



**Iran University of  
Science and Technology  
Department of Foreign Languages**

**Master's Thesis**

**A Comparative Study of the Effect of Implicit  
and Delayed, Explicit Focus on Form on  
Iranian EFL Learners' Accuracy of  
Oral Production**

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**WE HEREBY RECOMMEND THAT THIS THESIS**

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In the Name of God  
the Beneficent,  
the Merciful

Dedicated to

My Family

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## **Abstract**

The present study was conducted to compare the effect of implicit focus on form through corrective recast with the effect of delayed, explicit focus on form. To fulfill the purpose of the study, 60 intermediate learners of Kish Language Institute were chosen by means of administering an achievement test. These learners were pretested through a structured interview to check their current accuracy level regarding the oral production of four structures. Based on the results of the pretest, two matched groups, one as the experimental group and the other as the comparison group, were formed. Then, both groups were provided with twelve tasks about the aimed structures in the study. Of course, the experimental group underwent focus on form implicitly through corrective recast, while the comparison group was provided with delayed, explicit focus on form. After twelve sessions of treatment, the two groups were posttested through another structured interview. The scores of the participants demonstrated that the experimental group outperformed the comparison group in terms of the average accuracy gains. The analysis of the data was done through the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) and *t*-test. Finally, it was concluded that implicit focus on form through corrective recast can lead to higher accuracy in oral production in comparison to delayed, explicit focus on form.

# CHAPTER I

## Background and Purpose

### *Introduction*

By the appearance of communicative views of language teaching, a gradual shift occurred from the old-fashioned stance of *synthetic* syllabus to *analytic* syllabus. Analyzing the target language to form a collection of grammar points, rules, and words to focus on in isolation in language teaching is called synthetic syllabus, while mere focus on meaning leads to analytic syllabus (Wilkins, 1976, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998).

In line with this trend, some theories, such as Monitor Theory of SLA by Krashen (1982, 1985, cited in Doughty & Williams, 1998) and Output Hypothesis by Swain (1993, 1995, cited in Han, 2002a) backed up mere focus on communication and meaning rather than focus on form and accuracy.

In actual fact, this second stance was avoiding one shortcoming towards another since Long and Robinson (1998) believe that the first stance leads to focus on formS, the controversial issue of teaching about the

language not teaching the language, and the latter leads to discarding grammar, and, as a result, inaccuracy in language acquisition.

In this regard, Larsen-Freeman (1986) also states that as a result of this movement, a tolerant attitude of errors and correction has taken shape in language teaching, and the justification for it is that errors are a natural outcome of every learning. In addition, focus on form and error correction violate the conventions of discourse in which there is almost no error correction and, as a result, no distraction from communication.

Focus on form is also usually done at the expense of meaning, which at the same time activates affective filters of learners. With regard to the fact that focus on meaning and use, especially in the communicative approach of teaching, is, to a great extent, logical, Brown (2001) mentions the problem of *fossilization* which refers to erroneous features of language in fluent learners. This matter is also seen in EFL teaching in Iran, which needs to be paid more attention to.

Regarding the points mentioned up to here, the need for a solution to avoid the shortcomings of these stances, i.e., mere focus on forms and single-minded focus on meaning, is strongly felt. Therefore, enhancement of positive input and negative evidence is put forward (Long & Robinson, 1998).

Input enhancement involves the provision of input in a way that a particular aspect of language in focus becomes more conspicuous to learners, for instance, by using typographical input enhancement (White, 1998). Also, negative evidence encompasses the provision of evidence in input against an erroneous language production, a perfect example of which is recast, highly recommended by Doughty and Varela (1998). This approach of dealing with form is called focus on form (FonF), in contrast to focus on formS (Long & Robinson, 1998). Focus on form is defined as “an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features -- by the teacher and/or one or more students -- triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production” (Long & Robinson, 1998, p.23). Focus on form is further categorized into explicit and implicit dichotomy.

Explicit focus on form involves explicitly drawing the attention of the learner to the error with or without rule explanation, while implicit focus on form is, as the name suggests, indirect. The positive point of implicit focus on form is that it does not stop the flow of communication. In addition, it involves some techniques, namely recast and corrective recast, repetition, clarification request, and comprehension check.

There have been a score of studies regarding the effect of these kinds of focus on form in different settings in the literature (see Chapter II, p. 35 for a

full account), but the general point which could be mentioned about them is that Lightbown and Spada (1990, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998) have found in their study that focus on form leads to more accuracy in comparison with no focus on form at all.

### ***Statement of the Problem***

This study is an attempt to examine whether implicit focus on form through corrective recast affects the linguistic accuracy of a group of Iranian EFL learners' oral production at the intermediate level of language proficiency in comparison with another group receiving delayed, explicit focus on form at the same level of language proficiency.

### ***Research Question***

The research question formulated for the purpose of this study is

Does implicit focus on form through corrective recast affect the linguistic accuracy of Iranian EFL learners' oral production at the intermediate level of language proficiency, in comparison with another group receiving delayed, explicit focus on form at the same level of language proficiency?

### ***Statement of Hypothesis***

The null hypothesis this study aims to test is

Implicit focus on form through corrective recast does not affect the linguistic accuracy of Iranian EFL learners' oral production at the intermediate level of language proficiency, in comparison with another group receiving delayed, explicit focus on form at the same level of language proficiency.

### ***Significance of the Study***

One of the concerns of teachers, especially in communicative classes, is that they wonder if language learners' oral productions should be corrected in terms of the non-target forms or not. Of course, most teachers are into correction of errors, but the key point is that not enough knowledge is provided to teachers regarding what to correct, how to correct, and when to correct. Even by referring to the research studies, contradictory findings and sometimes confusing results are found.

In point of fact, there have been scores of studies concerning the effect and nature of implicit and explicit focus on form, as well as comparisons between the two, in the literature. To name a few, Saxton (1997, cited in Nicholas, Lightbown, & Spada, 2001; Kim, 2004) pinpoints an age range for

the usefulness of implicit focus on form. Mackey, Gass, and McDonough (2000), as well as Lyster (1998) emphasize the usefulness of implicit focus on form in some special areas of language. Mackey, Philp, Egi, Akiko, and Tatsumi (1998), as well as Carroll and Swain (1993, cited in Kim, 2004) have examined different uptake rate by learners. Mackey and Philp (1998) studied the relation between the uptake after recasts and level of proficiency. Bwon and Hanlon (1970, cited in Nicholas et al., 2001) concluded implicit or explicit focus on form does not affect the accuracy of children's productions. Nelson (1991, cited in Kim, 2004) found that under experimental conditions children paid more attention to the forms in focus through recasts by adults if they were exposed to recasts for a long time. Doughty and Varela (1998) studied the effect of corrective recast and confirmed its usefulness and effect on oral production. Ellis (1993, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998), as well as Williams and Evans (1998), confirmed the positive effect of explicit focus on form in different combinations. Finally, DeKeyser (1995, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998) supported the positive effect of explicit learning on learning categorical rules (see Chapter II, p. 35, for a full discussion).

The noteworthy point is that, considering the results of all these studies, one can not observe concluding results concerning focus on form. This



matter is especially seen regarding the comparative studies in terms of the effectiveness of explicit and implicit focus on form. So the need could be easily felt to investigate the effect of implicit and explicit focus on form on language acquisition.

### ***Definition of Key Terms***

The important terms used throughout this study are as follows:

***Analytic syllabus:*** Analytic syllabus is defined by Wilkins (1976, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998) as the organization of “purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language performance that are necessary to meet those purpose” (p. 18).

***Clarification request:*** Lyster (1998) states that clarification request is asking students to clarify what they said by the use of phrases and sentences like, *Excuse me?*, or *Beg your pardon?*.

***Comprehension check:*** Comprehension check involves asking a comprehension question from learners in order to make them repeat what they said (Han, 2002a; Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2002). It is believed that after asking for clarification or a comprehension-check question, learners are given the second chance to state what they had said. This leads

to learners' rethinking about their production and probably changing the erroneous feature in the production, especially if the learners are given the awareness that implicit strategies are not for confirmation of meaning, but rather for focus on form (Nicholas et al., 2001).

***Corrective recast:*** Corrective recast involves the repetition of the erroneous sentence, accompanied by upping the stress on the erroneous part, plus recast (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Han, 2002a).

***Dictogloss:*** Swain (1998) puts forward dictogloss to meet the condition of task-essentialness, that is, a condition of a task which necessitates the learners to accomplish the task with only a particular structure in focus. In dictogloss, to focus on form, a text containing the aimed structure is read to learners at normal speed, and the learners' need is to take notes and then reconstruct the text together. Then, at the time of reconstruction and reproduction, the teacher can focus on that particular form.

***Explicit focus on form:*** Explicit focus on form refers to the time when an error is explicitly referred to, and the learner is directly told that *It is not X but It is Y*. This kind of focus on form could be done through explicit or

direct strategies which again involve explicitly drawing the attention of learners to the error with or without rule explanation. Further, Doughty and Williams (1998) state that the aim of explicit focus on form “is to *direct* learners’ attention to *exploit pedagogical grammar* in this regard” (p. 232).

***Focus on form:*** Focus on form, in contrast to focus on formS, “consists of an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features-- by the teacher and/or one or more students -- triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production”(Long & Robinson, 1998, p.23).

***Focus on formS:*** Focus on formS refers to the presentation of discrete items of grammar, lexis, functions, and notions one at a time, like the presentation of a grammatical point traditionally.

***Implicit focus on form:*** Doughty and Williams (1998) state that the aim of implicit focus on form is “to *attract* learner attention and to avoid metalinguistic discussion, always *minimizing any interruption* to the communication of the meaning” (p.232). It is further added that implicit, or indirect, focus on form could be achieved by means of recast, corrective recast, repetition, clarification request, and comprehension check.

***Proactive focus on form:*** The proactive research involves making “an informed prediction or carrying out some observations to determine the learning problem in focus” (Doughty & Williams, 1998, p. 208).

Long and Robinson (1998) believe that by taking this stance, there is no need to restrict focus on form to classroom learner errors which are pervasive, systematic, and remediable for learners at that particular stage of development, which is a burdensome selection process.

***Reactive focus on form:*** Long and Robinson (1998) state that reactive focus on form refers to a responsive teaching intervention that involves occasional shifts in reaction to salient errors using devices to increase perceptual salience.

***Recast:*** Recast is the teacher’s reformulation of all or part of the learner’s utterance (Nicholas et al., 2001; Han, 2002a; Lyster, 1998). Long (1996, cited in Nicholas et al., 2001) defines recasts as “the utterance that rephrases a child’s utterance by changing one or more sentence components while still referring to its central meaning” (p. 733).

***Repetition:*** Repetition involves repeating the learner's exact utterance with rising intonation in order to attract the learner's attention to the erroneous feature.

***Synthetic syllabus:*** In syllabus design, when the target language is analyzed to form a pedagogical grammar, the syllabus is termed synthetic (Wilkins, 1976, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998). In this kind of syllabus, the language is broken down into words, grammar rules, etc. which are sequenced for presentation as models to learners linearly and additively.

### ***Limitations and Delimitations of the Study***

1. This study was limited to oral production, and not written production.
2. This study only focused on four grammatical structures, namely *I wish*, three forms of *causative clause*, *second conditional* sentences, and *should have + past participle*.
3. The study only considered corrective recast and explicit delayed focus on form, and not other techniques and strategies to focus on form.
4. The participants were Iranian, so the results cannot be generalized to learners of other nationalities.

5. The participants of the study were over the age of 15, so the results could not be generalized to learners below the age of 15.
6. Only male learners attended this study.
7. Only intermediate learners based on Gairns and Redman's *True to Life* (1998) participated in this study.

## CHAPTER II

### Review of the Related Literature

#### *Introduction*

In this section, some key issues related to focus on form, and of concern to this study will be presented as follows.

First a brief background of focus on form accompanied by the related strategies to it, and the related studies in this regard will be discussed.

Moreover, some theoretical and practical issues, such as reactive and proactive focus on form, the choice of linguistic form for focus on form, the integration of focus on meaning and form in classrooms during accuracy and fluency work, the right time to correct, and how to correct, as well as the two related topics to this study, i.e., fluency and accuracy will be reviewed.

#### *Focus on Form Background*

To provide a historical overview of focus on form, Long and Robinson (1998) state that previously, the first task in syllabus design was to analyze the target language to form a pedagogical grammar, which is termed by Wilkins (1976, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998) as *synthetic* approach.

They further explain that in this kind of syllabus, the language is broken down into words, grammar rules, etc. which are sequenced for presentation as models to learners linearly and additively. The structural syllabus could be seen as one of the most common models of synthetic syllabus. In addition, this syllabus leads to *focus on formS*; that is to say, discrete items of grammar, lexis, functions, and notions are presented one at a time. In this regard, Long and Robinson assert that among many studies of naturalistic setting and classroom language learning in the literature, no one shows any resemblance between this way of presentation and “the order or the manner in which naturalistic or classroom acquirers learn” (p. 16).

Taking into account that this kind of syllabus did not work as it was predicted, the movement from focus on formS to equally single minded “*focus on meaning*” started. Going too far in this regard, Long and Robinson (1998) state that some authorities, such as Corder (1967), Dulay and Burt (1973), Felix (1981), Krashen (1985), and Wode (1981) have considered incidental L2 learning and exposure to comprehensible input sufficient in L1 acquisition by young children, which should also be used as the basis for L2 or foreign language acquisition (e.g., Alwright, 1976; Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Newmark, 1966, 1971; Newmark & Reibel, 1968; Prabhu, 1987; Reibel, 1969, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998).



For instance, Krashen, as one of the leading characters in this regard, refers to consciously learned and unconsciously acquired language in his *Monitor Theory* of SLA, the latter as the only knowledge deployed in fluent and unmonitored language use (Doughty & William, 1998). In this theory, focus on form has no place in language teaching, so that an unmonitored knowledge is formed. This view is called *noninterventionist* position (Long & Robinson, 1998, p. 18). Further, Doughty and Williams mention that regarding the Monitor Theory, the unresolved point is that no solution is provided for the lack of accuracy in adult L2 learning.

This kind of language learning, which holds that language should be learned by experiencing it as a medium of communication, forms the base for *analytic syllabus* which is defined by Wilkins (1976, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998) as the organization of “purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language performance that are necessary to meet those purpose” (p. 18).

Long and Robinson state that advocates of focus on meaning emphasize that ample quantities of *positive evidence* in input exposure support the existence of what is possible in L2. Of course, they also add the fact that this input should be modified in a natural way e.g., *negotiation for meaning* in teacher–learner communications in a natural and

noninterventionist way. Regarding all said up to here about focus on meaning and comprehensible input, Long and Robinson (1998) bring evidence from a number of research studies (Hyltenstam, 1988; Long, 1990, 1993; Newport, 1999, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998) to argue that acquisition of native like language is impeded by maturational constraints, whether biological or not, in adults since the mere exposure to language use is not enough. Moreover, according to some other studies (Long, 1997a; Pavesi, 1986; Schmidt, 1983; Swain, 1991a; Harley & Swain, 1984, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998) such mere focus on meaning and input exposure, as it is the case in *Immersion* programs, does not lead to native like speakers. Also, White (1989, 1991, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998) brings evidence that some L1 and L2 grammatical contrast forms could not be learned through only positive evidence. Furthermore, some authorities (Ellis, 1994a; Long, 1983a, 1988b, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998) support the inefficiency of experiencing the use of language to learn it.

Another issue, very much related to the discussion of mere focus on meaning, is *fossilization*. Concerning fossilization, Brown (2000) mentions that in some learners, despite high level of language knowledge, certain erroneous features could be still seen in their interlanguage. These incorporated erroneous linguistic forms are considered as fossilized forms

which could be rectified, but not very easily. A view of fossilization which appears to be directly related to our discussion is the view of Vigil and Oller (1976, cited in Johnson, 2001) which is the feedback model of fossilization. This model holds that fossilization of a form depends on the reaction the speaker gets at the time of using that form. In other words, when a speaker says something pidgin-like and the hearer says *I got it*, although the sentence is grammatically wrong, this approving *feedback* will lead to fossilization of that form on which the speaker received an approving feedback. This phenomenon is exactly what happens in *over-communicative classes* (e.g., immersion classes) in which for the teacher only conveying the message, not how to convey the message, is important.

At this point, Long and Robinson call for the enhancement of positive evidence or provision of negative evidence in teaching. Motivated by such problems, Pienmann, (1984, 1989, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998) have shown support for instruction's benefits on the rate of acquisition (e.g., the instruction of a rule). But this does not mean to move back to focus on formS, but rather "*focus on form (FonF)*" is put forward by Long and Robinson (1998, p. 21) which keeps the strengths of synthetic syllabus and removes its limitations. This approach is motivated by *Interaction Hypothesis* (Long, 1981; 1983b, 1996, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998)

according to which interaction between learners and adults, or more proficient speakers, as well as texts, especially the elaborated ones, plays a crucial role in language development. This development occurs especially by the negotiation of meaning between the two sides which ends in modifications to the interactional structure of conversation (Long, 1997b, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998). Moreover, negotiation elicits negative evidence including *recasts* by means of which the learner gets to know about the mismatch between his/her utterance and the native norms.

As mentioned before, at this point, focus on form, in contrast to focus on formS, is introduced which “consists of an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features-- by the teacher and/or one or more learners -- triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production” (Long & Robinson, 1998, p.23). Focus on form is further categorized into two categories of *explicit* negative feedback and *implicit* negative feedback. An example of explicit negative feedback could be the interruption of communicative group work to draw the attention of learners to a grammatical point after the teacher realized that it was a point of mistake for learners. An example of the latter is recasts which are very common in both L1 acquisition (Baker & Nelson, 1984; Farrar, 1992, cited in Long &

Robinson, 1998), and L2 acquisition (Oliver, 1995; Otegar & Long, 1997; Richardson, 1995, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998).

Other examples of techniques and strategies in this regard are fully discussed below.

### *Strategies of Focus on Form*

In general, there are two sets of strategies to focus on form. Explicit, or direct, strategies involve explicitly drawing the attention of the learner to the error with or without rule explanation. Explicit focus on form is shown by Ellis et al. (2002, p. 426) as follows:

#### **Explicit focus-on-form**

Student 1: was anything found by his body

Student 2: pardon

Student 1: was anything found. fou, fou

Teacher: watch me. watch me. found

Student 1: found

Teacher: found

Student 1: found

Teacher: found

Student 1: found

Teacher: ow, ow, found

Student 1: found

Teacher: found

Student : found

T: found yeah

S1: found by his body

In this respect, Nicholas et al. (2001) state that according to many researchers, explicit feedback just leads to superficial change in the interlanguage of the learners, and it is not worth the negative affective reactions. Also, Braidi (2002) states that drawing the attention of a learner to an error is called negative evidence which can take two forms, that is, explicit and implicit negative evidence. Explicit negative evidence is the input in which an error is explicitly referred to, and the learner is directly told that *It is not X* but *It is Y*. On the other hand, implicit, or indirect, strategies range from giving facial signals to paraphrase, and recast (Han, 2002a; Nicholas et al., 2001; Ellis, 1999). Implicit strategies in detail involve recast, corrective recast, repetition, clarification request, and comprehension check.

Before the implicit strategies of focus on form are dealt with more in depth, more explanation is provided for the explicit/implicit dichotomy. Doughty and Williams (1998) also introduce this dichotomy by first pointing to a common definition of explicit and implicit as follows:

*Implicit* a. Implied or understood though not directly expressed. b. Contained in the nature of something though not readily apparent.

*Explicit* a. Fully and clearly expressed, defined or formulated. b. Readily observable. (p. 230)

Doughty and Williams further add that explicit stance is discarded in an extreme view of communicative approach since it involves metalinguistic rule presentation and detailed expression of formal linguistic aspects. Instead, learners should be left on their own to induce the rules of language (a false definition of implicit focus on form involving no instruction). These approaches which are referred to be of “all-or-nothing choices” in nature are rejected by Doughty and Williams. Instead, they offer the following definitions for implicit and explicit:

1. Implicit focus on form: The aim is to *attract* learner attention and to avoid metalinguistic discussion, always *minimizing any interruption* to the communication of the meaning.
2. Explicit teaching: The aim is to *direct* learner attention and to *exploit pedagogical grammar* in this regard. (p. 232)

Moving back to implicit strategies, recast is the teacher's reformulation of all or part of the learner's utterance (Nicholas et al., 2001; Han, 2002a; Lyster, 1998). Long (1996, cited in Nicholas et al., 2001) defines recasts as "utterance that rephrases a child's utterance by changing one or more sentence components while still referring to its central meanings" (p. 733). Farrar (1990, cited in Braidi, 2002) remarks that recasts include additions, substitutions, and reordering. These matters are shown in this example from Farrar (p. 612).

(1) Addition

Child: Phone ring.

Mother: The phone is ringing

(2) Substitution

Child: I can move.

Mother: You will move



(3) Reordering

Child: It is raining.

Mother: Is it raining?

Ellis et al. (2002, p. 425) also demonstrate recasts as follows:

**Implicit focus-on-form by means of a recast**

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

Teacher: I *think* the worm *will* go under the soil?

Student: (no response)

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

Student: I thought that the worm would go under the soil.

Moreover, recasts are seen as the most frequent kind of feedback in communicative classes as it was demonstrated in a study by Doughty (1994, cited in Nicholas et al., 2001) in a French class where 60 % of feedback by teacher turned out to be in the form of recast.

Similar results have also been achieved in a study by Panova and Lyster (2002). The database of this study consisted of 10 hours of transcribed interaction, comprising 1,716 student turns and 1,641 teacher turns. The results of the analysis have revealed a clear preference for implicit types of reformulative feedback, namely, recasts and translation.

Moreover, Long and Robinson (1998) also state that recasts are appreciated by many, in that they show to learners the distance between what uttered by the learners and the target language. Moreover, Nicholas et al. (2001) mention that recasts are valuable in acquisition because by reformulation, recasts give the positive effect, and at the same time they focus on form.

According to Nicholas et al. (2001), recasts are sometimes seen as an explicit strategy of corrective feedback, but Long and Robinson (1998) argue that recasts are not explicit since they do not stop the flow of communication, and in recasts the aimed form feature is not isolated.

To give a break to recasts, the next implicit strategy is repetition which involves repeating the learner's exact utterance with rising intonation in order to attract the learner's attention to the erroneous feature. By combining repetition and recast, another implicit technique is provided which is called corrective recast. Corrective recast involves repetition of the sentence with error, accompanied by upping the stress on the erroneous part, plus recast (Doughty & Varela, 1998).

The next implicit strategy is clarification request. Lyster (1998) states that in clarification request learners are asked to clarify what they said by the use of phrases and sentences like, *Excuse me?*, or *Beg your pardon?*.

Ellis et al. (2002, p. 424) demonstrate clarification request as follows:

**Conversational focus-on-form (request for clarification)**

Student 1: I'm look for a room, or

Student 2: I will take you

Teacher: what?

Student 2: I'll take you

Finally, comprehension check involves asking a comprehension question from learners in order to make them repeat what they said (Han, 2002a; Ellis et al., 2002). It is believed that after asking for clarification or a comprehension check question, the learners are given the second chance to state what they had said. This leads to rethinking about their production and, probably, changing the erroneous feature in the production especially if the learners are given the awareness that implicit strategies are not for confirmation of meaning, but for focus on form (Nicholas et al., 2001).

***Studies in Focus on Form***

In this section, a number of studies regarding primary attention to formS or meaning, and explicit/implicit focus on form are presented.

Among all implicit strategies of focus on form, the effect of recast has been very much attractive to researchers in both L1 and L2 acquisition. Although Bwon and Hanlon (1970, cited in Nicholas et al., 2001) have concluded in their study that either implicit or explicit focus on form does not affect the accuracy of children, Nelson (1991, cited in Kim, 2004) has found that under experimental conditions, children paid more attention to the forms focused in recasts by adults if they were exposed to recasts for a long time. But in naturalistic settings, they found that children were more accurate if they had received many simple recasts, and if their topics was continued by the caregiver.

Moreover, Saxton (1997, cited in Nicholas et al., 2001) has concluded that recasts are effective, especially for children aging between 4.9 and 5.6. In fact, they benefit more form recasts to produce target forms. Moreover, prior knowledge to recasts is necessary. In other words, learners should be provided with enough information in terms of the nature of recasts by teachers.

According to Nicholas et al. (2001), one problem regarding recasts in L2 contexts is that recasts are sometimes ambiguous, in that learners may think they are confirmations of meaning rather than focus on form as it is in real life. But it is suggested that recasts are not ambiguous, and learners

understand the very nature of recasts, i.e., focus on form, if they are given the awareness that recasts are reactions to form rather than reactions to content and meaning. In this regard, Demetars, Post, and Snow (1986, cited in Nicholas et al., 2001) have also stated that the more frequent the recasts, the more learners perceive them as focus on form.

The next point about recasts is that recasts are more effective in some special areas of language. A study by Mackey, Gass, and McDonough (2000), analyzing the feedback of some interviewers to ESL learners, shows that recasts were more used for morphosyntactic errors, while pronunciation errors received more clarification requests. Their justification for the use of clarification requests for phonological errors is that interviewers in the study were not sure what they heard. Lyster (1998) has also found that teachers preferred recasts for grammatical and phonological errors, while he has found negotiation of form more frequent and useful for lexical errors, which includes elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification request, and repetition of error.

In addition, Han (2002b) has conducted a small-scale study in which the effect of eight sessions of recasts on verb tense was studied on a group of L2 learners in comparison with another group receiving no recasts. In conclusion, recasts increased the L2 learners' awareness, and they caused

considerable improvement in the tense consistency of oral and written performance. Moreover, in this study, four conditions that may be necessary for recasts to facilitate learning were identified, that is, individualized attention, consistent focus, developmental readiness, and intensity.

In another study, Mackey, Philp, Egi, Fujii, and Tatsumi (2002) have found a relationship between working memory capacity, and noticing of interactional feedback in the form of recasts. By 'noticing' they mean "the learner's articulation of response to the input" (p. 188). This could be shown from this extract which represents an instance of noticing:

In my head I was trying too hard to make the question "what are they doing?" and then to use it, I tend to use a declarative sentence with a raising intonation as a question, but she corrected my questions, so I thought I should say "do" and "is" in the beginning of the sentence.  
(p. 188)

In sum, they have concluded that learners with low working memory capacity tended to have low noticing of interactional feedback, while learners with high working memory capacity had higher noticing of interactional feedback.

Regarding the effect of clarification requests on language acquisition, Takashima and Ellis (1999) have conducted a study in which they have referred to clarification request as focused feedback which is “requests for clarification that pushed learners to reformulate their output in the context of a message-focused task” (p. 186). The study shows that 29% of the time focused feedback ended in learners’ self-correcting past-tense forms. In addition, in the posttest, the group that received focused feedback was more accurate in past tense form than the group with no form-focused feedback.

Here, an issue about recasts, implicit, and explicit feedback is, how much of feedback is perceived by learners. This issue is referred to as *uptake*. Lyster and Ranta (1997, cited in Yamamoto, 2003) define uptake in response to feedback as “a learner’s utterance following the teacher’s feedback, into two types: repair and need-repair, or, in other words, successful and unsuccessful responses” (p.1). In their study, only 31 percent of the time uptake happened after recasts, repetition, and clarification requests, while elicitation by definition always resulted in uptake. But Ellis et al. (2002) have recorded 75% uptake for the learners who had already received an hour of instruction on special grammatical features.

Regarding the uptake after feedback strategies, especially recasts, Mackey and Philp (1998), have found, in L2 acquisition context, the higher the level of proficiency, the more uptake of feedback occurs.

Regarding the general effectiveness of feedback on form, there is a study conducted by Carroll and Swain (1993, cited in Nicholas et al., 2001) in which they set an experiment with four groups receiving four feedback conditions on verb patterns in sentences. Group A received explicit metalinguistic information, group B were explicitly told that an utterance was wrong, group C received recasts, and group D were asked by the teacher if they were sure what they said was correct without correction. Then, in a recall session, all the groups performed better than no treatment group. Moreover, group A were significantly better than group B and group D, but not that much better than group C.

Also, in a study by Mackey and Oliver (2002), the effect of interactional feedback, implicit correction of errors, on children and adults' second language acquisition has been examined. The findings of this study show that both adults and children improve significantly regarding question formation in comparison with the control groups that received no systematic feedback. Moreover, children improve much faster than adults after interactional feedback.



In another study (Mackey et al., 2000), the perception of interactional feedback, in the form of recasts and negotiation of meaning, has been investigated by videotaping the interactional feedback of teachers to learners, and later the learners were asked to introspect about their thoughts at the time the original interactions were in progress. In conclusion, it has been shown that the learners have not been equally accurate in different aspects of language, that is, morphosyntax, phonology, and lexis. Actually, the morphosyntactic feedback which has been in the form of recast has seldom been perceived as what they have been supposed to be. On the other hand, feedback on lexis and phonology which has been in the form of negotiation, and combination of other strategies has been perceived much more accurately by learners. It is worth mentioning that these findings have already been reached in another study by Pica (1994).

In sum, Nicholas et al. (2001) state that the effectiveness of corrective feedback, especially recasts, is dependent on “the overall developmental level of proficiency or interlanguage variety of the learner” (p. 752). Moreover, Research has shown that recasts are effective in general if the learners have already started to use a particular feature, and their effectiveness is dependent on the area of language and the linguistic feature.

In another place, in a comprehensive study on oral corrective feedback to learners and their peers, Havranek and Cesnik (2001) have found that the success of feedback is affected by its format, the type of error corrected, and certain learner characteristics. The most successful format of correction is through successfully eliciting self-correction in practice situations, while recasts without further comments or repetition are the least successful formats. Moreover, those learners learn most from the correction of their grammatical errors, and least from correction of pronunciation errors. Also, some learner characteristics have proved to be influential in the usefulness of corrective feedback, namely verbal intelligence, relative proficiency (within levels at school or university), and learners' attitude towards correction.

Delving into the nature of these implicit strategies, one can realize implicit strategies of focus on form have an unobtrusive nature which contributes a lot to removing the interruptions of flow of communication by the teacher at the time of feedback, the point which is considered in the Output Hypothesis of Swain (Han, 2002a).

As for other studies regarding the dichotomy of implicit and explicit focus on form, this question may come to mind, which is better and produces more beneficial effects. Two studies in this regard (DeKeyser, 1995;

Robinson, 1995a, 1996b, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998) demonstrate that explicit focus on form instruction leads to significantly more gains than does implicit learning.

In another study by Ellis (1993, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998), the impact of explicit feedback has been examined. In this study, three groups of learners received explicit training on Welsh morphology in three different forms: a group receiving only random instances of the language, the other receiving only rule training, and the last receiving a mixture of rules and instances. The mixed training group outperformed the other two groups in a well-formedness test.

In another study (DeKeyser, 1995, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998), it has been tried to examine the beneficial effect of impact of implicit and explicit learning on the acquisition of prototypical rules and categorical rules. By prototypical rules, it is meant those rules which are probabilistic and impossible to reduce to economical rule statements. At the end of this study, explicit learning turned out to be more effective than implicit learning in learning categorical rules. The impact group received treatment in the form of sentences as the description of some pictures without rule instruction, while the explicit group received rule instruction before the start of three sessions out of twenty sessions. In a similar study by Robinson (1995a,

1996b, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998), the same results are reported with the additional result that more accurate performance was observed in the case of hard rules.

Now, some further studies that have shed light upon the effect of focus on form and meaning in language teaching are summarized as follows.

In a study done by Doughty (1988, 1991, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998), the effect of focus on meaning, rule-based instruction, as well as just exposure regarding relativization has been examined. In this study, the meaning-oriented group received lexical and semantic rephrasing of relative clauses in reading comprehension tasks, while the rule-oriented group received rule statement, and finally, the control group just received exposure to relative clauses in the texts. In the posttest of relativization knowledge, the rule oriented and meaning oriented groups both outperformed the control group. Moreover, the meaning oriented group did better than the other two groups on transfer comprehension tests.

In another study done by Alanen (1992, 1995, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998), two aspects of a semiartificial language were assigned to four groups with different conditions of treatment. The control group read an unmodified text, while the other group read a text in which the aspects of the language in focus were italicized to promote noticing. The third group

received instruction for reading an unenhanced text, and finally, the last group received both instruction and read an enhanced text. In the posttest, the rule-based groups outperformed the others, while in production tasks, the rule-based and rule-enhancement-based groups outperformed the enhancement-based and control groups. Moreover, no significant difference could be seen between the two meaning-based and focus-on-form groups. In the production task, rule-based group was more accurate than the control and enhancement groups. Finally, the rule-enhancement-based group outperformed only the control group. The last finding in this regard was that the enhancement group had more variety, although incorrect forms, in their production in comparison with the purely meaning-oriented group. The suggested justification for this latter finding is that enhancement led to more awareness in learners which could even lead to more accuracy in the long run. It is clear that some findings in this study are in parallel with Doughty's findings (1988, 1991, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998).

In another study by Hulstijn (1989, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998), global results similar to the ones found by Doughty (1988, 1991, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998) and Alanen (1992, 1995, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998), have been achieved regarding sentences containing subordinate clause and a passive modal auxiliary. In this study, "the

treatment of the forms group was a series of sentence fragment-ordering (anagram) tasks in which subjects had to match eight sentence fragments with the order illustrated by a sentence appearing on a computer screen” (p.35). In contrast, the meaning group were to agree or disagree with the idea of some sentences appearing on the screen. In the posttest, the learners were to recall all the target sentences presented in their training, and copy sentences appearing on the screen for a short time. Later, a second meaning-oriented group with less time of exposure, and a forms and meaning-oriented group were added to the study. The results showed a better structure-recalling for both forms and forms-meaning groups, while the latter performing the best. This study clearly showed that complex syntactic structures were learned better in the case of attending to both meaning and form.

Lightbown and Spada (1990, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998) have also examined the effect of different amounts of focus on form. In this study, four intact classes of French learners of English were studied through Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation scheme. As a result, they have found that focus on form is always reactions to learners’ errors, or their requests for assistance regarding language use and rarely involves explicit grammar teaching. Lightbown and Spada have

later checked the accuracy of the learners who had received corrective feedback. Those who had received corrective feedback 20% of the time in one class performed more accurately on picture description task in comparison with other classes of learners who had received corrective feedback 10% and 13% of the time. Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that those learners whose teachers had focused on a particular grammatical point, performed better on those grammatical points which were progressive *-ing* and possessive determiners *his* and *her*. Lightbown and Spada further found evidence for long-term effects of instruction and corrective feedback on question formation with similar subjects through a follow-up test, 5 weeks later.

White (1991, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998) has also conducted a study with two intact classes receiving formal instruction in question formation, plus corrective feedback in two weeks, compared with three other uninstructed groups. Immediately after the treatment, the instructed classes showed much more accuracy in a sentence correction activity in comparison with other three groups. These gains in accuracy remained even after five weeks in a follow up test consisting of a written and oral task.

As regards long-term effects of focus on form, there are also some conflicting findings from three studies of the impact of functional-analytical

teaching on the L2 acquisition of French in immersion programs of Canada. With intact groups, Harley (1989, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998) has found posttest gains for instructed learners whose instruction has been in the form of materials that highlighted functional distinctions between the *imparfait* and the *passé compos*. But these gains have not been maintained on a delayed posttest three months later.

In contrast, Day and Shapson (1991, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998) have found that their learners kept their accuracy gains in written composition and cloze test both immediately after the treatment, and eleven weeks later.

In another study, Leeman, Arteagoitia, Fridman, and Doughty (1995, cited in Long & Robinson, 1998) have studied the effect of focus on form on the learning of *preterit* and imperfect tenses in Spanish in a content-based instruction class. In this study, one group received purely communicative treatment, while the other received an integrated focus on form. In the first period of instruction which lasted for 50 minutes, both groups read the same text but the text for the treatment group enjoyed input enhancement in the form of underlining, highlighting, and color-coding the real target forms, as well as drawing learners' attention to the expression temporal relations in the materials. Moreover, the two groups attended a discussion on the base of the



text they read. The treatment group also received corrective feedback ranging from recasts to gestures during the discussion. There was also a second discussion class in this regard with the same treatment and control. In a posttest on three measures of cloze completion task, a written essay, and an analysis of production during two in-class debates, the only significance in gains for accuracy was found during the debates for the treatment group.

Doughty and Varela (1998) have conducted a study in an ESL class in a content-based program. The subjects of this study were learners of different nationalities within an age range of 11 to 14. The subjects formed two intact classes who reported on their science experiments, while they had had no formal instruction, especially in the use of past tense, necessary for the reports. These subjects provided six experiments reports among which the first, the fifth and the sixth reports were chosen as the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest respectively. The treatment group (N=21) in this study received science-content instruction and focus on form through corrective recast on past tense and conditional past during the three report sessions between the first and fifth reports, while the control group (N=13) received only science-content instruction by a teacher similar to the teacher of the treatment group in style of teaching. Corrective recast in this study was provided by the teacher, while the learners were reporting orally on the

experiments in group work. Moreover, when the learners answered the questions regarding the experiments, they were provided with corrective recast as they made an error, after which class repetition of the structure was requested. There were also some individual presentations of the experiments in front of the class, which were videotaped, and were watched later, accompanied by class repetition of the erroneous past structure. In addition, the teacher circled the erroneous past tense uses in the written reports of the learners in the treatment group. Finally, the transcribed oral reports and written reports of the learners were used as the corpus for analysis. After the analysis, it turned out that the non-target uses of past tense decreased significantly in the treatment group, while the gains of the control group were not significant. Moreover, an overall increase could be seen in the number of attempts to express past tense by the treatment group. The interesting point is that in the beginning of this study, the two groups' subjects were not homogeneous, and a significant advantage on the side of the control group was evident over the treatment group in oral measures. But the posttest showed the subjects in the treatment group had not only caught up with the control group but also they had outrun the control group. As for other gains of this study regarding the feasibility of focus on form, the researcher has observed that in subsequent classes even the learners could

recast each other's erroneous productions. Moreover, by analyzing the teachers' journals, it has been found that focus on form should be brief, and focus on form should be provided when more than one learner is involved in the speaking, like the one in group work in comparison with individual presentation in front of the class. Moreover, learners' reactions to corrections have shown that learners do not like receiving more than one or two corrections at the same time, while the focus of the teacher on both meaning and form is important for them. In sum, the implementation of focus on form is highly recommended rather than letting learners acquire the forms on their own with no focus on form.

Williams and Evans (1998) have investigated the amenability of participial adjectives of emotive verbs (e.g., boring and bored) and passive to focus on form. The reason for choosing these two forms in this study was according to the suggestion of Harley (1993, cited in Williams & Evans, 1998) who put forward that the best effects could be achieved through focus on form for the forms that:

1. Differ in nonobvious ways from the learners' first language, for example, adverb placement for L2 French and English.

2. Are not salient because they are irregular or infrequent in the input, for example, conditionals in L2 French.
3. Are not important for successful communication, for example, third person singular –s in L2 English.
4. Are likely to be misinterpreted or misanalyzed by learners, for example, dative alternation in L2 English. (p. 140)

In this study, two experimental groups, one (F) with a flood of positive evidence in their input without any rule instruction and corrective feedback, and the other experimental group (I) with the same flooded input as the other experimental group with feedback and explicit instruction, while the control group (C) received the same material with no artificial increase in the number of forms in focus and explicit instruction, as well as corrective feedback. These special instructions of these groups were integrated into the content and skills of the regular course of these classes with learners of different nationalities in intermediate ESL writing classes at the University of Illinois at Chicago.

The performance of these subjects was investigated through four different tasks in pretest and posttest, which led to the results as follows. The analysis of the data showed that considering the fact that the groups were

homogeneous at the outset regarding their ability to use these two structures, parametric tests (one-way ANOVA) were used. The analysis finally showed that group I demonstrated greater increase than groups C and F in accurate use of participial adjectives, while group F did not show this in comparison with group C; although some insignificant increase was gained.

Regarding passives, groups I and group F also showed increases in comparison with group C; although, it was partial. Finally, in this study, through deeper analysis, it was found that “the individuals, who made the greatest gains with either type of focus on form, especially with the instruction, were those who already had partial mastery of the form, that is, those who had at least moderate scores on the pretest” (p. 151). Moreover, it turned out that explicit and negative feedback on passive resulted in less favorable effects in comparison with participial adjectives, while in another study (Zhou, 1992, cited in Williams & Evans, 1998) support was found for the positive effect of explicit instruction on the use of the passive structure.

Harley (1998) has examined the effect of instructional focus on form on L2 proficiency of learners as young as seven or eight years of age in an early total French immersion program. In this study, the learners were exposed to activities to draw their attention to formal clues, not semantic, to the gender of French nouns, which had been found in a number of studies to

be problematic for immersion learners (Harley, 1979; Spilka, 1976; Stevens, 1984; Taylore-Browne, 1984, cited in Harley, 1998). This study took place in six French immersion classes, where the learners of the treatment group were provided with activities which demanded close attention to gender distinctions for five weeks, twenty minutes daily, while the control group received no systematic instruction in this regard. Later, the effect of the treatment was examined through an aural discrimination task, a group test presented on audiotape along with pictorial answer sheets, as well as two individual production tasks the ratings of which were done by different raters who later showed acceptable agreements in their ratings. In posttests, significant gains were gained in three of the tests to the treatment group in contrast to the control group, which led to the conclusion that “attention to form as an integral part of the task demands appears to be a promising approach” (p. 171).

In this section, an exhaustive account of some studies on focus on form was presented. In the following part, some key issues in this regard, e.g., focus on what form, proactive versus reactive focus on form, choice of linguistic form, etc. are dealt with.

## *Some Key Issues in Focus on Form*

### *A. Focus on What Form*

To discuss the question of “Focus on what form?,” DeKeyser (1998) takes a cognitive stance by putting forward two widely accepted reasonings as follows. The first reasoning holds that “if a structure is part of Universal Grammar (UG), and UG is accessible to the second language learner, then all that is needed is sufficient input to trigger acquisition, unless L2 is a subset of L1. In the latter case, negative evidence is required” (p. 43). In this regard, Doughty and Williams (1998) explain that “in this sense, forms need not be taught because they do not have to be learned; they simply emerge as appropriate data interact with UG, in a process similar to the one of grammar development in children learning their first language” (p. 201).

On the nature of this triggering evidence, Doughty and Williams (1998) further inquire whether positive evidence (information about the possibilities in the target language) is the driving force (Carroll, 1996; & Schwartz, 1993, cited in Doughty & Williams, 1998), or whether negative evidence (information about the impossibilities in the target language) may help in this regard (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Oliver, 1995; Trahey & White, 1993; White, 1987, 1991, cited in Doughty & Williams, 1998). Further, Schwartz adds that negative evidence has little impact on forms within UG,

while positive evidence helps greatly in this regard. As a result, Doughty and Williams conclude that this means explicit instruction and corrective feedback should be abandoned for these forms. It is further added that if the structure does not relate to aforementioned condition, then rule teaching and error correction will be needed, which is in line with what Mackey and Philp (1998) mentioned; negative evidence is helpful if the L2 structure is a subset of L1.

Of course, DeKeyser mentions that this stance has some controversial points. In this regard, one should find out “what exactly is part of UG, how accessible it is in SLA, and consequently, what structures cannot be learned without negative evidence” (p. 43).

The next cognitive issue related the matter of “focus on what form” is the variable of complexity. Considering the distinction between learning and acquisition proposed by Krashen (1981a, cited in Brown, 2000), Krashen (1982, cited in DeKeyser, 1998) regards the rules that are easy to learn but hard to acquire, as the prime candidates for (FonF) teaching, with which DeKeyser finds fault and inquires what makes a rule easy to learn but hard to acquire. Of course, in this regard, Krashen introduces functionally and formally complex rules, the lack of the latter benefiting the learnability; however, DeKeyser argues that “it is hard to see how a rule could be



formally simple if it is functionally complex, except in the very superficial sense that a rule can be regarded as formally simple if it involves nothing but presence versus absence of a single morpheme” (p. 44). DeKeyser further adds that complexity is also hard to define and not many researchers agree on some rules to be simple or complex.

Another cognitive concept is reliability of a rule which makes that rule a good candidate for focus on form. Reliability deals with the “the extent to which the rule holds true in all the cases to which it applies; scope of the rule, that is, the number of cases to which it applies” (DeKeyser, 1998, p. 45).

### ***B. Reactive Vs. Proactive Focus on Form***

Long and Robinson (1998) state that reactive focus on form involves a responsive teaching intervention that involves occasional shifts in reaction to saliently errors using devices to increase perceptual salience. On the other hand, the proactive research involves making “an informed prediction or carrying out some observations to determine the learning problem in focus” (Doughty & Williams, 1998, p. 208).

Long and Robinson believe that by taking this stance, there is no need to restrict focus on form to classroom learners’ errors which are pervasive ,

systematic, and remediable for learners at that particular stage of development, which is a burdensome selection process. However, Doughty and Williams comment that this reactive stance is not practical when the learners are of “different L1s, of different abilities, or of such high ability that errors go unnoticed by the teacher or other learners, since the message is successfully delivered” (p.206). They further add that reactive stance may be most appropriate with same-L1-background learners, and with experienced-enough teachers to have some idea of what to expect, taking into account that an on-line capacity for teachers to intervene and deal with all errors places too much demand on the teachers.

Regarding the difficulties in proactive focus on form, first, three concepts related to task are introduced by Loschky and Bley-Vromen (1993, cited in Doughty & Williams, 1998). The first is task naturalness in which a grammatical structure may appear naturally during a task which could be still carried out perfectly even without that structure. The next is task utility in which the task could be carried out with that particular structure more easily. The last is task essentialness which refers to the time when the task could not be carried out at all without that particular structure. Regarding what is said up to here, for focus on form especially a proactive approach, the need is clearly felt that such a condition, i.e., task essentialness, should

be met taking into account the communicative goals which is very hard to achieve. Of course, Swain (1998) puts forward dictogloss which could meet the condition of task essentialness to a great extent. In dictogloss for focus on form purpose, a text containing the aimed structure is read to learners at normal speed, while the learners need to take notes and then reconstruct the text together.

### *C. Linguistic Form Choice*

By referring to the widely accepted theory that not all grammatical structures are acquired in the same way, by Larsen-Freeman (1995, cited in Doughty & Williams, 1998) Doughty and Williams conclude that instruction including focus on form should not be applied to all forms in the same way. Taking this into account, how forms differ with respect to the effectiveness of focus on form should be examined carefully so that teachers make informed choices among forms. In this regard, one approach to choose some aspects of language for form-focused instruction is error analysis which is the base for most proactive models (Ellis, 1993, cited in Doughty & Williams, 1998), and is of high face validity and easily accessible for teachers through action research (Nunan, 1992, cited in Doughty and Williams, 1998).

In this regard, Doughty and Williams comment that this approach could be most useful if “more is known about why specific learners commit these particular errors at a given time in their language development” (p.213). This condition could be met through research which is also of its own limitations since most of the research in this regard has provided contradictory results like the ones conducted in terms of the order of acquisition of different forms (e.g., Pienemann & Johnson, 1986; Spada & Lightbown, 1993; Zola, 1983; Doughty, 1991; Pavesi, 1986, cited in Doughty & Williams, 1998).

Regarding these research studies, Doughty and Williams summarize a number of possible explanations for the ease and order of acquisition of different forms which fall within the following categories:

1. Saliency in the input: If learners notice certain forms or constructions, for whatever reason, for example, frequency or unusualness, they are more likely to acquire them than they are to acquire forms they have not noticed in a way.
2. Communicative function or meaningfulness in the input: Even if learners notice a form, or it is pointed out through instruction,

without a communicative need, or if language forms fulfill no (unique) function, acquisition may be delayed.

3. Inherent difficulty of rules: Learners tend to acquire “easier” rules early and indeed may never acquire “hard” rules. The definition of *easy* has variously included functional and formal complexity, reliability, scope, and prototypicality. (p.219)

Finally, as mentioned before, Harley (1993, cited in Williams & Evans, 1998) puts forward that the best effects could be achieved through focus on form for the forms that:

1. Differ in nonobvious ways from the learners’ first language, for example, adverb placement for L2 French and English.
2. Are not salient because they are irregular or infrequent in the input, for example, conditionals in L2 French.
3. Are not important for successful communication, for example, third person singular –s in L2 English.
4. Are likely to be misinterpreted or misanalyzed by learners, for example, dative alternation in L2 English. (Williams & Evans, 1998, p. 140)

### ***D. Integration of Form and Meaning in Second Language Instruction***

Considering the fact that focus on form includes forms, meanings, and functions, Doughty and Williams (1998) provide three models for the integrations of these three elements as follows:

#### Model 1

- . Brief, explicit instruction of formal knowledge
- . FonF activities with signals and brief interventions

#### Model 2

- . Explicit instruction of formal knowledge
- . Time for the learner to grasp the declarative knowledge
- . Extensive practice of the forms in controlled behaviors, using declarative knowledge as a crutch (leading to proceduralization)
- . Extensive practice of the procedures in communicative activities (leading to autoimmunization)

#### Model 3

- . Attention to form and meaning integrated at all times, with or without explicit instruction. (p. 250)

It is further added that all these three models have their own plausibilities for different contexts. For “addressing some aspect of language in the context of *meaningful communication*” (p.250), the first and the third model seem appropriate. The difference between the second and the other two models lies in the fact that in the second model, communicative use and explicit rule instruction are separated, which is advocated by DeKeyser (1998). Regarding the isolated focus on linguistic form, Doughty and Williams strongly recommend that the activities should be followed by an activity to make the function of the formal feature evident to the learner in order to be considered as focus on form.

#### ***E. When and How to Correct***

As to when to use the strategies of focus on form, first it should be reminded that malformed utterances by learners fall in two classical categories of errors and mistakes. It is believed that errors should be treated by explicit correction, while mistakes should be subject to implicit strategies.

In this regard, Hendrickson (1980, cited in Brown 2001) introduces the matter of local and global errors. He explains that local errors need not be corrected since the message is clear and the correction by teacher may

interrupt the flow of communication. On the other hand, global errors should be treated in some way since the understanding of the message is under question; that is, the message is incomprehensible.

Hendrickson (1980, cited in Brown, 2001) further mentions that sometimes it would be difficult for teachers to find out whether the error is local or global. As for error correction, now the question is that how global errors should be corrected. Regarding this issue, it is believed the most effective method of error correction has not been concluded yet in research. Some like Krashen and Terrell (1983, cited in Brown, 2000) assert that there should be no direct treatment of errors, and the justification for that is what happens in real life situation. In contrast, learners have always wanted direct correction on the side of the teacher. Here, Brown suggests that regarding these two extreme views, a balanced view should be taken in terms of error correction. In order to establish such a balance, Bailey (1985, cited in Brown 2001, p. 238) suggests seven error treatment options, while each option could possibly have eight features. These options and features are as follows:

1. To treat or to ignore
2. To treat immediately or to delay



3. To transfer treatment or not
4. To transfer to another individual, a subgroup or the whole class
5. To return or not to the original error maker after treatment
6. To permit other learners to initiate correction
7. To test for the efficacy of the treatment

Possible features:

1. Fact of error indicated
2. Location indicated
3. Opportunity for new attempt given
4. Model provided
5. Error type indicated
6. Remedy indicated
7. Improvement indicated
8. Praise indicated

Regarding these options, Brown asserts that teachers need to develop a kind of intuition to choose the best option or combination of options at the right moment within just some nanoseconds. This intuition could be formed through experience, as well as considering the principles of optimal affective

and cognitive feedback in Reinforcement Theory and Communicative Language Teaching (Brown, 2000).

In addition, teachers should take some other stages in order to take the options mentioned before the time a learner makes a malformed language. That is to say, teachers first recognize the type of error, that is, whether the error is lexical, phonological, and so forth. Next, teachers should make an intelligent guess about the source of that error; in other words, the source of error might be the first language, teacher induced, or mechanical problems with media print, and so on. If the teacher wants to explain the error, recognition of linguistic complexity also plays an important role. After this stage, teachers should differentiate between global and local error, as well as mistake and error.

Also, considering the affective state and linguistic stage of the learner is worthy of consideration (Harmer, 2001). Regarding the affective state of the learners, Gregerson (2003) warns that some learners find correction distracting, demotivating and stress-generating, as well as the fact that learners are also inhibited by some error corrections.

The other matter to take into account is the pedagogical focus which includes the task, lesson, or course objectives. Communicative context, that is, group work pair work or student-student, student-teacher exchange, as

well as the teacher's style in correction should also be taken into consideration. By teacher style, it is meant whether the teacher is an interventionist, direct or indirect corrector. Brown further adds that these stages and options might seem a bit daunting but teachers could get automatic in their adoption after a while, and get the intuition easily. If this intuition is achieved, then the teacher can get to know about the most correction-sensitive learners and act accordingly as a result (Gregerson, 2003).

Continuing the matter of correction and feedback, here the question that might rise is whether correction should be only done by teachers or there is also another source of correction. In this regard, peer correction is introduced by many scholars, such as Brown (2001), Harmer (2000), Hadley (2003), and Murphy (1986). Among these scholars, Murphy strongly recommends peer feedback and urges teachers to transfer the responsibility of correction and feedback to learners. But, in order to do so, according to his personal experience, he suggests that first the function of feedback should be explained to learners. Moreover, some discourse and communication-related matters, such as turn taking, and the appropriate gambits to correct should also be taught to learners.

In this regard, Hadley (2003) suggests that teachers can give a kind of checklist including grammatical features, discourse features, vocabulary, and pronunciation matters so that the learners get to know what to look for in the speech of their peers.

As for the empirical studies regarding peer correction, one study has been held by Morris (2002), in which the effect of explicit correction, recasts, and negotiation moves including clarification requests, confirmation checks, and repetition by peers on the learner repair, as well as the relation of these strategies with special errors have been checked. By tape recording the conversation between these learners, the researcher has found that 70% of the errors by peers have received corrective feedback but the rate at which lexical errors have been corrected has been higher than that of syntactic errors; therefore, the tolerance of these learners has been low for lexical errors.

Moreover, in this study, syntactic errors mostly invited recasts, whereas lexical errors received negotiation moves. In the idea of the researcher, these learners negotiated lexical errors because recasting might have confused their peers into believing that an alternative yet equally correct form was provided. In addition, they recast syntactic errors because grammar is too complex to ask peers to produce the correct form on their

own. With regard to immediate learner repair, the overall repair was low (20% of the time) but it was evident that lexical errors were more often repaired than syntactic errors. The researcher also mentions that these findings could be generalized to teachers too because learners have been always under the effect of correction by their teachers, and their pattern for correction is mostly the teachers.

#### ***F. Feedback during Oral Work***

Following reference to the strategies of focus on form, as some tools with regard to the related empirical studies, it is good to know how to use these tools during oral activities.

Harmer (2001) states that all oral production should not be dealt with in the same manner. That is to say, the reaction toward the oral production of learners is heavily contingent on the phase of the lesson, the kind of activity, the type of mistake made, and learners with all their personality and knowledge factors.

Before going through feedback and focus on form during accuracy-based and fluency-based activities, a distinction should be made between accuracy and fluency in speaking.

Regarding fluency, Richards et al. (1992, p.141), mention that,

In second and foreign language teaching, fluency describes a level of proficiency in communication, which includes:

- a. the ability to produce written and/or spoken language with ease
- b. the ability to speak with a good but not necessarily perfect command of intonation , vocabulary, and grammar
- c. the ability to communicate ideas effectively
- d. the ability to produce continuous speech without causing comprehension difficulties or a breakdown of communication.

Richards et al. (1992) further add that fluency is mostly used in contrast with accuracy which is “the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences but may not include the ability to speak or write fluently” (1992).

Harmer (2001) adds that non-communicative activities are intended to improve the accuracy of learners. On the other hand, communicative activities are to enhance the fluency of learners. The common idea is that during accuracy work, the teacher is supposed to point out and correct the mistakes made by learners. In addition, during communicative activities teachers should not interrupt the flow of the speech of learners to shed light on the grammatical, lexical, or pronunciation mistakes, for the reason that

this act interrupts communication, and it shifts the objective to focus on form and precise meaning.

It might be argued that, this lack of focus on form should be banned, but the value of communicative activities lies in the fact that by doing such activities the learners make several attempts to communicate and make themselves understood. Additionally, this way of processing language to communicate is the best way to process language for acquisition. Here, the intervention of the teacher raises the stress of learners and afflicts acquisition.

In this regard, the other point is that during communicative activities learners negotiate meaning to try different modes of expression, which is very valuable in language acquisition, and here if the teacher wants to step in to help, the learners will be deprived of this learning opportunity. Continuing this discussion, Lynch (1997, cited in Harmer, 2001) states that the intervention by the teacher to correct should be as late as possible; however, Harmer argues that there are even times when the teacher should intervene to correct or suggest alternatives because the teacher might feel that learners' communication is going to fail, or that moment is the exact moment to point out a problem according to his/her experience. Despite these points, intensive correction should be avoided because even in accuracy work it is

annoying for the learners, and as Walz (1982, cited in Gregerson, 2003) states, it can devastate the self-esteem of an anxious learner.

As mentioned before, correction depends on how it is done, who it is done to, and when it is done. In addition, correction is a very personal matter that draws much on the rapport between teachers and learners; that is to say, correction must not be offending and demotivating at all. Kyriacou (1991) introduces supportive feedback in this regard, which refers to constructive and helpful feedback, which should be provided to support and encourage progress. Such feedback shows the learners not only their problems with language but also the fact that their progress is of utmost importance to teachers. This supportive feedback is actually a non-threatening feedback which is constant, and the teacher makes a balance among individuals, groups, and peer feedback.

### ***G. Feedback during Accuracy Work***

Regarding the need to develop accurate production on the side of learners and pushing them towards this objective, Harmer (2001) asserts that, in general, correction during accuracy work consists of two stages. In the first stage, somehow the teacher just shows that there is something wrong with what the learner just declared, and in the next stage, if necessary,



the learner is made to do some thing about his/her statement. Regarding the first stage, Harmer emphasizes that teachers should enjoy the techniques to show incorrectness, that is to say, the implicit techniques of corrective feedback which were made plain in the previous parts of this review. So, to put it short, Harmer is referring to the implicit strategies of focus on form as the techniques which are used in the first stage of correction by the teacher. In addition, Harmer also refers to this fact that implicit strategies should be used against only slips, and not errors.

Regarding the implicit techniques of correction, Harmer refers to *hinting* in addition to the same afore-mentioned techniques. By *hinting*, Harmer means that whenever the learner makes a mistake, for instance, about the tense of the verb, the teachers can very quietly give him the hint by just whispering *tense*.

And now, let's go to the next stage, that is, correction. Teachers should resort to this stage when the learner is unable to correct himself/herself. Here the teacher is to repeat the statement correctly, and if necessary he should explain the grammar, lexical ... rule. Another measure to take could be peer correction, of course in a cooperative atmosphere in the class, bearing in mind that the learner who is corrected should not feel

belittled. At this point, it could be concluded that both implicit and explicit correction should be integrated at the proper time.

### ***H. Feedback during Fluency Work***

Harmer (2001) states that if the teachers want their learners to have a good performance in their fluency activities and speaking, the feedback in terms of their efficiency in fluency activities should be given with paramount care. Here, the point is that the degree of tolerance of errors is much more in fluency activities in comparison with accuracy activities in which a kind of form-focused instruction was very much considered.

However, as Harmer argues that even during fluency activities the teacher, according to his/her intuition and experience, may feel that he/she should intervene. In addition, if the communication breaks down completely, probably because of the fact that the learners do not know what to say and how to say it, the teacher can prompt learners forward, and if necessary the teacher can point out a language feature.

This intervention could be in the form of quick reformulation by the teacher who tries to be as less disruptive as possible (i.e., recast). This kind of intervention is called gentle correction by Harmer. Harmer also warns that this gentle correction should not be overused.

The other way of giving feedback during fluency work could be done by recording the mistakes and giving the feedback later after the activity. This recording could be by writing down the mistakes in a chart, or by video/audio taping. If recording the mistakes in a chart is to be done by the teacher, the teacher should focus on different aspects of the learners' production like grammar, pronunciation, etc., but the teacher can give the responsibility of recording just one type of mistakes to some groups of learners along with his/her own supervision. The merit of recording the production of learners is that some parts of it could be transcribed for future study in the class with the cooperation of learners.

In sum, it is again noticed that in both fluency and accuracy work, both kinds of strategies of focus on form should be integrated but with different levels of emphasis at special times and sequences. Moreover, it seems that attention to form is not ignored at all in order to stop fossilization, but it is emphasized that this attention should be acted upon by taking into account all the points related to the phase of the lesson, and the affective states of learners.

## *Accuracy and Fluency*

### *A. Definitions of Accuracy/Fluency*

Johnson (2001) considers accuracy associated with initially syntactic and subsequently phonetic correctness. Besides, semantic and lexical accuracy should also be taken into account, he adds.

In this regard, Brown (2001) also mentions that accuracy means being “clear, articulate, grammatically and phonologically correct” (p.268), while fluency connotes being “flowing and natural” (p.268).

Nunan (1999) has another definition in which he mentions that “fluency is the ability of an individual to speak or write without undue hesitation” (p.307).

Buck, Byrnes, and Thompson (1989, cited in Hadley, 2003) refer to accuracy as “the acceptability, quality and precision of the message conveyed” (p. 17).

As to fluency, Hedge (1993, cited in Celce-Murcia, 2001) states that fluency is “the ability to link units of speech together with facility, and without any strain, inappropriate slowness, or undue hesitation” (p.104).

Celce-Murcia (2001) regards this definition as what is commonly understood as fluency in language teaching materials, and language assessment procedures.

In addition, another holistic sense of fluency is referred to by Hedge (1993, cited in Celce-Murcia, 2001) pointing to natural language use which is likely to take place when speaking activities focus on meaning, and its negotiation when speaking strategies are used, and when overt correction is minimized. Celce-Murcia further adds that this definition is certainly consistent with the aims of many ESL classrooms where negotiation of meaning is a major goal.

Regarding this focus on meaning, Brown (2001) declares that in the mid 1970s, an idea had become prevalent that class activities should be full of meaningful activities without focus on grammar justified by the process of child language acquisition. As a result, fluency was allocated a special place in language teaching. Consequently, this innovation led to learners without comprehensible output. That was the price learners paid for ignoring accuracy, and too much emphasis on fluency

### ***B. How to Improve Accuracy/Fluency***

The common idea is that practice makes perfect. But for sure in language teaching any practice cannot prove to be helpful. There have been some studies in the literature focusing on some special kinds of practice (i.e., tasks, techniques, and strategies) that have turned out to be useful in

improving fluency and accuracy, some of which, to name a few, are referred to here.

Bygate (2001) mentions some studies in which task repetition was carried out and the effect of that was examined on the accuracy and fluency of the learners. These studies theorize that since in the first task the learners are introduced to the concept of the task, the second time learners are at least familiar with the matter, and their fluency increases drastically. In addition, learners also practice the linguistic aspect of tasks, and the second time they naturally have a better performance in terms of linguistic aspect, and therefore they are more accurate.

Yuan and Ellis (2003) introduce two concepts in carrying out a speaking task fluently and accurately, called on-line and pre-task planning (OLP and PTP, respectively), the effect of which has been examined in a study. Before having a look at their effect, let's define each.

In on-line planning, the speaker has the chance to plan and replan both the conceptual content and formulation of the message. On the other hand, pre-task planning refers to the time when the speaker only makes an outline of the conceptual content of what he is going to talk about. In their study, Yuan and Ellis have found out that those learners with PTP obtained higher scores of fluency; however, OLP learners had better achievement in

accuracy. The justification for this result is supposed to be obtained through Information Processing Theory in which it is believed that attentional capacity is limited, and learners can focus their attention only on one aspect of a demanding task. That is to say, pre-task planning predisposes learners to attend to propositional content and its organization which results in enhanced fluency. In contrast, on-line planning lets learners use their grammatical knowledge more, and as a result they have more accuracy.

This idea of pre-task planning is also approved by Scott (2000). Regarding improving accuracy, Scott also refers to the matters of teacher and peer feedback as very much effective. In terms of peer correction, he mentions that learners can record, transcribe, and analyze each others' speech, and reflect upon how it could be improved through discussion and negotiation. Scott further states that this kind of task can also improve fluency.

Storch (1999) also points to the same matter as metatalk. Metatalk is defined as verbal reflection on language choices in groups, which Storch considers effective in accuracy, and to some extent in fluency.

Renou (2000) has also referred to this matter as grammatically judgment tasks which increase metalinguistic awareness, and they change the implicit knowledge to explicit. His view is supported by Ellis (1990,

cited in Renou, 2000). He further asserts that this can result in learners noticing the gap between their output and the correct input to which they are exposed. This noticing of theirs is beneficial to accuracy and proficiency.

Concerning the ideas about improving fluency, Brown (2001) states that “fluency is possibly best achieved by allowing the stream of speech to flow” (p. 269). In other words, the focus of our teaching should be message oriented, or it should emphasize the use of language rather than “language oriented” (p. 269), or emphasizing usage.

In addition, Brown (2001) asserts that rate of delivery is one of the characteristics of fluency which should be taken into account in teaching in the class. In other words, teachers should help learners achieve an acceptable rate of delivery of speech along with other attributes of fluency.

Bowen, Madsen, and Hilferty (1985) also believe that teachers should help learners to achieve a smooth flow of speech in terms of pronunciation, and they should allocate a special role to the feedback of the teacher in this regard.

Continuing the issue of improving fluency, Paulston and Bruder (1976) firstly make a distinction between mechanical and communicative drills. They suppose learners in mechanical drills always know what answer to expect. On the other hand, in communicative drills speaker “adds new



information about the real world” (p. 9). Examples for this could be role playing in different contexts, as well as soliciting opinions rather than factual answers from reading passages which develop fluency in real life contexts as a result.

Bygate (2001) introduces integration of fluency and accuracy, as well as some activities in this direction. In this regard, he necessitates the use of different sequences of activity types, and he cites Johnson (1988) that

One sequence would start with accuracy activities, and moving toward fluency activities in which learners have the freedom to improvise their own expressions by putting students under increased time pressure to formulate, and attempting to force them to automatise. An alternative would be to engage learners’ fluent processing to begin with and only subsequently lead them to integrate accurate language features into that fluent base. (p.19)

To improve fluency, Hunt and Beglar (1998) also introduce fluency building activities as one of the means to achieve fluency. These activities “recycle already known words in familiar grammatical and organizational patterns so that learners can focus on recognizing or using words without hesitation” (p.261). They believe that if such activities are timed and paced,

they contribute a lot more to developing fluency.

### *C. How to Measure Accuracy*

Buck, Byrnes, and Thompson (1989, cited in Hadley, 2003) hold that for measuring accuracy, especially in oral performance, features, such as fluency, grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, pragmatic competence, as well as sociolinguistic competence should be taken into consideration. It is clearly mentioned that fluency by itself is a part of accuracy. To support this idea, the OPI tester manual is exploited in order to clarify the process by which accuracy is assessed in an interview:

In general, the degree to which the speaker relies on the listener for filling in gaps in the message due to imperfect control of the language is one way to assess accuracy. As proficiency increases, the responsibility of the interlocutor for negotiating the message decreases. At the same time the global tasks associated with higher levels of proficiency—describing, narrating, hypothesizing, supporting opinion and dealing with abstractions—require refined and elaborate use of grammatical and lexical as well as sociolinguistic rules as well as effective use of cohesive devices to transmit complex messages.

Mere intelligibility will not suffice and most of the responsibility for carrying on the conversation can no longer be placed on the listener.

(p. 17)

Another measure of accuracy is the one used by Yuan and Ellis (2003) in which the percentage of error-free clauses and correct verb forms are taken into account. By error-free clauses, the clauses without syntax, morphology, and lexical choice including form and collocation are meant. In addition, correct verb forms include tense, aspect, modality, and subject verb agreement.

#### ***D. How to Measure Fluency***

As mentioned before, in the definitions of fluency by Hedge (1993, cited in Celce-Murcia, 2001), it is stated that fluency is “the ability to link units of speech together with facility, and without any strain, inappropriate slowness, or undue hesitation” (p. 104). Regarding this definition, Celce-Murcia (2001) believes that these factors should be taken into account in assessing fluency.

Yuan and Ellis (2003) have also introduced a measure of fluency in which they counted the number of syllables per minute.

In a study done by Kormos and Dened (2004), the variables to predict native and nonnative teachers' perception of fluency to distinguish a fluent and nonfluent L2 learner have been explored. The findings show that speech rate, the mean length of utterances, phonation time ratio, and the number of stressed words per minute are the best predictors of fluency. Phonation time ratio is calculated as a percentage proportion of the time taken to produce the speech samples. Moreover, the mean length of utterances is calculated as an average number of syllables produced in utterances between pauses of 0.25 seconds and above.

In addition, Wood (2001) names some of the aspects of speech relating to fluency. These aspects are rate of speech, pauses, unfilled pause frequency, location of pauses, as well as length of fluent runs between pauses. As for location of pauses, he mentions that less-fluent learners mostly pause within sentences, and even within verbal phrases. In contrast, highly fluent learners tend to pause at sentence and clause junctures, or between non-integral components of clauses, and clauses themselves.

In this section, a review of the related literature concerning the key points of this research study was presented. In the next section, the details of the procedures of the current research study, on the basis of the related literature, are presented.

## CHAPTER III

### Method

#### *Introduction*

This study was an attempt to compare the effect of implicit focus on form through corrective recast with the effect of delayed, explicit focus on form on the linguistic accuracy of the oral production of Iranian EFL learners.

In this chapter, some variables, such as the participants, instrumentation, procedure, design, and statistical analysis of the study are explained.

#### *Participants*

To accomplish the objectives of this study, 127 male intermediate learners of Resalat Branch of Kish Language Institute were given a homogeneity test. Eighty-eight learners met the necessary condition (i.e., lack of ability to recognize the aimed structures in the study) to enter the second phase (see Appendix A).

In the second phase, 60 learners out of 88, 30 of whom with scores below the mean and 30 of whom with scores above the mean on the normal distribution curve, were chosen for the final phase of the study. These 60 learners were pretested by means of a structured interview (see Appendix B), and then, they were matched on the basis of their pretest scores (see Appendix C), and were put into two similar groups; one group as the experimental group, and the other as the comparison group. The resultant sample comprised eight classes in the institute.

### ***Instrumentation***

In order to carry out this study, first, a validated teacher-made achievement test based on *True to Life, Pre-Intermediate* course book was used (see Appendix D). This test included three skills of grammar and structure, reading, and vocabulary in multiple-choice format.

To construct this test, the researcher prepared a table of specifications of the course book in order to contribute to content validity (see Appendix E). Moreover, after reviewing and rewriting the items, the test was piloted with 30 similar learners to determine item characteristics, i.e., item facility, item discrimination, and choice distribution. Out of 48 grammar structure items, 33 reading comprehension items, and 40 vocabulary items, finally 30

grammar structure items, 20 reading comprehension items, and 27 vocabulary items were selected for the final version of the test. A time allocation of 75 minutes was also estimated for the final version of the homogeneity test.

Furthermore, the reliability of the test was calculated through KR-21 method which turned out to be 0.77.

It should be mentioned that the test, also, included two items for each aimed structure in the study in order to make sure that the participants could not recognize the aimed structures, let alone produce them orally. As a reminder, the participants who had answered both of the items related to at least one aimed structure correctly were omitted from the study, to make sure that in the beginning of the treatment, the participants had no familiarity with the aimed structures in the study.

The next instruments used in this study were two structured interviews in order to elicit the required structure from the participants, in pretest and posttest (see Appendix B).

Accuracy ratios were calculated to score the interviews (by two raters) through dividing the correct uses by the sum of the total number of incorrect and zero uses (White, 1998). It should also be reminded that the pretest scores were used to match the experimental group and comparison group.

For treatment, three passages for dictogloss purpose were developed for each structure, which were the same for both the experimental group and the comparison group (see Appendix F). As mentioned in Chapter II, dictogloss (Swain, 1998) was used to meet the condition of essentialness, that is to say, to provide enough opportunities for the teacher to offer focus on the aimed form (Loschky & Bley-Vromen, 1993, cited in Doughty & Williams, 1998).

### ***Procedure***

This study required 60 homogeneous learners who also had almost no familiarity with four grammatical structures namely *I wish*, three forms of *causative clause*, *second-conditional* sentences, and *should have + past participle*.

To do so, nine items (i.e., two items for *second conditional* sentences, two items for *I wish*, three items for three forms of *causative clause*, and two items for *should have + past participle*) were added to the homogeneity test.

The test was first piloted with 30 participants at the intermediate level studying at the same institute, with the difference that the pilot-test participants were weekend students. After applying the necessary changes and calculations to achieve item characteristics, i.e., item facility, item discrimination, and choice distribution, as well as reliability, 127 learners



took the test, out of whom 88 learners met the necessary condition (i.e., lack of ability to recognize the aimed structures) to enter the second phase.

In the second phase, 60 learners out of 88, 30 of whom with scores below the mean and 30 of whom with scores above the mean on the normal distribution curve, were chosen for the final phase of the study.

These 60 learners were pretested by means of a structured interview, and then they were matched on the basis of their pretest scores and were put into two similar groups, one group as the experimental group, and the other as the comparison group. The resultant sample comprised 8 classes in the institute.

It should be mentioned that the ratings of the interviews in the pretest and posttest were carried out by two raters. The correlation coefficients, calculated to determine inter-rater reliability for the ratings of the interviews, turned out to be acceptable, ranging between 0.919 and 0.980 (see Appendix G).

Regarding the treatment, this study required the teachers to provide the learners with a kind of task that pushed the learners to use the aimed structures in a way that the accomplishment of the task was not possible without using them. This matter, called task essentialness (Loschky & Bley-

Vromen, 1993, cited in Doughty & Williams, 1998), was solved by using dictogloss (Swain, 1998).

Three passages were developed for each structure to be presented to participants for dictogloss purpose, in twelve sessions. Each session lasted for about 45 minutes, with two session's gap between each dictogloss related to one of the aimed structures. Since it was not practical to gather all the participants of the study in two classes with the same teacher, four other teachers, in addition to the researcher, were instructed to present the dictoglosses and provide the necessary focus on form in the classes in which the required participants were available.

Moreover, during the dictogloss, the participants took notes about the text which was read aloud by the teacher at normal speed, which also included many instances of the aimed structures. Then, the participants were to reconstruct the text and provide an oral production of the summary of the text, once in pairs or small groups of three, and once more to the class.

In the experimental group, the participants were provided with corrective recast, once during the pair or group work by their trained teacher by walking around the class and eavesdropping on them, and once more at the time of the oral production to the class. It should be reminded that in order to gain maximum benefit from recasts, the participants were

familiarized with the nature of recasts (Saxton 1997, cited in Nicholas et al., 2001); that is to say, the learners were instructed that the use of recasts by the teacher was not confirmations of meaning but rather reactions to erroneous forms (Nicholas et al., Murphy, 1986).

Regarding the comparison group, everything was similar to that of the experimental group, except that there was no corrective recast. The members of the comparison group were only provided with correct form at the end of the dictogloss, for instance, by saying *It is not X*, but *It is Y*. For the posttest, which was about 20 days after the pretest, the participants took the posttest through another structured interview, which was again double-rated.

It should be pointed out that the scores used for data analysis were resulted from getting the average of two scores given by the two raters, if the scores were ever different at all.

## ***Design***

This study focused on the following question:

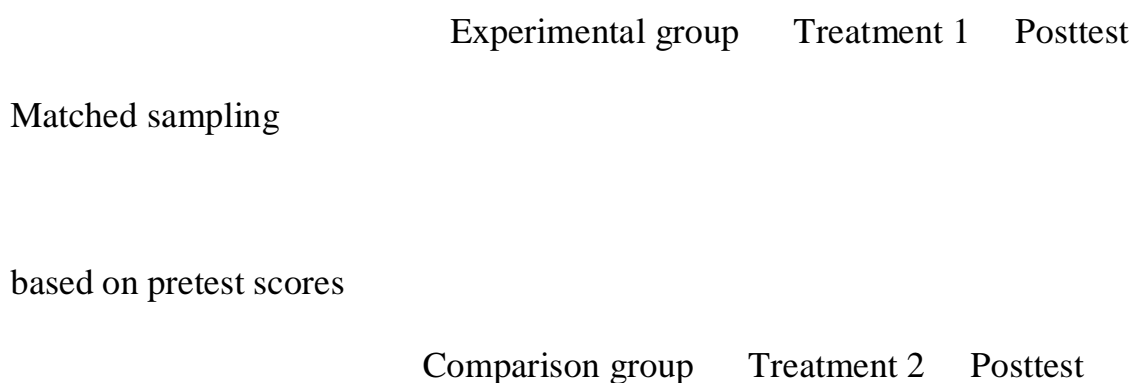
Does implicit focus on form through corrective recast affect the linguistic accuracy of Iranian EFL learners' oral production at intermediate level of language proficiency, in comparison with

another group receiving delayed, explicit focus on form at the same level of language proficiency?

The study consisted of two independent variables (two techniques of focus on form, i.e., implicit focus on form through corrective recast, and delayed, explicit focus on form), and a dependent variable (linguistic accuracy).

The design to carry out this study was experimental, with a pretest, two different treatments for experimental and comparison groups, as well as a posttest.

The schematic representation of the design is shown as follows:



Matched sampling: It was done on the basis of accuracy scores in pretest through a structured interview.

Experimental and comparison groups: Each group consisted of 30 participants.

Treatment 1: It was in the form of corrective recast.

Treatment 2: It was in the form of delayed, explicit focus on form.

Posttest: It was done through another structured interview.

### ***Statistical Analysis***

Due to the aforementioned research question and the null hypothesis, as well as the design of the study, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was employed to examine the effect of two techniques of focus on form (i.e., implicit focus on form through corrective recast vs. delayed, explicit focus on form), in comparison to each other, on the linguistic accuracy of participants' oral production. Further, ANCOVA, as well as *t*-test, was used again to have deeper analysis of the data in terms of the effect of the two focus-on-form techniques on the accuracy of oral production of each aimed structure.

All these analyses are presented in detail in Chapter IV.

## CHAPTER IV

### Data Analysis and Interpretation

#### *Introduction*

This study was an attempt to investigate the effect of two techniques of focus on form (i.e., corrective recast vs. delayed, explicit focus on form). For this purpose, two matched groups, on the basis of the participants' accuracy scores on the pretest, were given the same dictoglosses on the aimed structures. The experimental group received focus on form through corrective recast, and the comparison group received focus on form through delayed, explicit focus on form. After twelve sessions, each forty-five minutes, the participants were posttested by means of a structured interview similar in format to the one in the pretest. The data gathered from the pretest and posttest included accuracy scores for the oral production of four structures, and the average of all accuracy scores of four structures. Therefore, each participant had five scores; one score for each structure, as well as one average score. The analysis of the data is presented below.

### ***Data analysis & Investigation of Research Question***

After interviewing the participants in the pretest and posttest, the following data analysis was carried out.

An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was first used to compare the average-accuracy scores of the experimental and comparison groups on the posttest controlling for the effect of the pretest. The  $F$  observed value for the effect of the pretest is 3.85 (Table 1.). This amount of  $F$ -value at 1 and 39 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical  $F$ , that is, 4.08.

Based on this result, it can be concluded that the pretest did not have any significant impact on the performance of the participants in the posttest, and the possible difference between the means on the posttest was due to the participants' performance, not the pretest.

*Table 1. ANCOVA for Average-Accuracy Scores*

Dependent Variable: AVERAGE-ACCURACY POSTTEST					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	$F$	Sig.
PRETEST	1839.17	1	1839.17	3.85	.05
GROUP	10399.75	1	10399.75	21.68	.00
Error	18704.55	39	479.60		
Total	180923.03	42			

The  $F$  observed value for the effect of the focus on form techniques (corrective recast vs. delayed, explicit focus on form) on the learners' scores

on the posttest is 21.68 (Table 1.). This amount of  $F$ -value at 1 and 24 degrees of freedom is higher than the critical  $F$ , that is, 4.26.

It can be claimed that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and comparison groups on the posttest. Thus, the null hypothesis as no significant effect of corrective recast vs. delayed, explicit focus on form on the performance of the participants on the posttest is rejected. In other words, corrective recast had a significant impact on the performance of the participants on the posttest.

Table 2. displays the descriptive statistics for the experimental and comparison groups in the posttest. As the results show, the experimental group, with a mean of 65.92 outperformed the comparison group (Mean = 38.88) on the posttest; their mean scores on the pretest are 21.64 and 20.34, respectively.

*Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Average-Accuracy Scores*

GROUP	TEST	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experimental	PRETEST	21	2.50	49.58	21.64	14.92
	POSTTEST	29	26.25	100.00	65.92	23.16
Comparison	PRETEST	22	2.50	54.16	20.34	14.94
	POSTTEST	26	2.50	85.00	38.88	26.42



In order to find out about the effect of corrective recast vs. delayed, explicit focus on form on the accuracy of oral production of each aimed structure, the data was further analyzed as follows.

First, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to compare the mean scores of the experimental and comparison groups in the wish-clause interview controlling for the effect of the pretest. The  $F$  observed value for the effect of the pretest is .31 (Table 3.). This amount of  $F$ -value at 1 and 24 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical  $F$ , that is, 4.26.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the pretest did not have any significant impact on the performance of the participants in the wish-clause interview on the posttest.

*Table 3. ANCOVA for Wish-Clause Scores*

Dependent Variable: WISH POSTTEST					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	$F$	Sig.
PRETEST	120.16	1	120.16	.31	.58
GROUP	1534.27	1	1534.27	3.95	.05
Error	9303.49	24	387.64		
Total	182572.31	27			
a R Squared = .15 (Adjusted R Squared = .08)					

The  $F$  observed value for the effect of the two focus on form techniques (corrective recast vs. delayed, explicit focus on form) on the participants' scores in the wish-clause interview on the posttest is 3.95 (Table 3.). This

amount of  $F$ -value at 1 and 24 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical  $F$ , that is, 4.26.

It can be claimed that there is not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and comparison groups in the wish-clause interview on the posttest. In other words, focus on form techniques did not have any significant impact on the performance of the participants in the wish-clause interview on the posttest.

Table 4. displays the descriptive statistics for the experimental and comparison groups in the wish-clause interview.

*Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for the Wish-Clause Scores*

GROUP	TEST	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experimental	PRE TEST	14	20.00	100.00	46.78	26.13
	POSTTEST	28	40.00	100.00	82.07	17.91
Comparison	PRE TEST	15	10.00	100.00	42.00	24.55
	POSTTEST	24	10.00	100.00	66.02	23.23

An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was also used to compare the mean scores of the experimental and comparison groups in the second-conditional-clause interview controlling for the effect of the pretest. The  $F$  observed value for the effect of the pretest is .99 (Table 5.). This amount of  $F$ -value at 1 and 17 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical  $F$ , that is, 4.45.

So, it can be concluded that the pretest did not have any significant impact on the performance of the participants in the second-conditional-clause interview on the posttest.

*Table 5. ANCOVA for Second-Conditional-Clause Scores*

Dependent Variable: SECOND-CONDITIONAL-CLAUSE POSTTEST					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
PRETEST	579.46	1	579.46	.99	.33
GROUP	900.40	1	900.40	1.54	.23
Error	9920.54	17	583.56		
Total	144062.50	20			

The *F* observed value for the effect of the focus on form techniques (corrective recast vs. delayed, explicit focus on form) on the learners' scores in the second-conditional-clause interview on the posttest is 1.54 (Table 5.). This amount of *F*-value at 1 and 24 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical *F*, that is, 4.26. Therefore, one can claim that there is not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and comparison groups for the second-conditional-clause interview on the posttest. In other words, the focus on form techniques did not have any significant impact on the performance of the participants in the second-conditional-clause interview on the posttest.

Table 6. displays the descriptive statistics for the experimental and comparison groups in the second-conditional-clause interview.

*Table 6. Descriptive Statistics for Second-Conditional-Clause Scores*

GROUP	TEST	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experimental	PRETEST	11	10.00	100.00	65.22	30.99
	POSTTEST	24	25.00	100.00	84.37	25.06
Comparison	PRETEST	11	12.50	100.00	53.40	30.15
	POSTTEST	16	12.50	100.00	61.71	31.11

Again, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to compare the mean scores of the experimental and comparison groups in the causative-clause interview controlling for the effect of the pretest. The  $F$  observed value for the effect of the pretest is .54 (Table 7.). This amount of  $F$ -value at 1 and 24 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical  $F$ , that is 4.26. As a result, it can be concluded that the pretest did not have any significant impact on the performance of the participants in the causative-clause interview on the posttest.

*Table 7. ANCOVA for Causative-Clause Scores*

Dependent Variable: CAUSATIVE-CLAUSE POSTTEST						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	$F$	Sig.	
PRETEST	436.42	1	436.42	.54	.46	
GROUP	861.44	1	861.44	1.07	.31	
Error	19203.84	24	800.16			
Total	121821.05	27				

The  $F$  observed value for the effect of the focus on form techniques (corrective recast vs. delayed, explicit focus on form) on the participants'

scores in the causative-clause interview on the posttest is 1.07 (Table 7.). This amount of  $F$ -value at 1 and 24 degrees of freedom is lower than the critical  $F$ , that is 4.26. It can be claimed that there is not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and comparison groups for the causative-clause interview on the posttest. In other words, the focus on form techniques did not have any significant impact on the performance of the participants in the causative-clause interview on the posttest.

Table 8. displays the descriptive statistics for the experimental and comparison groups' score in the causative-clauses interview.

*Table 8. Descriptive Statistics for Causative-Clause Scores*

GROUP	TEST	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experimental	PRETEST	17	12.50	58.33	27.18	14.99
	POSTTEST	26	14.28	100.00	58.42	27.98
Comparison	PRETEST	16	14.00	87.50	33.42	21.04
	POSTTEST	19	16.00	100.00	42.69	26.06

An independent  $t$ -test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and comparison groups in the should have + p.p.-clause interview on the posttest. It should be noted that due to the large number of missing cases in the should have + p.p.-clause interview, the independent  $t$ -test was employed instead of ANCOVA. The  $t$ -observed value, 1.009, at 33

degrees of freedom is lower than the critical value of  $t$ , that is, 2.04. (Table 9.). It can be concluded that there was not any significant difference between the two groups mean scores in the should have + p.p.-clause interview on the posttest.

In other words, the focus on form techniques did not have any significant impact on the performance of the participants in the should-have-p.p.-clause interview on the posttest.

*Table 9. Independent t-test for Should Have + P.P.-Clause Scores*

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		$t$ -test for Equality of Means						
		$F$	Sig.	$t$	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
POST TEST	Equal variances assumed	.54	.46	1.0	33	.32	9.81	9.72	-9.97	29.59
	Equal variances not assumed			.91	15.84	.37	9.81	10.67	-12.83	32.45

Table 10. displays the descriptive statistics for the experimental and comparison groups in the should have + p.p.-clause interview. The  $F$ -test

results also indicate that the two groups were homogenous in terms of their variances. The probability of the  $F$ -value, .465 is much higher than .05.

*Table 10. Descriptive Statistics for Should Have + P.P.-Clause Scores*

	GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
POSTTEST	Experimental	24	76.25	24.46	4.99
	Comparison	11	66.43	31.28	9.43

### ***Interpretation***

As the analysis above demonstrated, the accuracy gains for each single structure of the experimental group are not significant in comparison with the accuracy gains of the comparison group. Considering these findings, it could be concluded that although the difference between accuracy gains for each single structure of the experimental group is not significant in comparison to the accuracy gains of the comparison group, the sum of the differences is indeed that much enough to make the average accuracy of the experimental group significantly higher than the average accuracy of the comparison group. The other point is that the experimental group received focus on form during the tasks through corrective recast, while the comparison group received delayed, explicit correction after finishing the tasks. In other words, the focus on form received by the experimental group

was more immediate. This very matter could be put forward as a reason for the better performance of the experimental group on the posttest.

In this study, corrective recast turned out to cause more gains in accuracy in comparison with delayed, explicit correction. This finding is specifically in line with what Doughty and Varela (1998) have found in their study regarding the effect of corrective recast in comparison with other techniques and strategies of focus on form. Moreover, Long and Robinson (1998) also state that recasts are appreciated by many, in that they show to learners the distance between what uttered by the learners and the target language. Nicholas et al. (2001) also mention that recasts are valuable in acquisition because by reformulation, recasts give the positive effect, and at the same time they focus on form.



## **CHAPTER V**

### **Conclusions, Pedagogical Implications, and Suggestions for Further Research**

#### ***Introduction***

In the first part of Chapter V, restatement of the problem, research question, hypothesis, and an overview of the procedures followed for the study, will be presented. In the second part, the pedagogical implications will appear, and in the third part of this chapter, suggestions for further research will be dealt with.

#### ***Restatement of the Problem***

This study was to examine corrective recast and delayed, explicit focus on form. Considering the review of the literature and what happens in real language classes, contradictory findings and ideas were observed. As a result, the following question and null hypothesis were put forward. First, the research question is as follows:

Does implicit focus on form through corrective recast affect the linguistic accuracy of Iranian EFL learners' oral production at the intermediate level of language proficiency, in comparison with another group receiving delayed, explicit focus on form at the same level of language proficiency?

The hypothetical answer to this question is:

Implicit focus on form through corrective recast does not affect the linguistic accuracy of Iranian EFL learners' oral production at the intermediate level of language proficiency, in comparison with another group receiving delayed, explicit focus on form at the same level of language proficiency.

In order to test this null hypothesis, 60 participants from one of the branches of Kish Language Institute, whose lack of familiarity with the four aimed structures (i.e., *I wish*, three forms of *causative clause*, *second conditional* sentences, and *should have + past participle*) in the study was checked, were chosen through a homogeneity test. These participants were also pretested through a structured interview, and were put into experimental

and comparison groups by means of matched sampling on the basis of their scores on the pretest, to make sure that the two groups were similar in the very beginning. The two groups were later given twelve dictoglosses in twelve sessions. The participants of the experimental group received focus on form through corrective recast, while the participants of the comparison group were exposed to delayed, explicit focus on form, at the time of pair work and class presentations. Afterwards, the participants were posttested through another structured interview to examine their accuracy gains after treatment.

In order to compare the accuracy gains of the experimental and comparison groups, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was employed. By doing so, the null hypothesis of the study was rejected because the experimental group outperformed the comparison group in average accuracy gains significantly.

Moreover, in order to examine the effect of focus on form on the accuracy of oral production of each single structure in the study, ANCOVA was used again. The analysis demonstrated that the accuracy gains for each single structure of the experimental group were not significant in comparison with the accuracy gains of the comparison group. Despite these findings, it was concluded that although the difference between accuracy

gains for each single structure of the experimental group was not significant in comparison to the accuracy gains of the comparison group, the sum of the differences was indeed that much enough to make the average accuracy of the experimental group significantly higher than the average accuracy of the comparison group.

The outcome of the present study can be interpreted in the light of what Nicholas et al. (2001) state. They believe that explicit feedback just leads to superficial change in the interlanguage of the learners. Of course, it should not be forgotten that maybe the different gains of the experimental and comparison groups were due to the fact that the participants in the experimental group received delayed focus on form (at the very end of each participant's oral presentation), while the participants of the experimental group were corrected through corrective recast after the full production of each sentence containing the aimed structure. By the way, the intention was to introduce a better alternative to the common tradition of delayed, explicit focus on form in classes (at least to the experience of the researcher) while keeping the communicative nature of the class, and that alternative turned out to be implicit focus on form through corrective recast, which resulted in better effects at least in this study.

Although there have been a lot of research studies in the literature regarding the comparative examination of the effect of implicit and explicit focus on form, the present study could be considered as an additional support for implicit focus on form through corrective recast in comparison with delayed, explicit focus on form. Finally, it is worth mentioning that both of these techniques of focus on form led to better accuracy in both experimental and comparison groups, but after comparing the gains in the two groups, the above-mentioned findings were achieved. So it could be further concluded that these findings are in line with the suggestion of Long and Robinson (1998) about the provision of focus on form implicitly and explicitly to block fossilization. Moreover, an alternative to focus on forms which is against communicative language teaching, is recommended.

### ***Pedagogical Implications***

This study can support other confirmatory or exploratory studies on the issue of focus on form considering the context in which it was carried out. However, some of the implications of this study are presented below.

### ***A. Implications for Teaching and Teacher Training***

This study investigated the two techniques of focus on form, demonstrating higher gains after the application of implicit focus on form through corrective recast, in comparison to delayed, explicit focus on form, although delayed, explicit focus on form also led to some gains. Therefore, this study indicates some support for the use of focus on form rather than the use of traditional focus on formS. Moreover, teachers need to be familiarized with the techniques of focus on form, especially the implicit ones which keep the communicative nature of the language classes. So, it would be reasonable to allocate some time to the training of teachers in this regard.

### ***B. Implications for Materials Development***

Since one of the responsibilities of materials developers is to provide and sequence the content of teaching materials, especially the tasks, designing communicative tasks to provide opportunities for focus on form in one of the recommended ways, especially implicitly, seems very much advisable.

### ***Suggestions for Further Research***

Since this study was narrowed down in terms of its participants, structures in focus, techniques of focus on form, etc., it seems necessary to point out some further research to be done in this regard.

1. Considering the fact that this study was limited to only two techniques of focus on form, it is suggested that similar studies be conducted with other techniques of focus on form whether implicit ones or explicit ones, such as clarification request, comprehension check, etc.

2. Moreover, more comprehensive studies could be done to investigate the effect of more than two techniques at a time on language acquisition.

3. Since the present study focused on only four structures in English, similar studies could examine the accuracy gains in terms of other structures in English or any other languages.

4. Similar research could be done regarding written recognition and production of other English structures.

5. The need is felt to carry out similar experiments to investigate the long-term effects of focus on form through different techniques and strategies.

6. Finally, this study could be replicated with learners at higher and lower levels of language proficiency.

### ***Final Remark***

By doing this research study to investigate the effect of corrective recast and delayed, explicit focus on form, it is hoped that some contribution is made to the development of language teaching. Besides, it is believed that this study covered a narrow scope of focus on form issue, and other researchers and interested students are recommended to carry out related studies to push the frontiers of knowledge in this regard.



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# **APPENDICES**

**APPENDIX (A)**  
(The Aimed Structures of the Study)

## The Aimed Structures in the Study

### 1. Causative Clauses

E.g., I had my computer repaired.

I had him cut my hair.

I got him to mend my shoes.

### 2. Should have + Past Participle

E.g., You should have studied harder.

### 3. Wish + Past Simple

E.g., I wish you were here.

### 4. Second Conditional

E.g., If I were you, I would say something else.

**APPENDIX (B)**  
(Copy of the Pretest and the Posttest)

## Pretest

### Interviewer's Questions

#### Should Have + P.P.

1. Andrew was arrested last night. He was driving home after a party and he had had too much to drink.
2. Graham was wounded when he tried to stop a man robbing a post office. The robber shot him in the leg.
3. Annie lost her purse yesterday. It was in her bag but her bag was not fastened and she left it unattended for a few minutes while she bought a newspaper.
4. My brief case was stolen form my car yesterday. I had left it lying on the passenger seat while I popped out to do some shopping, and I am afraid the window had been left open.
5. John was caught traveling on a train without a ticket yesterday.

### Interviewee's Answers

1. Last night at the party, he should/shouldn't .....
2. At that moment, he should/shouldn't .....
3. Yesterday, she should/shouldn't .....
4. Yesterday, you should/shouldn't .....
5. Yesterday, he should/shouldn't .....

## **Causative Clause**

### **Interviewer's Questions**

1. When did you last have your hair cut?
2. When did you last have your computer repaired?
3. Who do you usually have repair your car?
4. Who do you usually have repair your computer?
5. Who do you usually get to repair your cooler?
6. Who do you get to repair your clothes?

### **Interviewee's Answers**

1. I had .....
2. I had .....
3. I have .....
4. I have .....
5. I get .....
6. I get .....

## **Second Conditional**

### **Interviewer's Questions**

1. George Bush, war in Iraq, war in Afghanistan, animosity against Iran, what people think about him as a stupid person,
2. Bill Gates, his knowledge in computer, his money, his Microsoft Company, Windows, ...
3. Saddam Hussein, using mass destruction weapons, killing his own people, his war in Iran and Kuwait, ...
4. Einstein, his immigration to America, his noble prize, his fame, his knowledge, ...

### **Interviewee's Answers**

1. If I .....
2. If I .....
3. If I .....
4. If I .....



**I Wish .....****Interviewer's Questions**

1. You are a heavy smoker. One day you are in an organization for a job interview. To do so you need to go to the tenth floor but suddenly you find that the lift is not working. As a result unfortunately you may not arrive at the interview room on time and you may lose your turn, so you need to run the stairs up. After a couple of floors you run out of breath.

- What do you wish?

---

2. You are invited to a party in which all people are university students and all of them are talking about their university activities and you are the only person with no university education. This matter is really embarrassing for you.

- What do you wish?

---

3. You are supposed to hand in your term projects typed. But you can not use the computer properly, and even if some body helps you with computer you can not type at all.

- What do you wish?

---

4. You get stuck in traffic and you may be late for an important appointment. Suddenly a person passes you by on a motorbike in a very relaxed way.

- What do you wish?

---

5. You are one minute away from capital punishment for a crime you have never committed.

- What do you wish?

**Interviewee's Answers**

1. I wish .....

2. I wish .....

3. I wish .....

4. I wish .....

5. I wish .....

---

## Posttest

### Causative Clause

#### Interviewer's Questions

1. How often do you have your hair cut?
2. Who do you usually have cut your hair?
3. Where do you usually get a barber to cut your hair?
4. How often do you have your car repaired?
5. Who do you usually have repair your car?
6. Where do you usually get a mechanic to repair your car?

#### Interviewee's Answers

1. I usually have .....
  2. I usually have .....
  3. I usually have .....
  4. I usually have .....
  5. I usually get .....
  6. I usually get .....
-

**I Wish .....****Interviewer's Questions**

1. I live in dirty flat.
2. I am out of work.
3. I can't do my job well.
4. I am a heavy smoker.
5. I am so depressed.

**Interviewee's Answers**

1. I wish .....
2. I wish .....
3. I wish .....
4. I wish .....

## **Second Conditional**

### **Interviewer's Questions**

1. Hitler, killing thousands of Jews, attacking many countries, causing the world war II, committing suicide, ...
2. Changeez, attacking Iran, killing many Iranians, destroying our historical places, burning libraries,...
3. Harry Truman (US president in 1945), dropping atomic bomb in Hiroshima and Nagasaki, killing 135000 people in Japan, ...
4. Taliban, destroying Buddha statue, killing many Afghans, ...

### **Interviewee's Answers**

1. If I.....
2. If I.....
3. If I.....
4. If I.....

**Should Have + P.P.****Interviewer's Questions**

1. I did not listen to my parents when I was younger, and for many times I had many problems because of that.
2. I never paid enough attention to my schoolwork, and finally I failed the university entrance exam.
3. I never spend any time on sports, and now I suffer from some bone problems.
4. During the term I studied nothing, and now I have to study three books in a week before my final exam.
5. At the moment, I am broke and have no money because I never saved up any money when I was younger.

**Interviewee's Answers**

1. I should/shouldn't .....
2. I should/shouldn't .....
3. I should/shouldn't .....
4. I should/shouldn't .....
5. I should/shouldn't .....

Note: In all the interviews, the interviewer read the situation to the interviewee. Then the interviewee was supposed to start his answers with the provided incomplete sentences, with the required structure.

**APPENDIX (C)**  
(The Raw Scores of the Participants in the  
Pretest and the Posttest)

## Comparison Group

PRWA	PRIA	PRCA	PRSA	PRAA	POWA	POIA	POCA	POSA	POAA
20.00	12.50	14.00	0.00	11.63	83.00	100.00	50.00	50.00	70.75
10.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	2.50	75.00	50.00	16.00	5.00	36.50
0.00	25.00	0.00	0.00	6.25	83.30	50.00	30.00	100.00	53.32
60.00	0.00	87.50	10.00	39.38	80.00	100.00	100.00	60.00	85.00
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
10.00	37.50	0.00	0.00	11.88	66.66	12.50	20.00	62.50	40.41
40.00	50.00	33.33	0.00	30.38	80.00	75.00	50.00	100.00	76.25
0.00	37.50	50.00	0.00	21.88	100.00	100.00	0.00	60.00	65.00
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	60.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	15.00
25.00	0.00	33.33	0.00	14.58	20.00	0.00	33.33	0.00	13.33
40.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	10.00	0.00	0.00	33.33	0.00	8.33
50.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	12.50	80.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	20.00
50.00	75.00	33.33	0.00	39.58	60.00	75.00	33.33	0.00	42.08
25.00	0.00	33.33	20.00	19.58	100.00	25.00	71.42	100.00	74.10
25.00	25.00	33.33	0.00	20.83	80.00	75.00	100.00	60.00	73.75
50.00	100.00	66.66	0.00	54.16	66.66	75.00	57.14	100.00	74.70
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	80.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	20.00
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	60.00	0.00	33.33	0.00	23.33
100.00	0.00	0.00	10.00	27.50	50.00	50.00	33.33	33.33	41.66
0.00	0.00	16.66	0.00	4.16	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
75.00	50.00	16.66	0.00	35.41	90.00	62.50	66.66	0.00	54.79
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	40.00	0.00	16.66	0.00	14.16
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	40.00	12.50	16.66	0.00	17.29
0.00	0.00	16.66	0.00	4.16	40.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	10.00
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
0.00	0.00	16.66	0.00	4.16	10.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	2.50
0.00	100.00	50.00	0.00	37.50	60.00	0.00	16.66	0.00	19.16
50.00	75.00	16.66	0.00	35.41	80.00	100.00	33.33	0.00	53.33
0.00	0.00	16.66	0.00	4.16	0.00	25.00	0.00	0.00	6.25

## Experimental Group

PRWA	PRIA	PRCA	PRSA	PRAA	POWA	POIA	POCA	POSA	POAA
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	75.00	75.00	0.00	0.00	37.50
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	50.00	0.00	25.00	100.00	43.75
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	50.00	0.00	0.00	80.00	32.50
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	80.00	25.00	0.00	0.00	26.25
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	66.66	0.00	41.66
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	80.00	0.00	33.33	0.00	28.33
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	80.00	0.00	16.66	40.00	34.16
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	71.42	100.00	90.00	60.00	80.35
0.00	0.00	16.66	0.00	4.16	64.28	87.50	14.28	80.00	61.51
0.00	0.00	16.66	0.00	4.16	0.00	25.00	0.00	0.00	6.25
0.00	0.00	16.66	0.00	4.16	100.00	50.00	66.66	100.00	79.16
0.00	10.00	0.00	0.00	2.50	80.00	100.00	66.66	80.00	81.66
20.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	5.00	100.00	100.00	50.00	100.00	87.50
20.00	0.00	20.00	0.00	10.00	100.00	100.00	83.33	80.00	90.83
20.00	0.00	30.00	0.00	12.50	60.00	75.00	16.66	60.00	52.91
0.00	50.00	0.00	0.00	12.50	80.00	100.00	20.00	20.00	55.00
25.00	100.00	16.66	0.00	35.41	75.00	100.00	33.33	40.00	62.08
50.00	50.00	50.00	0.00	37.50	0.00	0.00	40.00	90.00	32.50
90.00	50.00	58.33	0.00	49.58	100.00	50.00	83.30	60.00	73.33
100.00	37.50	40.00	0.00	44.38	100.00	50.00	60.00	80.00	72.50
40.00	100.00	14.28	0.00	38.57	80.00	100.00	80.00	100.00	90.00
60.00	70.00	12.50	0.00	35.63	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
0.00	100.00	40.00	0.00	35.00	66.60	100.00	83.30	100.00	87.48
50.00	50.00	16.66	0.00	29.16	100.00	100.00	83.33	0.00	70.83
0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	25.00	80.00	100.00	66.66	40.00	71.66
40.00	0.00	42.85	0.00	20.71	100.00	87.50	100.00	100.00	96.88
70.00	0.00	12.50	0.00	20.63	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
50.00	0.00	16.66	0.00	16.66	40.00	100.00	50.00	60.00	62.50
0.00	0.00	41.67	0.00	10.43	100.00	100.00	50.00	60.00	77.50
20.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	5.00	85.71	100.00	40.00	100.00	81.42



# **APPENDIX (D)**

## (Homogeneity Test)

## Grammar and structure

Choose the best answer.

1. Cuba has got the ----- sugar in the world  
a. more      b. much      c. less      d. most
- 
2. He looks like ----- with that well-built body.  
a. champion    b. champion person    c. a champion    d. bodybuilder
- 
3. When I see that modern car, I wish I----- that car.  
a. had      b. have      c. has      d. have had
- 
4. If you ----- him, you ----- spend your money more efficiently  
a. were/would      b. would/were      c. were/were      d. would/would
- 
5. ----- films ----- me faster than everyone here.  
a. bored/bored      b. boring/boring      c. boring/bore      d. bored/boring
- 
6. ----- it was not a good stadium, we won the match.  
a. However      b. Although      c. So      d. Therefore
- 
7. Whenever I come here, I remember----- of childhood  
a. -----      b. memories      c. to memorize      d. memorizing
- 
8. It is very pleasant to camp out in this good weather. I wish my mom ----- also here.  
a. was      b. were      c. is      d. would be
- 
9. He looks -----.  
a. a tired      b. a tired person      c. tired      d. tired person
- 
10. What ----- you do if you ----- in that difficult situation.  
a. will/if    b. would/were    c. will/was    d. will/were
- 
11. It was -----hot that we went to the beach  
a. so      b. such      c. such a      d. too
- 
12. He ----a happy life since his wife --- in an accident two years ago.  
a. does not have-has died      c. did not have-died  
b. has not had-has died      d. has not had-died
- 
13. If I ----- him I ----- accept that stupid suggestion.  
a. was/wouldn't    b. were/didn't    c. were/wouldn't    d. was/didn't
- 
14. I talked to her ----- she changes her mind  
a. so      b. so that      c. that      d. as
- 
15. As the youngest member of the club, Mr. Johnson ----- tennis there regularly from 1960 to 1970.  
a. is used to playing      b. used to play  
c. was used to play      d. used to playing
- 
16. The candidates ----- by the jury after many interviews.  
a. were selected      b. will select      c. is being selected      d. selected
-

17. I know why you failed the exam. You ----- studied harder.

- a. should    b. should have    c. should had    d. had to
- 

18. She was a student at Oxford University ----- he was studying law.

- a. so    b. where    c. therefore    d. hence
- 

19. a) How many chocolates did you eat?

b) -----

- a. Too much    b. A few    c. Any    d. More
- 

20. You ----- tried to repair your TV. Whenever your TV has a problem--- an electrician to repair it.

- a. shouldn't/have    b. shouldn't have/get  
c. shouldn't have/have    d. shouldn't get
- 

21. a) The phone's ringing.

b) -----

- a. I'll answer it.    b. I answer it .  
c. I going to answer it.    d. I should to answered it.
- 

22. The population of Mexico City ----- to 30 million by the year 2010.

- a. will grow    b. grows    c. are growing    d. going to grow
- 

23. Finally, I had the electrician ----- my TV antenna

- a. adjusted    b. adjust    c. adjusting    d. to adjust
- 

24. a) I don't eat vegetables very often.

b) -----

- a. So do I.    b. Neither do I.    c. None.    d. I not.
- 

25. He ---- a degree in History in 1998.

- a. take    b. takes    c. took    d. taken
- 

26. On my way back home, my car broke down and I took it to that garage and ----

- a. repaired it    b. had it repair    c. had repaired it    d. had it repaired
- 

27. a) Someone is at the door!

b) -----

- a. I go.    b. I'll go!    c. I shall go!    d. I myself am going!
-

28. He attended Oxford University and ----- a degree in Economics.

- a. take      b. takes      c. took      d. taken
- 

29. I ----- to study harder this year.

- a. will      b. am going      c. am getting to      d. I will going
- 

30. It was ----- nice film that I decided to stay at home and watch the whole film

- a. so      b. such a      c. such      d. as
-

## Vocabulary

Choose the best answer.

1. **To make some orange juice, you should ----- an orange.**  
a. grill      b. chop      c. peel      d. squeeze
2. **When I told her about the mistake he got really -----**  
a. generous      b. mean      c. messy      d. annoyed
3. **The car factory has manufactured a new car. Its engine is more powerful and the seats are much more-----**  
a. comfortable      b. careful      c. independent      d. handy
4. **Half the workers of the company have gone on -----, they want higher salaries.**  
a. equator      b. strike      c. species      d. employment
5. **It takes the foreign students a while to ----- to living alone far from their family.**  
a. adjust      b. accept      c. advise      d. admire
6. **Our new teacher is very----. We have to come to class on time with all our homework done.**  
a. patient      b. strict      c. mean      d. discipline
7. **Something ----- happened today and I have to fly to New York now.**  
a. miserable      b. urgent      c. ordinary      d. fluent
8. **I went to the bank to get some money from my account and ----- a check.**  
a. cut      b. curve      c. cash      d. cast
9. **Two cars were smashed in the accident but to my wonder no body was-----**  
a. heart      b. hurt      c. hauled      d. hasted
10. **A ----- is an electrical device for entertainment.**  
a. heater      b. air-conditioner      c. vacuum cleaner      d. hi-fi system
11. **I sometimes ----- the washing-up to help my mother relax in the evening.**  
a. make      b. Take care      c. do      d. clean
12. **The room, he was ----- his suitcase.**  
a. cashing      b. ordering      c. arranging      d. packing
13. **The robber was taken to the prison after he was ----- by cops.**  
a. defeated      b. arrested      c. attacked      d. attached

14. Will you stop ----- me when I'm talking!  
a. boring    b. interrupting    c. boiling    d. stretching
15. When I got home, the house was a complete ----- after the party.  
a. machine    b. monster    c. mess    d. cheat
16. A dog was ----- at the door to be let in when I arrived here.  
a. stretching    b. scratching    c. smashing    d. spotting
17. Lighting is now more energy ----- than the past.  
a. effective    b. efficient    c. strange    d. strong
18. I read the first ----- and thought it was very good for publishing.  
a. drill    b. fridge    c. frank    d. draft
19. I forgot to bring my notes for the speech, so I had to -----.  
a. improve    b. empower    c. improvise    d. promote
20. His ----- to pay the fine to the police got him into even more trouble.  
a. referral    b. reference    c. refreshment    d. refusal
21. He looked ----- when I asked him where he'd been till that late time.  
a. shocked    b. embarrassed    c. surprised    d. sure
22. She finally received an ----- from the company for their faulty product.  
a. post    b. apology    c. arrest    d. achievement
23. We are growing ----- with the lack of result in our experiments.  
a. impossible    b. impatient    c. practical    d. perfect
24. The girls at this university come from a ----- of different language backgrounds.  
a. package    b. difference    c. variety    d. various
25. Do you have ----- on your house and its contents for fire?  
a. credit    b. insurance    c. install    d. cause
26. Brad was ----- on a sheet of paper since he was bored with no work to do.  
a. delivering    b. deciding    c. doodling    d. decreasing
27. Sue showed great ----- throughout her illness and finally she recovered.  
a. cause    b. cost    c. casualty    d. courage

## Reading comprehension

Read the following texts and answer the related questions

1. New Orleans, at the mouth of the Mississippi River is a city over 270 years old. The French built the first town in 1718 and named it in honor of the French Duke Orleans. Today, New Orleans has over 600,000 people and it's an important US port and the center for tourism. New Orleans is a European city with an interesting history. In 1762, French gave New Orleans and part of its Louisiana colony to Spain .It belonged to Spain for over 30 years. Then in 1800 Napoleon Bonaparte asked Spain to return the territory to France again. In 1803, President Thomas Jefferson bought the Louisiana territory, including New Orleans from France. The cost: \$15 million. The city of New Orleans has a tradition of good living. Perhaps that's why many American writers, such as Tennessee Williams and William Faulkner lived there at some time during their lives. For shopping, dining, entertainment or just the pleasures of walking and watching, there is no place like it in the world. Its restaurants are famous for French and Creole food. It has many old houses and government buildings. Jazz, a famous musical tradition in New Orleans, dates from the African - American community of the late nineteenth century. And every spring New Orleans celebrates its legendary holiday, MardiGras. From colorful celebrations in the streets to formal masquerade balls, it is a magical time of costumes, parade and parties.

1. According to the text, .....

- a) There are usually a lot of tourists in New Orleans.
- b) It isn't a very beautiful city.
- c) It is the best place for shopping.
- d) It is a modern city.

2. New Orleans .....

- a) has a tradition of good living because many American writers lived there.
- b) has restaurants which are famous for different kinds of French food.
- c) has many houses which belong to the government.
- d) was very famous for its African jazz music in the 19th century.

3. Which country or perhaps countries were important in the history of New Orleans?

- a) France
- b) Spain
- c) France and Spain
- d) Africa

4. According to the text, .....

- a) New Orleans is no place for dining and shopping.
- b) New Orleans is the best place in the world for dining and shopping.
- c) New Orleans has no place for shopping and dining.
- d) New Orleans is a good place but not for shopping and dining.

2. If you are like most people, your intelligence varies from season to season .You are probably a lot sharper in spring than you are at any other time of year. A noted scientist, Ellsworth Huntington (1876 – 1976) concluded from other men’s work and his own among people in different climates that climate and temperature have a definite effect on our mental abilities. He found that cool weather is much more favorable for creative thinking than in summer heat. This does not mean that all people are less intelligent in summer than they are during the rest of the year. It does mean, however, that the mental abilities of large numbers of people tend to be the lowest in summer.

Spring appears to be the best period of the year for thinking. One reason may be that in spring men’s mental abilities are affected by the same factors that bring about great changes in all nature.

Autumn is the next best season, then winter.As for summer; it seems to be a good time to take a long holiday from thinking.

5. One possible reason why spring is the best season for thinking is that .....

- a) It lasts longer than the other seasons.
- b) It is not too cold and not too warm.
- c) All nature, including human, grows then.
- d) The nature is affected by our mental abilities.

6. The word bring about in line 10 is closest in meaning to.....

- a) cause
- b) have
- c) recognize
- d) protect

3. What we wear unavoidably depends on some factors such as; tradition, weather, place, situation and nowadays mostly fashion. For instance, school children have to wear a school uniform or athletes need to wear sport clothes. People from hot sunny countries often find it difficult to imagine how people who live in a very cold climate can live and work through the winter months. These people manage because they know what to wear in the cold. Some of our clothes are made from natural materials like wool, silk or cotton but many of them are artificially made and they usually have polyester in them. Polyester is made from elements that come from air, water, coal and oil .Most polyester is made by melting, in a sealed chamber, chips of a material like plastic. Fibers are often mixed with wool or cotton to make cloth. Polyester differs because every company has its own way of making polyester and every company calls its product by a different name.

But no matter what it is called, all polyester has certain good points. It does not wrinkle easily. It dries quickly after it is washed. It holds its shape. It is strong and keeps its colors well.

7. The second paragraph mainly tells how polyester is .....

- a) used
- b) named
- c) pressed
- d) made

8. The passage suggests that polyester is made .....

- a) from animal products
- b) at very low temperatures
- c) by a number of companies
- d) in one color only



9. According to the text polyester's best point is that it is .....

- a) waterproof
- b) easy to use
- c) cheaper than silk
- d) warmer than wool

4. Bill Gates III is a very important person in the computer industry. He has been chief executive officer of Microsoft Corporation for many years. He is also the richest person in the United States. How did he do it?

He learned a lot from his parents. While Bill was going to school, his father went to college, got a degree, and became a successful lawyer. From this, Bill learned that you have to work hard if you want something. His mother was a very busy teacher, but she also enjoyed going to parties. From this, he learned something else: If you want to work hard *and* play hard, you have to make a schedule.

When Bill was young, he spent a lot of time alone. While most of his friends were playing, Bill read all of the *World Book Encyclopedia* and finished it when he was eight years old. Bill's childhood was not all work, however. He used to play a lot of sports- swimming, water- skating, tennis. He was very serious about sports. He loved winning and he hated losing, when Bill got older, he spent more and more time working\_ and playing\_ on a computer. Before he was 20, Bill developed the world's first computer language for the personal computer. Once when he was thinking about the future, he realized something important. He thought that every home was going to have a computer, and every computer would need software\_ his software. He said, "I'm going to make my first million dollars on software by the time I'm 25". And he did.

10. His father .....

- a) taught at college
- b) got a lawyer
- c) studied at college
- d) taught at school

11. When he was 25, .....

- a) he was the richest
- b) he made a lot of money
- c) he liked having a million dollars
- d) he thought about the future

5. When we speak, everything within the sound of our voice vibrates. Nearby books vibrate, chairs vibrate, walls, tables, pictures and lamps vibrate. Knowing this, we can reason correctly that a thin metal disk will vibrate as we talk against it. The tiny particles of air set in motion by the voice of the speaker can move the disk just as they move the eardrum. This is just what happens when you speak into a telephone receiver. The vibrations of your voice cause a thin metal disk to bend and touch several small pieces of carbon. This, in turn, creates electricity in very tiny amounts. These tiny electrical charges or impulses then travel along a wire at the speed of light. When they reach their destination, they are changed back into sound waves that the eardrum can pick up.

12. When we talk, everything around us .....

- a) jumps
- b) starts vibrating
- c) stops vibrating
- d) moves at the speed of light

13. Sound will make a thin metal disk vibrate just as .....

- a) it makes our ears vibrate
- b) it causes our eardrums to move
- c) it makes our teeth vibrate
- d) our tongues vibrate

14. Electrical impulses travel along a wire at .....

- a) the speed of light
- b) about 185,000 miles per sound
- c) 300,000 km. per sound
- d) all of the above

6. The influenza virus is a single molecule built from many millions of single atoms. You must have heard of the viruses, which are sometimes called "living molecules." While bacteria can be considered as a type of plant, secreting poisonous substances into the body of the organism they attack, viruses are living organisms themselves. We may consider them as regular chemical molecules, since they have a strictly defined atomic structure, but on the other hand we must also consider them as being alive, since they are able to multiply in unlimited quantities.

15. According to the passage, bacteria are . . .

- a) poisons.
- b) larger than viruses.
- c) very small
- d) plants.

16. The writer says that viruses are alive because they . . .

- a) have a complex atomic structure.
- b) move.
- c) multiply.
- d) need warmth and light.

17. The atomic structure of viruses . . .

- a) is variable.
- b) is strictly defined.
- c) cannot be analyzed chemically.
- d) is more complex than that of bacteria.

7. The euro will start circulating in January 2002, but since January 1, 1999 it has been a 'virtual' currency. The most obvious consequence of a single currency is that you don't have to change money every time you go to a different country. For many people this is an advantage. Tourists won't lose money anymore, especially if they're going to visit several countries. Multinationals, like Volkswagen and General Electric, will benefit, too. Before, even small fluctuations in exchange rates really influenced their profits, since multinationals buy materials and then sell products in so many different countries. With a fixed exchange rate for 12 countries, prices and profits won't vary anymore. Banks are not as pleased about switching, though, *since they earned* a lot of money from changing currency. The European fixed low interest rate also means less income for banks. So, banks – especially smaller ones -- may need to find new ways to make money. For example, many are going to encourage people to invest more. But for the smaller banks, change could be hard and slow.

18. What's a clear advantage of a single currency, according to the article?

- a) People can buy and sell things in different countries.
- b) People don't have to change money.
- c) People ought to travel more.
- d) People mustn't change money anymore.

19. Who will gain more from changing to the euro?

- a) Volkswagen and General Electric
- b) banks
- c) banks and multinationals
- d) multinational companies and tourists

20. What's going to happen to banks, according to the article?

- a) They may lose money.
- b) They're going to earn a lot of money.
- c) They may stop investing.
- d) They might disappear.



**APPENDIX (E)**  
(Table of Specifications)

**Table of specifications****Book: True to Life****Level: Pre-Intermediate****Structure and grammar**

Inst. Objectives

Content

**1. Present simple**

- a. To talk about habits. E.g. She goes to cinema twice a week.
- b. To talk about a permanent situation. E.g. He works for a large company.
- c. To talk about facts. E.g. Water boils at 10 degrees centigrade.

**2. Present continuous**

- a. To talk about things happening now. E.g. They must be very tired because they are working hard on the car.
- b. To talk about something temporary happening around now. E.g. I am doing a course this term.
- c. To talk about arrangement. E.g. I am seeing my uncle this evening.

**3. Should**

- a. To give advice. E.g. You should go on a diet.
- b. To correct things. E.g. Those clothes should be here.

**4. Indirect questions**E.g. Could you tell me when we arrive?**5. What is it /he like?**

To describe and tell opinions. E.g. - What is he like?  
 - He is nice/He is tall

**6. Do you like/Would you like**E.g. - Do you like chocolate?- No I don't (in general)E.g. - Would you like some coffee?- No thanks**7. Past simple**

- a. To talk about actions in the past done at a specific time. E.g. *I saw him yesterday.*
- b. To talk about repeated actions in the past. E.g. *He never talked to me at work.*

### **8. Probably/Definitely**

To talk about possibility of something. E.g. *There is definitely no one there/There definitely isn't anyone.*

### **9. Present perfect**

- a. To talk about actions happening at indefinite times in the past. E.g. *I have been to Greece twice.*
- b. To talk about actions happening in a period of time which have not finished. E.g. *I have met her three times this week.*

### **10. Infinitive of purpose**

E.g. *I went there to buy some milk.*

### **11. Reflexive pronouns**

E.g. *I cut myself*

### **12. So/Such**

E.g. *it was so hot that we went to the beach/ It was such hot weather that we went to the beach.*

### **13. Irregular comparative and superlative adjectives**

E.g. *much more most*

### **14. Have to /Need to**

To talk about necessary and obligatory actions or unnecessary and non-obligatory actions. E.g. *A bank manager does not need to be artistic.*

### **14. Will**

- a. To talk about decisions at the moment of speaking. E.g. *I will open the door.*
- b. To talk about predictions. E.g. *I think he will pass.*

### **15. Going to**

To talk about plans. E.g. *I am going to watch TV this evening.*

### **16. Must/Mustn't**

To talk strongly about necessary, not permitted or dangerous things. E.g. *You must be a member to enter this club.*

**17. Enough/Big**

E.g. big enough/ enough money, too many people, too much money

**18. Past continuous**

- a. To contrast a shorter duration with longer. E.g. He was washing his hair when he heard the bell.
- b. To talk about a scene in the story. E.g. The sun was just setting ....

**19. While/When**

*When* and *while* for during the time and *when* only for at the time of an action. E.g. I met her when/while I was living in Madrid

**20. Countable/Uncountable nouns**

E.g. some information, too much equipment, my glasses were there.

**21. Since/For**

E.g. I have lived there since 1991.

E.g. I have lived there for 3 years.

**22. So that**

E.g. I went there so that I can see better.

**23. Otherwise**

E.g. We must hurry otherwise we will be late

**24. Look/Look like**

E.g. He looks tired.

E.g. He looks like a doctor.

**25. If + would/might**

To talk about improbable actions. E.g. If I had a house in the country side I would go there very week.

**26. -ed/-ing adjectives**

E.g. boring, bored

**27. So/Neither**

E.g. So do I / Neither can I.

**28. Used to**

E.g. I used to do that/ I did not use (d) to live there.

**29. Although/ however**



E.g. Although it was raining, we played football.

E.g. It was raining. However, we played football.

### **30. Remember**

a. To talk about memories. E.g. I remember that time.

b. To talk about not forgetting things. E.g. I remember to do that.

### **31. Relative clauses (who/which**

E.g. The woman who lives there is German.

### **32. Adverbs of manner (irregular adverbs)**

E.g. hard, fast

### **33. Would prefer/Would rather**

E.g. Id' rather do that.

E.g. I'd prefer to do that.

### **34. Passive in present simple and past simple**

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It is tried to have at least one multiple choice item for each grammar aspect with varying usages.

# Reading Comprehension

Inst. Objectives

Content

---

The learners are required to have the ability to comprehend texts with the types of texts and topics mentioned below and the average readability as follows.

Type of texts:

General information texts about some topics such as: working habits, medical operations, graphology, future prediction, social norms, happiness, romance, favorite things, appearances, picture descriptions, creativity, smells in the world, new calendar, history, choosing names for babies, cinema and theatre

Readability of reading texts according to Fog index of readability  
Average readability = 13.72

Note: To choose the texts, intuition and attention to the topics deems necessary.

Moreover, learners are required to have mastery over the following skills and abilities the testing of which should be taken into account by the test designer.

Tested skills:

Reading comprehension

1. Comprehension of words
2. Comprehension of sentences
3. Comprehension of ideas
4. Comprehension of the whole message
5. Relative ability to deal with reading of general knowledge.

Tasks and type of questions:

- a. Looking for gist (skimming)
  - b. Looking for specific information (scanning)
-

## Vocabulary

Inst. Objectives

Content

---

The students are required to do the followings with the vocabulary brought in word study section, reading texts, writing section, and language functions of the book:

1. At least, acquiring a passive knowledge of the vocabulary esp. in reading texts.
2. Ability to use the vocabulary in a meaningful sentence (active knowledge).
3. Ability to define words in English.
4. Ability to use the vocabulary in some language functions in the book.
5. Accurate use of prepositions with verbs.

The have a better view of the vocabulary load of the book, a list of the probable new words to learners is brought here.

Interruption, Mess, Bite, Scratch, Tap, Efficient, Inefficient, Simplicity, Draft, Doodle, Correspondence, District, Vote for, Look it up, Including, Opportunity, Cheat, Complain, Fountain, Cathedral, Souvenir, Ornament, Association, Audience, Compose, Improvised, Apologies, Suggestion, Refusal, Brilliant, Stretch, Hip, Absolutely horrified, Operation, Bandage, Surgery, Traditional, Strict, Manage stress, Effectively, Ideal, Discover, Preference, Marvellous, Hopeless, Embarrassed, Apologies to, Express, Weigh, Essay, Recipe, Diary, Immigration, Neatest, Uniform, Wicked, Real, Disappear, Courage, Jewels, Diameter, Refund, Greengrocer, Get impatient, Shout, Insurance, Progressive, Overweight, Obligation, Permitted, Refuse, She helps, Character, Application, Avoid, Expressions, surrounded, Suspense film, Rewarding, Pessimistic, Endosing, Peel, Reheat, Gentle, Breeze, spell, Violent, Fog, Changeable, Variety, Humid, Rainfall, Antiseptic, Worried, Frightened, Valley, Steep, Lane, Ecstatic

Note: It should be tried to leave a lot of opportunities for learners to guess the meaning of the words from the context.

**APPENDIX (F)**  
(Dictogloss Passages)

## Causative Clause

1.

### Life Costs

Jerry and Harry are talking about their life costs. Harry complains that first he has got to pay a lot of money to buy home appliances, such as fridge, dish washer, and so on, and right after a couple of months there he goes again paying to have them repaired. For instance, every month he has his washing machine repaired, or it was right last week when he had a technician fix his fridge just after buying it two months ago. Also, he needs to get a service man to bring home some accessories to those home appliances every now and then. He believes he spends one third of his salary every month having his home appliances repaired. But Jerry believes that the problem lies in the fact that he does not know where to get the home appliances from. He believes he should have a famous company bring his appliances since those companies provide good guarantees, and also their appliances' parts are of higher quality. Further, he adds that despite paying higher prices for appliances from famous companies, they are more durable, and the advantage of durability makes up for that higher price. He also smartly adds that he personally buys high quality appliances at higher prices since he is not that much rich to buy cheap things.

2.

### Family Man

Toady was a very busy day for John, although it was his weekend. From the morning, he needed to do the stuff his wife told him to do. First, he had a technician repair the washing machine. Then he got their servant to wash all the clothes, and he needed to check out if everything was being done ok. Then, he had his and the children's hair cut. It took him almost 2 hours. After coming back home, he needed to have somebody do the gardening but he could not find anybody, and he himself took it over. Later, he needed to have the car tuned up since tomorrow they are supposed to go on a trip on the first day of summer holidays. Finally, he got an engineer to check the security system of the house for the time they are on holiday. Now what do you think his wife was doing during the day? Yes, to every one's wonder she was all checking out if her husband was doing every thing properly. That is all being henpecked.

3.

### City Life Vs. Village Life

Rebecca is a young girl who would like to start a new life in the village, since she is tired of city life. She would like to have peace in the countryside and enjoy the clean weather. “But every thing is not that easy”, her mother claims. She says, in the city whenever you do not have time, you have somebody cook or bring some food for you from a snack bar, but it is not the case in the village. Whenever your car has a problem, you easily have a mechanic repair it, but in the village there are not enough mechanics. Here, you have your hair cut, trimmed, or done very often, but in the village, there are not many hairdressers. Also, most of the times, you get somebody to do the house work, while in the village you can not find such a person. In here, you have a tailor make your clothes, while in the village people are their own tailors. In general, in here people have others do their things, but in the village all people are self-sufficient.

Considering all these points Rebecca still believes she can have a nice time in the countryside.

Should Have + P.P.

1.

### Job Qualifications

Two months ago, Mary applied for an official work in an organization. The job needed some qualifications, such as the ability to type and use computer, as well as knowing a second language, preferably French. Anyhow, she was accepted for the job with no problem which did not seem to be a problem at all in the beginning. Actually, she lied about her ability to speak another language since she firstly thought it was not that much important. But later her boss wanted to go on a business trip to France, and asked for her help regarding language knowledge. As a result, Mary told her boss everything about the problem, and now the problem is that she is going to be fired, and she is also supposed to pay some fines for what she has done to that company. By the way, some friends have given her some suggestions which do not appear to be of any use now, but could be useful to some. For instance, one of her friends believes that she shouldn't have taken the job in the very beginning at all. The other friend thinks she should have applied for the job honestly. Her own father believes she shouldn't have looked for a job, for the reason that a girl does not need to work at all. Her brother thinks differently. He says, taking the job in the way her sister did was completely ok, but the point is that she should have later apologized deeply to her boss, and she should have promised to make up for the lie by



learning French as soon as possible. Finally, one colleague suggests that she should have thought up of an excuse to escape from the trip without revealing the truth. Now, which suggestion do you think is the best and what is your own suggestion in this matter?

2.

### Agony Aunt

I am an agony aunt. I work for the agony column of a weekly called "The Couples". In the next edition, we would like to hold a competition. In this competition, the readers first read some letters of my readers about their problems, and the suggestions I provided. The task of the competitors is to provide alternative suggestions, and one person, for providing the best alternative suggestion for each problem, will be awarded 50 dollars according to the idea of the letter writer him/herself.

Now the first problem of a reader:

One reader said her husband had to work half a month in New York and could stay only half a month in Washington in his own city with the family. This matter was really annoying for her and later she asked for divorce. After one month living without him, she really misses her husband and would like to join back but ...

I said she should have thought about the consequences of her action before asking for divorce, and even now if she wants to ask him back, she should still think about it twice because it may make things worse.

The other reader said she has got two kids. The younger kid is always jealous of the other, although they have been always treated by their moms equally.

I suggested she should have not treated them equally since they are different even if they are in the same family. For sure every kid has

her own special affective condition which could not be matched with a particular behavior, so she should have tried to treat them according to their age and character.

The other reader said he has a neighbor whose car alarm always went off at midnight by the slightest movement around. He told the neighbor for a couple of times about the problem but the neighbor gave the least attention. Finally, one night he got furious and smashed the car window. Now he has to both make up for the damage and tolerate the alarm as well.

I said he should have first talked to other neighbors and then he should have taken action. Moreover he should have called the police for that problem.

3.

### Football Losers

Harry Coleman is the coach of a teenager football team in the second league of England. Today, they lost a match because the players had many mistakes. He tells the goalie that he should have been more energetic in this match, and he should have had better sleep the night before. He also points out to the defense line of the team that they should have defended in a more supportive manner, that is, they should have backed each other up at the time of the offence of the other team. Also, the midfielders should have sent the ball to the offence line fast with cross balls. They should have also paid more attention to tactics rather than individual techniques. Moreover, the attackers of the team shouldn't have been trapped that much in off-side. Finally, the coach thinks he himself should have had the substitutions earlier to freshen up the team.

## Second Conditional

1.

### Be in Your Own shoes

For sure it has happened to us a lot. I mean putting ourselves in the shoes of others. For example right now that you are in the class you are telling yourself “if I were the teacher I would skip this part of the lesson. Or if I were in my friend’s shoes I would not do that. There are two matters in this regard. One point is that we never think about ourselves, that is, now that I am in my own shoes what should I do. Or if somebody else were in our shoes what would he do? As you see in this way things get better. The other point is that we imagine ourselves in the shoes of others very easily and decide upon it even much more easily. You better ask yourself how much do you know about the situation of the other person to imagine yourself in his shoes. Or when you imagine you were another person, do you really imagine you were that person with all contextual factors or just look at it superficially.

So from now on let's be more realistic and try to be in your own shoes.

2.

### Famous People

Many people would like to be in others' shoes, of course by others, famous and powerful people are meant. But what people would do if they were in famous people's shoes can turn out to be interesting. For example a young person says if he were Bill Gates he would buy a roadster BMW with that much money. Another young person says if he were in Bill Gates's shoes he would develop Microsoft. Another person says if he were Einstein he would not enter the field of physics at all, because atomic bomb as the result of his efforts. However another person says if he were Einstein he would for sure study physics but he would not study that much hard. How funny. By the question is what would you do if you were a famous powerful person? Do you agree with what people said in this text?

3.

### Learning a Foreign Language

Philip is a high school student. He would like to develop his French knowledge so that he can get accepted in a French university. But he does not know what to do, although he is a very hard working person. One friend tells him if he was in his shoes the first thing he would do is to register in a French class. Of course if he registered in a class he would not just go to the class since it would not be enough. But rather, he would also continue his studying outside the class. He further says that if he were in this situation he would keep in touch with what ever related to French. It could be by reading newspaper, watching French TV programs, and talking to French people. The last point is hat the friend says if he were in this situation he would plan what he is supposed to do.

I Wish ....

1.

### I Wish I Never Wished

Have you ever noticed how people change when they grow up? They actually change in everything, in shape, in behavior, and even in their wishes. Yes wishes. You may wonder how such a thing is possible. Just think about yourself. When you were a kid you just wished for the best toy. In future, oh God knows. Let's hear some wishes from some people at different ages. A kid wishes he had the best computer system for playing the best quality games. He also wishes he could buy all the best toys in the world, and unfortunately he wishes he could live with both his parents. What a pity.

A middle-aged person wishes he could get the best possible promotion in his job. A young woman wishes she could buy the best jewelry and dresses. On the other hand, an old person wishes he could visit all his children every week. He also wishes he had a healthy body; the thing even young people don't have. How ambitious.

Now think about your self. What do you wish now, and compare it with the time you were a kid. Have you changed since then? How are you going to change?

But one thing is clear. Making wishes is the only thing for which you do not need to pay taxes.



2.

### Just Act

Most people are worried about the problems they have, and all of them wish they could solve all the problems. That is very good. Let's look at an example. A young person is at the bottom of the class. For sure this person wishes he could be the top student. Another person wishes he could get the best possible job. An ill person wishes he could be healthy. A prisoner wishes he were not in prison. That is very good to be worried about problems. But just to be worried and to wish is not enough. Successful people have a motto. They say don't be obsessed with daydreaming. But believe in your dreams and act upon them. So get up and act.

3.

### Wish Analysis

Chris Oswald is an American psychiatrist. Similar to all psychiatrists, he talks to the clients and solves their problems. But contrary to most psychiatrists, he talks to his clients about different things. That is his own innovative way to know the personality of his patients, and as a result to solve their problems. Of course his technique is very simple but at the same time the analysis could turn out to be very complex. He analyzes the personality of his clients through their wishes. For example a person wishes he could have the best job in the world. Another person wishes he could have the best possible job for him. By comparing these wishes he gets to know how logical a person is. Another example; a person wishes he could solve somebody's problem, on the other hand a person wishes he could solve all his own problems. These two shows how they care about others and how selfish they are. Little by little, by gathering data from all these wishes, Dr. Oswald can analyze the personality. Of course these examples were very simple but by gathering data about the wishes of a person through, for instance, 1 month treatment, a lot of useful data could be achieved. Now put yourself in the shoes of Dr. Oswald. Can you analyze the personality of some people with these wishes?

**APPENDIX (G)**  
(Inter-Rater Reliability Coefficients)

### Correlation Coefficients (Pretest)

		WISH1	IF1	CAUSE1	SHOULD1	AVE1	WISH2	IF2	CAUSE2	SHOULD2	AVE2
WISH1	Pearson Correlation	1	.315(*)	.583(**)	.325(*)	.774(**)	.971(**)	.347(**)	.451(**)	.425(**)	.761(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.014	.000	.011	.000	.000	.007	.000	.001	.000
	N	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
IF1	Pearson Correlation	.315(*)	1	.431(**)	.266(*)	.762(**)	.325(*)	.948(**)	.469(**)	.227	.767(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014	.	.001	.040	.000	.011	.000	.000	.081	.000
	N	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
CAUSE1	Pearson Correlation	.583(**)	.431(**)	1	.466(**)	.813(**)	.503(**)	.377(**)	.919(**)	.520(**)	.752(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.	.000	.000	.000	.003	.000	.000	.000
	N	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
SHOULD1	Pearson Correlation	.325(*)	.266(*)	.466(**)	1	.563(**)	.340(**)	.251	.475(**)	.963(**)	.572(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.040	.000	.	.000	.008	.053	.000	.000	.000
	N	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
AVE1	Pearson Correlation	.774(**)	.762(**)	.813(**)	.563(**)	1	.745(**)	.731(**)	.755(**)	.595(**)	.980(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
WISH2	Pearson Correlation	.971(**)	.325(*)	.503(**)	.340(**)	.745(**)	1	.335(**)	.386(**)	.411(**)	.744(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.011	.000	.008	.000	.	.009	.002	.001	.000
	N	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
IF2	Pearson Correlation	.347(**)	.948(**)	.377(**)	.251	.731(**)	.335(**)	1	.417(**)	.210	.777(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.000	.003	.053	.000	.009	.	.001	.107	.000
	N	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
CAUSE2	Pearson Correlation	.451(**)	.469(**)	.919(**)	.475(**)	.755(**)	.386(**)	.417(**)	1	.503(**)	.747(**)



WISH2	Pearson Correlation	.993(**)	.575(**)	.579(**)	.455(**)	.778(**)	1	.579(**)	.563(**)	.436(**)	.766(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
IF2	Pearson Correlation	.571(**)	.986(**)	.611(**)	.505(**)	.834(**)	.579(**)	1	.604(**)	.505(**)	.846(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
	N	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
CAUSE2	Pearson Correlation	.567(**)	.598(**)	.992(**)	.569(**)	.817(**)	.563(**)	.604(**)	1	.572(**)	.836(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
	N	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
SHOULD2	Pearson Correlation	.446(**)	.515(**)	.579(**)	.995(**)	.793(**)	.436(**)	.505(**)	.572(**)	1	.773(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
	N	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
AVE2	Pearson Correlation	.765(**)	.842(**)	.834(**)	.775(**)	.987(**)	.766(**)	.846(**)	.836(**)	.773(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
	N	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

بسمه تعالی

چکیده پایان نامه

عنوان پایان نامه:

بررسی تطبیقی، تاثیر تاکید روی ساخت های زبانی به صورت ضمنی و صریح  
تاخیری، بر دقت بیان شفاهی زبان آموزان فارسی زبان انگلیسی

نگارنده: مسعود سیری

رشته تحصیلی: آموزش زبان انگلیسی

استاد راهنما: دکتر پرویز مفتون

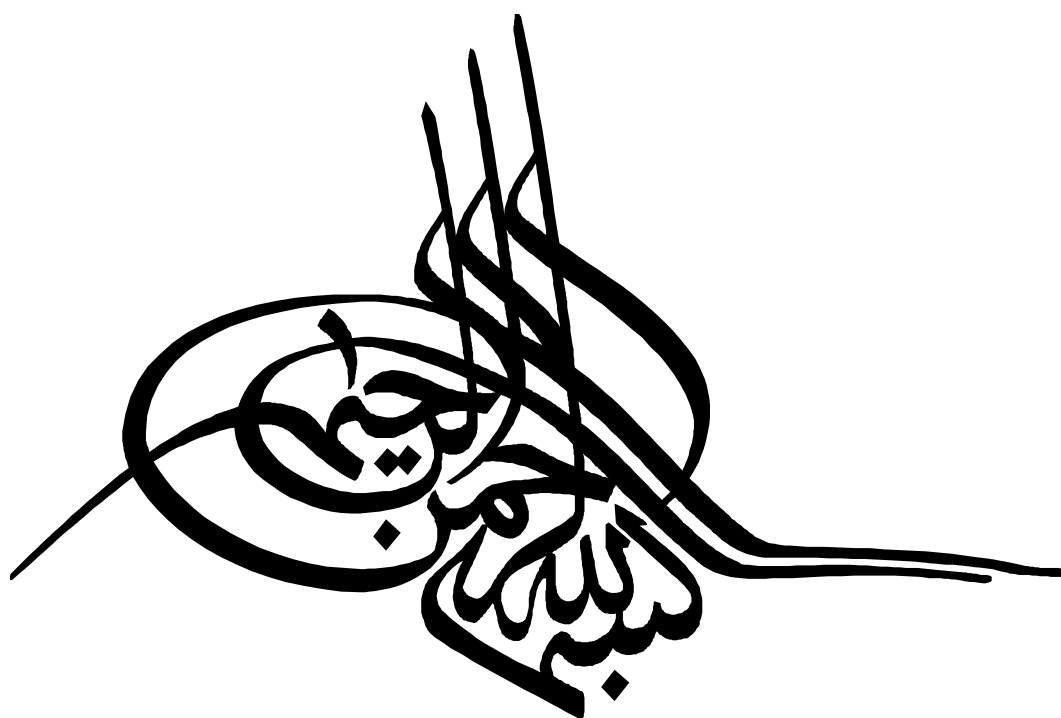
استاد مشاور: دکتر محمود میرطباطبایی

تاریخ نگارش: شهریور ماه ۱۳۸۴

هدف از انجام این پژوهش، مقایسه بین دو روش تاکید روی ساخت های زبانی به صورت ضمنی از طریق ترمیم اصلاحی، و صریح تاخیری بر دقت بیان شفاهی زبان آموزان فارسی زبان انگلیسی بوده است. بدین منظور شصت زبان آموز در مقطع متوسطه (Intermediate) در موسسه زبان کیش، واحد رسالت، از طریق یک آزمون همگون سازی انتخاب شدند. سپس، در پیش آزمون، به صورت یک مصاحبه ساخت مند، دقت این زبان آموزان در استفاده از چهار ساختار زبانی بررسی شد. از طریق نمونه گیری تطبیقی بر اساس نمرات پیش آزمون، این شصت نفر در دو گروه همگون آزمایش و مقایسه قرار گرفتند. پس از مشخص کردن طرح پژوهش با عنوان طرح آزمایشی، مربیان گروه آزمایش، به صورت ضمنی از طریق ترمیم اصلاحی، روی چهار ساختار زبانی طی دوازده کار کلاسی در دوازده جلسه تاکید کردند. از طرفی دیگر،

مربیان گروه مقایسه، به صورت صریح تاخیری، روی همان چهار ساختار زبانی، طی دوازده کار کلاسی مشابه با گروه آزمایش در دوازده جلسه، تاکید کردند. سپس اثر این دو روش تاکید روی ساخت های زبانی، از طریق تحلیل های آماری ANCOVA و  $t$ -test مورد بررسی قرار گرفت. در نتیجه تحلیل آماری مشخص شد که تاکید روی ساخت های زبانی به صورت ضمنی از طریق ترمیم اصلاحی، در مقایسه با روش صریح تاخیری، اثر بیشتری بر میانگین دقت بیان شفاهی زبان آموزان داشته است، اگرچه هر دو روش تاکید روی ساخت های زبانی به صورت مجزا، تاثیر معنادار بیشتری در مقایسه با یکدیگر نداشتند.







دانشگاه صنعتی ایران

پایان نامه:

جهت اخذ درجه کارشناسی ارشد

موضوع:

بررسی تطبیقی تأثیر تاکید روی ساخت های زبانی به صورت  
ضمنی و صریح تاخیری، بردقت بیان شفاهی زبان آموزان فارسی  
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نگارش:

مسعود سیری

شهریور ۱۳۸۴