Colorado. A: But I don't like fishing. And if it rains, we (9) ---------- go fishing.
B: Then, how about Hawaii? Hawaii is really great. If you go to Hawaii, you can go to Waikiki Beach, you can take a romantic cruise for two, you can see beautiful sunset at the beach, you can see palm trees, beautiful flowers, and pretty girls wearing leis.
A: It's gorgeous. But we went there on our honeymoon just after we got married.
B: Well, this is your wedding anniversary. You can relive your romantic honeymoon if you go there again.
A: Oh, that sounds good. I just love hula dances, and we can go surfing. We'll go to Hawaii.

## Comprehension questions: <br> Answer the questions about the dialog

1. What kind of trip will it be?
2. If you go to London, what place will you go to
3. If you go to California, what famous places will you visit?
4. If you go to Disneyland, what will you see?
5. What can you enjoy if you go to Colorado?
6. If you go to Hawaii, which place will you go to?
7. Which place did the woman decide to go to for her wedding anniversary?

## PRACTICE

## Exercise 1 (10 minutes)

Some friends are planning a party. Everybody wants to party, but nobody's really keen on preparing and organizing the party. So everybody comes up with a few conditions, just to make sure that the others will also do something.

1. If Caroline and Sue ----- (prepare) the salad, Phil ----- (decorate) the house.
2. If Sue----- (cut) the onions for the salad, Caroline ----- (peel) the mushrooms.
3. If Bob ----- (tidy) up the kitchen, Anita ----- (clean ) the toilet.
4. Elaine ----- (buy) the drinks if somebody----- (help) her carry the bottles.
5. If Alan and Rebecca----- (organize) the food, Mary and Connor ----- (make ) the sandwiches.
6. If Bob ----- (look ) after the barbecue, Sue ----- (let) the guests in.
7. Alan ----- (mix) the drinks if Jane ------ (give) him some of her cocktail recipes.
8. If they all ----- (do) their best, the party ----- (be) great.

## Complete the following sentences using the correct form of the verb provided so that you will learn what will happen if Robert goes to be late. ( 15 minutes)

1. If Robert $\qquad$ (go) to bed late, he $\qquad$ (sleep in).
2. If he $\qquad$ (sleep in), he $\qquad$ (miss) his bus.
3. If he $\qquad$ (miss) the bus, he $\qquad$ (be) late for work.
4. If he $\qquad$ (be) late for work, his boss $\qquad$ (be) angry.
5. If Robert's boss $\qquad$ (be) angry, he $\qquad$ (fire) him.
6. If Robert $\qquad$ (lose) his job, his girlfriend $\qquad$ (get) upset with him.
7. If Robert's girlfriend $\qquad$ (get) upset again, she $\qquad$ (break up) with him.
8. If she $\qquad$ (break up) with him, he $\qquad$ (be) lonely.
9. If Robert $\qquad$ (feel) lonely, he $\qquad$ (call) some friends.
10. If Robert $\qquad$ (call) his friends, they $\qquad$ (ask) him to their party.
11. If Robert $\qquad$ (go) to the party, he $\qquad$ (drink) too much beer.
12. If Robert $\qquad$ (drink) too much beer, he $\qquad$ (need) a ride home.
13. If Robert $\qquad$ (need) a ride home, he $\qquad$ (have to) to stay until the end.
14. If Robert $\qquad$ (stay) until the end of the party, he $\qquad$ (get) home vey late.
15. If Robert $\qquad$ (get) home late, he $\qquad$ (go) to bed late.

## What can we do to save our planet? Look at the pictures and write the correct forms of the verbs and then match the sentences to the pictures. ( 10 minutes)



1. If we $\qquad$ (recycle) more, we $\qquad$ (help) our planet.
2. If people $\qquad$ (share) their cars to go to work, there $\qquad$ (not/be) so many car fumes.
3. We $\qquad$ (save) thousands of trees if we $\qquad$ (waste) so much paper.
4. If the government ----------- (fine) those who pollute the atmosphere, some factories---------- (stop) throwing waste into rivers.
5. If we only $\qquad$ (use) the water we need, we $\qquad$ (contribute) to our planet's recovery.

## Exercise 2 (15 minutes)

Work in groups of three or four. Your partner will tell you about something they are likely or possible to do in the future. Tell them one consequence of that, e.g. "If you eat too much at lunch, your stomach might feel heavy all afternoon". Another person in your group will then make up some consequences of that, e.g. "If your stomach feels heavy all afternoon, you can fall asleep at your desk". Continue for four or five stages or until you run out of ideas.

## Ideas for future things to talk about

Times: Later today Next week / month / year (With) in the next week / month / year

The day after tomorrow / the week after next this evening / tonight

Topics: Date

| Appearance | Work |
| :--- | :--- |
| Exercise | Money |

Meeting Eating out Study / Qualification Exercise

Money
Relationship Hobby

Entertainment Holiday (= Vacation) / Day off / Public holiday

## Sentence Completion and Transformation: Complete the sentence first and then change it as in the example ( 10 minutes)

- Example: If the movie is interesting,
- $\rightarrow$ If the movie is interesting, I'll go and see it.
- $\rightarrow$ If the movie isn't interesting, I won't go and see it.
- 1. If it is rainy tomorrow, $\qquad$
- 3. If he arrives on time, $\qquad$
- 4. If my brother drinks all the water at home,
- 5. I will visit my grandparents if $\qquad$
- 6. My family will go shopping if $\qquad$
- 7. He will find a job if $\qquad$
- 8. I will lend you some money if $\qquad$


## Complete Sentences Meaningfully ( 15 Minutes)

- If I don't earn enough money, $\qquad$
- If ----------------------------------------------------------, I won’t go shopping.
- If the weather isn't rainy tomorrow, $\qquad$
- If there isn't any food at home, $\qquad$
- If he doesn't ask me out, $\qquad$
- If ------------------------------------------------------------- she won't work tomorrow.
- If Thursday and Friday (after the festival) aren't holiday, students ----
- If ------------------------------------------------------------- you won’t lose any weight.
- If my mother doesn't let me go out, I $\qquad$
- If you give me a secret,


## Giving warnings ( 15 min )

Read the following situations where the speaker is annoyed and is going to w arn the listener. Make up appropriate warnings and threats for each situation.
For example:
'If you don't stop the music, I will call the police '.

- 1. Your friend always borrows money from you and he never pays it back. So, you are angry with him.
- 2. Your housemate never pays his share of rent .So, you have to pay his share, too and you are fed up with this situation.
- 3. Suppose you are a mother and your little son always forgets to tidy up his room.
- 4. Your friend is always trying to distract your attention and to make you speak during the lesson. When your teacher warns you, you feel ashamed because of him.


## Continue with the second half of your friend's warning and create a new warning as in the example ( 10 minutes)

Example: Don't drop your pen $\rightarrow$ "If you drop your pen, it'll break."- $\rightarrow$ "If your pen breaks, you won't be able to do your exam." $\rightarrow$ "If you can't do your exam, you'll have to leave school."

1. Don't come to lessons without your books.
2. Don't spend too much time on the computer.
3. Don't spend too much money

## Giving Advice ( 10 min )

Read these statements of advice and rewrite them as in the example. Notice that the meaning is the same. Example: Work harder and you will pass your exam.
'If you work harder, you will pass your exam.'

1. Take an aspirin and your headache will be over.
2. Do some sport and you'll feel better.
3. Feed the baby and he'll stop crying.
4. Drink a glass of hot milk and you'll fall asleep easily.

## Making Promises ( 10 minutes)

Imagine you are a candidate running for the mayor of the city you live. In your campaign speeches, you often make promises. Give promises using the words in parentheses and then announce them to the class.

Example: (improving health service)
If I am elected mayor of this city, I will improve health service.

1. (Decrease the prices of buses)
2. (Build entertainment and sport clubs)
3. (Clean the parks, streets)
4. (Organize festivals)
5. (Protect animals in the street)

6-10. (Create your own promises)

## Promises Promises ( 15 minutes)

1. Say that you have a million pounds to give someone and you will give it to the person who persuades you best. You can use sentences like this:
"If you give me a million pounds, I'll $\qquad$ ."
2. There are a lot of boys or girls who want to go out with you. You will go out with someone who persuades you best.
'If you go out with me, I/we. $\qquad$ .
3.You are the boss of a company and there are a lot of people wanting to work with you. You will give the job to the person who persuades you best.
'If you employ me, $\qquad$ ..'

## Stating Advantages and Disadvantages ( 15 min )

Work with a partner. Imagine you want to move. You are trying to decide between two places: a big city or a small town. Take turns making up sentences that describe the advantages and disadvantages of each place.

Example: 'If you live in a big city, you will have lots of things to do.'

## A Big City

| ADVANTAGES | DISADVANTAGES |
| :--- | :--- |
| More opportunities for development | Pollution |
| More work places | More crimes |
| Social life | Traffic jam |

## A Small Town

| ADVANTAGES | DISADVANTAGES |
| :--- | :--- |
| Big chance to relax | Infrequent bus service |
| Flowers and nice animals | No social life |
| Low cost of living | Less opportunities to work |

## TASK

Talk with your partner and then write a short paragraph describing what you will see or do if you visit your partner's hometown/country. Use if-clauses and result clauses in your paragraph.

## Complete questions by putting the verbs into the correct form as in the example. ( 10 MINUTES)

Example: If I need money, will you lend me some?
1- If I $\qquad$ (to follow) these steps, $\qquad$ I succeed in your business?
2.
. ----------- I cry if I $\qquad$ (cut) an onion?
3. If I ----------- (take) the car, $\qquad$ it be difficult to find a parking place?
4. $\qquad$ I save the file if I $\qquad$ (press) ctrl+s?
5. If you $\qquad$ (send) this letter now, $\qquad$ she receive it tomorrow?
6. $\qquad$ my parents be proud of me if I $\qquad$ (get) A from my exam tomorrow?
7. If she $\qquad$ the lottery, $\qquad$ she get a lot of money?
8. If you (get) a rise in your salary next month, you buy a new car?

This is an activity based on the following construction in the lyrics: "If I stay here, won't you listen to my heart?"'Match the lyrics 1-12 to A-L. (10 minutes)

| 1 | If I touch that wet paint, | A | Won't you offer me your <br> handkerchief? |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 | If I jump in the sea, | B | Won't you be hungry? |
| 3 | If you park too close to that car, | C | Won't you help me? |
| 4 | If I sneeze again, | D | Won't you even taste it? |
| 5 | If they don't turn off the car <br> alarm | E | Won't my fingers be sticky? |
| 6 | If he copies your exam paper <br> again, | F | Won't someone complain? |
| 7 | If I lend you some money, | G | Won't the door hit it? |
| 8 | If I cook you a new dish, | H | Won't you say something nice? |
| 9 | If I don't do my homework, | I | Won't you report him for <br> cheating? |
| 10 | If I introduce you to my new <br> friend, | J | Won't you at least put your <br> fingers in your ears? |
| 11 | If the teacher gives us another <br> test, | K | Won't you go to the market <br> with me this afternoon? |
| 12 | If I eat your sandwiches, | L | Won't I get wet? |

## Write Wh- questions about the words written in bold as in the example. (10 minutes)

Example: 'I will wash the car if she cleans the house.'
'What will you do if she cleans the house?'

1. If we catch the bus, we will arrive at nine o'clock.
$\qquad$
2. If I have free time tomorrow, I will play tennis.
$\qquad$
3. If he doesn't work this night, he will go to disco.
$\qquad$
4. I will visit my parents at the weekend if I find a bus ticket.

## Answer the Questions. (40 minutes)

1. Will you get married if you finish university four years later? Why / Why not?
2. What will you buy if you have enough money?
3. Which places will you advise if tourists ask you where to go in Turkey?
4. What food wills you advise if someone from England asks you what to eat in İzmir?
5. Which country will you visit if you have a green passport next summer? Why do you choose this country?
6. If your family buys a house this year, how will you decorate you room?
7. If you go to the cinema next weekend, which type of film will you watch?
8. If you buy a car, which brand will you choose?
9. If someone buys you an Mp 3 as a present, which type of music will you load it?
10. If you have time to watch television this weekend, which comedy programmed will you watch? Why?
11. If you have time to watch television this night, which soap opera will, you watch?
12. If you go to another city in your country on semester holiday, which type of transport will you choose? Why?
13. What kind of disadvantages will you have if you share your room with someone?
14. What will you do if teacher understands that you cheat in the exam?
15. What can teenagers do if they want to get on well with their parents?
16. What can men do if they want to get on well with their girl friends?
17. What can women do if they want to get on well with their boy friends?
18. What can parents do if they want to get on well with their children?
19. What kind of advantages will you have if you stay at a dormitory?
20. What type of advantages will you have if you stay at home?

## Complete Sentences meaningfully as in the example ( 10 Minutes)

For example: I will be happy if you help me.

1. Tony will be grateful to you $\qquad$
2. If you don't tell me what is wrong $\qquad$ .
3. If those children don't stop the noise, $\qquad$
4. If you are back in an hour, $\qquad$
5. We will fly to Paris for a week in Spring $\qquad$
6. If you go to Spain in the future, $\qquad$
7. If Jack finds a well paid job, $\qquad$
8. If you don't feel good, $\qquad$
9. If you wear these shoes, $\qquad$
10. If you don't run faster, $\qquad$

## Rewrite the sentences in order to give the same meaning as in the example. (10 minutes)

For example: 'Don't take a long nap. You may not sleep well at night.'
'If you take a long nap, you may not sleep well at night.'

1. Maybe they will come to my house, so I will make a cake.
2. Tell your parents you are here. Then they won't be worried about you.
3. Don't give Alex your bike. He may break it
4. You may understand Tommy. Try to talk to him.
5. You may take a taxi. You get there more quickly.
6. Forgive her. She may feel happy.
7. Don't turn on the radio. The baby will wake up.
8. You may go out in cold weather. Then you will be ill.
9.Maybe little Sam is afraid of animals. Don't take him to the zoo.

## APPENDIX E

## PRE - POST - TEST

NAME:

## CLASS:

1. $\qquad$ you stay in if I
$\qquad$ out this night?
a. Would / go
b. Can / went
c. Might / will go
d. Should/went
e. Will / go
2. $\qquad$ she be tired if she
$\qquad$ all day?
a. Can't / worked
b. Won't / works
c. Wouldn't / works
d. Wouldn't / will work
e. Won't / had worked
3. If you $\qquad$ to Bodrum, where $\qquad$ you stay?
a. went / will
b. would go / did
c. will go / do
d. had gone / would
e. go / will
4. If there $\qquad$ a fire, the alarm $\qquad$ ring.
a. was / does
b. had been / would
c. is / will
d. will be / will
e. has been / did

GENDER:
DEPARTMENT:
5. If she $\qquad$ to England, she $\qquad$ speak English
more fluently.
a. went / will
b. will go / can
c. goes / might
d. can go / would
e. would go / does
6. What $\qquad$ she do if he
$\qquad$ call?
a. does / won't
b. will / doesn't
c. would / doesn't
d. did / wouldn't
e. can / didn't
7. If you $\qquad$ money, I
$\qquad$ lend you some.
a. would need / might
b. needed / will
c. need / can
d. will need /

e. have needed / would
8. I $\qquad$ surprised if Martin and Jane $\qquad$ married.
a. will be / get
b. am / will get
c. was / might get
d. would be / can get
e. have been / would get
9. If they $\qquad$ hard enough, they $\qquad$ have more success.
a. tried / will
b. have tried / would
c. try / will
d. will try / can
e. had tried / might
14. If she $\qquad$ the competition, she $\qquad$ win a holiday.
a. might enter / would
b. entered / will
c. will enter / can
d. enters / might
e. would enter / could
15. If I $\qquad$ next weekend, I
0. $\qquad$ she get a certificate if she $\qquad$ this course next year?
a. Does / will finish
b. Would/ had finished
c. Will / finishes
d. Will / is going to finish
e. Would / finishes
11. We $\qquad$ go to the beach
tomorrow if it $\qquad$ rain.
a. can / won't
b. might / doesn't
c. will / didn't
d. would / doesn't
e. ------ /wouldn't
12. If you $\qquad$ water those
plants soon, they $\qquad$ die. a.didn't / will
b. won't / can
c. don't / might
d. wouldn't / should
e. aren't going to / will
13. If you $\qquad$ enough, you
pass your exam.
a. studied / will
b. study / would
c. will study / should
d. study / can
e. would study / might
$\qquad$ go out with my friends.
a. won't work / can
b. didn't work / will
c. don't work / will
d. won't work / might
e. don't work / would
16. If you $\qquad$ this house, you
15 fifteens to the bus stop.
a. rent / will walk
b. rented / can walk
c. will rent / walk
d. can rent / would walk
e. had rented / might walk
17. I $\qquad$ you go out if you
$\qquad$ in the exam.
a. don't let / will fail
b. didn't let / would fail
c. hadn't let / might fail
d. won't let / fail
e. can't let / had failed
18. If he $\qquad$ rudely again, I
$\qquad$ to him any more.
a. speaks / can't talk
b. spoke / won't talk
c. will speak / don't talk
d. speaks / won't talk
e. had spoken / wouldn't talk
19. If you $\qquad$ sandals in the
mountains, you $\qquad$ on the rocks.
a. wore / will slip
b. will wear / slip
c. would wear / can slip
d. wear / might slip
e . have worn / would slip
20. If you $\qquad$ slow down, you
have an accident.
a. don't / will
b. won't / might
c. didn't / will
d. wouldn't / can
e. can't / would

