NOTE TO USERS

A Comparison of Textual Input Enhancement and Explicit Rule Presentation in Secondary One English as a Second Language Classes

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ABSTRACT

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This quasi-experimental classroom-based study compared the effectiveness of explicit rule-based teaching and textual input enhancement on a linguistic feature known to be problematic for francophone learners of English as a second language (i.e. third person singular possessive determiners *his/her*). Over a four-week period, 4 experimental classes of secondary one francophone learners of English were exposed to form-focused instruction in one of the following conditions. The enhancement group (E) students were exposed to texts in which the target features of the study were typographically enhanced. The participants in the rule (R) group were given an explicit explanation of the rule and exposed to the same materials without typographical enhancement. Students in the rule+enhancement (R+) condition were exposed to both of the above-mentioned conditions (i.e. explicit rule explanation and typographical enhancement of the target feature). Finally, the control (C) group was simply exposed to the materials without rule explanation or typographical enhancement. A pretest, immediate, delayed and a long-term delayed posttest design was used for the purpose of this study. Three tasks were employed: a cloze task, a grammaticality judgment task, and a picture elicitation task.

The tendency on all tests and all testing occasions showed that R+>R>E>C. Showing that the combination of rule presentation coupled with textual input enhancement was most beneficial.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

One of the major reforms in second language teaching in the past years has been a change in teaching methodology from a focus on the structural properties of a language to a focus on meaning. The primary interest in second language curricula shifted from promoting a learner's grammatical correctness to fostering a learner's fluency necessary for "real-life" communication. As a result, instruction in accordance with the guidelines set out by the Ministry of Education of Quebec (MEQ) tended not to promote a focus on formal aspects of language, but rather communicative fluency. Advocates for this approach maintain that the primary objective of a second language program must be to provide language learners with meaningful comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985; Krashen and Terrell, 1983). This is thought to be the sufficient condition for successful language acquisition.

There is little doubt that L2 learners can reach high levels of communicative success in contexts in which they are exposed to large amounts of comprehensible input. Nonetheless, such input alone does not always lead to accuracy. Some researchers maintain that something more might be needed in order to enable learners to attain more advanced levels in the L2 (Long, 1991; Spada and Lightbown, 1999). Since Long concluded in 1983 that language instruction does make a difference, there has been a growing consensus among researchers regarding the positive effects of language instruction in the second language classroom. Hence, the principal focus of L2 instruction research has since progressed from asking whether or not instruction makes a difference to investigating the types of instruction that are most effective in fostering second language acquisition. In this perspective, a number of language acquisition researchers (e.g.,

Sharwood Smith, 1991; Swain, 1998; Trahey and White, 1993; VanPatten and Cadierno, 1993) have proposed and tested different teaching techniques integrating form within the communicative method. Generally, these techniques have rendered positive results. Accordingly, Norris and Ortega, 2000, have shown in their meta-analyses of 49 form-focused instruction studies that there is considerable evidence of the positive effects of integrating attention to form within meaning-focused instruction in the second language classroom.

There is presently an abundance of focus on form techniques available to teachers. The choice of type of instructional intervention will depend ultimately upon many considerations, such as the nature of the linguistic feature being taught, the extent of integration of form with meaning, the proficiency level of the students, and the learners' first language. These are just some of the factors that must be considered by classroom teachers when pedagogical decisions are being made. Because of the wide array of tasks and techniques and their distinct benefits, teachers are confronted with day-to-day decisions that may be, at times, overwhelming and confusing.

The following thesis study was carried out as a response to the debate as to how to most efficiently apply some degree of attention to form in a communicative classroom. There are many questions underlying this debate. These include: What parts of the input must a learner pay attention to in order to internalize a target feature? What linguistic features require elevated degrees of focus on form? Is implicit focus on form more effective than explicit focus on form? This two-month long quasi-experimental study was conducted in 4 intact secondary one regular ESL classes in the province of Quebec. It compared 4 methods of form-focused instruction varying in degree of explicitness. Each

method was operationalized as follows; the enhancement group (E) students were exposed to texts in which the target features of the study were typographically enhanced through the use of various methods such as bolding, underlining, capitalizing, and italicizing. The participants in the rule (R) group were given an explicit explanation of the rule and exposed to the same materials without typographical enhancement. Students in the rule+enhancement (R+) condition were exposed to both of the above-mentioned conditions (i.e. explicit rule explanation and typographical enhancement of the target feature). Finally, the control (C) group was simply exposed to the materials without rule explanation or typographical enhancement.

This thesis is divided into six chapters. Chapter 1 presents a brief overview of the role of grammar in the ESL classroom in the province of Quebec throughout the past thirty years. Chapter 2 discusses the role of input, intake and attention within various perspectives. Chapter 3 examines diverse techniques of integrating grammar within second language teaching as well as the literature regarding textual input enhancement. Furthermore, it considers both the role of L1 in second language learning and the target linguistic feature of this study. Chapter 4 looks at the methodology of the study, namely the milieu, participants, teacher, research design, research schedule, teaching materials, and instruments. In Chapter 5 results of this study are presented. Finally, Chapter 6 offers discussion and conclusions related to the findings.

Brief Overview of ESL Instruction in Quebec

The 1970's and 1980's

In 1979 the MEQ published *The Schools of Quebec: Policy Statement and Plan of Action.* This document, responding to general discontent with results rendered by the audiolingual programs then in place, as well as the lack of clear, precise, and operational objectives, announced forthcoming changes in all elementary and secondary school programs. In the 1970s, second language learning theory was based on the behaviourist model. From this perspective, all learning, including second languages, took place through the formation of habits. To this end, decontextualized drills, translation exercises, and language lessons organized around grammatical structures were frequent. During the late 1970's, these methods of language teaching were called into question. At this time, British applied linguists such as Widdowson (1972) and Brumfit and Johnson (1979) emphasized the functional and communicative potential of language and saw a need for language teaching to focus on communicative proficiency rather than mastery of structures.

In the 1980s, English second language programs in Quebec were revised following the communicative approach, largely based on Krashen's (1982) model of second language acquisition, in which the processing of input, rather than grammar instruction, played a pivotal role. Central to the communicative approach was the notion that meaningful communication was the goal of instruction and that learners acquire a second language in much the same way that children acquire their first language. Students were thus encouraged to use English actively and not just manipulate its structures. Instruction was organised around themes, objectives, notions, and functions. In other words, language instruction was meaningful and content-based rather than structure-based.

The 1990's -- The Need for Some Focus on Form

Although communicative language teaching seems to be more reasoned than the teaching of linguistic features in isolation and independent from meaning, it is believed that though L2 learners are exposed to structures, they might not necessarily succeed in acquiring linguistic features through naturalistic input only. Long and Robinson (1998) have pointed out a number of problems with an entirely meaning-based approach. First, evidence suggests that older learners no longer have the same capacity as younger learners to attain native-like accuracy through mere exposure (Long, 1990). Therefore, when advanced proficiency is the goal, something besides exposure might be needed in order to compensate for age constraints.

Second, acquirers with prolonged exposure to the target language may become fluent but lag behind native-speakers in terms of accuracy. Evidence for this comes from research conducted with French immersion students. In these programs, students receive subject-matter instruction in the target language; however; there is often little or no attention to formal aspects of language or error correction. Research suggests that although immersion students are able to understand and produce language, they often do so with nontargetlike accuracy (Day and Shapson, 1991; Harley 1989; Harley and Swain, 1984). Thus, when acquisition is entirely experiential and meaning-focused, some linguistic features do not develop to target-like levels. Hence, although learning a second language through experience is possible, instruction might be effective in helping to overcome the limitations of an exclusive meaning-based approach.

Finally, some L1/L2 grammatical contrasts may be difficult to determine. That is, learners may make incorrect generalizations based on their L1, and these may not be

disconfirmed through exposure to positive evidence alone (White, 1989; 1991). This point will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 3.

The early 1990s saw an abundance of studies that considered once again the role of form in the ESL classroom (e.g., Doughty, 1991; White, 1991; White, Spada, Lightbown and Ranta, 1991). These studies have shown that explicit focus on form may provide a more salient kind of input, which might help make learners more aware of forms that could possibly pass unnoticed in naturalistic input alone.

The Present

Presently, the Ministère de l'éducation du Québec is implementing a reform in the area of education. With regards to the English as a second language (ESL) core program for first cycle secondary education, the new curriculum is largely based on the communicative approach, strategy-based learning, as well as cooperative learning. The principal guidelines present in the *Programme de formation de l'école québécoise enseignement secondaire 1er cycle* (2004) promote the development of three competencies: to interact orally in English, to reinvest understanding of texts, and to write and produce texts. While students are encouraged to make creative use of English, some emphasis is put on the accuracy of the message. However, errors in grammar, syntax, and word choice are accepted if they do not interfere with the clarity of the message. In this context, teachers are still faced with many choices when determining tasks and techniques that might be advantageous in fostering grammatical accuracy in their learners. The goal of this thesis study was to isolate the effects of one specific

pedagogical technique (i.e. typographical enhancement) from other pedagogical techniques in an attempt to show its benefits or disadvantages.

CHAPTER 2 : INPUT INTAKE, AND ATTENTION

Input

It is generally accepted among SLA researchers that input plays a crucial role in the language learning process.

> The concept of input is perhaps the single most important concept of second language acquisition. It is trivial to point out that no individual can learn a second language without input of some sort. In fact no model of second language acquisition does not avail itself of input in trying to explain how learners create second language grammars." (Gass, 1997 p.1).

However, as Corder (1967) observed, presenting a linguistic form to a learner does not imply that it will become intake, a term that he defined as that part of the input which is attended to. Hence, the central concern in SLA research is how learners derive intake from input. The following section of this thesis will look at input as it is viewed from different theoretical perspectives. It will then be followed by a description of the different operationalizations of intake.

Input from a Universal Grammar Perspective

The Chomskyan school of thought claims that all human beings are endowed with a framework for language learning (Chomsky, 1959). Chomsky referred to this innate ability as the language acquisition device (LAD). This device is believed to contain a universal set of principles and parameters, which enable humans to acquire language. Chomsky (1986) argues that all human languages must contain these two components.

Principles are invariable and apply to all natural languages and parameters characterize differences between languages. Universal grammarians hold the above-mentioned claims to be applied to the acquisition of a first language. In terms of second language acquisition, there are currently four positions (L. White 1996).

1-No access to UG:

Advocates of this position argue that after a critical period for language acquisition, the L2 learner no longer has access to UG, but relies on other learning mechanisms than the LAD. Thus, in the case of an adult learner, L2 input feeds directly into an L2 developing system and does not interact with UG.

2- Full access to UG

Proponents of this position maintain that UG continues to sustain L2 learning. Consequently, L2 input is mediated through UG.

3- Indirect access to UG

Supporters of this position suggest that L2 learners have access to their UG via their first language. Accordingly, the learner uses L1 parameters as a basis for L2. If the L2 possesses parameters different from the L1, other mechanisms, such as negative evidence, might be necessary for resetting parameters (White 1989).

4- Partial access to UG

In this case, both UG and the first language affect L2. Here, input is filtered through UG or the L1.

No matter what position one adheres to, input remains crucial to UG supporters because it is what enables learners to "sort-out" their internalized grammar. "Universal Grammar is the black box responsible for language acquisition. It is the mechanism in the mind which allows children to construct a grammar out of the raw language materials supplied by their parents." (Cook 1997, p.262). The same would be said for the L2 learner.

Input Hypothesis

Krashen (1982) proposed a theory that is in some ways similar to Chomsky's ideas on first language learning. In Krashen's view, second language acquisition takes place as learners read and hear samples of the target language. Their speech and writing eventually emerge as an outcome of their exposure to input. There are five essential hypotheses that constitute Krashen's Monitor Model. Of these, the input hypothesis is the one that is most relevant to this discussion. It stems from the position that humans acquire the rules of a language in a predictable sequence. Learners move along this sequence by receiving comprehensible input, which is defined by Krashen as L2 input just beyond a learner's current L2 competence. That is, if a learner's current interlanguage competence is *i,* the comprehensible input is *i + 1.* Input, which is either too simple or too complex, will not be useful for acquisition to take place. "... Humans

acquire language in only one way – by understanding messages, or by receiving comprehensible input … We move from i, our current level, to i + 1, the next level along the natural order, by understanding input containing i + 1" (Krashen, 1985 p.2). Krashen's input hypothesis has been widely criticized for being vague and imprecise. Weaknesses have been noted, especially in Krashen's inability to clearly operationalize the structures that constitute the *i + 1* level. (Ioup, 1984). Furthermore, critics such as McLaughlin (1987) have pointed out that the Input Hypothesis is not amenable to easy testing. However, although there is no consensus on the idea that comprehensible input alone is sufficient for L2 acquisition, there is agreement that it is necessary.

Input from a Cognitive Perspective

Cognitivist theory for second language acquisition stems from work in cognitive psychology. Proponents of this school of thought, such as Anderson (1985) and McLaughlin (1987), hypothesize that the human mind has a limited capacity for processing information and that second language learning involves a shift from controlled to automatic processing.

> Within this framework, second language learning is viewed as the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill. To learn a second language is to learn a skill, because various aspects of the task must be practised and integrated into fluent performance. This requires the automatization of component sub-skills. Learning is a cognitive process, because it is thought to involve internal representations that regulate and guide performance…as performance improves, there is constant restructuring as learners simplify, unify, and gain increasing control over their internal

representations (Karmiloff-Smith, 1986). These two notions – automatization and restructuring- are central to cognitive theory.

(McLaughlin, 1987, pp.133-134)

Thus, learners first notice various linguistic elements in their environment (i.e. controlled processing). Such processing is then constrained by short-term memory (STM). Through repeated practice or activation, these elements become stored in long-term memory (LTM), which renders them readily and rapidly available whenever a speaker requires them (for discussion on fluent performance, see Segalowitz, 2000). Learning is thus seen as a movement from controlled to automatic processes via practice. When the shift from STM to LTM occurs, new linguistic elements can be stored temporarily in STM and can move from there to LTM. The new linguistic elements must then adjust to those already present in LTM. This process is referred to as restructuring of the linguistic system in L2. From this perspective of second language acquisition, learners interact with input as they focus their attention on those parts of the input that have not yet been stored in LTM. As a consequence, attention is crucial. A learner must notice that there is something to be learned. This can be achieved by drawing learners' attention to those parts of the input that do not coincide with their already existing linguistic knowledge.

Intake

Corder (1967) formulated a clear distinction between input and intake. The simple fact of presenting a certain linguistic form to a learner in the classroom does not

necessarily qualify it for the status of input, for the reason that input is what goes in, not what is available for going in, and we may reasonably suppose that it is the learner who controls this input, or more properly his intake." (p.165). For his part, VanPatten (1996) defines intake in the following manner.

> Intake is the subset of filtered input that serves as the data for accommodation by the developing system. It is the input that has been processed in some way by the learners during the act of comprehension. Intake is NOT synonymous with internalized language. Instead intake are the data made available for further processing (e.g., internalization) once the input has been processed (p.10).

According to Gass (1997), the first stage of input utilization is the recognition that there is something to be learned, that is, there is a gap between what the learner knows and what there is to know. In her view, intake can be operationalized as apperceived input that has been further processed.

Although the characterizations of intake vary, there seems to be a consensus that learners only take in some of the language to which they are exposed. The question is, which part of the language is actually processed by the learner in some way to become intake? Although, as noted above, there is widespread agreement among SLA researchers that input is central and essential for L2 acquisition, there is still much debate and uncertainty about the manner in which elements of input become intake.

Many researchers, such as Gass (1997), Schmidt (1994a, 1994b), and Tomlin and Villa (1994), have argued that because second language learners are surrounded by second language data, some mechanism must be available to help them sort through these data.

One way of making this input more manageable is by the learner focussing his/her attention on a limited amount of data. Thus, there is general agreement that attention plays a key role in the conversion of input to intake.

Attention

James (1890), characterized attention as "the taking possession by the mind in clear and vivid form, one out of what seems several simultaneously possible objects or trains of thought" (p.403). Since then, the concept of attention has received growing consideration in recent SLA research (e.g., Gass, 1997; Robinson, 1995; Schmidt, 1994a, 1995; Tomlin and Villa, 1994; VanPatten, 1994). Although, different researchers operationalize the term "attention" differently, all seem to agree on the importance of its role in second language acquisition.

In 1990, Schmidt advanced the "noticing hypothesis". According to Schmidt, noticing, or conscious attention to a linguistic form in the input, is necessary for consequent L2 development. This proposal counters the claim that second language acquisition is a subconscious process in which conscious learning is not necessary for the acquisition of competence in a second language (Krashen, 1985). In his 1990 article, Schmidt used the term, "noticing" to refer to focal attention, which is, registering an occurrence of a stimulus present in the environment. The main evidence in support of his theory of noticing comes from his personal diary kept while he was learning Portuguese in Brazil (Schmidt and Frota, 1986). In this diary, he commented on what he believed he was learning. Furthermore, he arranged to be tape-recorded during conversations with native-speakers. In their analysis, Schmidt and Frota discovered a remarkable correlation between what

Schmidt had noticed and the linguistic forms he used during conversations. Thus, the Schmidt and Frota study provides a close connection between noticing and emergence in production.

> Journal entry, Week 21...I'm suddenly hearing things I never heard before, including things mentioned in class. Way back in the beginning, when we learned question words, we were told that there are alternate long and short forms like o que and o que é que, quem or quem é que. I have never heard the long forms, ever, and concluded that they were just another classroom fiction. But today, just before we left Cabo Frio, M said something to me that I didn't catch right away. It sounded like French que'est-ce que c'est, only much abbreviated, approximately [kekse], must be (o) que (é) que (vo)cê...
>
> Journal entry, week 22. I just said to N o que é que você quer, but quickly: [kekseker]. Previously, I would have said just o que. N didn't blink, so I guess I got it right. (p.140)

Schmidt considered noticing to act as a necessary step preceding the development of explicit knowledge of a feature and the eventual acquisition of that feature.

Furthermore, according to Schmidt (1993), "Noticing is crucially related to the question of what linguistic material is stored in memory" (p.24). Although noticing seems to be a necessary step in converting input to intake, there is no guarantee that when a form is noticed in the input, it is integrated into the learner's developing interlanguage. There have been numerous attempts on the part of researchers to bring learners to notice the targeted input. This research will be reviewed in Chapter 3.

For their part, Tomlin and Villa (1994) proposed that attention consists of three phases. I) Alertness is "readiness to deal with incoming stimuli or data' (p.190). Alertness is thus related to the rate at which information is chosen for further processing. That is, the greater the alertness, the faster information will be processed. 2) Orientation facilitates detection by directing attentional resources to a particular bit of information while excluding other information. 3) Detection is "the process that selects or engages a particular and specific bit of information" (p.192). Although detection uses up a lot of attentional resources, it is a prerequisite for further processing.

VanPatten (1994) argued that attention is both necessary and sufficient for learning L2 structure:

> Bob Smith is a learner of Spanish, a language that actively distinguishes between subjunctive and indicative mood...He begins to notice subjunctive in others' speech. He attends to it. Soon, he begins to use it in his own speech, perhaps in reduced contexts, but none the less he is beginning to use it. If you ask him for a rule, he might make one up. But in actuality, he doesn't have a rule. All he knows is that he has begun to attend to the subjunctive and the context in which it occurs and it has somehow begun to enter his linguistic system...Bob did not need to come up with a conscious rule; he only needed to pay attention. (p.34)

However, from VanPatten's perspective, the act of comprehending involves a great deal of attention. Learners are primarily driven to abstract meaning, and they allocate a great part of their attentional capacity to detect content words in the input. Therefore, learners process input for meaning before form. This is especially important in the case of low-

proficiency learners, who may allocate most of their attention to trying to comprehend what they hear or read.

In Robinson's (1995) view, the term attention is used three different ways in the literature. It describes the process involved in selecting the information to be processed and stored in memory. It illustrates our capacity for processing information. Finally, it describes the mental effort involved in processing information. Robinson believes that noticing is necessary to learning and subsequent encoding in long-term memory. He defines noticing as "detection (p.318).

This chapter examined input from different perspectives and attempted to show how it is a crucial component for second language acquisition, Moreover, the manner in which input is converted to intake was considered. Finally, the concept of attention as a central factor in the conversion of input to intake was discussed. In the next chapter of this thesis, various methods of enabling students to pay attention to form will be reviewed.

CHAPTER 3 FORM-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION

In this chapter, the terminology relevant to this thesis study will be explained. This will be followed by a brief overview of some implicit and explicit techniques available to teachers in the ESL classroom. Then, an extensive review of literature concerning textual input enhancement will be presented. In the second section of this chapter, an overview of research and theories that investigate the influence of L1 on L2 acquisition will be examined. Then, a review of research related to the grammatical component in focus in this thesis, third person singular possessive determiners will be discussed. Finally, the hypotheses and research questions that motivated this thesis will be presented.

Terminology

It is important to clarify the terminology used by different researchers to refer to instruction that deliberately focuses on the formal properties of language with the goal of facilitating the development of L2. Long (1991) argued that *focus on form* might be necessary in order to push learners toward target-like second language ability. Long's definition of the term is that focus on form "...overtly draws student's attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication." (pp. 45-46). Long distinguished this from *focus on forms,* which resembles the deductive approach used in traditional language teaching in which grammatical rules are taught explicitly and isolated from meaning. Thus, Long's operationalization of focus on form distinguishes between traditional grammar teaching and communicative language teaching, where form-focused instruction is highly contextualized. Long and Robinson (1998) suggested that focus on form should never be

planned in advance, but rather must exploit opportunities that arise naturally from the interaction of learners and tasks.

At the other end of the continuum, DeKeyser (1998) suggested that grammar instruction ought to be based on cognitive-psychological "skill theory" and claims:

> ...declarative knowledge should be developed first, before it can be proceduralized. This means that, if grammar is to be taught, it should be taught explicitly to achieve a maximum of understanding, and should be followed by some exercises to anchor it solidly in declarative form, so that it is easy to keep in mind during communicative exercises (p.58).

Despite Long's narrow definition, many researchers use *focus on form* in a more general sense to refer to a return to a concern with grammatical accuracy within a communicative context. This does not necessarily imply that it should at all times be unobtrusive or unplanned. To avoid confusion, Spada (1997) utilized the term *form-focused instruction* to refer to "pedagogical events in which attention is drawn to language (implicitly or explicitly) as a perceived need arises." (p.73). In this thesis, the term *form-focused instruction,* as it is defined by Spada (1997), will be used.

Ellis (1994) proposed that there are three ways to learn an L2 and that second language learners are likely to engage in all of them. These are: 1) explicitly, through rules (i.e., assimilation of rules following instruction), 2) explicitly, through selective learning (i.e., searching for information and building and then testing hypotheses), 3) implicitly (i.e., unconscious, automatic abstraction of the rule derived from exposure). There are also various ways to teach, and these lie along a continuum that ranges from implicit to explicit.

In the following section of this paper, some explicit and implicit methods of form-focused instruction will be presented

Types of Form-Focused Instruction

Explicit Instruction

Doughty and Williams (1998) distinguished between explicit and implicit focus on form in the following manner:

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

Explicit instruction also refers to any measure taken in order to inform L2 learners of functional aspects of the target language. According to VanPatten (1996),

> Explicit instruction refers to planned and organized teaching designed to inform learners of how the second language works. Explicit instruction generally involves some kind of explanation (explicit information about the language) and some kind of practice, but not always. What makes explicit instruction explicit is the information provided to the learner about how the language works. (p.9).

In a metanalysis of experimental focus on form studies, Norris and Ortega (2000) concluded that treatments involving an explicit focus on the rule of L2 structures are more effective than treatments that do not include such a focus.

Corrective Feedback

A teacher may deliver form-focused instruction by intervening in response to a student's utterance. These interventions may be either explicit or implicit. One type of feedback technique that is used is the recast (i.e. reformulation of a learner's utterance that changes one or more of its components while maintaining its central meaning). In the view of Long and Robinson (1998), feedback must always be implicit and delivered in the form of recasts. In 1997, Lyster and Ranta concluded that implicit correction in the form of recasts in French immersion classes accounted for the greatest percentage of a teacher's corrective feedback. However, there was less learner repair in these cases than with more explicit types of feedback. They suggested that the implicit recast perhaps does not succeed in drawing the learner's attention to the form.

In support of the idea that a more explicit type of error correction may be needed, Nicholas, Lightbown, and Spada (2001) argued that implicit recasts simply provide positive evidence and that learners may have no conscious awareness that the recast is the appropriate positive evidence. They found that the classroom context makes it difficult for learners to identify recasts as feedback on form, and hence, it is difficult for them to benefit from the reformulation that recasts offer. Thus, there may be cases in which it is necessary to stop the communicative activity for a few seconds and show learners that their attention is being drawn to form and not to meaning.

Doughty and Varela (1998) argued that recasts in the L2 classrooms are effective if they are accompanied by an additional cue, telling learners that it is the form and not only the meaning of their utterance that is in focus. Attention to form can help prevent situations in which learners are unsure of the purpose of the recast and attribute it to a continuation of the conversation. An example of such a case is provided below (Lightbown, 1998, p. 192)

Student: I don't speak very well English.

Teacher: You don't speak English very well?

Student: No.

Lyster (2001) considered negotiation of form, recasts, and explicit error correction and their relationship to error types and immediate learner repair. He concluded that negotiation of form was more effective at leading to immediate repair than recasts or explicit correction.

Ammar (2003) examined the effects of recasts and elicitation (i.e. getting a student to give the correct form by pausing, or asking the student, to reformulate the utterance.). The treatment period targeted third person possessive determiners *his/her*. The results showed a beneficial role for both types of negative feedback in L2 learning, but a superior effectiveness of elicitation over recasts especially with low proficiency learners.

Processing Instruction

VanPatten (1996) has proposed a model of second language input processing that attempts to address the manner in which language learners allocate attentional resources to language input. The theory of input processing is concerned with how learners obtain

intake from input. According to VanPatten and Cadierno (1993), L2 acquisition consists of four stages: 1) input, 2) intake, 3) developing system, and 4) output. In this model, one must attempt to influence the way in which input is processed and hence, the way the system develops. During input processing, certain structures in the input are detected and these become the learner's intake. Structures made available during input processing are further singled out in order to become part of the learner's repertoire of acquired structures. Finally, the language learner selects from the available L2 structures in order to communicate his/her message. According to VanPatten (1996), this is facilitated in the classroom because

> ...processing instruction has three key components: 1) explanation of the relationship between a given form and the meaning it can convey, 2) information about the processing strategies, showing learners how natural processing strategies may not work to their benefit, and 3) "structured input" activities in which the learners are given the opportunity to process form in the input in a "controlled situation" so that better form-meaning connections might happen compared with what might happen in less controlled situations (p.60).

Input Flood

Input flooding is a highly implicit technique that consists of increasing students' exposure to a form through teaching materials. The principle is that the more opportunities there are in the input for learners to notice the form, the more likely it is that learners will do so. No other changes are made to the input in order to promote learning. Trahey and White (1993) speculated that increasing the number of times that learners are exposed to

the target feature, adverbs, through an "input flood" would be helpful in bringing learners to notice forms and, consequently, introduce them into their developing interlanguage. Results showed that while high frequency exposure to adverbs had positive short and long-term advantages, the knowledge participants acquired was limited. That is, learners developed knowledge of what was acceptable in English adverb placement but did not develop a better knowledge of what was ungrammatical. For this, they may have needed negative evidence, that is, information about what is not possible in the L2 (White, 1991).

Textual Input Enhancement

In 1991, Sharwood Smith proposed the usage of cues, either linguistic or not, in order to make students aware of certain linguistic elements in the input. He used the term consciousness raising to describe instances in which learners are made aware of some aspect of the target language. Later, Sharwood Smith (1991) re-analysed the notion of consciousness raising and proposed the term *input enhancement*. This term focuses on the process that is carried out on pedagogical materials and not on an internal mental process.

> The kind of attention-drawing activity is referred to in my earlier work (Sharwood Smith, 1980) as consciousness-raising. I have now switched to the term "input enhancement". The difference between these two terms is what they assume regarding the input/intake dichotomy. Consciousness-raising implies that the learner's mental state is altered by the input; hence, all input is intake. Input enhancement implies only that we can manipulate aspects of the input but make no further assumptions about the consequences of that input on the learner." (Sharwood Smith, 1993, p.176).

Textual enhancement is a highly implicit technique in which the aim is to attract learners' attention to grammatical features by using various types of typographical methods to make the grammar point in focus more visible (Alanen, 1995; Jourdenais et al, 1995). This technique has engendered much interest among researchers although results obtained in various textual enhancement studies have been contradictory. In the following section, studies that have investigated the effects of textual input enhancement on language acquisition will be reviewed.

In a 1991 lab study, Doughty examined the effects of two kinds of comprehension-based instruction on the acquisition of English relative clauses by 21 intermediate adult learners of English in the United States. Participants were randomly divided into three groups: a meaning oriented group (MOG), a rule oriented group (ROG), and a control group. Throughout treatment, all groups were exposed to 10 hours of lesson time delivered on computer. The treatments were as follows: the MOG group was exposed to textual enhancement techniques designed to draw their attention to the relationship between the relative pronoun and the head noun. Furthermore, they received lexical and semantic rephrasing of the relative clause in order to clarify the meaning of the relative clause. The ROG were exposed to the same texts and received additional instruction consisting of rule statements. Also, this treatment included an animation of the sentences that made the relationship between elements of the clause visually salient to learners. The control group simply read the unenhanced texts. Analyses of written and oral measures revealed that both groups that received enhanced input showed greater improvement in the acquisition of relative clauses than the control group. She concluded that this type of instruction was a necessary condition leading to intake of relative clauses. Furthermore, because both

instructed groups improved, input enhancement might have been the key in this study, not rule explanation. Nonetheless, Doughty could not address long-term effects since her study did not include follow-up testing. Also, it is difficult to draw conclusions about the benefits of textual input enhancement from the results of this study since it did not isolate the effect of enhancement alone from other teaching techniques such as rule presentation and rephrasing.

In a quasi-experimental study, Leeman, Arteagoita, Fridman, and Doughty (1995) examined the effects of input enhancement on acquisition of preterit and imperfect verb tenses in Spanish by 12 university students. They contrasted performance by a group receiving communicative instruction and a group receiving typographical enhancement in a content-based Spanish class in which attention to form and meaning were integrated. Both groups were assigned a passage and questions on Spanish history in preparation for a class discussion. The treatment was delivered within two classes of 50 minutes. Students in the Focus on Form experimental group received a text in which all target forms were highlighted, underlined, and colour-coded. Students in this group were instructed to pay particular attention to forms and also received corrective oral feedback on the target form for the duration of the experiment. The Purely Communicative group received the same texts without the enhancement, were not instructed to notice forms, and the instructor did not correct their output. The results revealed that students in the Focus on Form group performed significantly better on the posttest than did their peers in the Purely Communicative group. The researchers concluded that enhancement that seeks to promote attention to form and meaning is more beneficial than enhancement that

focuses on form alone. However, much like Doughty's (1991) study, other pedagogical techniques, in this case explicit error correction, might have contributed to these results.

In a classroom- based study, Jourdenais, Ota, Stauffer, Boyson, and Doughty (1995) also investigated the effects of textual input enhancement on the learning of the preterit and imperfect forms of Spanish. The 14 adult participants, all native speakers of English, were divided into two groups, a control group and an enhanced group. The students in the enhanced group read a sample text with target forms highlighted, whereas the control group read the same text without textual enhancement. Students were then instructed to reconstruct the narrative based on a set of pictures. During this written production task, the participants were asked to speak aloud their thoughts while they engaged in the activity. The results showed an advantage for the enhanced group. That is, they referred to target forms more than the control group, and they produced a higher percentage of target forms in obligatory contexts. Although the proportion of correct verbs supplied by the enhancement subjects was not significantly different from those produced by the comparison group, the authors of this study concluded that typographical enhancement is an effective way to increase the salience of a target form that might otherwise pass unnoticed.

Shook (1994) examined the effect of textual enhancement on the acquisition of Spanish present perfect and relative pronouns *que/quien* in a quasi-experimental study. The participants in his study were 125 first and second year adult learners of Spanish. There were three conditions: enhancement, enhancement plus instruction, and no enhancement. All participants read 2 passages that contained the target linguistic features. In the enhancement group, participants received texts in which all instances of the target

forms were in bolding and capital letters. The enhancement plus instruction group received texts with forms in bolding and capital letters, as well as specific instructions that informed them to pay attention to enhancement. The no enhancement group was simply exposed to the materials without typographical manipulation. The results showed that both enhancement groups performed better than the no enhancement control groups. However, there were no significant differences between the enhancement groups. Thus, the researcher concluded that drawing attention through textual enhancement to the target linguistic feature allows the reader to use input for intake. However, it is important to consider that this study did not measure the long-term effect of the treatment. A delayed posttest would have shown whether or not the impact of enhancement was maintained.

Alanen (1995) investigated the extent to which enhanced input and rule presentation affect the acquisition of linguistic forms. The participants were American university students learning locative suffixes and consonant alternation in a semi-artificial Finnish. They were divided into four groups: a) a control group that received the text only, b) an enhanced group that received a text containing typographically enhanced target forms, c) a group that received explicit grammar instruction on the target feature, and d) an enhanced plus explicit instruction group. All learners were exposed to two sessions of instruction in which they had to read and comprehend a passage, answer questions based on the passage, and complete a translation exercise. The results of post experimental tasks show that participants in explicit instruction and explicit instruction plus enhancement outscored participants in both other conditions. However, it is not possible to tease apart the role that enhancement may have played in promoting acquisition of the target forms. Furthermore,

it is essential to consider that Alanen's study was a lab study and that the small sample of students (n=9) might have affected the results.

Leow (1997) looked at textual enhancement and text length and their effects on comprehension and acquisition of imperative Spanish forms. The participants were 84 college students divided into 4 treatment groups: long text with enhancement; long text without enhancement; short text with enhancement; short text without enhancement. There were 2 posttests given in order to measure the effect of treatment: a comprehension quiz in English and a multiple choice grammaticality judgement task. The results of this study show that input enhancement was not effective in focussing readers' attention on the targeted linguistic forms to comprehend the passage. However, exposure to the material was quite brief in that students only read one text with or without enhancement. Perhaps extensive exposure to material containing typographical cues of the target linguistic feature would have led to differing results.

Overstreet (1998) examined the effects of textual enhancement and content familiarity on comprehension and acquisition of preterit and imperfect in Spanish. The participants were 50 university learners of Spanish L3. During the study, students read a text under one of four conditions: familiar content and textual enhancement; familiar content without textual enhancement; unfamiliar content and textual enhancement; unfamiliar content without textual enhancement. Students' achievement was judged on the basis of three tests: grammaticality judgement, comprehension quiz, and production task. No significant effect was found in favour of enhancement. Overstreet concluded that enhancement took away attention from comprehension; that is, the task required too much attention to allow learners at a beginner level to process both form and meaning. His

finding is consistent with VanPatten's (1990) earlier findings that learners have difficulty focusing on forms and meaning simultaneously. In his view, they may focus on form even less when the form in focus is not crucial for meaning. Perhaps for the learners in Overstreet's study, processing two forms was too cognitively demanding. Furthermore, the texts contained many enhanced forms. As a consequence, this might have diverted students' attention and negatively affected their comprehension and ability to convert input to intake.

In 2000, Wong (cited in Simard, 2001) examined the effects of textual input enhancement and simplified input on the acquisition of French passé-composé and imperfect on 24 adult Anglophones learning French as a foreign language. Participants were assigned to one of four conditions: 1) textual enhancement and simplified input, 2) textual enhancement without provision of simplified input, 3) simplified input without textual input enhancement, and 4) no simplified input or textual input enhancement (control group). On written measures, the results showed that simplified input had a positive effect on reading comprehension but not on students' ability to identify and correct the target linguistic features. Thus, there were no significant effects for textual enhancement.

Simard (2001) examined the effects of different types and amounts of textual input enhancement on the acquisition of plural markers in English. The participants were 128 secondary 1 students aged between 11-13 in the province of Quebec. During the study, students were exposed to typographical enhancement under one of eight conditions: 1) italics, 2) bolding, 3) capitalization, 4) underlining, 5) colour, 6) combination of all types of typographical enhancement, 7) combination of bolding, capitalization, and italics, 8) control group. Students' achievement was judged on the basis of a multiple choice written

task. No significant effect was found in favour of one type of typographical input enhancement over another.

The conflicting results presented in the studies discussed thus far can be attributed to several factors. First, different methodological choices made by researchers might have engendered differing outcomes with regards to typographical input enhancement. Also, in many studies, results could have been attributed to such variables as the small number of participants, the brief intervention, and the other pedagogical techniques used to promote noticing such as rule explanation or error correction that, consequently, might have indirectly affected the impact of textual enhancement. Finally, the choice of the linguistic feature under investigation might have an effect on the results obtained in the various studies.

First Language Influence

Many factors interact in order to influence second language acquisition. However, no one can underestimate the importance of the influence of the first language on the second language. Gass and Selinker (1983) claim, "... there is overwhelming evidence that language transfer is indeed a *real* and *central* phenomenon that must be considered in any full account of the second language acquisition process." (p.7)

Early Research on First Language Influence

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

In 1964, behaviourist Robert Lado set forth the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). He believed that a person learning a second language started off with a set of

habits associated with the first language, and when these habits interfered with those needed for second language speech, a new habit had to be formed. This view of learning predicted that where there were similarities between two languages, the learner would acquire the target language structures with ease; where there were differences, the learner would have difficulty. Thus, the major source of error in a learner's production of the L2 could, in theory, be predicted by the L1. CAH's popularity was however short-lived and the hypothesis received much criticism. The main argument against the CAH was that language was a set of innate rules instead of habits (Krashen, 1985). Although many weaknesses were attributed to the CAH, one cannot assume that there is no role for the native language in second language acquisition. On the contrary, the role of the native language is far more complex than the simple relation between L1 and L2 as proposed in the CAH.

Morpheme studies

The strongest blow for proponents of CAH was dealt by the morpheme studies (Dulay and Burt, 1973). The outcomes of these studies showed that there appeared to be a natural order for acquisition of English morphemes, regardless of what a learner's first language was. Thus, in this creative constructionist point of view, there was little importance accorded to the native language. According to Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982), "Learners' first languages are no longer believed to interfere with their attempts to acquire a second language grammar, and language teachers no longer need to create special grammar lessons for students from each language background'' (p.5). Some researchers working during the same time period found a role for native language in L2

acquisition. For instance, Hakuta (1974) found that native speakers of Japanese (a language that does not have an article system) learning English as their second language had a different morpheme acquisition order than the one found among learners with other L1s. Since then, the idea that learners pass through predictable stages when acquiring certain grammatical features has remained an area of interest in second language acquisition research (Pienemann, 1987, 1989; Spada and Lightbown, 1999).

Renewed Interest in First Language Influence

In the late 1970s and early 1980s, the importance of native language influence was once again an area of discussion and debate. Typological universals have been claimed to interact with native language, consequently having implications for form-focused pedagogy. Eckmann (1977) affirmed that the greatest learner difficulty is predicted when the L2 contains forms that are typologically more marked, than the equivalent L1 forms. Thus, when forms in the L1 and the L2 are similarly marked, little pedagogical intervention should be required.

According to a second view, L1/L2 differences may promote learning. Kleinmann (1977) suggested that when an element in the L2 is different from the L1, there is a "novelty effect". As a result, the linguistic feature becomes more salient to the learner, thus causing him/her to notice the form.

A third position on how the L1 is believed to influence the acquisition of L2 is represented by Andersen's (1983) "Transfer to Somewhere Principle". This principle holds that,

> A grammatical form will occur consistently and to a significant extent in interlanguage as a result of transfer if and only if there already exists within the L2 input the potential for (mis-) generalization from the input to produce the same form or structure. (p.178)

Thus, learners are more likely to have trouble with linguistic features in which there is a misleading similarity between their L1 and L2. This implies that features, which are more likely to require focus on form, are those that are influenced by related L1 patterns.

In a classroom-based study, Kupferberg and Olshtain (1996) tested the effects of contrastive linguistic input on the acquisition of compound nouns and reduced (non-finite) restrictive relative clauses in English by speakers of Hebrew. The 137 16-year-old participants were all native speakers of Hebrew in 2 Israeli high schools. Participants were divided into two experimental groups, and two control groups. For a total of 65 minutes, the experimental groups were exposed to contrastive linguistic input, recognition tasks, communicative tasks, and feedback, whereas the control groups were exposed to the same tasks without contrastive linguistic input. Recognition and production tests were administered at three separate times (i.e. pretests, immediate posttest, and delayed posttest) The results showed that Hebrew speaking learners of English benefited from explicit exposure to contrastive linguistic input on both recognition and production tasks. The authors concluded that explicit contrastive input facilitates noticing and is therefore conducive to the acquisition of difficult L2 forms.

This is also the position held by Han and Selinker (1999). They consider that learners are more likely to have trouble with linguistic features in which there is a misleading similarity between their L1 and L2. In these cases, it may be necessary to

provide instruction that draws the learner's attention to the particular distinctions between L1 and L2. Spada and Lightbown, (1999) point out that possessive determiners are examples of such linguistic features. They will be further discussed in the next section of this chapter.

> For francophones, whose L1 selects the gender of the possessive determiner within the constituent (because it agrees with the grammatical gender of the object possessed rather than the gender of the owner), the nonlocal morphology of English is understandably challenging... This appears to be another example of how L2 development may be slowed down when learners recognize that there is a crucial similarity between L1 and L2. (p. 4).

Third Person Singular Possessive Determiner *his/her*

Third person singular possessive determiners (PD) are often a source of difficulty for francophone learners of English as a second language. A factor that may be significant in the development of this feature is that English and French rules for assigning possessive determiners differ greatly. In English, agreement is determined by the natural gender of the possessor (*his* for masculine, *her* for feminine), whereas in French, agreement is determined by the grammatical gender of the noun referring to the entity possessed (*son* for masculine, *sa* for feminine). When learners transfer the French rule to English, they use *his* in place of *son*, and *her* in place of *sa*. This transfer is most evident in contexts where the natural gender of the possessor is different from the gender of the possessed entity, as in this example: *"He is talking to her mother"*. These contexts are referred to as kin-different. For example, in the English sentence "*Robert phoned his girlfriend*", his is

determined by the masculine singular possessor whereas, in French "Robert a téléphoné sa copine", sa (feminine) is determined by the singular feminine possessed entity.

French and English also differ in usage of the possessive determiner. In some cases, English calls for a PD, and French requires the use of an article (le, la). For instance, in French, body parts are normally referred to using the definite article, and the possessor's gender in this case is marked with a reflexive pronoun. In contrast, possession of body parts in English is marked with a possessive determiner. For example, in the English sentence "*Mary hurt her hand*" the PD *her* agrees with the possessor or subject of the sentence, whereas in French, "*Marie s'est blessé à la main*", the article *the(la)* is necessary.

A number of studies have investigated the acquisition of possessive determiners. Zobl (1983, 1984, 1985) conducted three studies concerning the factors that contribute to the development of the possessive determiners *his/her*. In his first experiment (1983), which he called (E1), he was motivated by the observation that his low and intermediate French students exhibited much variability and difficulty in their use of PDs. He conducted his experiment with francophone college students in beginner and low-intermediate ESL classes. The participants were shown a series of pictures that elicited a response containing *his/her* in three domains namely, inanimate, body part, and kinship. He found that control of the PD rule is affected by the domain: learners marked body parts and kinship terms for gender more frequently than inanimate entities. Moreover, when gender was marked, students were more accurate in using PDs for body parts or inanimate than in kinship domains. Finally, when the natural gender of the possessor corresponded to the natural gender of the kinship entity, learners were more accurate than when the genders were dissimilar.

Based on cross-sectional data, Zobl (1984) proposed a sequence of acquisition for English PDs. He suggested that learners apply each of these sub rules systematically, first in the nonhuman domain and then in the human domain.

1- definite article

2- person/possessive marking, eg. *Your*

3- third person marking, e.g., *his* overgeneralized

4- French rule

5- mature English rule.

In 1985, Zobl conducted his second and third experiments (E2, E3). He hypothesized that since knowledge of the PD agreement rule with human entities entails knowledge of the rule with nonhuman entities, learners exposed to input from the human domain would project knowledge to the nonhuman domain. However, he also predicted that the opposite would not be true since knowing the rule with nonhuman entities does not imply that one has knowledge of the rule with human entities. He conducted his study with francophone low-level adult learners of ESL randomly assigned to two groups, a human data group, which was exposed to examples of PDs with human entities, and a nonhuman data group, which was exposed to examples of PDs with non-human entities. Learners were all given pretests and posttests, which consisted of a series of 15 pictures. The investigator asked 20 questions about these pictures, eliciting *his/her* with human and nonhuman entities. Immediately following the pretest, learners were intensively exposed to 15 minutes of PDs in one of the above-mentioned conditions. Zobl's findings supported his hypothesis, and he concluded that marked input from the human domain was more

effective than unmarked input from the non-human domain. Criticism has been aimed at Zobl's work (Martens, 1988). The main weaknesses reported in his experiments are the short exposure period to the target features (15 minutes), the fact that he only used one measure (quick written response to question), and the absence of a delayed posttest. Despite its limitations, Zobl's work has laid the groundwork for future researchers to further investigate the acquisition of PDs.

Martens (1988) investigated the pronoun system in the interlanguage of francophone learners in intensive ESL classes. She looked at possible differences between what learners do and what they actually know. The participants were students in 4 groups of grade 5 and 6 intensive ESL classes in Quebec (see Lightbown and Spada, 1994, for a discussion of intensive ESL in Quebec). During classroom observation, Martens noted that students' did not exclusively follow the French rule for marking gender. She then hypothesized that students would be more accurate in gender distinction and the use of PDs *his/her* when engaging in grammar focused tasks rather than oral communication. She used three measures to investigate her hypothesis: 1) an oral production measure known as the picture card game: 2) a grammaticality judgment task in which students read a story about a little boy's birthday and had to identify errors; 3) an oral interview in which students' reasoning for the grammaticality judgment task was probed. The results of her study showed that there was no notable difference between what a learner produces and what he/she recognizes. Furthermore, judgments of nonhuman PDs were more accurate than judgment of human PDs. Finally, correct judgments about misused feminine forms were more accurate than judgments about

masculine forms. Her findings lend support to Zobl's (1983) claim that learners will tend to overuse the masculine PD *his.*

White and Ranta (2002) investigated the relationship between what learners know about possessive determiners, as demonstrated on a grammaticality judgement task, and what they produce on an oral task. They found a significant correlation (r=0.52) between knowing and doing among learners who had never been instructed on PDs. That is, learners who did well on one task did well on the other, and those who did poorly on one did poorly on the other. However, this relationship was altered following instruction, and while the correlation was statistically significant at the pretest, it was statistically non-significant at the posttest (r=0.21).

Lightbown and Spada (1990) looked at the use of PDs in the speech of francophone learners in grade 5 and 6 following their intensive ESL program in Quebec. They used an oral production measure called the picture card game in which a learner describes a picture to an interviewer, who must guess from a set of four similar pictures which one it is. Based on their data and Zobl (1985) they proposed an acquisition sequence of possessive determiners by francophone ESL. This is presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1
Sequence of acquisition in the agreement rule for possessive determiners by francophone learners of English

Stage 1: the use of definite articles rather than possessive determiners (e.g., She reads the book)

Stage 2: the use of a generalized possessive determiner for all persons, genders, and numbers (e.g., She reads your book.)

Stage 3: the use of a generalized third person determiner where the third person is required, but an overgeneralization of only one form (usually the masculine) of the determiner (e.g., She reads his book.)

Stage 4: the differentiated use of possessive determiners with some possessed nouns, although learners continue to have difficulty when the object possessed has "natural" gender (e.g., She reads the book to his brother.)

Stage 5: the correctly differentiated use of the possessive determiners with all types of nouns, including those with natural gender (e.g., She read her book to her brother.)

Lightbown and Spada, 1990 (p. 441)

Based on the work of Zobl (1984) and Lightbown and Spada (1990), J. White (1996, 1998) described a developmental stage framework for possessive determiners *his/her* in the oral production of francophone learners. This consists of 8 stages that can be grouped into three broad categories: Pre-emergence, Emergence, and Post-emergence (White, 1998). The framework is shown in Table 3.2. Assignment to a stage is based on

emergence criteria (e.g. four correct uses of *his/her*), and incorrect uses of the target form may also be observed. As White noted, variability was a salient feature of the oral data.

Table 3.2
Developmental sequence in the acquisition of the agreement rule for possessive determiners by francophone learners of English

Pre-emergence

Stage 1 Avoidance of his and her and/or use of the definite article

Stage 2 Use of your for all persons, genders, and numbers

Emergence

Stage 3 Emergences of either or both his and her

Stage 4 Preference for his or her (accompanied by overgeneralization to contexts for the other form)

Post-emergence

Stage 5 Differentiated use of his and her (not with kin-different gender)

Stage 6 Agreement rule applied to either his or her (kin-different gender)

Stage 7 Agreement rule applied to both his and her (kin-different gender)

Stage 8 Error-free application of agreement rule to his and her (all domains including body parts)

White, 1998 (p. 98)

Previous research in SLA has shown that in the acquisition of certain grammatical features, learners pass through developmental sequences. Pienemann (1987) maintains that within developmental sequences it is not possible for a learner to acquire a form that

is far beyond a current stage. The "teachability hypothesis" (Pienemann, 1984) predicts that the teachability of a linguistic feature is constrained by its learnability. Other studies point to the efficiency of exposing learners to developmentally more advanced structures. White (1998) hypothesized that increasing the perceptual salience of possessive determiners his/her, would help learners acquire the feature. Over a two-week period, sixth grade students in an intensive ESL program in the province of Quebec received exposure to possessive determiners through reading materials. Participants were divided into three groups: the E+ and E groups were exposed to a flood of possessive determiners through typographical enhancement, and the U group was exposed to the same materials without typographical enhancement of possessive determiners. In addition, the E+ group participated in a book project in which they read or listened to stories containing naturally occurring possessive determiners for thirty minutes a day for five months. Immediate posttests showed that the E and E+ groups used more correct and incorrect forms of the grammatical feature under investigation than the U group. Thus it appears that exposing students to forms representative of the later stages of developmental sequences enabled them to advance. However, at the delayed posttest, there was no statistically significant advantage for enhancement. This supports the claim made by Sharwood Smith (1991) that one can increase the salience of forms in the input but can make no further assumption about what learners will notice and consequently convert into intake. In her discussion, White suggests that students might have benefited from the provision of metalinguistic information in addition to the enhanced input. This information would have directed their attention to the relationship between the possessive determiner and the referent in English.

Research Question and Hypotheses

There is an ongoing debate among researchers as to whether implicit or explicit form-focused instruction is more efficient in promoting accuracy, and because of the conflicting findings and explanations presented in textual enhancement studies, this thesis study compared the effectiveness of two types of form-focused instruction, explicit and implicit. Its unique contribution to existing research is that it investigated secondary one ESL students following the regular ESL program, whereas other studies have looked at adult learners of English (Alanen, 1995; Doughty, 1991; Jourdenais et al., 1995; Leeman et al., 1995; Leow, 1997; Overstreet, 1998; Shook, 1994.) or younger, more proficient learners following the intensive ESL program (White, 1998). Also, in comparison to existing studies, instructional intervention was conducted in a classroom setting by the regular teacher, and was longer (180 minutes) than in many studies (i.e. Alanen, 1995; Jourdenais et al., 1995; Leow, 1997; Shook, 1994.) In addition, in contrast to Doughty (1991) and Leeman et al., (1995), this study attempted to isolate the effects of typographical input enhancement from other pedagogical techniques. Finally, in this thesis study, delayed long-term effects of treatment were examined. Thus, this study addressed the following research question: Does textual enhancement of the possessive determiners *his* and *her* contribute positively to ESL learners' acquisition of these forms?

To investigate this question, four treatment conditions were chosen. The Enhancement (E) group was exposed to texts with typographically enhanced target features as well as arrows going from the possessive determiner to the possessor. Students in the Rule (R) group were given an extensive and explicit explanation of how PDs are formed in English. In addition, they were exposed to the same materials as E, but without

typographically enhanced forms. Participants in the Rule+Enhancement (R+) group received a combination of explicit rule explanation and exposure to materials containing typographically enhanced target linguistic feature. Finally students in the Control (C) group were exposed to a typographically unenhanced version of the same materials without rule explanation or enhancement.

The hypotheses tested in this study are:

H1 Typographical enhancement coupled with explicit rule presentation of third person singular possessive determiners *his/her* will promote the acquisition of the target feature more effectively than explicit rule presentation or typographical enhancement alone in both short and long term.

H2 Explicit rule presentation will be more effective in promoting the acquisition of *his/her* than typographical enhancement of the target linguistic feature. This will be manifested in both short and long term.

H3 Typographical enhancement of third person singular possessive determiners *his/her* will be more effective than simple exposure in promoting the acquisition of the targeted linguistic feature. This will be apparent on both the short and long term.

This chapter presented a review of the literature related to a central component of this thesis: textual input enhancement. Furthermore, it attempted to situate this thesis' unique contribution to existing research. Additionally, it emphasized the important role of the L1 in second language acquisition. When similarities between the L1 and the L2 are misleading, learners' attempts to transfer may lead to non-target-like use. This is the case with third person singular possessive determiners, a linguistic feature that has been shown to be a cause of difficulty for francophone learners of English. This feature was selected as

the targeted linguistic element of this study. The next chapter presents the methodology used to investigate the three hypotheses in this study.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the procedures followed to investigate the hypotheses presented in Chapter 3 are described. The different sections of this chapter present the context of the study, the participants, the research design and schedule, the teaching materials used during the treatments, and the instruments of evaluation.

Context of the Study

This study took place at a secondary school in a suburban town located approximately 30 minutes north of the island of Montreal. It is a fairly new suburb (late 1970s), containing mostly single-family homes. The population is homogeneous, consisting principally of French inhabitants although in the past few years, Cambodian and Vietnamese immigrants have established themselves in this area. The members of the community have average incomes and are very family-oriented. The children seldom leave the area. On the contrary, they participate in sporting activities in the neighbourhood parks, "hang-out" at the local mall, and engage in family activities, such as barbecues and pool-parties.

Students are actively involved in indoor and outdoor school activities, as well as being exposed to arts such as drama, dance, and crafts. The administration and teaching staff have established a strict climate of respect requiring students to address adults as "Monsieur" or "Madame" and to use the French form of respect, "vous". Adults in this school emphasize the importance of success by providing students in difficulty with extra help during lunch periods, after school, and in Saturday classes. The climate is respectful, positive, and motivating.

Recently, the school was chosen by the MEQ to be one of the fifteen schools in the province of Quebec to pilot the reform of education for secondary schools. The school's mandate is to try out and validate the "Programme de formation du 1er cycle du secondaire" (MEQ, 2002) and give feedback concerning its strengths and limitations. One of the ways in which this is done is by allocating time during pedagogical days for the teachers to discuss the reform and to learn about concrete techniques and methods that will ensure its successful application.

During the school year of 2002-2003, when this study took place, 864 students attended the school. They were assigned to one of three levels, secondary 1, secondary 2, secondary 3, and special education classes. There were 55 teachers, two vice principals and one principal. The majority of the teachers were francophone. In the English department there were 5 teachers of different ethnic backgrounds, one Polish-Canadian, two Italian-Canadians, one Hungarian-Canadian, and one Portuguese-Canadian. This is the only department in the school that includes non-francophone teachers.

English as a second language is compulsory at every level. Students have the option of following "intensive" English classes or "regular" English classes. However, the intensive English program is restricted to those students who had followed intensive English or "bain linguistique" in grade 5 or 6. In secondary one, there were 13 groups. Of these, two were intensive English groups, with a total of 64 available places. Although many more than 64 students were eligible to follow the intensive ESL program, they could not be accommodated, so they were placed in "regular" ESL classes.

Participants

One hundred ten students (ages 12 and 13) participated in this study. All were in secondary 1 (grade 7), following the regular English program as prescribed by the Ministry of Education of Quebec. Among the 110, 40 have documented academic difficulties with French and mathematics, but not with other subjects. These students differ from other students in that they require additional help with French and attention by special educators, although they are integrated into "regular" classrooms.

When the regular-program students first arrived at this school, their level of comprehension and production of ESL was low. They struggled to communicate and complained of not always understanding the teacher. However, because of their ongoing exposure to English via popular music, the Internet, and the growing popularity of video games, students generally had positive attitudes towards English. Nevertheless, their primary source of exposure to English is in the classroom. Most students in these classrooms speak French at home and are learning English as their second language. However, two participating students were Cambodian, had French as their second language, and were learning English as their third language. Nevertheless, these students were not excluded from the study since their level of production and comprehension of English was similar to that of francophone students.

For most of the students, exposure to English within the educational framework began in grade four, and classes were given once per week for periods of sixty minutes for an approximate total of 110 hours in elementary school. Even with the reform in education in Quebec implemented in 2001, ESL instruction in most elementary schools in Quebec still follows the strong version of the communicative approach; consequently, students

receive very little error correction and minimal explicit instruction on language forms. As stated in the elementary school *Programme de formation québécoise 3e cycle* (2002)

> "Pour apprendre l'anglais, il faut avoir l'occasion de le parler. La classe de langue devient donc un lieu ou votre enfant sera appelé à communiquer et travailler dans cette langue avec ses camarades. Il participera à des activités stimulantes qui lui permettront d'utiliser, dans des situations concrètes, des mots et des expressions de la langue anglaise". (p.21)

Furthermore, learners in this francophone suburb off the island of Montreal have very little exposure to the target language outside the classroom. For these reasons, the participants in this study are considered to be at a beginner level.

Teacher

The researcher carried out this study with her students. She is an ESL specialist with six years of teaching experience and is fluently trilingual in English, French, and Portuguese. Prior to the commencement of the study, she familiarized herself with the theoretical constructs of both implicit and explicit form-focused instruction, as well as textual input enhancement. For the duration of the study, she presented materials in each group within the same time frame, kept a log that she completed after each lesson, and tape-recorded the lessons.

Regular Classroom Practice

Regular lessons were organized around themes, such as, food, likes and dislikes, animals, the weather, sports, and hobbies. The language used in the classroom was always

English, except when elements of classroom management or administration came up. Some class time was devoted to attention to form. This was usually integrated into a theme. For example, the unit on likes and dislikes required the use of verbs in the simple present (I like to watch television, He prefers chocolate cake). Students were given the rule on how to form verbs in the present, followed by a number of activities related to the theme and the grammatical component.

Research Design and Schedule

For the purpose of this study, there were a control group (n=22) and three treatment groups (n=68). Each group was an intact class. Data from a number of students in each treatment group were eliminated due to the fact that they had followed the intensive ESL program in elementary school. They were placed in regular secondary ESL classes, rather than in intensive classes for administrative reasons. Table 4.1 shows the number of students in each class that were retained for the study out of a total of 110.

Table 4.1
Number of boys and girls retained in each group

	BOYS	**GIRLS**
Rule +Enhancement Group	10	8
Rule Group	11	9
Enhancement Group	8	12
Control Group	8	9

The study was quasi-experimental in nature since it was conducted in "real" intact classrooms, and it followed a repeated measures design. Prior to the

commencement of the study, informed consent was obtained from students and their parents (see Appendix A for consent forms). On November 25, 2002, students were pretested on their knowledge and use of *his/her* in their writing (see Appendices B, C, and D for version A and version B of tests). Version A was administered to all groups prior to the commencement of the study in order to determine whether or not groups were similar at the outset of the study. Immediately after the pretests, treatment was implemented in all four conditions. Over a four-week period, students were exposed to materials containing possessive determiners. In each of six 75-minute classes, approximately 30 minutes were spent on the linguistic feature, for a total of 180 minutes. Immediately following the treatment period, posttests were administered. The version B posttests were similar to version A administered during pretesting. Five weeks following the immediate posttests, all groups were tested once again (version A) in a delayed posttest to measure whether the effects of treatment were maintained. Finally, a second set of delayed posttests (version B) was administered six weeks after that. These were designed to determine whether or not students retained effects of the treatment. Throughout the weeks that followed the pedagogical intervention, students in all groups received no instruction or error correction that specifically targeted possessive determiners *his/her*; however, they were inevitably exposed to these forms through natural input in the classroom.

Teaching Materials

The students in the treatment groups were exposed to input manipulated in the following ways. The group in the Enhancement (E) condition received extensive form-

focused exposure through textual input enhancement of *his/her* in written activities integrating this form. The Rule (R) group was taught the grammar component explicitly and received information about how PDs differ in English and French. They were exposed to the same activities as the E group although their material did not contain typographically enhanced forms. The students in Rule+Enhancement (R+) were exposed to a combination of both of the above-mentioned conditions. That is, they were taught the rule, and their material was typographically enhanced. The Control (C) group was exposed to the pedagogical material without rule presentation or input enhancement.

Four teaching packages, one for each condition, were prepared for the treatment period of this research project. Materials, adapted from activity books aimed at secondary one students and approved by the Ministry of Education of Quebec, consisted of a set of texts and parallel activities that required the use of his/her. In the E condition, students were given a sheet that contained exemplars of sentences containing PDs in English and in French (see Appendix E). Students were asked to look at it prior to each lesson. Then, students worked on a set of materials in which all possessive determiners *his/her* were visually enhanced (see Appendix F for sample activities). The linguistic features were made salient through bolding, varying font types and sizes, and underlining. Enhancement was varied in order to ensure that students would not get accustomed to it, and consequently fail to notice the feature. Furthermore, an arrow was drawn from the PD to its referent to ensure that students knew why these features were bolded and how PDs work in English. As noted above, all eight activities were based on texts written for ESL students, and all included accompanying tasks that required the use of his/her. Students were

encouraged to refer to their rule or exemplar sheet and use the dictionary since this was normal classroom procedure.

Students in the R condition were given an explanation sheet at the beginning of each lesson that contained the explicit rule along with a number of exemplars with his/her in both English and French (see Appendix G). They were asked to look at this rule sheet preceding each lesson. They were exposed to the same materials and tasks as students in the E condition although no forms were typographically enhanced, and students were constantly reminded of the rule (See Appendix H for sample activities). In the R+ condition, students were exposed to a combination of both textual enhancement and explicit rule explanation and correction (see Appendices I and J for rule sheet and sample activities). The participants in the C group were exposed to the same activities as the R group but did not receive the rule of thumb or any form of explanation. Care was taken to ensure that the materials contained the same number of masculine and feminine PDs overall. The total number of *his* was 40 and the total number of *her,* 44.

Instruments

Three tests were devised to measure knowledge of the grammatical feature on all four testing occasion. It is important to note that all instruments tested students' knowledge of PDs in written situations only. Oral tasks were not utilized due to time constraints in class.

Cloze Task

The cloze task involved rational deletion of all instances of *his/her* and some distracters. It was developed for the purpose of this study. Tasks were scored on the basis of supplied and obligatory contexts. Contexts established by the text required learners to use the possessive determiners in different linguistic domains; as well, some elements acted as distracters. Two versions of the task were administered two times each. Version A was given at both pretest and delayed posttest. Version B was administered at the immediate posttest as well as at the long-term delayed posttest (see Appendix B for a sample from this task).

Grammaticality Judgment Task

For this task, adapted from Martens (1988) by White and Ranta (2002), and further adapted by Ammar (2003), students read a text that contained correct and incorrect instances of possessive determiners, as well as a number of distracter errors. The task measured learners' ability to identify erroneous forms and to provide a grammatical and contextually appropriate correction. Care was taken in order to ensure that there was a relatively equal number of *his/her* in each domain (i.e., inanimate, body parts, kin same, kin different). Two versions of this task were administered four times. Version A was administered at the pretest and delayed posttest. Version B was administered at the immediate posttest and the long-term delayed posttest (see Appendix C for a sample from this task).

Picture Description Task

A written version picture description task developed by J. White (1996) was administered in order to evaluate students' use of the target linguistic feature. Of the three, this task was the least focused on *his/her*. For this task, students looked at four cartoon pictures of parents and children involved in various activities. Participants had to write sentences describing what was happening to the different characters in the picture. The contexts were carefully chosen to elicit possessive determiners. Moreover, the number of male and female adults and children was balanced across the picture set. Since students in secondary one regular ESL classes have a limited amount of vocabulary and rely heavily on the dictionary, they were provided with the necessary vocabulary to complete the task. This vocabulary was written on the chalkboard. Students were also permitted to use their dictionary if they wished. There were two versions of each set of pictures. Version A was used at the pretest and delayed posttest and version B was used at the immediate posttest and the long-term delayed posttest (see Appendix D for both versions of this task).

All three tasks were piloted with two similar groups at the same school. Moreover, tests were administered in an order that enabled students to begin with the least possessive determiner-focused task and move to the most focused. Students took approximately 25 minutes to complete the picture elicitation task, next, 30 minutes to complete the judgment task, and 20 minutes to complete the cloze task.

In addition to these tests, students were asked to respond to two additional questionnaires. The first, given at the outset of the study, evaluated the approximate amount of students' outside exposure to English (see Appendix K). The second,

administered at the very end of the study, elicited students' knowledge of the rule for possessive determiners *his/her* (see Appendix L).

This chapter described the methodology used in order to investigate the hypotheses of this study. The next chapter will present the results for each of the measures described above.

CHAPTER 5: ANALYSES OF THE RESULTS

This chapter will present the scoring procedures and results of the paper and pencil measures administered throughout this thesis study. For the purpose of the study, a two-way Analysis of Variance tests (ANOVA) repeated measures procedure was performed on the students' scores on each test employed (picture description task, cloze task, and grammaticality judgement test). In each ANOVA test, the factors were: group (Rule+Enhancement, Rule, Enhancement, and Control) and Time (pretest, posttest, delayed posttest, and long-term delayed posttest). The results of the three ANOVAs are presented in Table N.1 in Appendix N (for the Cloze Task), Table O.1 in Appendix O (for the Grammaticality Judgment task), and Table P.1 in Appendix P (for the Picture Description task).

An examination of the ANOVA test results indicate that there were significant main effects of GROUP, significant main effects of TIME, as well as significant GROUP and TIME interaction effects on each test ($p<.05$, each time). To find out whether there were any significant differences among the three treatment groups and the control group, the GROUP by TIME interaction means for each test were subjected to a simple means test. The results of these tests are presented in Table N.2 in Appendix N (for the Cloze Task), Table O.2 in Appendix O (for the Grammaticality Judgment Task), and Table P.2 in Appendix P (for the Picture Description Task). Furthermore, to understand how the time factor might have interacted within each group another simple means test was conducted. The results of these tests are presented in Table N.3 in Appendix N (for the Cloze Task), Table O.3 in Appendix O (for the Grammaticality Judgment Task), and Table P.3 in Appendix P (for the Picture Description Task).

Scoring Procedures

The Cloze Task

This task was scored on the basis of obligatory and supplied context (i.e. one point for each correctly completed blank) (see Appendix B for a sample of this task). The percentage of correct scores was then calculated. Coding decisions had to be made with regards to some forms. For instance, some students used forms such as *is* in contexts requiring *his* and other students used *here* in contexts where *her* was required. The decision was made to consider these variants as spelling errors and to code them as correct.

The Grammaticality Judgment Task

For this task, students were asked to read a text, identify deviant target forms and then provide grammatical and contextually appropriate corrections for them. (See Appendix C for a sample of this task). To be considered accurate, an error had to be identified and the correction had to be an appropriate PD. The number of accurate corrections was then tallied and transformed into a percentage. It is important to mention that some students crossed out deviant forms but failed to correct them appropriately by providing an incorrect form or simply by failing to provide any alternative form. These were coded as incorrect.

Picture Description Task

On this task, students had to write a description of what was happening in a cartoon picture (see Appendix D for a sample of this task). Then, the number of contexts that each

learner established for the use of third person singular possessive determiners was taken into account. Each of the forms was then coded on the basis of whether or not a student supplied a form, and whether or not it was supplied correctly. Accuracy ratios were computed and then used for statistical analyses.

Results

Pretests

In this section, pretest scores for all tests will be presented jointly. On all the tasks described, performance of all groups was similar (see Table 5.1; 5.2; 5.3). One-way analysis of variance procedures demonstrate that there were no statistically significant differences between any of the groups at the time of pretesting (See Figures M.1, M.2, and M.3 in Appendix M for graphs).

Table 5.1
Pretest mean scores in percent and standard deviation by group for the cloze task

Group	N	Mean	SD
Rule+Enhancement	18	14.20	16.19
Rule	20	15.56	17.53
Enhancement	20	11.39	16.17
Control	17	13.73	16.09

$F(3,71) = 0.22, p$ = not significant

Table 5.2
Pretest mean scores in percent and standard deviation by group for the grammaticality judgment task

Group	N	Mean	SD
Rule+Enhancement	18	11.78	11.84
Rule	20	14.60	10.72
Enhancement	20	9.00	13.48
Control	17	9.88	13.50

$F(3,71) = 0.78, p$ = not significant

Table 5.3
Pretest mean scores in percent and standard deviation by group for the picture description task

Group	N	Mean	SD
Rule+Enhancement	18	22.35	29.75
Rule	20	13.02	18.48
Enhancement	20	12.35	16.39
Control	17	19.88	23.33

$F(3,71) = 0.93$, p = not significant

Posttests

Cloze Task

This section reports the cloze test results of all posttesting occasions. Repeated measures analysis of variance revealed significant interaction for groups and time (see Table N.1 in Appendix N). Consequently, a test of simple main effects of group at each level of time and tests of simple main effects of time at each level of group were conducted (see Tables N.2 and L.3 in Appendix N).

Cloze Task Results for Groups at Each Level of Time

Cloze task – immediate posttest

This first analysis presents the results in percentage since there were an unequal number of forms in versions A and B of the test. The mean scores and standard deviation for grammatical suppliance of the form by group and time of testing are shown in Table 5.4. Repeated measures ANOVA procedures revealed a significant difference between the mean results from one level of method to another (see Table N.1 in Appendix N). Further analyses showed that the only pair to demonstrate a significant difference was the R+/C

groups while other conditions were not significantly different from each other (see Table N.2 in Appendix N).

Table 5.4
Cloze task mean scores in percent and standard deviation by group at the immediate posttest

Group	N	Mean	SD
Rule+Enhancement	18	57.50	24.21
Rule	20	45.25	28.12
Enhancement	20	36.50	26.96
Control	17	28.24	16.29

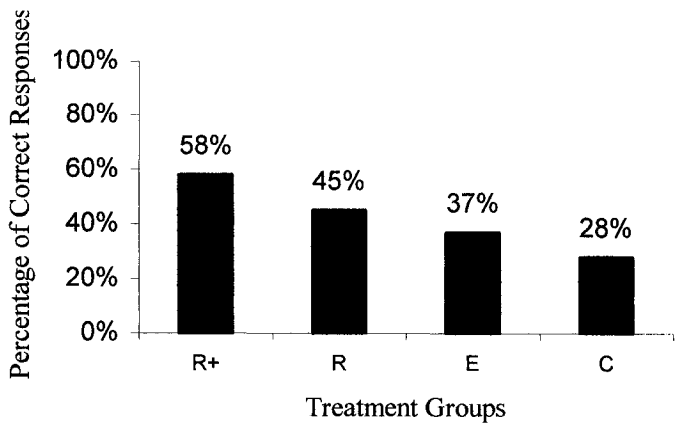

Figure 5.1. Mean number of correct responses (in percentage) for the cloze task at the immediate posttest.

As illustrated in Figure 5.1, these mean scores show a trend that corroborates the order predicted by the initial hypothesis: R+ is higher than R, then E, then, C. R is higher than E, then C. Finally, E is higher than C.

Cloze task – delayed posttest

The mean scores presented in Table 5.5 Figure 5.2 and show an advantage for R+ and R. Significant differences were found between R+/C and R/C pairs (see Table N.2 in Appendix N).

Table 5.5
Cloze task mean scores in percent and standard deviation by group at the delayed posttest

Group	N	Mean	SD
Rule+Enhancement	18	59.88	33.74
Rule	20	56.39	34.78
Enhancement	20	33.33	29.73
Control	17	26.47	21.74

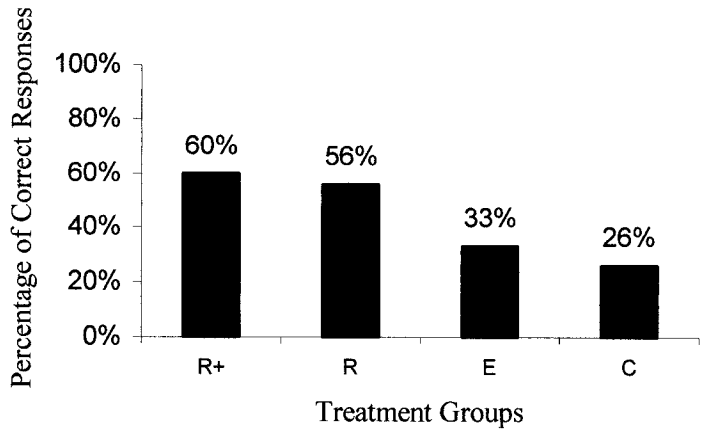

Figure 5.2. Mean number of correct responses (in percentage) for the cloze task at the delayed posttest.

Cloze task – long term delayed posttest

As shown in Table 5.6 and Figure 5.3 at the long-term delayed posttest, the means for students in the R+ and R groups have decreased from the time of the immediate posttest, as well as the delayed posttest although the R+ decrease was less striking than that of the R group. Conversely, participants in the E and C groups seem to have increased slightly or maintained the results from the time of the immediate and delayed posttests.

Table 5.6

Cloze task mean scores in percent and standard deviation by group at the long-term delayed posttest

Group	N	Mean	SD
Rule+Enhancement	18	54.44	29.20
Rule	20	40.50	33.04
Enhancement	20	39.00	23.76
Control	17	29.71	19.08

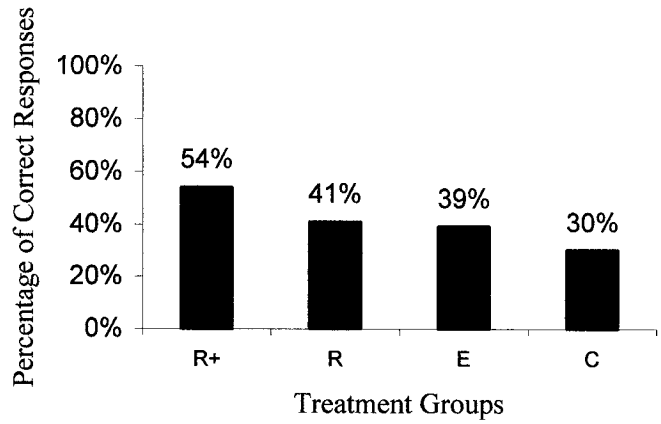

Figure 5.3. Mean number of correct responses (in percentage) for the cloze task at the long-term delayed posttest.

Analyses show that the only significant difference is between group R+ and C between groups at the long-term delayed posttest (see Table N.2 in Appendix N).

Cloze Task Results for Time at Each Level of Group

For the cloze task all groups, including C, showed significant gains between pretest and all other testing occasions (i.e. posttest, delayed posttest, and long-term delayed posttest) (see table N.3 in Appendix N). Also, as illustrated in Figure 5.4 below, a significant decline was noted from time of delayed posttest to long-term delayed posttest for the R group.

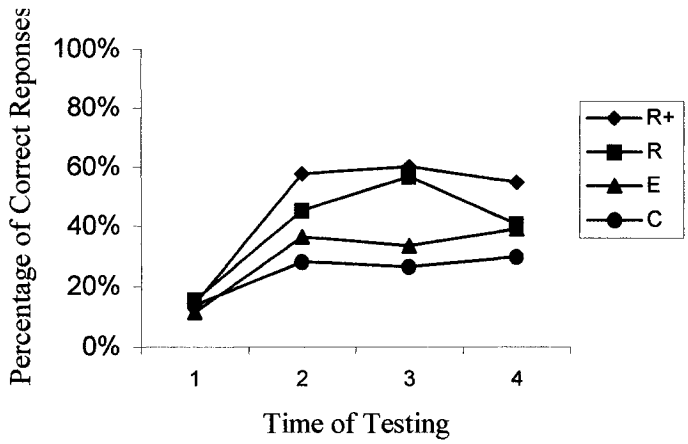

Figure 5.4. Mean number of correct responses (in percentage) for the cloze task on all testing occasions

Grammaticality Judgment Task

In the following section, the test results for the grammaticality judgment task are presented. On this measure, repeated measures analyses showed significant interaction for groups and time. Tests of simple main effects of group at each level of time and tests of simple main effects of time at each level of group were conducted in order to locate where interactions were identified (see Appendix O for statistical tables).

Grammaticality Judgment Task Results for Groups at Each Level of Time

Grammaticality judgment task – immediate posttest

Results from tests of simple main effects of group at each level of time show no significant difference between groups. (see Table O.2 in Appendix O). However, Table 5.7 and Figure 5.5 below show that the mean scores and standard deviations for grammatical corrections of deviant forms have increased in all groups from the time of

pretesting and seem to support the order predicted by the initial hypothesis seems to be supported by the mean percentages below.

Table 5.7
Grammaticality judgment task mean scores in percent and standard deviation by group at the immediate posttest

Group	N	Mean	SD
Rule+enhancement	18	48.08	25.76
Rule	20	43.85	25.59
Enhancement	20	31.92	21.80
Control	17	26.92	16.32

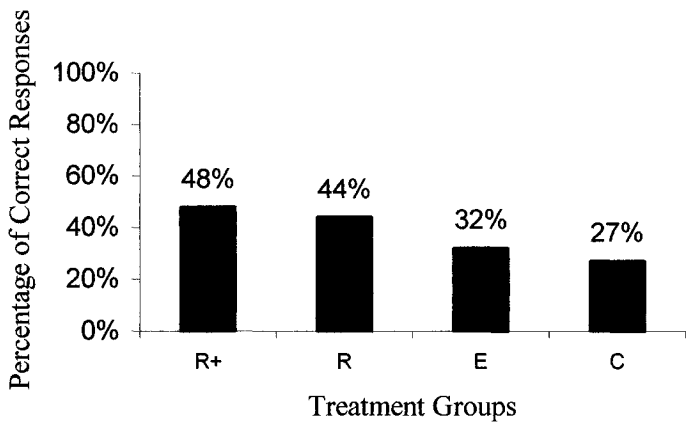

Figure 5.5. Mean number of correct responses (in percentage) for the judgment task at the immediate posttest

Grammaticality judgment task --delayed posttest

At the delayed posttest, scores suggest that the effects of treatment were maintained. The results of a test of simple main effect group for each level of main effect time showed significant differences between R+/C and, R/C pairs (see Table O.2 in Appendix O). Moreover, as shown in Table 5.8 and Figure 5.6, mean scores support the hypothesis and follow the trend established in the immediate posttest.

Table 5.8
Grammaticality judgment task mean scores in percent and standard deviation by group at the delayed posttest

Group	N	Mean	SD
Rule+Enhancement	18	47.78	25.05
Rule	20	43.20	22.83
Enhancement	20	31.80	27.30
Control	17	20.47	13.85

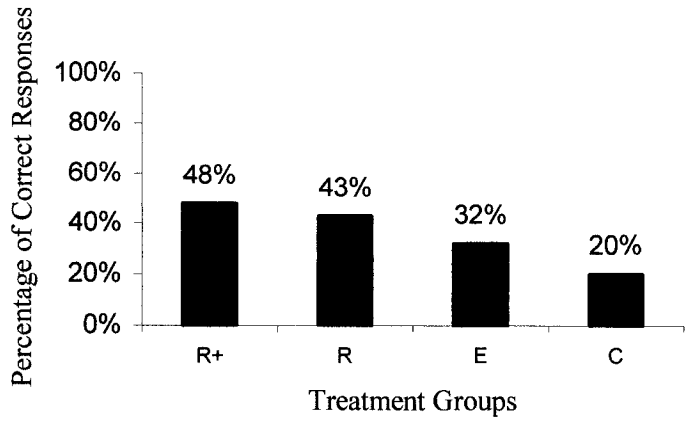

Figure 5.6. Mean number of correct responses (in percentage) for the judgment task at the delayed posttest.

Grammaticality judgment task – long-term delayed posttest

Statistical procedures showed no significant difference among groups at the long-term delayed posttest (see Table O.2 in Appendix O). Nonetheless, Table 5.9 and Figure 5.7 below suggest a trend for groups with rule to outperform groups without.

Table 5.9
Grammaticality judgment task mean scores in percent and standard deviation by group at the long-term delayed posttest

Group	N	Average	SD
Rule+Enhancement	18	36.97	30.63
Rule	20	34.81	30.01
Enhancement	20	30.19	23.49
Control	17	25.11	23.60

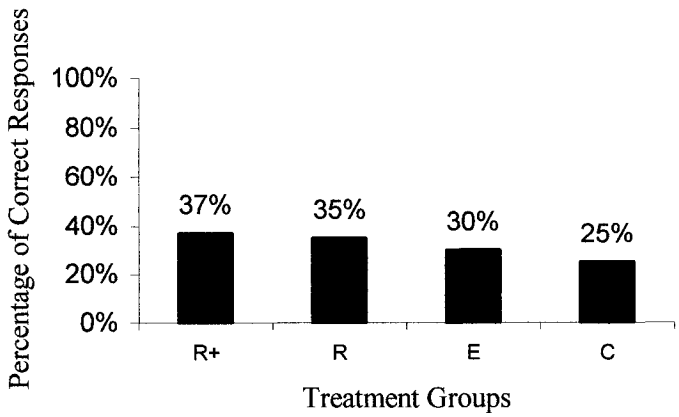

Figure 5.7. Mean number of correct responses (in percentage) for the judgment task at the long-term delayed posttest.

Grammaticality Judgment Task Results for Time at Each Level of Group

For the grammaticality judgment task a trend similar to the cloze task is illustrated in Figure 5.8 Significant differences were noted between pretests and all other testing occasions for R+, R, and E. For the C group significant differences were established between pre and immediate posttest measures only (see Table O.3 in Appendix O).

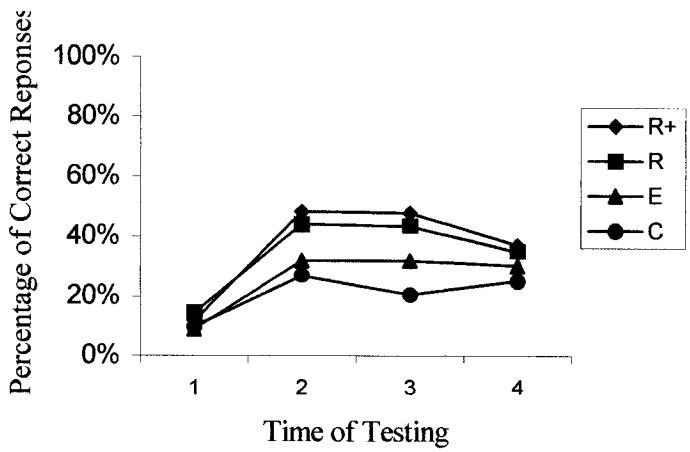

Figure 5.8. Mean number of correct responses (in percentage) for the grammaticality judgment task on all testing occasions.

Picture Description Task

In this section the results obtained from picture description measures on immediate posttests, delayed posttests, and delayed posttests will be presented. For this task, repeated measures analyses revealed significant interaction for groups and time of testing. Therefore, tests of simple main effects of group at each level of time and tests of simple main effects of time at each level of group were carried out (see Appendix P for statistical table).

Picture description task for Groups at Each Level of Time

Picture description task – immediate posttest

For the immediate posttest, statistical analyses show that R+ significantly outperforms E and C (refer to Appendix P for Table P.2). Mean scores and standard deviation for accuracy ratios are presented in Table 5.10 and visually in Figure 5.9. Mean scores follow the order predicted by the initial hypothesis.

Table 5.10
Picture description task mean scores in percent and standard deviation by group at the immediate posttest

Group	N	Average	SD
Rule+Enhancement	18	55.12	32.97
Rule	20	44.46	34.29
Enhancement	20	20.88	26.16
Control	17	16.50	18.68

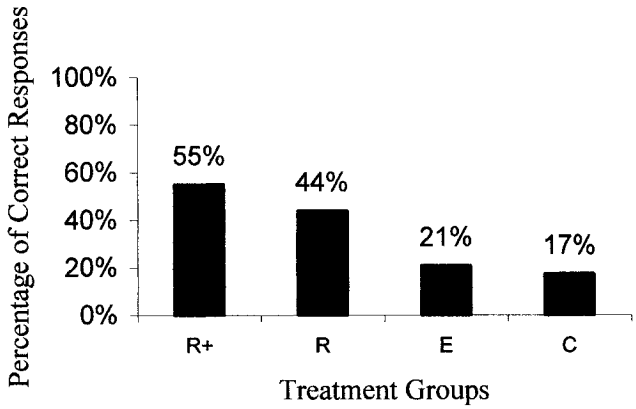

Figure 5.9. Mean number of correct responses (in percentage) for the picture description task at the immediate posttest.

Picture description task – delayed posttest

For the delayed posttest, the only groups shown to be statistically different are R+/C and R/C (see Appendix P for table P.2). Once more, the mean scores shown in Table 5.11 and Figure 5.10 seem to corroborate the initial hypotheses.

Table 5.11.
Picture description task mean scores in percent and standard deviation by group at the delayed posttest

Group	N	Average	SD
Rule+Enhancement	18	47.90	31.57
Rule	20	43.31	37.07
Enhancement	20	24.39	31.85
Control	17	13.33	12.31

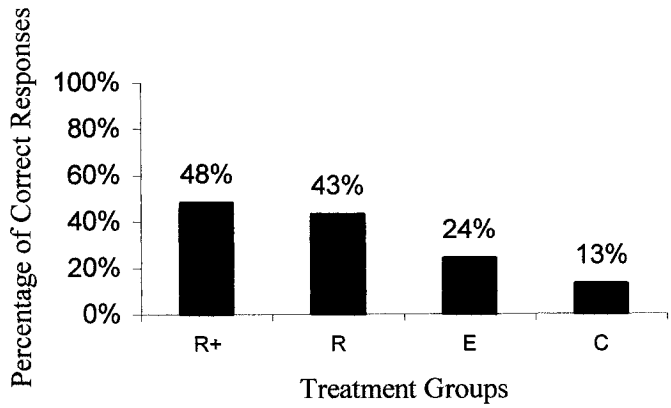

Figure 5.10. Mean number of correct responses (in percentage) for the picture description task at the delayed posttest.

Picture description task – long-term delayed posttest

A test of simple main effect group at each level of main effect for time reveals that there are no statistically significant differences between any groups at the long-term delayed posttest (see Appendix P for table P.2). Again, the mean scores presented in Table 5.12 and Figure 5.11 support the order predicted by the initial hypotheses although the mean scores for the R and E groups are extremely close.

Table 5.12
Picture description task mean scores in percent and standard deviation by group at the long-term delayed posttest

Group	N	Average	SD
Rule+Enhancement	18	46.32	35.31
Rule	20	35.89	34.98
Enhancement	20	34.09	32.53
Control	17	20.53	26.11

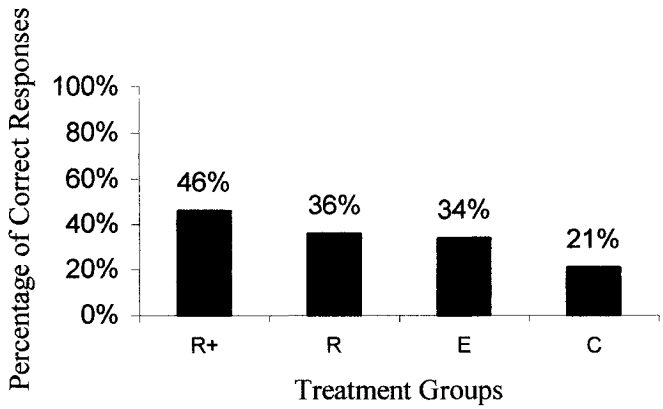

Figure 5.11. Mean number of correct responses (in percentage) for the picture description task at the long-term delayed posttest.

Picture Description Task Results for Time at Each Level of Group

Performance over time is shown graphically in Figure 5.12. Statistical analyses showed a significant gain for the R+ and R groups between pre- and immediate posttesting as well as pre- and delayed posttests. The E and C group showed no significant gains or declines from any time of testing to another (see Appendix P for table P.3).

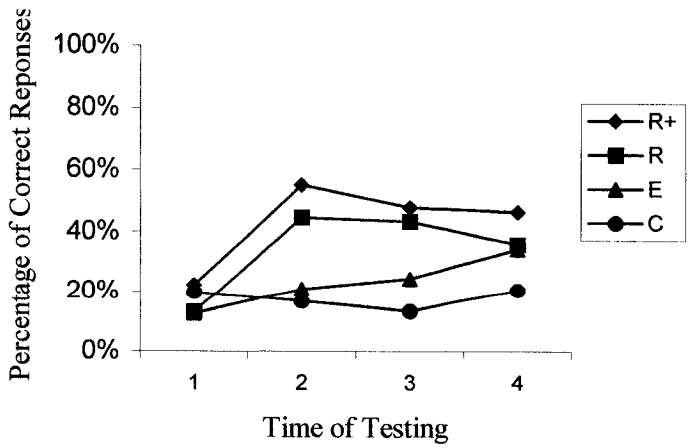

Figure 5.12. Mean number of correct responses (in percentage) for the picture description task on all testing occasions

Although the initial hypotheses presented in Chapter 3 were not supported by statistically significant results, the mean percentages obtained on all measures and at all times of testing, indicate a trend that supports these hypotheses. Interpretation and discussion of these results will be presented in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In this chapter, a discussion and interpretation of the results presented in Chapter 5 is offered. The results are examined in relation to the initial hypothesis stated in Chapter 3. Then, they are related and compared to previous typographical enhancement research. Subsequent to this, some limitations of the study are discussed. The final section of this chapter considers this study's contribution to future research, as well as its pedagogical implications.

Findings in Relation to Hypotheses

The principle objective of this study was to test the hypotheses presented in Chapter 3 and verify which type of instruction would most enable francophone secondary 1 students of ESL to attain grammatical accuracy in their use of *his/her* in three paper and pencil tasks. A central component of the rationale behind this thesis was the "noticing hypothesis" (Schmidt,1990). This hypothesis holds that bringing learners to attend to linguistic forms in the input is a necessary step in the conversion of input to intake. However, techniques to draw students' attention to targeted linguistic features in the input vary greatly in terms of explicitness. Some researchers argue that implicit methods may be as beneficial as are explicit methods in getting students to notice. Others maintain that explicit focus on formal properties of the language is crucial in enabling students to attain accuracy. In this study, four conditions that varied in their degree of explicitness were compared.

Hypothesis 1

In the most explicit condition of this study, R+ students were presented with pedagogical rules about PDs along with exposure to pedagogical material that included textually enhanced PDs. Hypothesis 1 held that: Typographical enhancement coupled with explicit rule presentation of third person singular possessive determiners *his/her* would promote the acquisition of the target feature most effectively at immediate posttesting, delayed posttesting, and long-term delayed posttesting. In this study, R+ students were found to significantly outperform the C group on the cloze task at all posttests, on the grammaticality judgment task at the delayed postest, and on the picture description task at the immediate and delayed posttests. Nonetheless, the order predicted by Hypothesis 1 was supported by the mean scores. That is, students in R+ had higher mean scores than students in the other groups on all tests at immediate posttesting, delayed posttesting and long-term delayed posttesting.

Hypothesis 2

Students in the R group received metalinguistic information without textual visual enhancement. This group was hypothesized to outperform E and C but not R+. Hypothesis 2 stated: Explicit rule presentation would be more effective in promoting the acquisition of *his/her* than exposure to materials containing typographically enhanced target features in the immediate posttests, delayed posttests, and long-term delayed posttests. There was no statistical evidence to support this hypothesis. However, mean scores on all measures and all testing occasions, other than prestesting, are higher for the R group than the E group and show a trend consistent with the second hypothesis. Another trend observed throughout this

study involves R+ and R conditions. Each time statistically significant differences were obtained students in one or both of these two conditions outperformed the C group and, in one case, the E group (see Table P.2 in Appendix P). The common link between these two groups is the R factor. Thus, one can surmise that R is what made the difference.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 predicted that typographical input enhancement would be more effective in promoting the acquisition of *his/her* than simple exposure to materials containing the target feature in immediate posttests, delayed posttests, and long-term delayed posttests. Although differences between mean scores for E over the control group were never significant, the results presented in Chapter 5 show E group posttest means to be consistently higher than those of the C group.

It is to be noted that on all of the measures, at each posttesting time, high standard deviations show that there was much variability within each of the groups. This is a finding that is consistent with White's (1998) oral production data. As a consequence, it is difficult to conclude significance at a 95.0% confidence level.

Progress Over Time

For the cloze task, the results of this study demonstrate significant gains between pre and posttests for all groups on all testing occasions. This same observation was noted on the grammaticality judgment task for the three treatment groups although the control group only showed a significant gain between pretest and immediate posttest. For the picture description task, the mean scores were significantly higher for R+ and R at the

immediate and delayed posttest, but not at the long-term postest. No other significant differences were found on this task.

Although E gains were not as important as the gains noted in the R+ and R groups, one cannot ignore the fact that the means of E students at the long-term delayed posttest were significantly higher than the pretest means on the cloze and grammaticality judgment tasks. In contrast, a non-significant decline of the means was noted for R+ and R between delayed posttest and long-term delayed posttest on grammaticality judgment and picture description tasks. Moreover, this decline was significant for the R group on the cloze task. This finding leads to the speculation that enhancement students may in the much longer term attain similar levels to those of students in the groups receiving rule instruction (R and R+). One other interesting observation concerning the E group was noted. It was the only group whose scores continued to rise after the treatment, whereas scores of groups receiving rule declined after the immediate posttest. This may help explain why the decline of the R group is greater than that of the R+ group. Perhaps enhancement is the factor that enabled R+ to maintain their gains better than the R group.

One explanation for the increase by the E group is that students in this study were not accustomed to grammar being taught implicitly. Thus, when students in the E condition were suddenly confronted with a grammatical component presented implicitly, they asked many metalinguistic questions. Although the teacher tried to answer the questions without giving too much explicit information, some students still insisted. Perhaps this can be attributed to the fact that prior to the study, the teacher had overtly taught other linguistic features. Thus, students were possibly used to attending to grammatical features in an analytic manner, and even when faced with implicit input,

they attempted to deduce rules on their own. This might have rendered the enhancement condition more explicit than it was intended to be.

An explanation for the R+ and R decline draws on the cognitivist view that an L2 learner's linguistic system is constantly being restructured (McLaughlin, 1987, 1990). According to McLaughlin, restructuring refers to the changes made to the internalized representations as a result of new learning. In this case, the learning of an explicit rule may have destabilized the students' interlanguage rule, leading to variable performance and the temporary reappearance of L2 errors.

A Comparison to Other Studies of Textual Input Enhancement

In Chapter 3, studies that examined the effects of typographical input enhancement on the acquisition of certain linguistic features were discussed. The results from these studies present findings that differ from the ones established in this thesis study. Doughty (1991), Shook (1994), Jourdenais et al. (1995), and Leeman et al. (1995) show a benefit for the effects of typographical enhancement in their respective studies. However, these researchers all had adult learners as their participants. Perhaps adults have the cognitive maturity that young adolescents do not and thus, are more analytic and capable of inferring certain rules on their own.

Doughty's (1991) study showed benefits for enhancement. However, it differed from this thesis in that it was set in a laboratory. Controlled laboratory settings offer many advantages in that extraneous variables that may affect internal validity can be controlled. Nevertheless, results of a quasi-experimental study in which it is difficult to control all possible variables is more likely to have external validity since it is conducted in authentic

educational settings. Thus, in contrast to Doughty's (1991) study, findings from this thesis could be generalized and applied to other educational settings with young francophone adolescent learners.

Additionally, in their studies, Doughty (1991) and Leeman et al. (1995) did not isolate the enhancement variable from other possible variables such as rule presentation or error correction during or prior to the study. Thus, other variables might have affected enhancement.

Alanen's (1995) study showed an advantage for groups receiving rule plus enhancement or rule over groups exposed to enhancement only. These results seem to resemble the ones established by this current thesis study. However, Alanen's study was conducted in a laboratory setting with a very small sample of adult participants (9) who were exposed to two very short study sessions of 15 minutes each. Furthermore, delayed and long-term delayed testing was not conducted.

Shook (1994), Jourdenais et al (1995), and Leeman et al. (1995) conducted their study with adults learning Spanish as a second language. They all found significant differences in the noticing of target forms and accuracy of subsequent learner output. Nonetheless, one major aspect that distinguishes these studies from this one lies in the nature of the linguistic feature under investigation. The Spanish verbs examined in the Shook (1994), Jourdenais et al. (1995) and Leeman et al. (1995) are both frequent and semantically important. The following section will discuss how the nature of a linguistic feature may be a crucial factor in determining the effectiveness of a type of form-focused instruction.

Nature of the Linguistic Feature

As discussed in chapter 3, many factors might guide teachers' pedagogical decisions about types of grammatical instruction. However, one factor that cannot be ignored is how the first language influences the acquisition of L2. For grammatical points such as *his* and *her*, francophone students learning English as their second language might assume that the L2 functions in the same manner as the L1 (White, 1998). Thus, without explicit instruction, including metalinguistic information that draws attention to differences between L1 and L2, students might not be able to disconfirm rules based on their L1. In this study, perhaps visual enhancement and exposure to input were not powerful enough to counteract L1 influence. That is, visual enhancement without presentation of the rule did not permit learners to extract the grammatical information and replace the L1 rule with the L2 rule. This is in accordance with Sharwood Smith's (1991) claim that one may externally manipulate salience of the input but can make no assumptions about what learners actually notice. In this study, students were clearly aware of the enhancement. They frequently asked questions about why forms were underlined or bolded. This is the primary reason leading to the interpretation that many students did indeed notice enhancement. Nevertheless, the results of this study suggest that while drawing the students' attention to a linguistic feature may be sufficient to speed up acquisition of that feature, implicit instruction may not be adequate in cases involving L1/L2 contrasts. These findings are in accordance with DeKeyser (1998), who argued for initial presentation of explicit rule-based explanations in helping learners develop declarative knowledge of the target feature. Thus, providing the rule may avoid

cases in which students are not able to deduce the rule from simple exposure to materials containing typographical enhanced target features (White, 1998).

The Importance of Meaning

In their 2002 study, Spada, Lightbown, and White argued that explicit instruction may be more effective in helping students learn to use possessive determiners *his/her* than questions. They attribute this to the fact that errors in the word order of questions do not normally alter meaning, whereas the use of the incorrect possessive determiner might cause a "communication breakdown". In this thesis study, some students were aware of the fact that incorrect use of *his/her* caused changes to meaning. One student found it especially funny when she saw sentences such as "*Antoine lives with her mother*", and at one point, she commented on how silly a sentence was because of the incorrect PD. Perhaps one explanation for students' improvement on possessive determiners *his/her* in this study is the strong form/meaning relationship of the linguistic feature.

Metalinguistic Awareness

In her 1988 investigation of the pronoun system in learners' interlanguage, Martens looked at possible disparities between what ESL learners do and what they actually know. The results of her study suggest what learners produce reflects what they know. In the present study, a questionnaire that was administered to the learners at the end of the long-term delayed posttest sheds light on students' metalinguistic knowledge of the PD rule. Students were asked to complete a sentence and then to explain how they decided which PD to use (see Appendix L for this questionnaire). Although the pedagogical rule for

English third person singular possessive determiners would appear to be a simple rule (see Hulstjn, 1995), the vast majority of students could not state the rule of thumb regardless of group. Only 18 learners out of 75 revealed knowledge of the rule. Of these, 7/17 (41%) were in R+; 6/20 (30%) were in R; 3/20 (15%) were in E; 2/18 (11%) were in C. One interesting fact is that although most students were unable to state the correct rule, they were able to apply it correctly in the example given on the questionnaire. These findings are in accordance with Anderson's (1985) Adaptive Control of Thought model (ACT), according to which learning takes place when declarative knowledge (knowing that) becomes procedural knowledge (knowing how) through practice. As declarative knowledge becomes increasingly automatic, a learner might lose access to this declarative knowledge and no longer be conscious of what he/she is doing. The findings are consistent with those of two studies carried out with young learners. In the first, Green and Hecht (1992) found that secondary school ESL students in Germany were able to correct errors on a grammar test, even though they did not state an explicit rule for each correction. In the second, White and Ranta (2002) found a weak relationship between performance on a passage correction task and an oral production task following instruction. On the other hand, the results contradict Martens' claims that there are no differences between what learners know and what they do.

Limitations of the Study

In this study, students' responses on tasks varied greatly within the same group. While variability is a characteristic of interlanguage, we cannot rule out the fact that some of the participants in this study may have received form-focused instruction on the feature under investigation in their primary school grades. Even though instruction in accordance with the guidelines set by the Quebec Ministry of Education calls for a focus on meaning rather than a focus on form, many elementary school teachers still provide teaching of grammatical forms. Thus, either presentation of the rule or typographical enhancement may have triggered students' previously learned knowledge about possessive determiners.

Another limitation is also a strength in this study. That is, validity might have been affected by the fact that only one teacher participated in the study, and that she undertook this research with her own groups of students. Although the teacher was careful to deliver instruction according to the guidelines of each condition (implicit/explicit), students in all groups of this study were accustomed to form-focused instruction delivered somewhat explicitly. However, the strength of having the teacher as researcher ensures the delivery of treatment within the four conditions consistently.

An additional limitation of this study lies in the fact that it was not possible to apply stage analysis procedures. The picture elicitation task was designed to permit analysis of written production data using the PD developmental framework discussed in Chapter 3. While this framework describes oral stages, it was to be applied to written data for the first time in this study. However, students' responses on this task were too short to meet minimum emergence criteria (see J. White, 1996) rendering it impossible to conduct this type of analysis. White developed the stage framework to take account of

the variability in oral production; as noted in chapter 5, the students in this study also demonstrated considerable variability in their written production.

Another factor that might have influenced the results of this study is the number of tests and the frequency with which they were administered. Students were tested on four different occasions, and each time, there were three different tests. Moreover, these tests were different from what students were accustomed to in regular classroom practices. Thus, students might have grown bored with the tests or not taken them seriously, and their responses might not have been reliable.

Furthermore the students that participated in this thesis study were young and might have encountered cognitive overload during tests. The grammaticality judgement task required students to engage in many processes at once, and it seemed to cause problems for some of them. They had to read the text, understand its meaning, and detect, identify, and correct errors. The picture description task also posed some difficulty for certain students. They struggled to find the lexical items to describe the different pictures, and the attempt to use *his/her* correctly might have been too cognitively demanding for the students in these groups. VanPatten (1990) argued that attention is a limited resource and that it may be impossible for low proficiency learners to attend to form and meaning simultaneously. Overstreet (1998) supports this argument. He concluded that his tasks required too much of the learners' attention to allow them to focus on both meaning and form.

Another limitation is related to the number and grade level of students that participated in this study (75 secondary one students). Possibly a larger sample of students at different levels and in different schools would have engendered differing results. We

cannot claim that the results of this study are generalizable to other populations such as adults or young children.

Contributions and Implications for Future Research

This study has contributed to SLA research investigating the effects of type of instruction on the acquisition of third person singular PDs in the following ways. Prior to this study, most textual enhancement studies looked at adult learners of ESL (Doughty, 1991; Alanen, 1995; Jourdenais et al., 1995; Leeman et al., 1995; Leow, 1997, and Overstreet, 1998) or younger more proficient learners following intensive ESL programs (White, 1998; White and Ranta, 2002).

Another contribution made by this study is that it measured long-term effects of treatment. These proved to be crucial in that the results differed substantially from immediate and delayed posttests.

Furthermore, no other study has separated the variables and compared simple exposure, enhancement of input combined with exposure, explicit rule presentation combined with exposure, and explicit rule presentation combined with enhancement and exposure. The results suggest that the combination of rule and enhancement is most beneficial to learners' acquisition of *his/her*. However, it is crucial to take the nature of the linguistic feature into account before advocating one particular type of form-focused instruction over another. Indeed, more research is needed before we understand how implicit and explicit input enhancement techniques contribute to an ESL student's acquisition of specific linguistic features.

Pedagogical Implications

A common concern in the classroom is to identify among the various types of form-focused instruction the ones that are of potential value in promoting second language acquisition. Although teaching techniques designed by teachers may be implicit or explicit, the choice of method of instructional intervention should take into account the differing circumstances under which SLA takes place. Thus, the learner population, the learning context, the learners' L1, and the linguistic feature may affect decisions regarding degree of explicitness of focus on form.

The study presented in this thesis set out to investigate the influence of rule presentation and textual input enhancement and their effects on a linguistic feature known to be problematic to francophone students of ESL. The results of this study suggest that for secondary 1 francophone students following the regular ESL program as prescribed by the MEQ, the use of explicit rule presentation that contrasts L1 and L2 followed by activities that integrate the linguistic feature and remind students of the rule through typographical enhancement is most beneficial in helping these students acquire possessive determiners *his/her*.

Nevertheless, it is important that students be exposed to small doses of rule and enhancement throughout the year. This is essential for two very different reasons. First, extensive exposure might result in students becoming increasingly bored with the form and, as a result, fail to notice enhancement. Second, lack of regular follow-up activities integrating the grammatical feature might result in the loss of the initial effects of instruction.

Finally, teachers should ensure that tasks that present the rule coupled with textual input enhancement remain simple. Learners' attention is a limited resource and it may be difficult for students to process difficult vocabulary or linguistic features for meaning at the same time as they process the targeted linguistic feature for form. The more that students are able to attend to the targeted linguistic feature, the more likely it is that input will be converted to intake.

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APPENDIX A: CONSENT FORMS

Formulaire d'autorisation pour un projet de recherche dans le cadre d'une thèse de maîtrise de l'université Concordia.

Objectif : Ce travail de recherche a pour but d'examiner les bénéfices de certaines techniques d'enseignement de grammaire sur l'apprentissage d'une langue seconde. Ce projet est mené dans le cadre d'une thèse de maîtrise en linguistique appliquée de Mme Jennifer Pacheco et dirigée par une équipe de 3 professeurs/chercheurs de l'université Concordia.

Procédure : Après avoir été exposés à une technique d'enseignement de grammaire pendant un mois, les élèves seront évalués à trois reprises sur les effets de la période d'instruction. Il est entendu que les informations recueillies lors de ces trois étapes seront strictement utilisées à des fins scientifiques et que la confidentialité de votre enfant sera assurée.

Conditions de participation : Vous avez le droit de refuser que votre enfant participe à cette recherche et ce, sans qu'il ou elle soit pénalisé d'aucune façon.

**Si vous avez des questions qui se rapportent à cette recherche, n'hésitez pas à me contacter au (450) 433-5455 et il me fera un grand plaisir de répondre à vos questions.*

Merci de votre participation.

Jennifer Pacheco
Enseignante d'anglais langue seconde
École secondaire Jean-Jacques-Rousseau

J'accepte que mon enfant participe à l'étude sur « L'enseignement de l'anglais langue seconde ».

Signature d'un parent : _____

Nom de l'élève : _____

Date : _____

APPENDIX B: CLOZE TASK VERSION A & VERSION B

Version A

Complete the following paragraphs with the correct words.

Antoine Leclerc _____ 12 years old. He was born in Sherbrooke Quebec. _____ mother moved to Laval when _____ was 3 years old. He is 1.64m tall and _____ hair is curly and brown and _____ eyes are blue. Everyone calls him Tony except for _____ grandmother, who calls him Antoine. Tony plays soccer and loves it. _____ idol is Ronaldo a famous soccer player from Brazil. Tony loves to play tricks on _____ little sister. His friends love teasing him because he _____ always late. _____ best friend _____Jerry Lee. Antoine lives with _____ mother, and _____ sister. In the future Tony would like to become _____ astronaut like _____ uncle George.

Lucie Roy is 13 years old. _____ hair is black and _____ eyes _____ blue. She has a lot of freckles, which _____ is very proud of. She wears braces on _____ teeth and contact lenses. She _____ very tall and slim. She has _____ cat named Wolfgang. She is very attached to _____ pet. Lucie lives with _____ mom and _____ dad. _____ father is a police officer. Lucie also has a little brother named Bob. She does not get along with _____ brother. Lucie's favorite pastime is drawing caricatures of _____ science teacher Mr. Thompson. Lucie _____ an extremely talented pianist. It is _____ dream to become a professional musician.

Version B

Complete the following paragraphs with the correct words.

I have a friend named John. John lives with _____ mother, _____ father, and _____ sister. John also has an older brother named Tom. Tom lives in Ontario. Poor John, had _____ accident last week. He fell off _____ skateboard and broke _____ arm and sprained _____ ankle. I went to visit John yesterday. I met _____ brother Tom. Tom now lives in Ottawa with _____ girlfriend Stephanie. Tom _____ two children. _____ girl's name _____ Beatrice and _____ boy's name _____ Jack. I was very happy to visit John and finally meet Tom.

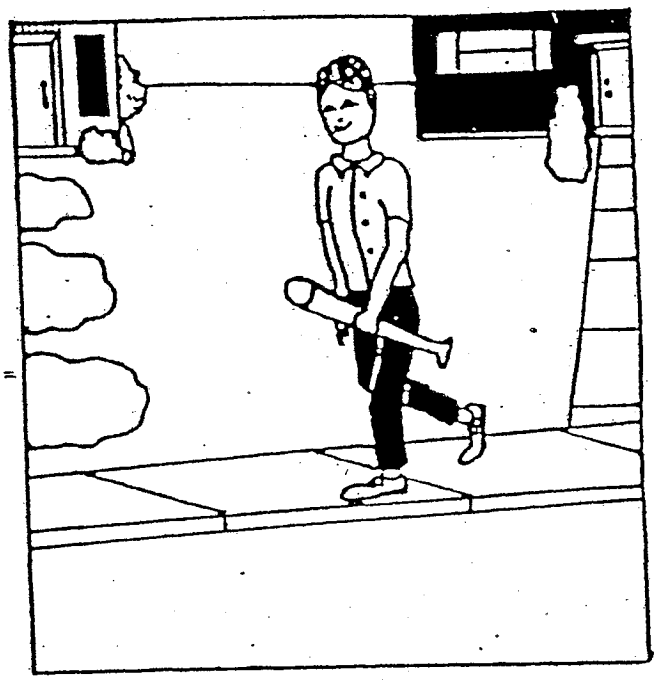
My Friend John has _____ very nice cousin named Sandra. Sandra was visiting _____ cousin John with _____ boyfriend Joe. Sandra _____ 26 years old. _____ is very tall and _____ hair is blond and _____ eyes are green. Sandra studies at the University of Toronto. _____ favorite subject is biology. Sandra has two children. _____ little boy's name is Alex and _____ little girl's name is Nicole. Sandra and I became friends and _____ invited me to visit _____ home in Toronto to spend time with _____ son and _____ daughter.

APPENDIX C: GRAMMATICALITY JUDGMENT TASK VERSION A & VERSION B

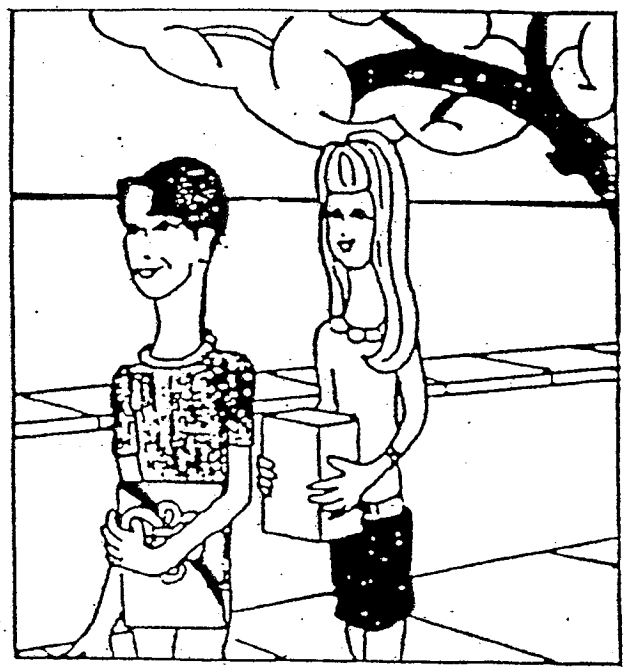
Version A

Today is David Ryan's birthday. He has twelve years old. He is having a party with her friends and family. David's grandparents can't come because they moved to Florida last winter. David are happy to have a party but he misses his grandfather.

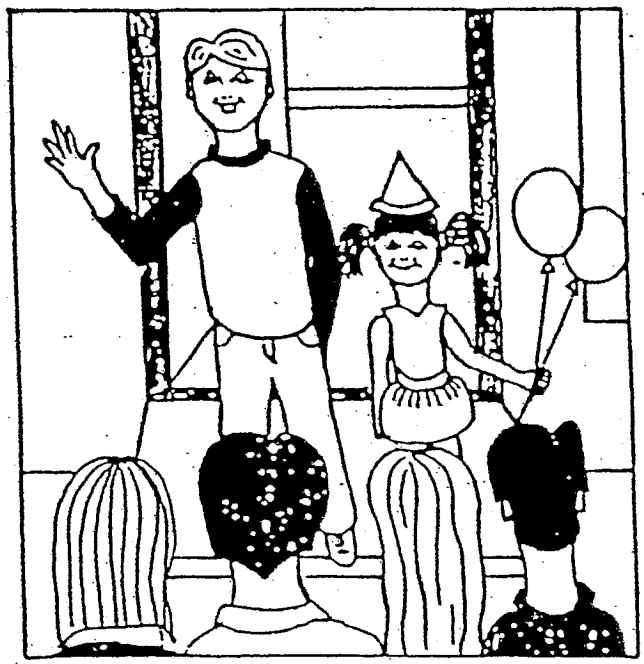
Susan is going to David's party. She is carrying a present in the arm. It is an game. His father helped Susan to choose it. Susan is happy to be invited to the party and to wear his pretty new dress.



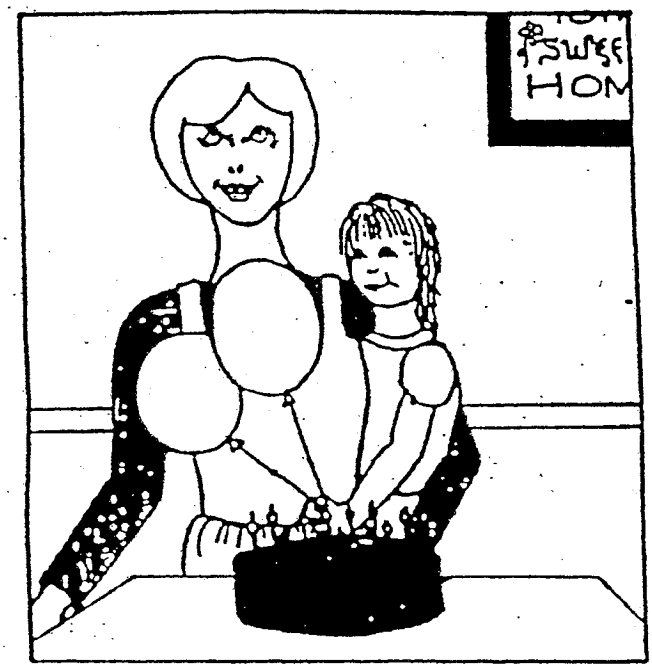
Marc are David's best friend. She lives just next door. Marc and David is in the same class at school. He has a special present for David in his hand. It is a baseball bat. Marc and her father picked it out. David loves baseball. Last year his team won the city championship.



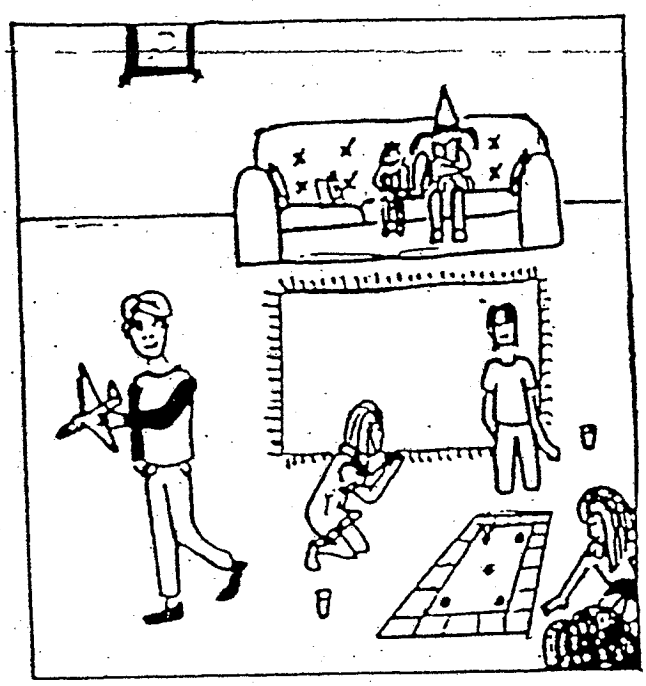
David's two cousin are also invited to the party. Annie is tall and thin and his hair is blond. She is wearing her favorite skirt. His brother Eric is tall and thin too. He is twelve. Annie is bringing her cousin a model plane and Eric will give him a book. He hopes David will enjoy reading her new book.



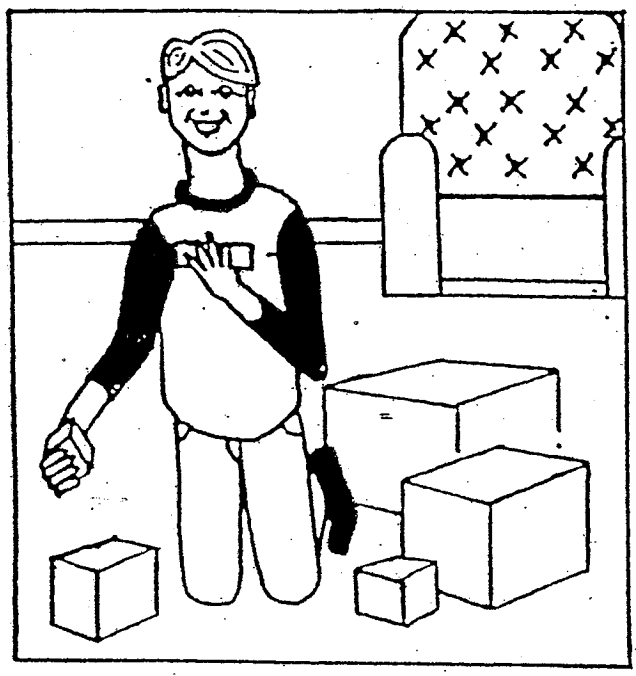
David is excited to see your friends. He is waving the right hand to say hello. His younger sister Diane is excited too. She has a party hat on the head. She has balloons in her hand. Diane thinks birthday party are super. His birthday is in July. She will have six years old.



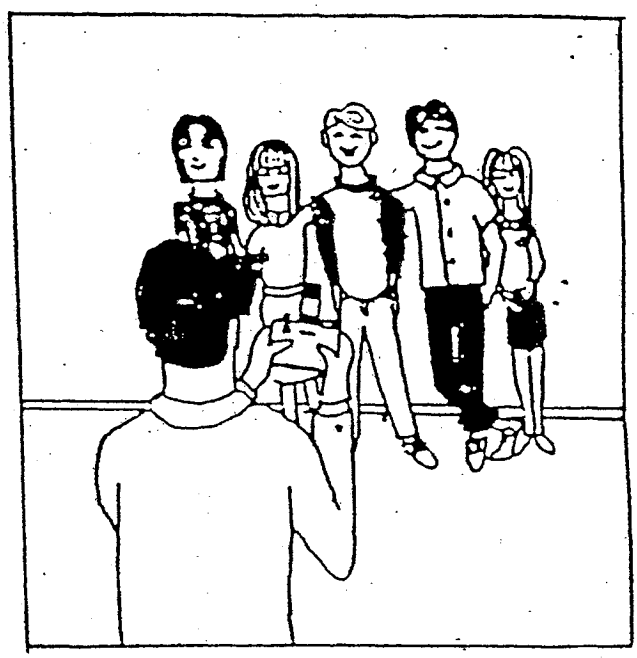
There is a baby sister too. His name is Carole. Carole is holding balloons that his sister Diane gave her. Her mother is showing her the candles on David's birthday cake. It are chocolate. David's mother prepared the cake for his son's party. David loves her mother's cakes.



The children is all having fun. David is playing with his new plane. He is holding it in the hand. Diane is sitting near her baby sister. She is looking at his brother's birthday cards. Susan and Marc are playing a game with Eric and her sister. It is an fun party.



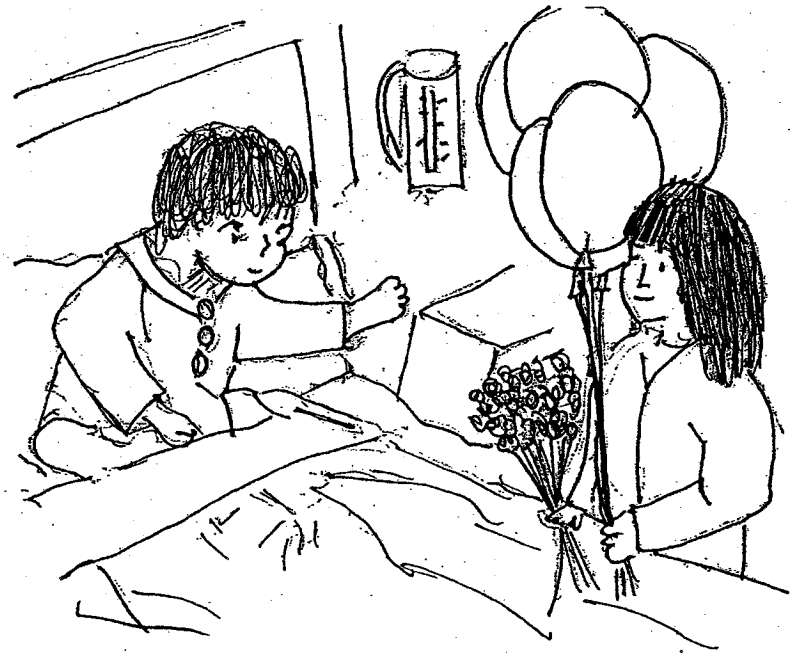
David's father Mr. Ryan is home from work early. He has a present for her son. It is big. David opens the box. There are a bicycle inside. Her grandmother sent him a blue bicycle. David loves the colour of her new bicycle. There is another box inside. David opens the box. There is an envelope. It is a plane ticket for David to go to Florida! He are so happy!



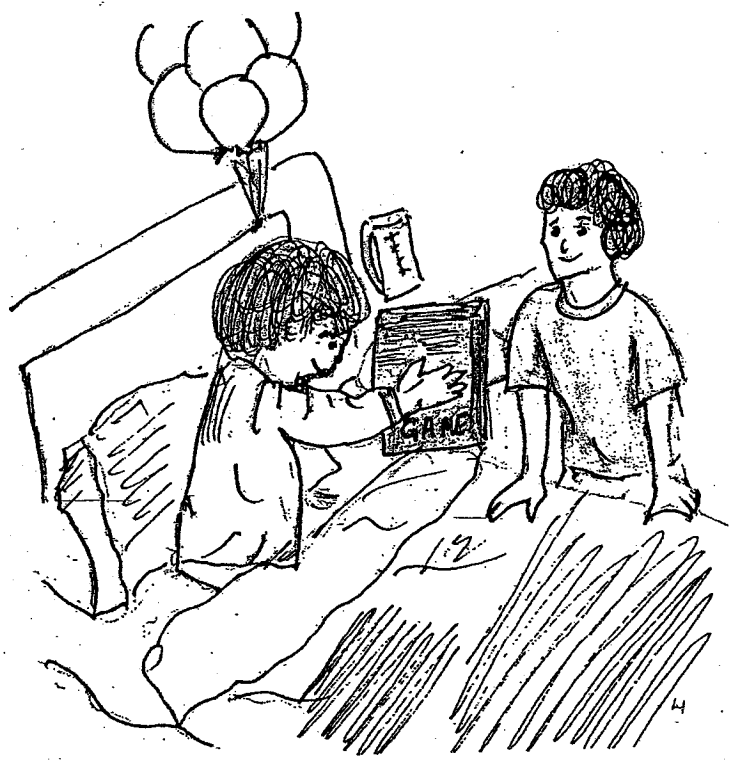
Mr. Ryan has an new camera. He wants to take pictures of his son's party. First he will take a picture of David with her sister. Then he will photograph her wife Mary and the children. Finally Mrs. Ryan will take a picture of his husband Paul with David. In this picture David is in the middle. His mother is standing next to him. The pictures will help everyone to remember David's wonderful party.

Today is Samuel's birthday. He has twelve years old. He was supposed to have a big party. He is not having a party because he is in the hospital. Samuel is sad because he can't invite all her friends to the hospital to celebrate his birthday.

Yesterday, Samuel received a package from her grandmother Mabel. She live far away. Her home is in Spain. She sent his grandson a new skateboard for his birthday. Samuel tried his skateboard and fell and broke the leg. That is when he had to go to the hospital with her mother.



Today, Samuel's neighbour Maria is going to visit Samuel at the hospital. She is carrying flowers and balloons in the hand. She picked yellow roses. His father helped Maria to choose them. Maria are happy to visit Samuel and to give him a gift. She hopes that he will be surprised to see her.



Jacob is Samuel's best friend. He is also going to see Samuel for her birthday. Samuel and Jacob is in the same class at school. Jacob has a special present for Samuel in your hand. It is a game. Jacob and her mother picked it out. Samuel love board games and plays all the time. Especially when it is rainy outside.

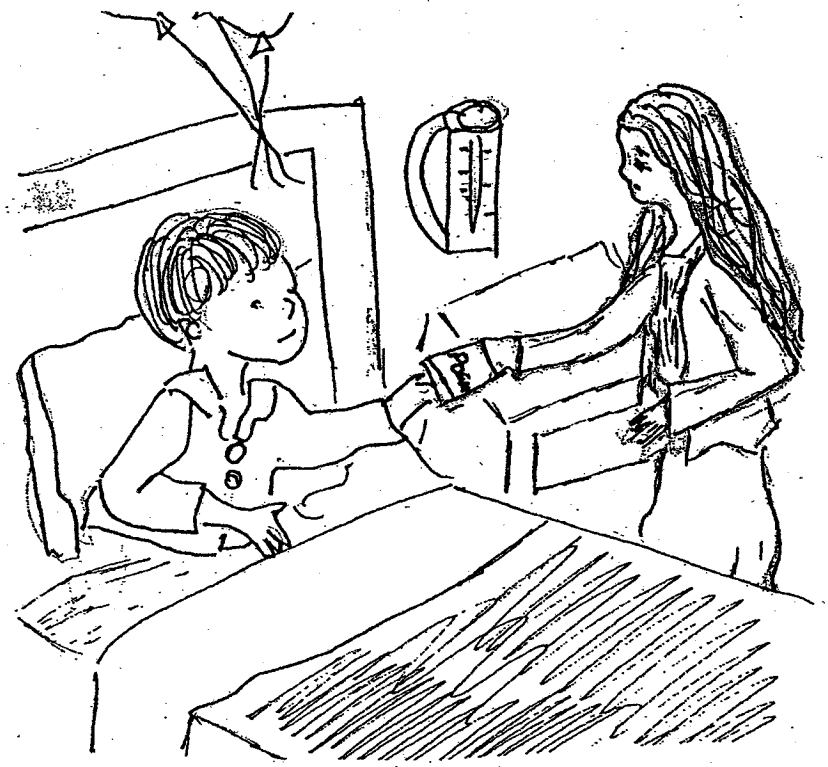
Samuel's cousin are also going to visit him. His name is Isabelle. She is tall and thin and your hair is black. She study at the University of Toronto. His favorite subject is literature. She knows that Samuel is going to be surprised since she drove from Toronto in vour car to see Samuel.

Samuel is excited to see all his friends and family at the hospital for her birthday. Her younger sister Lucy is excited too. She is wearing a party hat on her head. She also have balloons in her hand. Lucy loves birthday parties.

Samuel's parent are at the hospital too. His mother baked a cake for the occasion. Chocolate cake is his specialty. Samuel's father is also present, but he is a little worried that all this excitement will tire her son Samuel.

Everybody is very happy and having an good time. The nurse tells everybody to make less noise because they is disturbing the other patients. The doctor also comes to see Samuel and tells him that it is time for his mother, her father, and his friends to leave so he can get some sleep.

Samuel's mother is happy about this because she was worried about his son. Samuel was glad that her friends and family visited him on his birthday. He was a little sad that her girlfriend Sheila did not come or even telephone him on her cellular phone to wish him happy birthday.



Just as everybody was leaving the hospital, Sheila arrived. She was wearing his pretty new skirt. Sheila are very tall and slim. She has brown eyes and her hair is blond. She had an gift under her arm. It was a book of love poems for his boyfriend Samuel. Samuel was very happy that Sheila remembered her birthday.

Samuel had a nice birthday even if he was in the hospital. She enjoyed seeing his friends and family. He was especially glad that her girlfriend arrived at the last minute with a book of love poems. This is an birthday that he will remember for the rest of his life.

APPENDIX D: PICTURE DESCRIPTION TASK VERSION A & B

Version A

In the following pictures, you will see families with different problems. Write about the problems that they have. You can use the dictionary to help you.

PICTURE 1

Mother

_____

_____

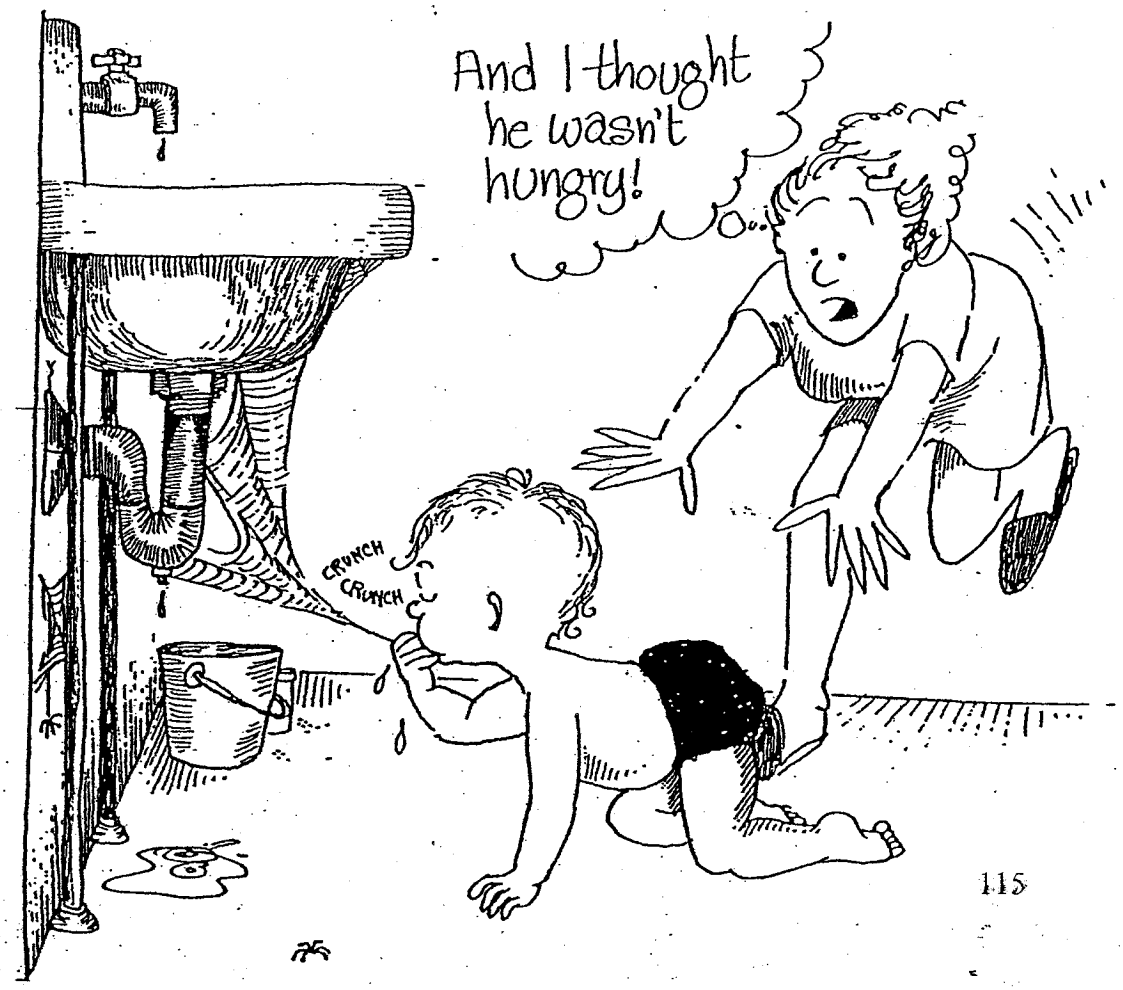
_____

Little boy (son)

_____

_____

_____



PICTURE 2

Mother

_____

_____

_____

Little boy (son)

_____

_____

_____

PICTURE 3

Father

Little girl (daughter)

Mother

Picture 4

Father

_____

_____

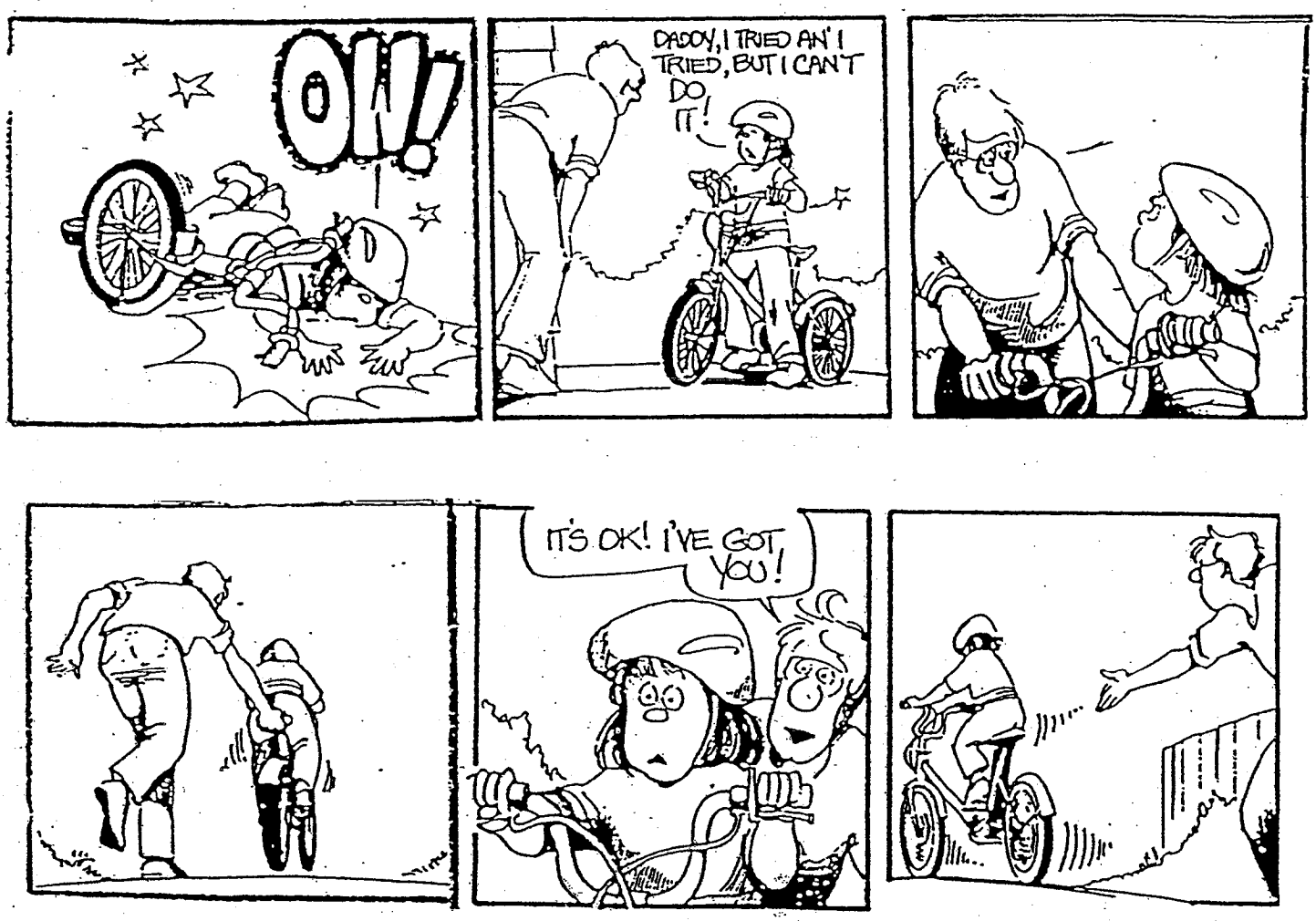
_____

Little girl (daughter)

_____

_____

_____



Version B

In the following pictures, you will see families with different problems. Write about the problems that they have. You can use the dictionary or the vocabulary words on the chalkboard to help you.

PICTURE 1

Mother

_____

_____

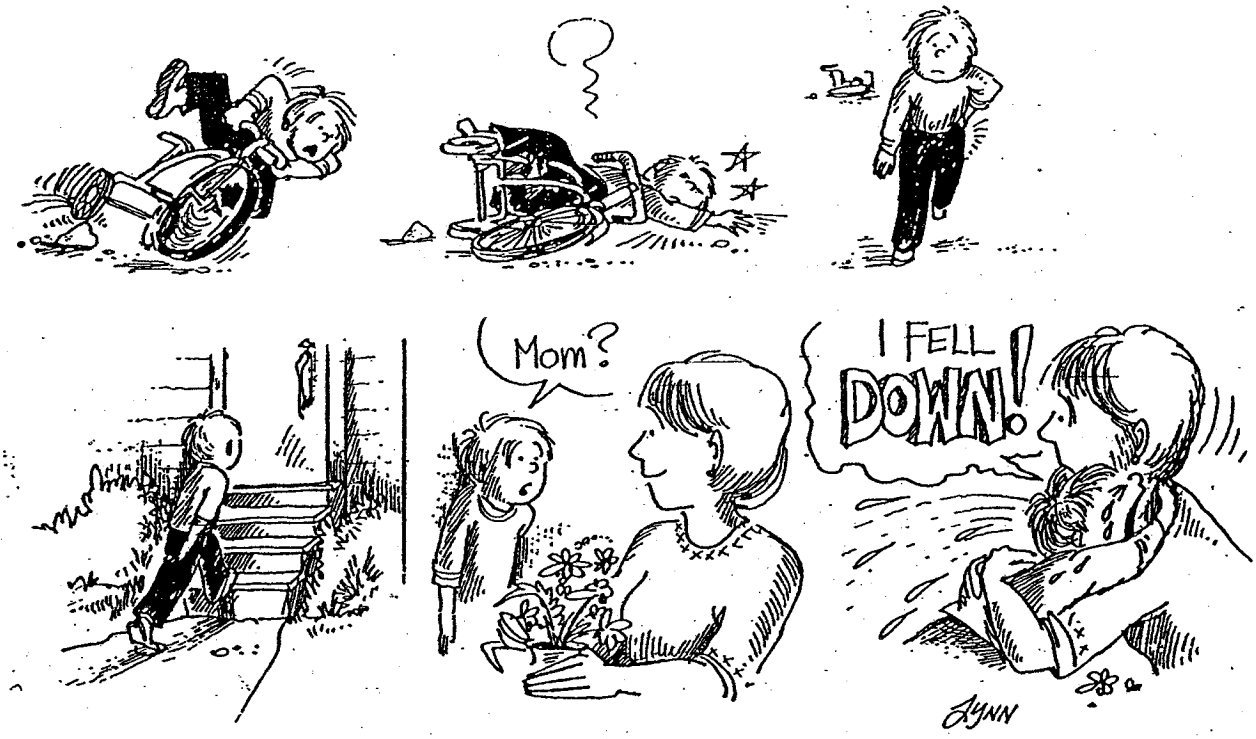
_____

Little boy (son)

_____

_____

_____



PICTURE 2

Mother

_____

_____

_____

Little boy (son)

_____

_____

_____

PICTURE 3

Father

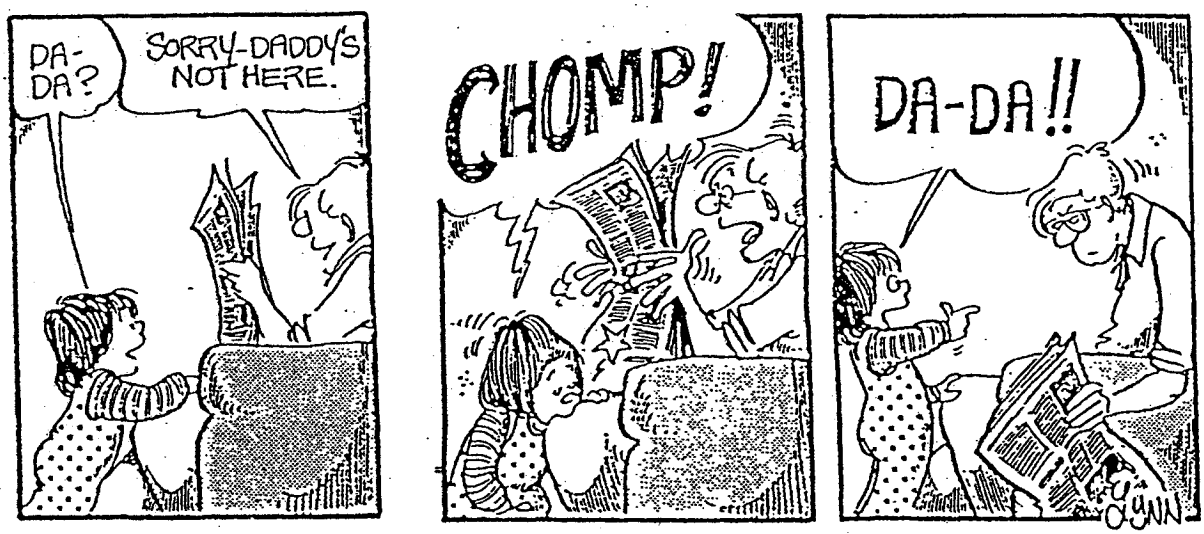
Little girl (daughter)

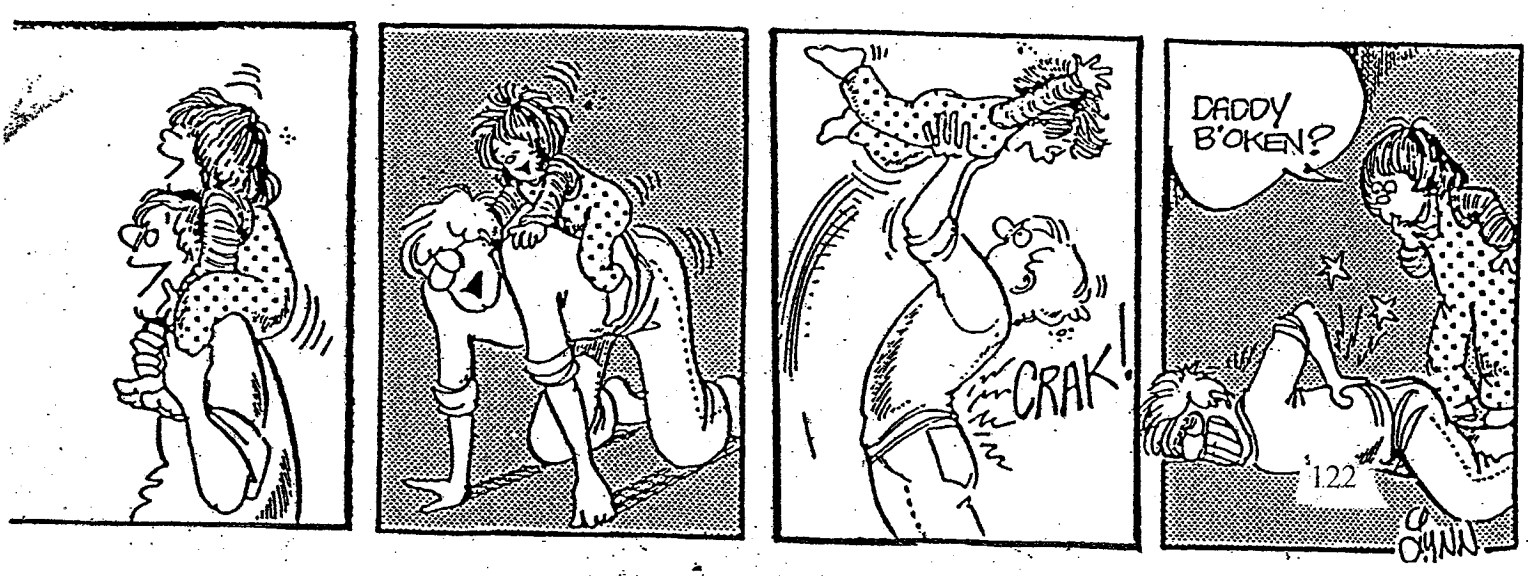
Mother

Picture 4

Father

Little girl (daughter)





APPENDIX E: EXAMPLAR FOR ENHANCEMENT GROUP

HIS/HER

Examples:

-Anne really appreciates ***her*** father.

-John likes to talk to ***his*** mother.

-The boy held ***his*** mother's hand.

Example:

-Jean parle à ***sa*** soeur.

-Mélanie aide ***son*** père à laver l'auto.

Example:

-John speaks to ***his*** sister.

-Melanie helps ***her*** father wash the car.

APPENDIX F: SAMPLE ACTIVITIES FOR ENHANCEMENT GROUP

Personal profiles

Natasha Crassoski

Natasha Crassoski was born in Quebec. Her father Stanley died when she was very young. Natasha's mother's name is Margaret She's a dressmaker and works in her home. Natasha, or Tasha as her favourite people call her, has a brother. Her brother Michael is 15 years old. Natasha has one sister. Her sister is Marilyne and she is 10 years old.

Natasha's mother remarried a man. Her husband is Jack. He's an electrician. Natasha likes her stepfather.

Natasha has long curly blond hair and her eyes are blue. She is of medium height (1,55 m), and her weight is 44kg. She is 12 years old, giggles all the time and, she loves talking on her phone. This summer, Natasha received a camera as a gift; her grandfather George sent it to her.

Natasha also likes to ride her mountain bike with her cousin his name is Bobby.

Natasha excels in gymnastics and has won many trophies. Her favourite trophy is the one she won at "jeux du Quebec" last spring. In the future, Natasha hopes to go to University so she could become a veterinarian like her uncle Charlie.

TRUE or FALSE

Circle (T)true or (F)false on the following sentences about Natasha Crassoski. If a sentence is false, correct it. Use complete sentences.

1- Her first name is Crassoski. T F

2- Her father died when she was young. T F

3- Her brother's name is Michael. T F

4- Her stepfather's name is Stanley. T F

5- Her hair is short. T F

6- Her grandmother gave her a camera. T F

7- Her cousin's name is Bobby. T F

8- Her mother is an electrician. T F

9- Her ambition is to be a veterinarian. T F

10- Her sister is 12 years old. T F

Read the the personal profile about Marc Beaulieu and answer the questions that follow.

Marc Beaulieu

Marc lives very close to my house. His address is 22 Newton Street in Montreal. Marc's birthday is June 20. He was born in Quebec city. He is known to his friends as « Einstein ». In fact, some people don't even know Marc's real name.

Marc lives with his father. His name is Bob. Bob, is an engineer. Marc is very intersted in his father's job.

Marc also lives with his stepmother. His stepmother is Suzanne. She works part-time as a mail carrier. The rest of the time Suzanne practices her favourite sport, tennis. She is a very good player.

Marc has a four-year old sister. His sister is Chantale. He says that she bugs him. Chantale's favorite passtime is playing jokes on her big brother.

Marc is always daydreaming. He is also crazy about computers. His room is a miniature computer center.

Marc's passtime is collecting rocks and minerals. His collection is very big. Marc dreams of becoming a geologist in the future.

Answer the following questions about Marc Beaulieu

First name: _____

Last name: _____

Nickname: _____

Birthday: _____

Place of birth: _____

Father's name: _____

Stepmother's name: _____

Stepmother's favourite sport _____

Sister's name: _____

Father's job: _____

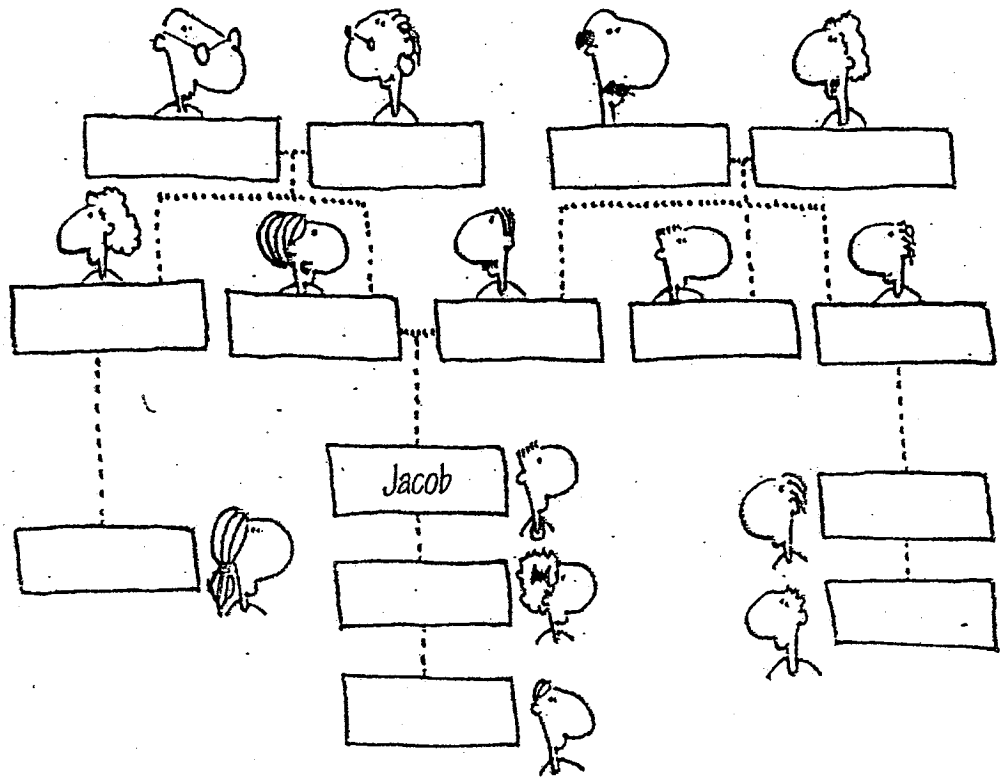
Stepmother's job: _____

Passtime: _____

Ambition: _____

THE FAMILY

Read about Jacob's Smith's family. In the spaces provided, add the appropriate names to complete Jacob's family tree.



Jacob Smith is twelve years old. He has one sister. His sister is Sarah.

Jacob has one brother and his name is Max.

Jacob's father is 42 years old and his name is Paul. Paul has two brothers. Their names are Rex and William.

Rex has two children his children's names are Sandy and Jack.

Jacob's mother is 39 years old. His mother is Samantha.

Samantha has one sister. Her sister is Janet.

Janet has one daughter. Her daughter is Rita.

Jacob's grandparents on his father's side are Murray and Mabel Smith.

Jacob's grandparents on his mother's side are Connie and Robert Jackson.

Read about the Burnett's family tree and answer the following questions.

Mr. Tom Burnett is married. **His** wife's name is Betty.

They have two children. Olga is the oldest. **Her** age is 41 and **her** brother is Robert and **his** age is 36.

Olga is married. **Her** husband is David. They have two children.

Charlie is their oldest. **His** age is 12.

Charlie has a 10 year-old sister. **His** sister is Kathy.

Robert has two children. **His** son is Ted and **his** daughter is Linda.

•Give the name of each person in the Burnett family.

1- What is the name of Olga's son?

2- What is the name of Robert's sister?

3- What is the name of Linda's oldest cousin?

4- What is the name of Tom's wife?

5- What is the name of Olga's brother?

6- What is the name of Betty's husband?

7- What is the name of Olga's father?

8- What is the name of David's daughter?

9- What is the name of Betty's daughter?

10- What are the names of Betty's grandchildren?

Look at the pictures. Write the letter of the apartment where you see:

1- George is playing HIS saxophone and HIS wife is playing HER violin.

2- Mr. Brown is admiring HIS painting.

3- Nicole is using HER computer.

4- Joe is playing HIS guitar for HIS girlfriend.

5- Lucy is giving HER husband a cup of coffee.

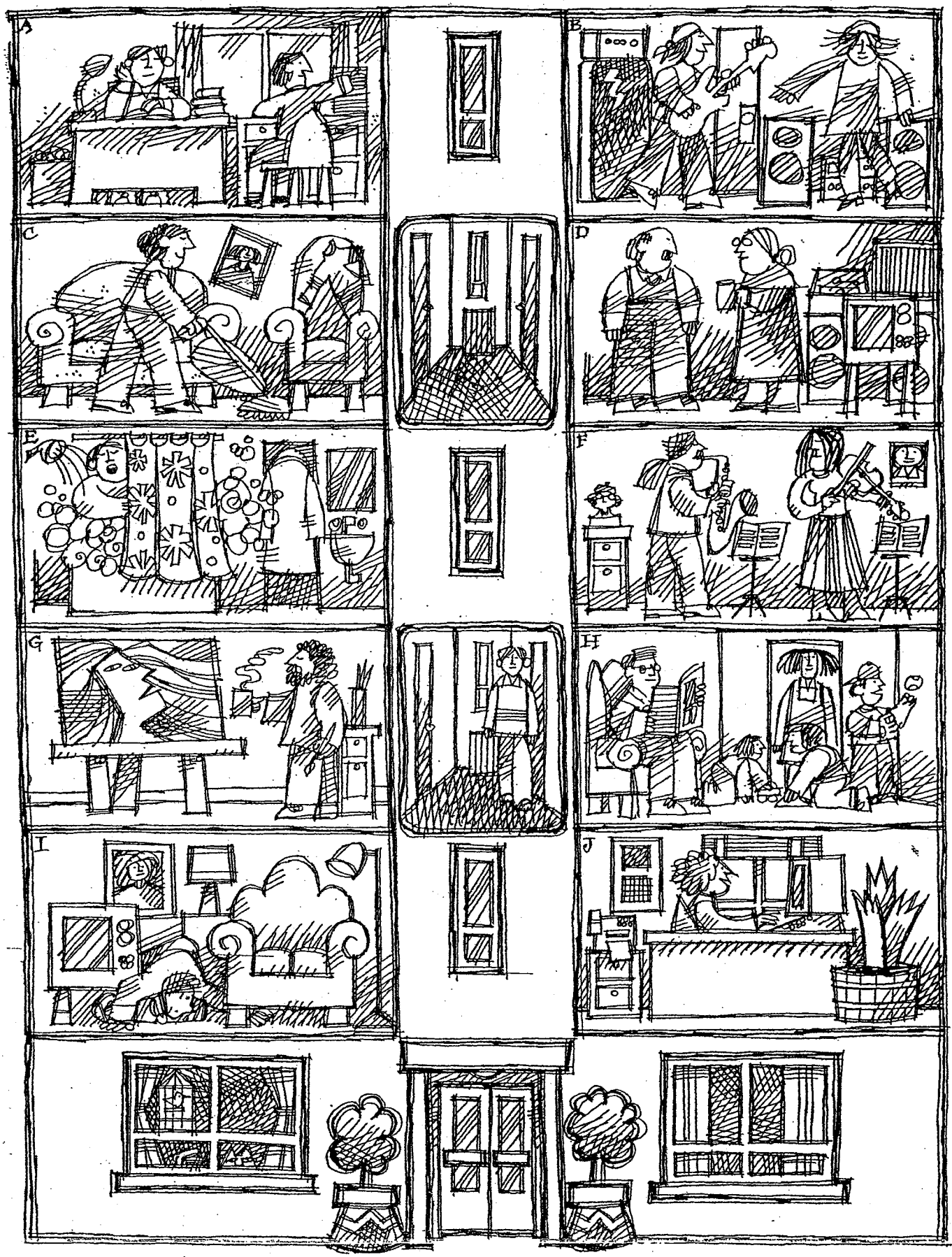
6- Linda is cleaning HER living room.

7- Norman is searching for HIS wallet under the chair.

8- A little girl is playing with HER brother.

9- John is taking HIS shower.

10- Maria is studying for HER English exam and HER brother is studying for HIS math exam tomorrow.


A
B
C
D
E
F
G
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I
J

APPENDIX G: RULE SHEET FOR RULE GROUP

3 rd PERSON SINGULAR POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES
HIS/HER

•A possessive adjective always agrees in gender and number with the possessor

•To find out the noun that the possessor agrees with ask the question: Who does it belong to? Or Whose _____ is it?

Examples:

-Anne really appreciates her father.

Whose father is it?

It's Anne's father. It's her father.

-John likes to talk to his mother.

Whose mother is it?

It's John's mother. It's his mother.

*In French the possessive adjective agrees with the possessed object.

Example:

Jean parle à sa soeur.

*In English the possessive adjective agrees with the possessor

Example:

John speaks to his sister.

APPENDIX H: SAMPLE ACTIVITIES FOR RULE GROUP

Personal profiles

Natasha Crassoski

Natasha Crassoski was born in Quebec. Her father Stanley died when she was very young. Natasha's mother's name is Margaret.She's a dressmaker and works in her home. Natasha, or Tasha as her favourite people call her, has a brother. Her brother Michael is 15 years old. Natasha has one sister. Her sister is Marilyne and she is 10 years old.

Natasha's mother remarried a man. Her husband is Jack. He's an electrician. Natasha likes her stepfather.

Natasha has long curly blond hair and her eyes are blue. She is of medium height (1,55 m), and her weight is 44kg. She is 12 years old, giggles all the time and, she loves talking on her phone. This summer, Natasha received a camera as a gift; her grandfather George sent it to her. Natasha also likes to ride her mountain bike with her cousin his name is Bobby.

Natasha excels in gymnastics and has won many trophies. Her favourite trophy is the one she won at "jeux du Quebec" last spring. In the future, Natasha hopes to go to University so she could become a veterinarian.

TRUE or FALSE

Circle (T)true or (F)false on the following sentences about Natasha Crassoski. If a sentence is false, correct it. Use complete sentences.

1- Her first name is Crassoski. T F

2- Her father died when she was young. T F

3- Her brother's name is Michael. T F

4- Her stepfather's name is Stanley. T F

5- Her hair is short. T F

6- Her grandmother gave her a camera. T F

7- Her cousin's name is Bobby. T F

8- Her mother is an electrician. T F

9- Her ambition is to be a veterinarian. T F

10- Her sister is 12 years old. T F

Read the the personal profile about Marc Beaulieu and answer the questions that follow.

Marc Beaulieu

Marc lives very close to my house. His address is 22 Newton Street in Montreal. Marc's birthday is June 20. He was born in Quebec city. He is known to his friends as « Einstein ». In fact, some people don't even know Marc's real name.

Marc lives with his father. His name is Bob. Bob, is an engineer. Marc is very intersted in his father's job. Marc also lives with his stepmother. His stepmother is Suzanne. She works part-time as a mail carrier. The rest of the time Suzanne practices her favourite sport, tennis. She is a very good player. Marc has a four-year old sister. His sister is Chantale. He says that she bugs him. Chantale's favorite passtime is playing jokes on her big brother.

Mark is always daydreaming. He is also crazy about computers. His room is a miniature computer center.

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Last name: _____

Nickname: _____

Birthday: _____

Place of birth: _____

Father's name: _____

Stepmother's name: _____

Stepmother's favourite sport _____

Sister's name: _____

Father's job: _____

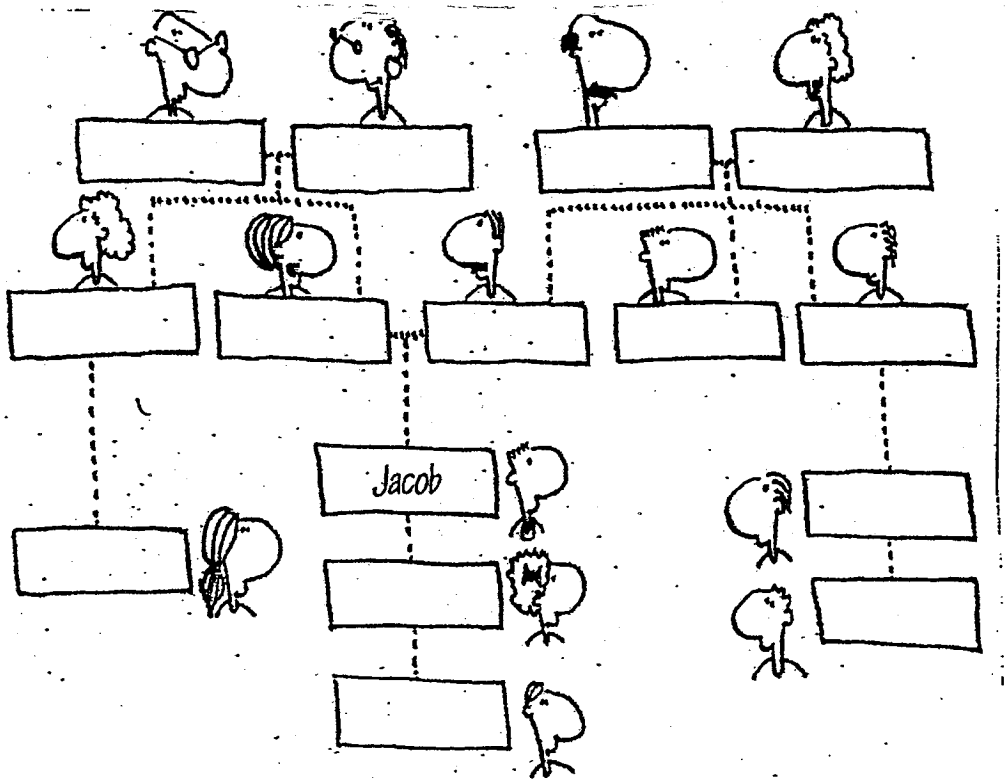
Stepmother's job: _____

Passtime: _____

Ambition: _____

THE FAMILY

Read about Jacob's Smith's family. In the spaces provided, add the appropriate names to complete Jacob's family tree.



Jacob Smith is twelve years old. He has one sister. His sister is Sarah.

Jacob has one brother and his name is Max.

Jacob's father is 42 years old and his name is Paul. Paul has two brothers. Their names are Rex and William.

Rex has two children his children's names are Sandy and Jack.

Jacob's mother is 39 years old. His mother is Samantha.

Samantha has one sister. Her sister is Janet.

Janet has one daughter. Her daughter is Rita.

Jacob's grandparents on his father's side are Murray and Mabel Smith.

Jacob's grandparents on his mother's side are Connie and Robert Jackson.

Read about the Burnett's family tree and answer the following questions.

Mr. Tom Burnett is married. His wife's name is Betty.

They have two children. Olga is the oldest. Her age is 41 and her brother is Robert and his age is 36.

Olga is married. Her husband is David. They have two children.

Charlie is their oldest. His age is 12.

Charlie has a 10 year-old sister. His sister is Kathy.

Robert has two children. His son is Ted and his daughter is Linda.

•Give the name of each person in the Burnett family.

1- What is the name of Olga's son?
2- What is the name of Robert's sister?
3- What is the name of Linda's oldest cousin?
4- What is the name of Tom's wife?
5- What is the name of Olga's brother?
6- What is the name of Betty's husband?
7- What is the name of Olga's father?
8- What is the name of David's daughter?
9- What is the name of Betty's daughter?
10- What are the names of Betty's grandchildren?

Look at the pictures. Write the letter of the apartment where you see:

1- George is playing his saxophone and his wife is playing her violin.

2- Mr. Brown is admiring his painting.

3- Nicole is using her computer.

4- Joe is playing his guitar to his girlfriend.

5- Lucy is giving her husband a cup of coffee.

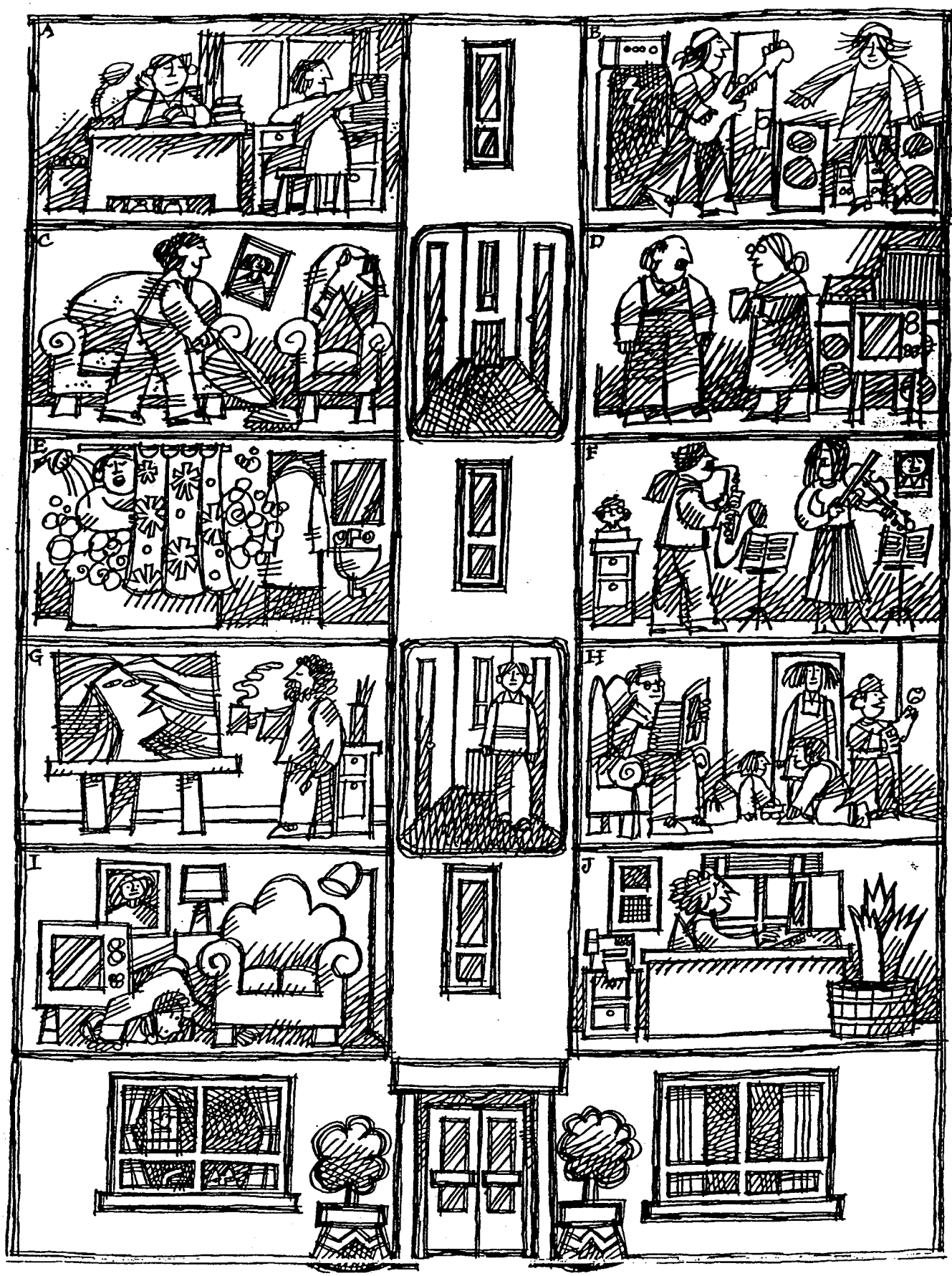
6- Linda is cleaning her living room.

7- Norman is searching for his wallet under the chair.

8- A little girl is playing with her brother.

9- John is taking his shower.

10- Maria is studying for her English exam and her brother is studying for his math exam tomorrow.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APPENDIX I RULE SHEET FOR RULE + ENHANCEMENT GROUP

3 rd PERSON SINGULAR POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES
HIS/HER

•A possessive adjective always agrees in gender and number with the possessor

•To find out the noun that the possessor agrees with ask the question: Who does it belong to? Or Whose _____ is it?

Examples:

-Anne really appreciates ***her*** father.

Whose father is it?

It's Anne's father. It's ***her*** father.

-John likes to talk to ***his*** mother.

Whose mother is it?

It's John's mother. It's ***his*** mother.

*In French the possessive adjective agrees with the possessed object.

Example:

Jean parle à ***sa*** soeur.

*In English the possessive adjective agrees with the possessor

Example:

John speaks to ***his*** sister.

APPENDIX J: SAMPLE ACTIVITIES FOR RULE + ENHANCEMENT

Personal profiles

Natasha Crassoski

Natasha Crassoski was born in Quebec. Her father Stanley died when she was very young. Natasha's mother's name is Margaret She's a dressmaker and works in her home. Natasha, or Tasha as her favourite people call her, has a brother. Her brother Michael is 15 years old. Natasha has one sister. Her sister is Marilyne and she is 10 years old.

Natasha's mother remarried a man. Her husband is Jack. He's an electrician. Natasha likes her stepfather.

Natasha has long curly blond hair and her eyes are blue. She is of medium height (1,55 m), and her weight is 44kg. She is 12 years old, giggles all the time and, she loves talking on her phone. This summer, Natasha received a camera as a gift; her grandfather George sent it to her.

Natasha also likes to ride her mountain bike with her cousin his name is Bobby.

Natasha excels in gymnastics and has won many trophies. Her favourite trophy is the one she won at "jeux du Quebec" last spring. In the future, Natasha hopes to go to University so she could become a veterinarian like her uncle Charlie.

TRUE or FALSE

Circle (T)true or (F)false on the following sentences about Natasha Crassoski. If a sentence is false, correct it. Use complete sentences.

1- **Her** first name is Crassoski. T F

2- **Her** father died when she was young. T F

3- **Her** brother's name is Michael. T F

4- **Her** stepfather's name is Stanley. T F

5- **Her** hair is short. T F

6- **Her** grandmother gave her a camera. T F

7- **Her** cousin's name is Bobby. T F

8- **Her** mother is an electrician. T F

9- **Her** ambition is to be a veterinarian. T F

10- **Her** sister is 12 years old. T F

Read the the personal profile about Marc Beaulieu and answer the questions that follow.

Marc Beaulieu

Marc lives very close to my house. His address is 22 Newton Street in Montreal. Marc's birthday is June 20. He was born in Quebec city. He is known to his friends as « Einstein ». In fact, some people don't even know Marc's real name.

Marc lives with his father. His name is Bob. Bob, is an engineer. Marc is very intersted in his father's job.

Marc also lives with his stepmother. His stepmother is Suzanne. She works part-time as a mail carrier. The rest of the time Suzanne practices her favourite sport, tennis. She is a very good player.

Marc has a four-year old sister. His sister is Chantale. He says that she bugs him. Chantale's favorite passtime is playing jokes on her big brother.

Marc is always daydreaming. He is also crazy about computers. His room is a miniature computer center.

Marc's passtime is collecting rocks and minerals. His collection is very big. Marc dreams of becoming a geologist in the future.

Answer the following questions about Marc Beaulieu

First name: _____

Last name: _____

Nickname: _____

Birthday: _____

Place of birth: _____

Father's name: _____

Stepmother's name: _____

Stepmother's favourite sport _____

Sister's name: _____

Father's job: _____

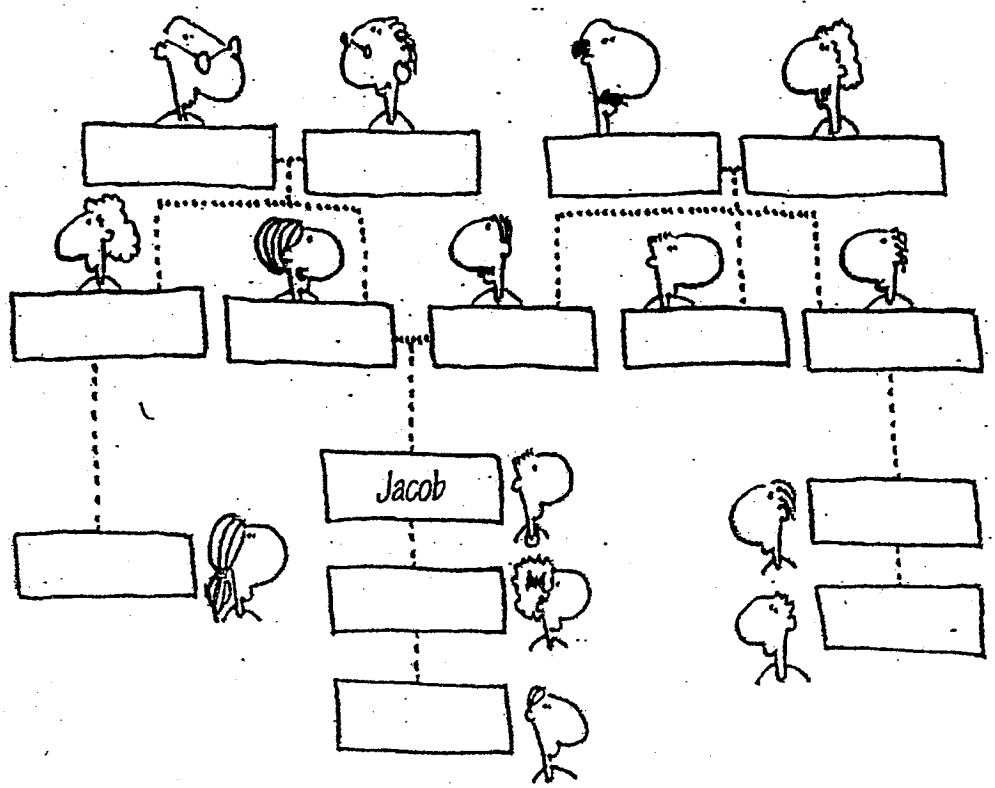
Stepmother's job: _____

Passtime: _____

Ambition: _____

THE FAMILY

Read about Jacob's Smith's family. In the spaces provided, add the appropriate names to complete Jacob's family tree.



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3- What is the name of Linda's oldest cousin?

4- What is the name of Tom's wife?

5- What is the name of Olga's brother?

6- What is the name of Betty's husband?

7- What is the name of Olga's father?

8- What is the name of David's daughter?

9- What is the name of Betty's daughter?

10- What are the names of Betty's grandchildren?

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8- A little girl is playing with HER brother.

9- John is taking HIS shower.

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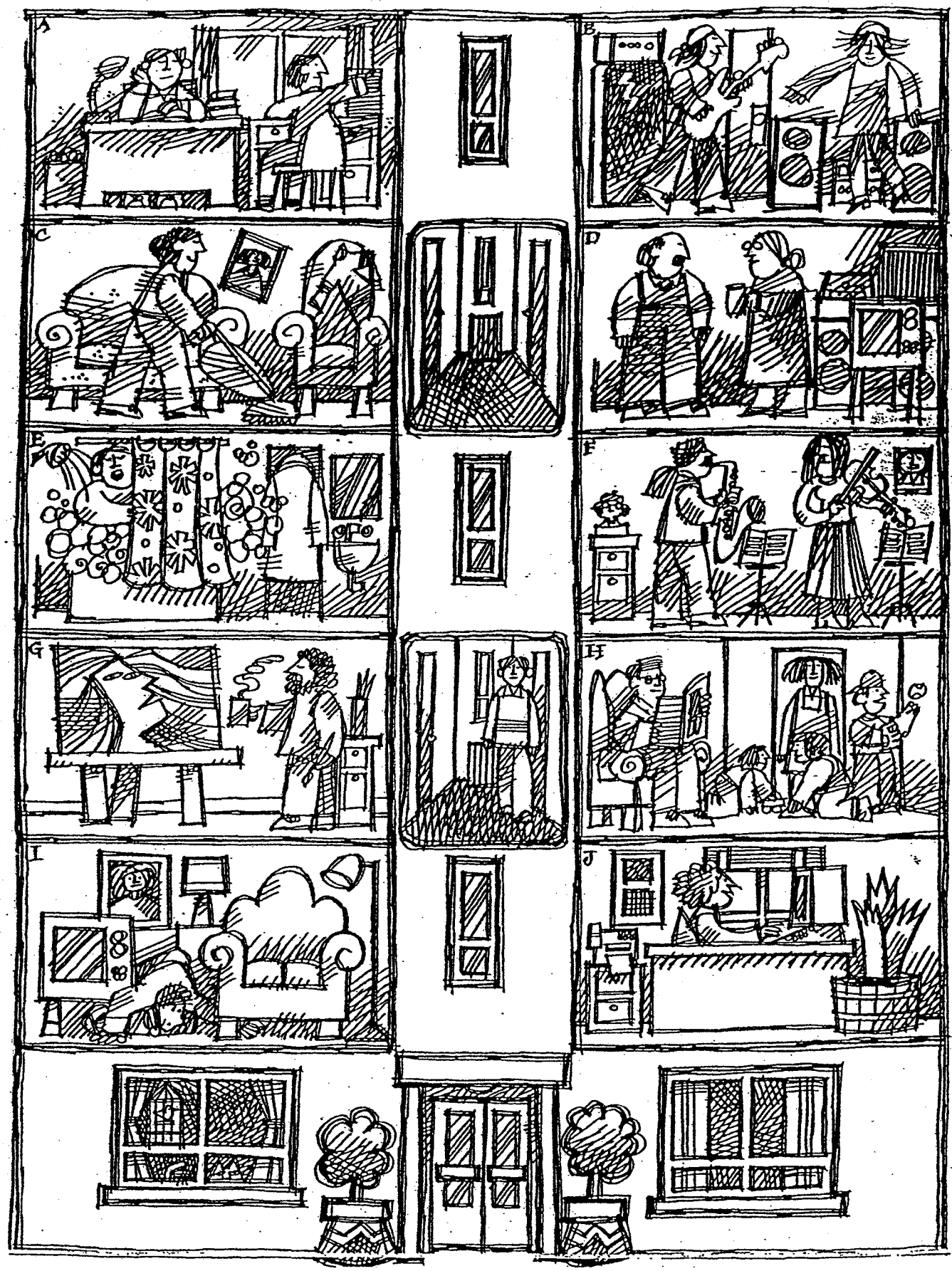
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APPENDIX K: PERSONAL STUDENT INFORMATION SHEET

QUESTIONNAIRE DES RENSEIGNEMENTS PERSONNELS

1- Quel est ton nom? _____

2- Quel âge as-tu?_____

3- As-tu déjà suivi un cours d'anglais intensif?_____

4- Si oui, en quelle année étais-tu? _____

5- Parles-tu anglais à la maison? _____

6- Si oui, avec qui et combien d'heures par semaine ? _____

_____

7- Regardes-tu la télévision en anglais _____

8- Si oui, combien d'heures par semaine? _____

9- Écoutes-tu la radio en anglais? _____

10- Si oui, combien d'heures par semaine? _____

11- Écoutes-tu la musique en anglais? _____

12- Joues-tu avec des jeux video en anglais? _____

13- Si oui, combien d'heures par semaine? _____

14- Navigues-tu sur internet en anglais? _____

15- Si oui, combien d'heures par semaine? _____

16- Visites-tu des sites « chat » en anglais? _____

17- Si oui, combien d'heures par semaine? _____

18- Lis-tu en anglais (des livres, des revues)? _____

APPENDIX L: QUESTIONNAIRE ELICITING RULE

•**Complete the following sentence.**

Mary lives with _____ father, _____ mother, and _____ brother Bob.

Comment as-tu décidé quel pronom possessif utiliser. Tu peux répondre en français

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX M: PRETEST FIGURES

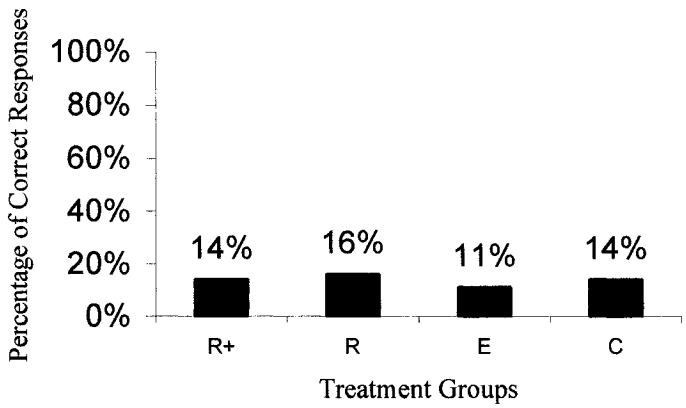

Figure M.1. Mean number of correct responses for the cloze task at the pretest.

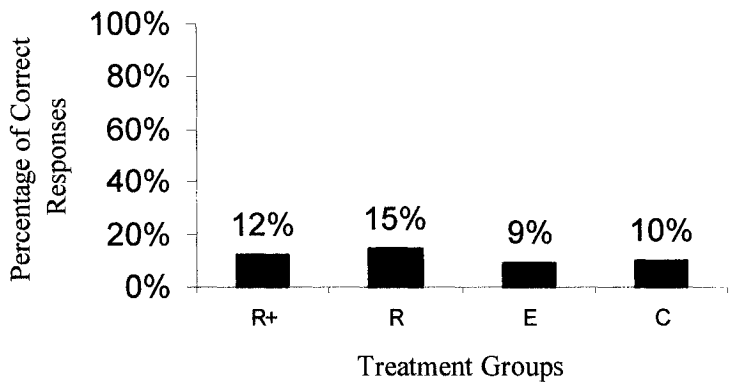

Figure M.2. Mean number of correct responses for the grammaticality judgment task at the pretest.

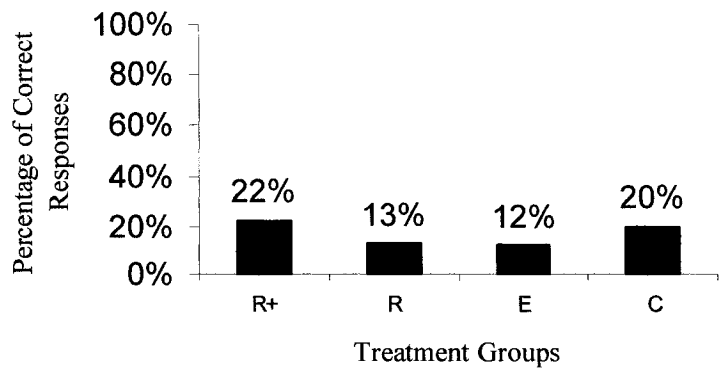

Figure M.3. Mean number of correct responses for the picture description task.

APPENDIX N: STATISTICAL TABLES FOR CLOZE TASK

Table N.1
Repeated measures ANOVA for cloze task

Source of variation	SS	*Df*	MS	*F*
Between subjects				
Group	20478.58	3	6826.62	4.11*
Error	117962.86	71	1661.45	
Within subjects				
Time	46002.76	3	15334.25	51.88*
Time X Group	8667.84	9	963.09	3.26*
Error	62959.71	213	295.59	

*$p < .05$.

Table N.2
Test of simple main effect GROUP at each level of main effect TIME for cloze task

Group within Pretest					
Mean		Enhancement	Control	Rule	Rule+
11.39	Enhancement				
13.73	Control				
14.20	Rule+				
15.56	Rule				
Group within Immediate posttest					
Mean		Control	Enhancement	Rule	Rule+
28.24	Control				
36.50	Enhancement				
45.25	Rule				
57.50	Rule+	*			
Group within Delayed posttest					
Mean		Control	Enhancement	Rule	Rule+
26.47	Control				
33.33	Enhancement				
56.39	Rule	*			
59.88	Rule+	*			
Group within Long term posttest					
Mean		Control	Enhancement	Rule	Rule+
29.71	Control				
39.00	Enhancement				
40.50	Rule				
54.44	Rule+	*			

* $p < .05$.

Table N.3
Test of simple main effect TIME at each level of main effect GROUP for cloze task

Time within Rule+					
Mean		Pretest	Immediate posttest	Delayed posttest	Long term posttest
14.20	Pretest				
57.50	Immediate posttest	*			
59.88	Delayed posttest	*			
54.44	Long term posttest	*			
Time within Rule					
Mean		Pretest	Long term posttest	Immediate posttest	Delayed posttest
15.56	Pretest				
40.50	Long term posttest	*			
45.25	Immediate posttest	*			
56.39	Delayed posttest	*	*		
Time within Enhancement					
Mean		Pretest	Delayed posttest	Immediate posttest	Long term posttest
11.39	Pretest				
33.33	Delayed posttest	*			
36.50	Immediate posttest	*			
39.00	Long term posttest	*			
Time within Control					
Mean		Pretest	Immediate posttest	Delayed posttest	Long term posttest
13.73	Pretest				
28.24	Immediate posttest	*			
26.47	Delayed posttest	*			
29.71	Long term posttest	*			

* $p < .05$.

APPENDIX O: STATISTICAL TABLES FOR GRAMMATICALITY JUDGMENT TASK

Table O.1
Repeated measures ANOVA for grammaticality jugment task

Source of variation	SS	*df*	MS	*F*
Between subjects				
Group	11402.55	3	3800.85	3.19*
Error	84609.44	71	1191.68	
Within subjects				
Time	33011.17	3	11003.72	43.73*
Time X Group	3751.55	9	416.84	1.66*
Error	53592.03	213	251.61	

*$p < .05$.

Table O.2
Test of simple main effect GROUP at each level of main effect TIME for gramaticality judgment task

Group within Pretest					
Mean		Enhancement	Control	Rule	Rule+
9.00	Enhancement				
9.88	Control				
11.78	Rule+				
14.60	Rule				
Group within Immediate posttest					
Mean		Control	Enhancement	Rule	Rule+
26.92	Control				
31.92	Enhancement				
43.85	Rule				
48.08	Rule+				
Group within Delayed posttest					
Mean		Control	Enhancement	Rule	Rule+
20.47	Control				
31.80	Enhancement				
43.20	Rule	*			
47.78	Rule+	*			
Group within Long term posttest					
Mean		Control	Enhancement	Rule	Rule+
25.11	Control				
30.19	Enhancement				
34.81	Rule				
36.97	Rule+				

* $p < .05$.

Table . O.3
Test of simple main effect TIME at each level of main effect GROUP for grammaticality judgment task

Time within Rule+					
Mean		Pretest	Immediate posttest	Delayed posttest	Long term posttest
11.78	Pretest				
36.97	Long term posttest	*			
47.78	Delayed posttest	*			
48.08	Immediate posttest	*			
Time within Rule					
Mean		Pretest	Long term posttest	Immediate posttest	Delayed posttest
14.60	Pretest				
34.81	Long term posttest	*			
43.20	Delayed posttest	*			
43.85	Immediate posttest	*			
Time within Enhancement					
Mean		Pretest	Delayed posttest	Immediate posttest	Long term posttest
9.00	Pretest				
30.19	Long term posttest	*			
31.80	Delayed posttest	*			
31.92	Immediate posttest	*			
Time within Control					
Mean		Pretest	Immediate posttest	Delayed posttest	Long term posttest
9.88	Pretest				
20.47	Delayed posttest				
25.11	Long term posttest				
26.92	Immediate posttest	*			

* $p < .05$.

APPENDIX P: STATISTICAL TABLES FOR PICTURE DESCRIPTION TASK

Table P.1
Repeated measures ANOVA for picture description task

Source of variation	SS	*df*	MS	*F*
Between subjects				
Group	27868.77	3	9289.59	3.19*
Error	139770.20	71	1968.59	
Within subjects				
Time	5245.06	3	5245.06	11.74*
Time X Group	1380.23	9	1380.23	3.09*
Error	446.80	213	446.80	

*$p < .05$.

Table P.2
Test of simple main effect GROUP at each level of main effect TIME for picture description task

Group within Pretest					
Mean		Enhancement	Control	Rule	Rule+
12.35	Enhancement				
13.02	Rule				
19.88	Control				
22.35	Rule+				
Group within Immediate posttest					
Mean		Control	Enhancement	Rule	Rule+
16.50	Control				
20.88	Enhancement				
44.46	Rule				
55.12	Rule+	*	*		
Group within Delayed posttest					
Mean		Control	Enhancement	Rule	Rule+
13.33	Control				
24.39	Enhancement				
43.31	Rule	*			
47.90	Rule+	*			
Group within Long term posttest					
Mean		Control	Enhancement	Rule	Rule+
20.53	Control				
34.09	Enhancement				
35.89	Rule				
46.32	Rule+				

* $p < .05$.

Table . P.3
Test of simple main effect TIME at each level of main effect GROUP picture description task

Time within Rule+					
Mean		Pretest	Immediate posttest	Delayed posttest	Long term posttest
22.35	Pretest				
46.32	Long term posttest				
47.90	Delayed posttest	*			
55.12	Immediate posttest	*			
Time within Rule					
Mean		Pretest	Long term posttest	Immediate posttest	Delayed posttest
13.02	Pretest				
35.89	Long term posttest				
43.31	Delayed posttest	*			
44.46	Immediate posttest	*			
Time within Enhancement					
Mean		Pretest	Delayed posttest	Immediate posttest	Long term posttest
12.35	Pretest				
20.88	Immediate posttest				
24.39	Delayed posttest				
34.09	Long term posttest				
Time within Control					
Mean		Pretest	Immediate posttest	Delayed posttest	Long term posttest
13.33	Delayed posttest				
16.50	Immediate posttest				
19.88	Pretest				
20.53	Long term posttest				

- $p < .05$.