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Beyond the ESL Grammar Classroom:
A Descriptive Study of Transfer of Grammatical Instruction

Maria Mohr Amonette

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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Abstract

Beyond the ESL Grammar Classroom:
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Existing studies of second language acquisition and grammar instruction have taken primarily quantitative approaches to the study of grammar acquisition and its effects on students' writing. To date, there are no qualitative studies investigating ESL students' transfer of grammatical knowledge from the ESL grammar classroom to their writing in other classes.

Recognizing the lack of classroom-based, process-oriented studies within SLA on the relationship between grammar instruction, writing, and learning transfer, this dissertation study uses qualitative methods to study the relationship between form-focused instruction and the use of grammatical structures in ESL students' writing. Using regular classroom observation, interviews, an elicitation task questionnaires, students' written work, and discourse analysis, the study explores the nature of the grammar-related input available to learners in their grammar class, the level of transfer demonstrated by students from their grammar class to their writing in their composition class, the relationship between students' metalinguistic knowledge of grammar and their ability to

use grammar in their writing, and students' perceptions of the role of grammar in their English learning experience and, particularly, in their writing.

The findings of the study indicate that the participants, high-intermediate ESL students enrolled in a North American intensive English program, had access to a wealth of types of form-focused discourse and interaction structures in their grammar class, possessed a generally positive attitude toward grammar instruction, and, on the whole, had a high level of metalinguistic knowledge. The highest rates of transfer were exhibited by those participants who had had extensive exposure to English instruction in their home countries. Interviews revealed a wide discrepancy between students with regard to previous grammar preparation. In addition, transfer appeared to be affected by the nature of the grammatical structure being used, the requirements of the assignment, the student's level of achievement in grammar class, and a variety of personal variables, including confidence and motivation. The effects of high levels of metalinguistic knowledge on transfer appeared to be contradictory.

With its focus on form-focused classroom discourse, learning transfer, and metalinguistic knowledge, the study may have implications for ESL instructors, teacher trainers, and classroom researchers.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Background

The place of grammar in the second language classroom has been much contested in recent decades. Having occupied a position of prominence for much of the history of language teaching (Rutherford, 1988), grammar came to be regarded by many researchers and language teaching professionals in the 1970's and 1980's as an unnecessary "luxury" (Sharwood Smith, 1988, p.56). Influenced by Chomsky's theory of Universal Grammar in the field of linguistics (Tonkyn, 1994), Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1982, 1992) in the then-emerging field of SLA, and research showing striking similarities between first language (L1) and second language (L2) acquisition (see Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991, for an extensive review of the morpheme acquisition studies), grammar began to be regarded as being of secondary, or even negligible, importance in language learning; instead, authentic communication in the form of "comprehensible input" was hailed as the crucial means by which language acquisition took place (Krashen 1982). As a result, teachers and language researchers began to grow skeptical about grammar's role in second language acquisition.

The questioning of the role of grammar touched off a debate that continues today although its intensity has somewhat subsided. Krashen (1982, 1992) has been the most influential proponent of the "anti-grammar" movement, suggesting in his model of SLA that the provision of 'comprehensible input' ($i + 1$, where i = input and 1 = one step beyond the learner's level) at a level slightly above that of the learner is a sufficient

condition for successful second language acquisition. His model distinguished between 'learning' and 'acquisition', the former being the result of explicit instruction and only accessible in a limited number of situations, while the latter is the result of exposure to authentic communication and is universally accessible to the learner. It is clear why Krashen's model has made many language teaching professionals question the role of grammar. Since grammar instruction is the source and foundation of learning and can only be used by the learner on limited occasions, it would seem counterproductive for teachers to spend precious class time on form-focused activities; rather, it would appear advisable to maximize the students' access to authentic, comprehensible input, which Krashen suggests is essential for acquisition. In supporting his assertion that grammar instruction has a negligible effect on SLA, Krashen (1992) cites studies (Bardovi-Harlig & Bergström, 1996; Harley, 1989; Kadia, 1988) which appear to demonstrate that form-focused instruction does not affect accuracy levels and is not retained long-term by the learner, even if there may be a momentary positive effect on performance initially.

Krashen's theory has been countered by a number of teachers and researchers who have defended the worth of form-focused instruction. These individuals question the assumption that grammar lessons have no effect, by emphasizing the multiplicity of forms that grammar instruction may take (Celce-Murcia, 1991, 1992; Larsen-Freeman, 1991; Rutherford, 1988; Sharwood Smith, 1988). They suggest that, unlike the assumption prevalent in the Grammar- Translation era, grammar should be viewed as a "tool" or "resource to be used in the comprehension and creation of oral and written discourse rather than something to be learned as an end in itself" (Celce-Murcia, 1991, p. 466). In

addition, grammar proponents argue that grammar should be taught in context, as a discourse-based system instead of utilizing a sentence-level approach; such an approach, it is argued is more useful to learners as they attempt to gain proficiency in reading, writing, listening and speaking in their L2 (Celce-Murcia, 1991a). As both Celce-Murcia (1991a) and Larsen-Freeman (1991) have commented, communicative competence, as defined by Canale and Swain (1980), consists of four parts: sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, linguistic competence, and strategic competence. Of these four components, only linguistic competence refers specifically to grammar and accuracy. Thus, an approach to grammar that encompasses meaning, social factors, and function is thought to strengthen all aspects of the learner's communicative competence (Celce-Murcia & Hiles, 1988; Larsen-Freeman, 1991).

Indeed, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) stress that the different dimensions of grammar, which they refer to as "form, meaning, and use" are "interrelated–that is, a change in one will involve a change in another" (p. 4). Following Larsen-Freeman (1991), they suggest depicting these interrelated aspects of grammar in a pie chart with arrows connecting each of the sections. In describing the vital nature of each section to the whole, the authors write,

> Since grammar does not deal simply with form, language teachers cannot be content with having students achieve a certain degree of formal accuracy. Language teachers must also help their students to use the structures meaningfully and appropriately as well. Thus the three dimensions of form, meaning, and use make explicit the need for students to learn to use grammar structures *accurately, meaningfully,* and *appropriately*" (Larsen-Freeman & Celce-Murcia, 1999, p. 5, emphasis in the original).

In sum, these language theorists urge an approach that incorporates both communicative methods and an attention to form, while considering the variety that exists within students' backgrounds, needs, and goals (Celce-Murcia, 1991a).

Above all, the proponents of grammar in the last decade have striven for a sense of balance, recognizing that the field of applied linguistics has a propensity to be affected by new theories that result in pendulum swings in recommended classroom practices (Eskey, 1983). Lamenting this tendency, Larsen-Freeman (1991) poses the question: "Must it be the fate of the field to vacillate forever, or is there a way in which a synergy may be realized between language analysis and language use?" (p. 280). She goes on to eloquently articulate what she views as the essential character of grammar teaching and in doing so, seems to express the sentiments of many theorists who recognize the importance of form and meaning in language instruction:

> ...we submit that whether or not the students are provided with explicit rules is really irrelevant to what it means to teach grammar. Neither should the teaching of grammar require a focus on form or structure alone. Nonetheless, a concession by those who would zealously abandon language analysis must also be made: communicative competence should be seen to subsume linguistic competence, not to replace it. We claim that linguistic accuracy is as much a part of communicative competence as being able to get one's meaning across or to communicate in a sociolinguistically appropriate manner. Thus, a more satisfactory characterization of teaching grammar, harmonious with the above assumptions, is that teaching grammar means enabling language students to use linguistic forms accurately, meaningfully and appropriately (Larsen-Freeman, 1991, p. 280).

Those who support grammar instruction have a wealth of research from which to draw in defending their position. Beginning in the early 1980's, when the value of instruction, itself, was being questioned, Long (1983a) wrote a critique of a number of

earlier studies that had appeared to discredit the importance of instructed SLA. Focusing on the often-faulty methodology and poorly-chosen statistical measures used in the studies, Long was able to show convincingly that instruction could be beneficial. Since the 1980's, many researchers (among them Doughty, 1991; Lightbown, 1991: Scott, 1989; Swain, 1985; Wechsler, 1987; White, Spada, Lightbown, & Ranta, 1991) have moved beyond asking *if* instruction is useful to the question of *how* form-focused instruction might benefit learners.

Theoretical Considerations

At the heart of the grammar debate has been the question of whether grammatical knowledge is useful to learners. Theorists like Krashen propose that learning, the result of exposure to formal grammar instruction, could not become acquisition (i.e., language which is readily available for learners to use). Many SLA theorists and educational psychologists have proposed similar dichotomous models to explain how knowledge is stored and accessed (Bialystok, 1981, 1982, 1988; Ellis, 1993; Han; 1996; McLaughlin, 1990). Some models, such as that suggested by Krashen, predict that it would be impossible for formal, consciously-held, rule-oriented knowledge (learning) to become accessible and available for spontaneous use (acquisition). Ellis (1993) refers to this position as the "non-interface position". Other theorists, including Bialystok, Ellis, McLaughlin, propose a variety of models that suggest that such a transfer is possible although they differ with regard to the processes this transformation may involve. Clearly, the different interface positions hold very different implications for the status of grammar instruction within second language instruction.

The Relationship between Grammar and Writing

Research into the effects of form-focused instruction has attempted to test these positions empirically, showing in many instances that grammar instruction yields increases in students' levels of accuracy in language use. Researchers have also seen a need to investigate the effect of form-focused instruction on specific skill areas such as writing (Gajdusek, 1989; Manley & Calk, 1997; Qi, 1994; Ruin, 1996). The relationship between grammar and writing has been stridently contested in the field of English composition for the last thirty years (Hartwell, 1997; Hillocks, 1986), with the assumption being for many years that grammar instruction had no place in composition for NSs. Recent challengers (Kolln, 1996) of this position have pointed out, quite convincingly, the decontextualized, traditional nature of the grammar instruction that has been studied in the last few decades. Like the L1 studies involving grammar and its effects on composition, within SLA, most of the grammar and writing studies have focused on accuracy levels; thus, researchers counted the number of errors made by the learner before and after instruction. Some studies (Gajdusek, 1989; Manley & Calk, 1997) provide detailed descriptions of the type of classroom instruction used in the study, while others (Ruin, 1996) do not. Other studies show increases in the level of accuracy attained by students and improvement in overall writing quality as a result of grammar instruction (Gajdusek, 1989; Manlely & Calk, 1997).

An interesting feature of two of these studies (Manley & Calk, 1997; Ruin, 1996) was the use of a questionnaire, containing both structured and open-ended questions, to investigate students' perceptions of the connection between grammar and writing.

Students' responses were analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative methods. Continued use of such measures that ask students to reflect on their practice and experience as language learners has the promise of shedding light on little-understood areas of SLA (Faerch & Kaspar, 1987; Zamel, 1987).

Methodological Considerations

While a considerable body of research dealing with the effects of form-focused instruction on SLA has been established in the last twenty years, many of these studies have been criticized on the basis of methodology and theoretical orientation. A majority of these studies utilized an input-output design in which the "black box" of the classroom, to use Long's (1983b) terminology was largely ignored: in an extensive review of grammar-oriented studies, Aquilina (1988) found that much of the research on grammar instruction and its effect on second language achievement failed to adequately describe the nature of classroom instruction (i.e., operationalize the independent variable) or even build regular classroom observation periods into the research design. Such studies typically utilized pre- and post-tests with a discrete point format in order to measure general L2 accuracy, while eschewing a description of instructional procedures and classroom activities. Recognizing this weakness in earlier studies, more recent investigations into the effect of instruction on L2 proficiency have attempted to operationalize the variable of instruction and provide more descriptions (Doughty, 1991).

The grammar studies, nearly all of which have utilized quasi-experimental formats and quantitative methods of data analysis, have also been criticized on the basis of their theoretical orientation. In the last two decades, a number of language researchers

(Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Bailey & Nunan, 1996; Nunan, 1992; Van Lier, 1988) have called for the use of naturalistic and ethnographic methods in SLA research. Some of the hallmarks of this approach are a belief in the importance of observing classroom processes in context, an assumption that "realities are multiple, constructed and holistic," an aversion to establishing cause-effect relationships, and the notion that "inquiry is value bound," rather than objective (Lincoln and Guba cited in Nunan & Bailey, 1996, p.2). In support of these methods, Van Lier (1988) writes,

> Unless this perspective is given prominence, educational research will remain particularly vulnerable to biases that derive from researchers' ideological beliefs and convictions. These biases are potentially as strong in quantitative as in qualitative research, and can only be avoided by a commitment to social context and to truthfulness to the data as they really are. Even though there may be no 'telling it as it is' (Stenhouse, 1975), a principled approach to classroom research may come closer to 'seeing it as it is', and draw consequences that lead to 'doing it better' (p. 237).

With the exception of Manley and Calk (1997) and Ruin (1996), who utilized questionnaires that contained a few open-ended questions, all of the research reviewed for the present study have depended on numerical data and quantitative analysis. A review of the literature reveals the infrequent inclusion of classroom transcripts, student language samples, or even detailed descriptions of the researcher's methods of data collection. Rather, the positivistic research paradigm, which appears to have influenced many of the researchers investigating the relationship between grammar, writing, and proficiency, does not emphasize the importance of "thick description" (Geertz, 1973). This frequently-quoted phrase was intended by Geertz to refer to the ethnographer's complicated objective, which is to present

> the multiplicity of complex conceptual structures, many of them superimposed upon or knotted into one another, which are at once strange, irregular, and inexplicit, and which he must contrive somehow first to grasp and then to render. And this is true at the most down-to-earth, jungle field work levels of his activity: interviewing informants, observing rituals, eliciting kin terms, tracing property lines, censusing households...writing his journal. Doing ethnography is like trying to read (in the sense of 'construct a reading of') a manuscript – foreign, faded , full of ellipses, incoherencies, suspicious emendations, and tendentious commentaries, but written not in conventionalized graphs of sound but in transient examples of shaped behavior (p. 10).

While Geertz (1973) is referring to an anthropologist who studies unfamiliar cultures in distant lands, the ethnographic method may be applied to any context, including the classroom and student learning (Bailey & Nunan, 1996; Van Lier, 1988). The use of "thick description" and ethnographic methods in studying the grammar classroom and grammar's effect on learners' proficiency (both spoken and written) holds the promise of increasing our understanding of the processes involved in language learning.

Transfer of Learning

Despite the fact that much of the SLA research on form-focused instruction has centered on test performance, or in a few cases, accuracy in writing, little attention has been directed at the effect of grammar instruction beyond the grammar or integrated skills classroom. A number of questions invariably occur to curriculum developers and language teachers, the most important of which usually concerns whether grammar knowledge is available to the learner in other settings, such as ESL composition classes, university content classes, or life away from school. This is a question which SLA researchers do not appear to have formally asked; however, the question of whether "transfer" exists has been one of the main research foci in the field of psychology for a

century (Detterman, 1993). While SLA researchers (Odlin, 1989) use the term "transfer" to refer to cross-linguistic influences, the term in psychology describes the use of previously-learned knowledge in new situations. A number of factors have been identified that seem to aid transfer in educational settings (e.g., the amount of instruction time, the degree to which learning is meaningful, and the extent to which concepts, rather than facts, are learned) (Ormrod, 1998). While the research on transfer pertains mainly to general education, aspects relevant to transfer in language learning may be found in studies of transfer in workplace literacy classes (Mikulecky et al., 1998), some of which involve ESL students. These studies indicate that transfer of literacy skills, including the use of grammar skills, to the workplace and home is not always assured. According to Mikulecky et al. (1998), some factors that appear to affect transfer of literacy skills from the classroom to other settings are "instructional elements, the learner's predispositions, and external demands and opportunities" (p. 53). Thus, research in this semi-related field indicates the complexity of the concept of transfer and encourages questions regarding the extent to which knowledge of grammatical structures, a subset of literacy, may be transferred from the classroom to students' writing.

Statement of the problem

Largely quantitative in nature and often lacking adequate description of the nature of instruction (Doughty, 1991), existing studies of grammar and acquisition, and the few studies specifically dealing with grammar and writing proficiency, have failed to provide a "thick description" (Geertz, 1973) of the process of grammar acquisition and its effects on students' writing. To date, there are no studies that investigate whether students transfer

grammatical knowledge from the grammar classroom to their writing in other classes.

Recognizing the lack of classroom-based, process-oriented studies in SLA on the relationship between grammar instruction, writing, and transfer, this dissertation study uses qualitative methods to investigate the relationship between form-focused instruction and ESL students' writing. The study specifically focuses on the potential for transfer of grammar structures introduced in the students' grammar class to their writing in their composition class. Using the qualitative methods of classroom observation, retrospective interviews, questionnaires, and analysis of students' homework, tests, and essays, in addition to classroom transcripts, the study explores the following research questions:

1. What grammar-related input are learners exposed to in their grammar class? For example, what structures are introduced? How are they introduced? What types of form-focused practice, activities, and interaction take place in the class over the course of an 8-week session?

2. Do ESL students appear to apply what they have learned in their grammar class to their writing in other classes (specifically, their composition class)? What elements of grammar instruction seem to be transferred from one setting to another? Specifically, do students exhibit transfer of grammatical structures from their grammar class to their writing in their composition class?

3. Is there a relationship between students' metalinguistic knowledge of grammar (i.e. their ability to talk about grammatical concepts and rules) and their ability to use grammar in their writing?

4. How do students perceive the role of grammar in their English learning experience, and particularly in their writing?

Overview of the study

This introductory chapter has surveyed the context for the present study and has outlined the four main research questions. Chapter Two, Literature Review, contains an

examination of the research on the following topics related to the present study: the role of grammar instruction in language learning; the use of qualitative methods in classroom research; the role of metalinguistic knowledge in the attainment of language proficiency; and, finally, the nature of learning transfer. Chapter Three, Methodology, will describe the research design used in this study, in addition to introducing the participants and the study's setting. Chapter Four, Results, will introduce the analytical framework employed in the study and present the data collected for each of the main research questions. Finally, Chapter Five, Discussion, will answer each of the research questions with reference to the data obtained, offer conclusions, and address the practical and theoretical implications of the study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

The Role of Grammar in Language Teaching

For most of its 2,500 year history, language teaching was synonymous with grammar teaching, and the relevance of grammar to language acquisition has only been questioned in the last century (Rutherford, 1987). In the Middle Ages, grammar, along with logic and rhetoric, was an essential element in the study of philosophy, which was in turn, a major component of the study of theology (Rutherford, 1987). In fact, the very word grammar comes from the Greek word *grammatikos*, which meant "pertaining to letters or learning" (Rutherford, 1987, p. 28). For centuries, language study centered on learning the grammar of Latin and Greek. The goals of such language study were reading, and possibly writing, the classical languages as a "tool of scholarship" (Tonkyn, 1994, p. 2). Indeed, this was the beginning of the so-called grammar-translation method. During the Renaissance, as the use of Latin as a means of communication declined, interest in learning the vernacular languages of Europe developed, and the focus of such instruction became accuracy over fluency (Rutherford, 1987). In most cases, the so-called "modern languages" were taught as Latin had been: through the teaching of grammatical rules, lists of vocabulary, and translation of decontextualized sentences (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). However, there were occasional calls for reform from educators, such as Ascham and Montaigne in the sixteenth century and Comenius and John Locke in the seventeenth century, who called for changes in the way Latin, itself, was being taught (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). With a few exceptions, such as the introduction of the Natural Method and the Direct Method[1] in the 19th century, foreign

languages continued to be taught through the deductive presentation of grammar, with a focus on translation from one language to another (Rutherford, 1987). However, the first half of the 20th century saw a widespread questioning of grammar and translation as the sole foci of language learning, yet influential pedagogues like Palmer still saw grammar as an important teaching objective (Tonkyn, 1994).

The rise of structural linguistics in the mid 20th century marked the first involvement of linguists with modern language teaching (Celce-Murcia, 1991a). The Audiolingual Method (ALM) called for grammatical structures to be organized in a sequence from simple to complex and to be taught inductively with little attention given to grammar in class. Learning was thought to occur as a result of "habit formation and overlearning" (Celce-Murcia, 1991a, p. 459). Strongly influenced by behaviorist psychology, ALM called for learners to imitate and memorize forms, recite dialogues featuring grammatical structures, and take part in frequent drills to minimize errors. Errors were seen as bad habits, and, as a result, teachers were to correct all errors.

A reaction against the behaviorist bent of the ALM, the Cognitive Code method was influenced by Chomskian linguistics and psycholinguistics. Learning was viewed as a process of hypothesis formation and rule acquisition, rather than habit formation (Celce-Murcia, 1991b). Grammar was once again an important focus, and rules were either presented to learners in a deductive fashion or inductively for the learners to process on their own. The rationale for including grammar was that learners needed to understand the rules before they could be expected to use them in communication (Terrell, 1991). Errors were viewed as a natural product of language learning, which had an important

place in the learning process. Accordingly, peer and self correction, as well as error analysis, were class activities undertaken with teacher facilitation (Celce-Murcia, 1991a).

The Cognitive Code approach was followed by a series of approaches Celce-Murcia (1991b) calls the "Comprehension-based Approach," which grew out of research in first language acquisition. Within this approach, second language learning was viewed as being similar to first language acquisition; thus, teachers attempted to "recreate" the L1 learning experience for learners (Celce-Murcia, 1991a). Learner comprehension was the most important aspect, with some methods, such as Terrell and Krashen's Natural Approach, advocating delayed production for learners. The treatment of grammar was variable in this approach, ranging from complete exclusion from the classroom in the Natural Approach to sequencing of forms and inductive presentation in the approaches of Asher and Winitz[2] (Celce-Murcia, 1991a). Error correction was viewed as unnecessary because learners were thought to be able to correct themselves after having received enough comprehensible input (Celce-Murcia, 1991b).

Finally, the Communicative Approach, which dates from the mid 1970s, was influenced strongly by anthropological linguists, such as Hymes in the U.S., and the Functional linguists, such as Halliday in the United Kingdom (Celce-Murcia, 1991b). The goal of the Communicative Approach has been to help learners achieve communicative competence, a construct consisting of four parts, only one of which is grammatical competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). In keeping with the goal of communication, the communicative syllabus is normally organized according to meaning-based, rather than grammatical, objectives. Above all, the goal of communicative educators is to create

instruction that is "content-based, meaningful, contextualized, and discourse-based, rather than sentence-based" (Celce-Murcia, 1991b, p. 462). Error correction is viewed as being secondary in importance to communication. There has been an on-going debate over the role grammar should play in communicative classrooms (Celce-Murcia, 1992; Krashen, 1992) although the importance of grammar in SLA appears to have won more adherents in the last decade (Larsen-Freeman, 1991; Tonkyn, 1994).

The Grammar Debate

Since Krashen first introduced his SLA theory in the late 1970s, there has been an ongoing debate regarding the role grammar should have in the second language classroom. The "anti-grammar" viewpoint has been tirelessly upheld by Krashen, whose views have had a profound effect on many language teaching professionals' attitudes toward the teaching of grammar. Consisting of five main tenets, Krashen's SLA Model (1982) addresses five major areas: acquisition and learning, natural order, monitoring, input, and affective influences on SLA.

Although four of the five hypotheses relate to the role of grammar, of particular relevance to the grammar debate is the Input Hypothesis, which states that language is acquired as a result of obtaining comprehensible input. In order for input to become comprehensible, the language learner must understand the message and be "focused on the meaning and not the form of the message" (Krashen, 1982, p. 21). According to Krashen (1982, 1992), it is only through comprehensible input that language is acquired. According to Krashen, acquired knowledge is a kind of subconscious, intuitive knowledge of language that is available to be readily accessed by the learner. In contrast, formal

instruction in most cases can only lead to learning, a conscious, rule-based kind of knowledge that can only be used as a "monitor" or editor. Krashen (1992) states that there are three conditions for monitor usage: the learner must know the rule, he/she must have enough time to apply the rule, and the learner must be focused on form. According to Krashen, if these conditions are met, "application of grammar rules can indeed result in increased accuracy, but the performer pays a price in decreased information conveyed, and a slower, more hesitant speech style" (Krashen, 1992, p. 409).

Krashen (1992) adds that while the monitor may be used in writing as an editor, in general most learners rely on acquired knowledge and only monitor a small subsection of grammatical rules (p.410). Clearly Krashen's model with its reliance on comprehensible input minimizes the role of grammar and formal instruction in language acquisition. While he has been the loudest voice in the "anti-grammar" camp, other researchers (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982; Felix, 1985, cited in Green & Hecht, 1992) have also taken similar stances.

Disagreeing with Krashen's assertions, his critics have countered his claims by questioning his definition of grammar instruction and citing research that casts doubt on Krashen's hypotheses. One of the foremost proponents of the importance of form-focused instruction has been Celce-Murcia (1992), who has stated "that any learning activity that focuses the learner's attention on the *form* of a message (ideally, in the context of the meaning and function of the message) constitutes formal grammar instruction" (p. 406). Her view of grammar teaching as a multi-faceted endeavor is echoed by Sharwood Smith (1988), who suggests that there are many types and degrees

of grammar consciousness-raising activities. It is now recognized that grammar is a "tool or resource" in communication, rather than "an end in itself," and it is not useful to learners when taught as a "decontextualized, sentence-level system" (Celce-Murcia, 1991a, p. 466).

Countering Krashen, grammar proponents cite the research that indicates the benefits of instruction that focuses on form. Often cited is Long's (1983) review of twelve studies that examined the connection between type of L2 instruction, length of exposure, and the resulting degree of acquisition. He found that instruction is beneficial for children and adults of all proficiency levels as measured by both integrative and discrete point tests. Moreover, instruction led to proficiency gains in both acquisition-rich and acquisition-poor environments. Similarly convinced that grammar aids acquisition, Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1988) have proposed a Pedagogical Grammar Hypothesis which suggests that form-focused activities can increase the learner's rate of acquisition; they are quick to note, however, that the hypothesis needs to be tested empirically.

Also cited by grammar teaching proponents is Higgs and Cliffords's (1982) article, based on personal observations as instructors at the Foreign Service Institute for Languages (FSI). The authors have observed that students who acquire a foreign language informally without form-focused instruction are likely to plateau at the 2+ level of the FSI Proficiency Scale developed by the U.S. government. The 11 point scale extends from 0-5 (including "+" designations) and spans the range from pure beginner (Level 0) to the most advanced use of language on par with an educated native speaker

(Level 5+). Higgs and Clifford suggest that the so-called "Terminal 2", the common phenomenon of an individual unable to progress beyond a score of 2 on the FSI, is the result of "premature immersion" of students into conversational settings before grammatical structures are in place (p. 73). They suggest that making such demands on learners may lead to early fossilization.

Similarly, Cummins (1979) and Collier (1989) have found that conversational ability on par with that of a native speaker (NS) may be reached in a few years by children learning an L2. In contrast to the speed with which children attain verbal skills, they may require 7-10 years to reach academic parity with their NS classmates. Citing these findings, Celce-Murcia (1992) suggests that spoken and written language abilities must differ, and observes that grammar seems to be necessary if the goal of a learner is to reach a high level of literacy and proficiency.

Although researchers admit that the research does not conclusively prove that focus on form is necessary for learners to become proficient in an L2, many seem to agree with Sharwood Smith (1988), who observes that "The onus is surely on those who wish to deny the value of explicit teaching techniques to show that explicit teaching is a waste of time and money" (p. 53) and Celce-Murcia (1991a), who states, "...it is clear that no one should dismiss grammar instruction altogether, for there is at present no convincing evidence that to do so would ultimately be beneficial to second or foreign language learners, especially those who need to achieve a high level of proficiency and accuracy" (p. 462-3).

Can Learning Become Acquisition?

At issue in the grammar debate outlined above is the question of whether knowledge gained through formal learning is available for use in communicative contexts. With his sharply drawn distinction between learning and acquisition, Krashen (1982) argues that it would be impossible for learning to become acquisition. However, proponents of grammar teaching (Celce-Murcia, 1991a, 1992; Larsen-Freeman, 1991) suggest that formal instruction provides the learner with language that he/she may access in other settings as a result of practice. Both of these viewpoints assume the existence of two types of knowledge, referred to by Krashen as learning and acquisition, and described by the grammar proponents as an unpracticed variety of knowledge that may later become more accessible as a result of practice. Although they may be referred to using different terminology and may have other properties ascribed to them, distinctions between different types of knowledge are found frequently in the literature. In addition to Krashen's learning/acquisition distinction, references may be found as well to contrasts between the following types of knowledge: explicit and implicit (Bialystok, 1981, 1988; Han, 1996;), analyzed and automatic (Bialystok 1982, 1988), declarative and procedural (Ellis, 1993); and finally, controlled and automatic (McLaughlin, 1990).

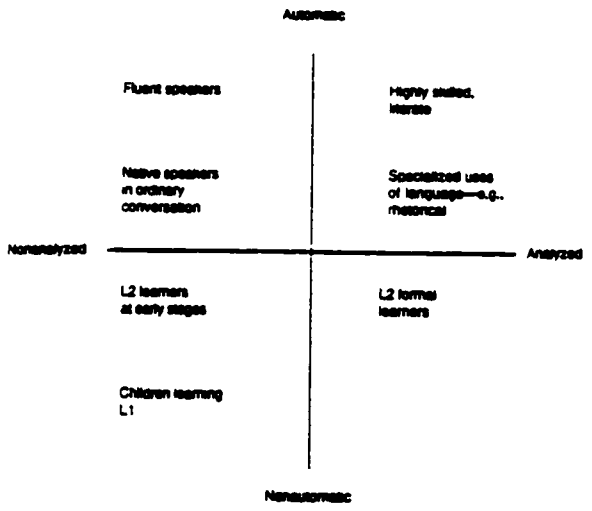
Ellis (1993) describes explicit knowledge as being analyzed (i.e., "able to be described and classified"), abstract (i.e., in the "form of some underlying generalization of actual linguistic behavior"), and explanatory (i.e., describing how grammar is used in communication) (p.93). Explicit knowledge is conscious knowledge, but it is not

synonymous with articulated knowledge; for instance, a learner may know a rule or how a grammatical structure works without being able to talk about it . However, explicit knowledge and metalinguistic knowledge are often developed together (Ellis, 1993, p. 93). Typically, explicit knowledge is revealed in analytic tasks, such as problem solving and hypothesis testing (Han, 1996, p. 27). In addition, explicit knowledge may be "idiosyncratic and anomalous"; in other words, it is not necessarily an accurate picture of the learner's implicit knowledge (Han, 1996, p. 27). Finally, explicit knowledge is usually "model-based," whereas implicit knowledge is intuitive in nature.

In contrast to explicit knowledge, which can often be verbalized, implicit knowledge is only revealed in performance (Ellis, 1993, p. 93). In other words, it is revealed in automatic language use (Han, 1996, p. 28). According to Ellis (1993), it consists of either "formulaic knowledge" (i.e., memorized "chunks" of language) of internalized, "rule-based knowledge" (p. 93). In both cases, these types of implicit knowledge are intuitive and available for analysis by the learner. Memory-based rather than model-based, it draws on "compilations of experienced instances rather than on an integrated mode that reflects analytical cognition" (Matthews et al., 1989, cited in Han, 1996, p. 28). Finally, implicit knowledge appears to be "abstract, structured, rule-based" and transferable to new situations (Han, 1996, p. 28).

Although the two types of knowledge are referred to using different labels, the distinction between explicit and implicit knowledge may also be found in Bialystok's SLA proficiency model (1982, 1988), which attempts to address the complex notion of L2 proficiency by incorporating two dimensions: +/- analyzed and +/-automatic. Bialystok's

model, found in Figure 2.1, consists of two intersecting continua, allowing distinctions to be made between types of knowledge and ease of access to them. Her continuum for the construct of analysis appears to be very similar to the explicit/implicit distinction, where analyzed knowledge is analagous to explicit knowledge and nonanalyzed corresponds to implicit knowledge. However, the addition of +/- automatic adds to the model by referring to the ability of the learner to access information. Bialystok (1982) gives the example that writing a paper requires less automaticity than informal conversation. In both cases, the unmarked forms (i.e., the expected or default forms) are the negative (-) forms. The assumption is that unmarked forms can progress to the corresponding marked form. Bialystok (1988) observes that the model precludes the possibility of a learner developing analyzed knowledge directly; rather, analyzed knowledge is developed from unanalyzed knowledge through the mediation of intermediate factors, such as instruction.



Bialystok's model: Two dimensions of language proficiency
Figure 2.1

Ellis' model (1993), shown in Figure 2.2, is very similar to Bialystok's (1982,

1988) in that it is two dimensional and encompasses measures of knowledge (explicit/implicit) and control (declarative/procedural). Ellis' definitions of the former correspond to those mentioned above; the declarative/procedural distinction, again, is similar to Bialystok's contrast between +/- automatic, although it is described in more detail in Ellis' model. Declarative knowledge is knowledge consisting of "a set of facts", while procedural knowledge refers to "how to do things" (Ellis, 1993, p. 94). Ellis illustrates the difference between these two types of knowledge by citing the difference between knowing driving rules and actually knowing how to drive a car and use the rules (p. 94). As in Bialystok's proposal, these two types of knowledge distinctions are incorporated into one model, with each type of knowledge on a continuum.

	Declarative	Procedural
	Type A	*Type B*
Explicit	Conscious knowledge of L2 items	Conscious knowledge of learning, production, and communication strategies. The learner can use explicit knowledge easily and rapidly.
	Type C	*Type D*
Implicit	Intuitive knowledge of L2 items	Ability to employ learning, production, and communication strategies automatically. The learner can use intuitive knowledge fluently.

Ellis' Model: The difference between explicit / implicit and declarative / procedural knowledge
Figure 2.2

The traditional view of grammar had been that learners could "automatize or proceduralize" conscious knowledge of L2 structures (i.e, Type A knowledge in Ellis' terminology) into the ability to use the language in an automatic, intuitive manner (i.e.,

Type D knowledge). However, Ellis cautions that this assumption reveals a confusion about the two types of knowledge. One can talk about proceduralizing declarative knowledge (i.e., consciously knowing how to use elements of an L2), but Ellis states that this is different from converting explicit knowledge into implicit knowledge (Ellis, 1993, p. 95). Thus, Ellis' model does allow for Type A knowledge to become Type D knowledge; however, it must first become Type C knowledge (i.e., intuitive knowledge about the language) through practice (Ellis, 1993). In sum, Ellis is asserting that consciously-held knowledge about language can eventually become intuitive knowledge that can be used automatically, but the learner must first pass through a period of effortful practice for this transformation to take place.

A final distinction between types of knowledge is offered by McLaughlin (1990), whose main focus has been to replace the conscious/unconscious distinction present in many of the models (e.g. explicit/implicit knowledge or acquisition/learning) with "clearly defined empirical concepts" (p. 630). To McLaughlin, such concepts must be falsifiable, or in other words, able to be disproved. McLaughlin (1990) illustrates the subjectivity of the conscious/unconscious distinction with a pair of examples from his experience learning German. In fact, he used the example in a debate with Krashen in the late 1970's:

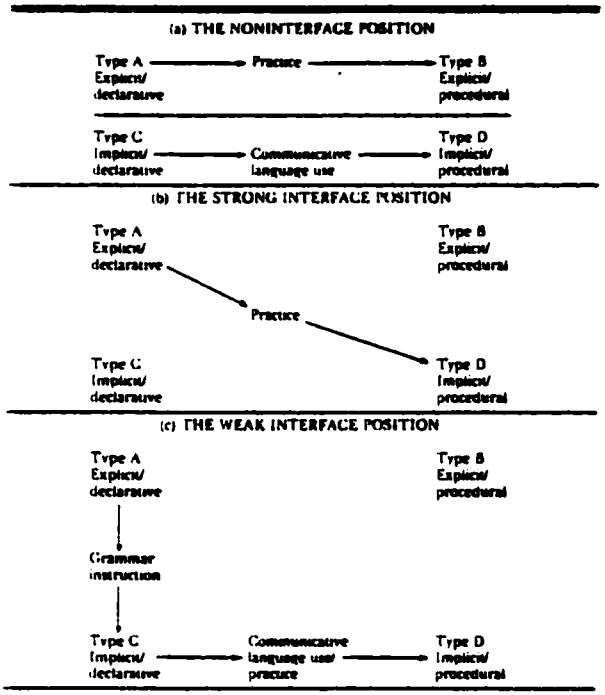
> When I "feel" that something is wrong with *Ich habe nicht das Kind gesehen*, I also know that there is a rule about the placement of negatives. Similarly, while I have to have recourse to the rule to be sure that *Ich habe es ihm gegeben* is correct, I also have a feel that *Ich habe ihm es gegeben* is wrong. At least in my own introspection, it is unclear whether I am working on the basis of "rule" or "feel" (McLaughlin, 1978, pp. 317-318, cited in McLaughlin, 1990, p. 619).

He suggests, instead, referring to controlled vs. automatic processes. In McLaughlin's

model, controlled processes "require active attention but are not always available to conscious perception" (p. 619). Such processes control the flow of memory from short to long-term memory and may become automatic. In contrast, automatic knowledge is associated with long-term memory and may take longer to be established than controlled processes. However, automatic processes do not require attention in order to be executed and are not usually accessible to consciousness although they can become the focus of attention, according to McLaughlin (1990, p. 619). McLaughlin notes that both controlled and automatic knowledge can be conscious or unconscious. The difference between the two types of knowledge is found in the "degree to which the skills in question have been routinized and established in long-term memory. This is empirically testable" (p. 621). In criticism, Ellis (1990) notes that McLaughlin's theory comes from general cognitive learning theory and is, thus, not specifically tailored to address the unique aspects of language learning. Referring to McLaughlin as having imposed a general theory onto SLA, Ellis (1990) observes, "Extrapolators are not likely to bother to go inside the classroom to test their hypotheses and, sadly, they are likely to ignore the evidence of those researchers that have done so" (p. 8). Indeed, McLaughlin's is a theoretical model which has not been tested in the classroom.

Having reviewed various models of language learning that utilize knowledge distinctions, it will be useful to refer to Ellis' (1993) organizational structure of interface positions. Ellis has summarized the various stances of researchers on the relationship between the different kinds of knowledge in a series of three diagrams. These so-called interface positions categorize the differing viewpoints that exist with respect to whether

explicit/declarative knowledge (i.e., consciously-held knowledge of an L2 or learning) can become implicit/procedural (i.e., automatically, accessed language). His interface schematic, which includes the three main views found in the literature with respect to the relationship between these two kinds of knowledge, is shown in Figure 2.3.



Ellis' Interface Model
Figure 2.3

The first position detailed in Ellis' model is that of non-interface between the two types of knowledge, learning and acquisition. This view is held by Krashen and states that it is impossible for learning (Type A knowledge) to become acquisition (Type D knowledge). However, he posits that intuitive knowledge about the language (Type C knowledge) can become automatically accessible (Type D knowledge) through practice. Likewise, explicit knowledge about the language (Type A knowledge) can become more

easily accessed (Type B knowledge) through communicative language use.

A second position, which allows for interface, has two variants: strong and weak. The strong position states that conscious knowledge about the language (Type A knowledge) can become automatic and intuitive (Type D knowledge) through practice with no constraints. This view is held by McLaughlin and Sharwood Smith. Finally, the second variant of the interface position allows for weak interface between Type A knowledge and Type D knowledge. According to this position, learning can become acquisition by way of Type C knowledge (i.e., intuitive knowledge of an L2 that can be accessed with effort) if the learner's interlanguage systems are ready to accept the new structure. Then through practice, Type C knowledge can become Type D (i.e., the automatically accessed, intuitive ability to use a language). The weak interface hypothesis is subscribed to by Ellis, who first proposed it. His rationale for proposing this hypothesis is based in the research, which he claims is "compatible" only with the weak interface position (Ellis, 1993, p. 96).

First, In support of the weak hypothesis, Ellis cites Long (1983) and Pica (1983) who found that grammar instruction yields faster learning and increased accuracy among learners. This observation is not compatible with the non-interface position. Secondly, Ellis refers to research by Felix (1981) and Pienemann (1984) which indicates that grammar instruction of a form a learner is not ready to acquire will not be successfully acquired (cited in Ellis, 1993, p. 97). This observation is not compatible with the strong interface hypothesis. Finally, he notes that grammar instruction of a form a learner is ready to acquire will be successfully acquired. Thus, the only hypothesis that is

compatible with the research findings mentioned is the weak interface hypothesis, which allows for Type A knowledge, learning, to become Type D knowledge, acquisition, with some constraints.

The Effects of Grammar Instruction on L2 Attainment

A review of the literature reflects results that encompass all three interface positions; however, the bulk of studies investigating the effects of form-focused instruction on learner attainment appear to validate the two variants of the interface position, which posits that learning can become acquisition. Nevertheless, there is research which indicates that grammar instruction has little lasting effect on a learner's output. As a whole, the body of research that documents grammar instruction's relationship to L2 attainment has been criticized in the last decade on a number of counts. Doughty (1991) identifies three main weaknesses in the previous research: "inappropriate" research designs that utilize too many variables; inadequate description and operationalization of the research treatments (i.e. failure to describe the nature of instruction, materials and research methods); and, lastly, ill-chosen measures of SLA that reflect global proficiency rather than the type of instruction utilized in the study (Doughty, 1991, p. 431). In response to Doughty's criticisms of previous research, the following review of studies of the relationship between grammar instruction and L2 attainment will address methodological issues as well as the studies' findings, recognizing that decisions of methodology have the power to alter the nature of the data collected and, thus, the results obtained.

Studies Supporting the Non-Interface Model (Krashen's view)

In a study cited by Krashen in support of his SLA model, which lends credence to the non-interface model, Kadia (1988) undertook a case study of a female graduate student from China which investigated the effects of formal instruction on monitored and spontaneous interlanguage performance. The grammatical focus of the study was the subject's placement of pronominal direct objects of ditransitive and phrasal verbs (for example, "Last time I show Beth it." and "He told me that he will call up me this evening.") (p. 510). The study consisted of a written and oral pre-test, a 40 minute instruction session, and a written and oral post-test at the end of the 9 week study. Kadia found that the subject's overall control of the structures had declined between the two tests. While Kadia found that the subject had modified one faulty grammatical rule, she had retained another. The study also showed that the subject possessed a "rich metalinguistic knowledge"; however, her English remained "pidgin-like" (Kadia, 1988, p. 514). Kadia interpreted these results to provide evidence for Krashen's model in that formal instruction appeared to have minimal effect and that the subject's performance was strongest when she was given time for tasks, allowing her to use her monitor.

While the study was an ambitious one which asked a compelling question and attempted an innovative design, the methodology of the study opens itself up to criticism. First, there was one instruction period, which lasted only 40 minutes. Although Kadia mentions that the subject was observed practicing the structure orally on her own after the instruction period, she was not given continued formal practice; this may have made a

difference in her progress. Secondly, the researcher fails to include information about a number of aspects of the study, including the observation and data collection procedures used, the nature of her interaction with the subject (with whom she lived), and adequate data samples (we are given only two sentences of the subject's output). It must be mentioned, however, that Kadia was not operating within the naturalistic, ethnographic paradigm that encourages "thick description" (Geertz, 1973), and she was writing within a compressed format (*TESOL Quarterly's* Brief Report section).

A further study cited by Krashen (1992) as offering support for his SLA model is Harley's (1989) study involving 6th grade French immersion students in Canada. The study focused on the effect of form-focused materials for two French verb tenses (the *passé composé* and the *imparfait*) and utilized both treatment and control groups and a pre-, post-, and delayed post-test design. The treatment lasted for 8 weeks with the average total time of exposure for the treatment groups being only 11 hours. Harley found that the experimental groups outperformed the control groups on 2 of 3 post-test measures; however, 3 months later, the delayed post-test showed no differences in performance between the treatment and control groups.

Harley tempers this result, which appears to downplay the importance of grammar, with a number of criticisms of the study. These observations are important because certain methodological decisions made by Harley may have altered the results obtained by the study. First, she observes that the teachers involved in the study could have benefitted from more guidance. They were given only one training session and a binder containing materials. Then, they were observed only twice in the 8 week period, and these visits

revealed that the teachers did not consistently focus on form. Second, Harley concedes that the treatment time was limited. The 1-2 hours of grammar exposure per week was probably not sufficient to show sustained results. Finally, the fact that an experimental class in which the teacher consistently corrected students showed the highest scores and least decline on the delayed post-test indicates that grammar instruction may have a lasting benefit. Because of the context it provides to readers and researchers who may wish to duplicate her study, a commendable aspect of Harley's study is her inclusion of a thorough description of procedures, classroom materials, proficiency measures, and data from the teachers' diaries.

A final study that appears to lend credence to Krashen's model, in particular the Natural Order Hypothesis, is Bardovi-Harlig and Bergström's (1996) study of tense/aspect patterns in ESL and French as a Foreign Language learners. Written narratives produced by the subjects were analyzed for appropriate verb usage and the number of past tense verbs used. The results for these learners were compared to previously collected data from uninstructed learners. The researchers found that both instructed and uninstructed learners showed similar acquisition sequences for the acquisition of the past tense in English and French. Bardovi-Harlig and Bergström interpret the results of the study to indicate that tense/aspect systems may be part of a core of SLA, which is "common to all contexts" (Van Patten 1990, cited in Bardovi-Harlig & Bergström, p. 25). This study is different from the preceding ones in that it does not actually involve form-focused instruction; rather, the learners had all been exposed to various levels of grammatical instruction before they took part in the study. What it

measures, however, is the grammatical knowledge retained by the students and transferred from the classroom to the students' writing although we are not given any information about the type of instruction the students had been exposed to earlier.

Studies Supporting the Interface Model (i.e., Learning can become acquisition)

While the number of studies indicating that learning can become acquisition through practice (i.e., Ellis' (1993) weak interface hypothesis) are limited, there have been a number of studies conducted in the last two decades which have suggested that grammatical instruction is an important element in SL attainment. In one such study, Swain (1985) studied French immersion students (10-12 years old) in Canada with the goal of comparing the components of language proficiency (grammatical, sociolinguistic and discourse competence) across oral and written tasks. A comparison of the immersion students' scores with those of NSs showed significant differences for grammatical competence.

Observing that Krashen would argue these students probably had not been receiving sufficient comprehensible input, Swain counters this assertion by citing the students' performance on subject matter achievement tests, which was high and equal to those of their NS peers, indicating that they had received enough input to learn the material. Despite the fact that many of these students had been receiving immersion schooling in French for seven years, they still had not reached grammatical parity with native speakers. Swain suggests these results indicate that comprehensible input is not sufficient for learners who must achieve a high degree of proficiency; instead, they require contexts in which meaning is negotiated through interaction (p. 246). Once the meaning

is understood, the learners will be free to focus on the form of the message. A key element of Swain's discussion of the results is her assertion that the output which is part of this negotiation of meaning is crucial for acquisition: "One learns to speak through speaking" (Swain, 1985, p. 249). Indeed, it is Swain's hypothesis that speaking allows the learner to practice what has been learned and she observes that immersion students as they progress in school are increasingly exposed to lecture-style formats, leaving little time for negotiation of meaning and discussion. In her "Output Hypothesis," which parallels Krashen's Input Hypothesis, Swain suggests that students must be "pushed in output" (i.e., similar to $i+1$) in order to become proficient in an L2 (p. 249).

In a methods comparison study of college-level learners of French, Scott (1989) investigated whether explicit or implicit methods of language teaching yielded higher scores on discrete point tests. The research focused on students' acquisition of French relative clause structure and the subjunctive. A pre-test/post-test design showed significantly higher scores for the explicit method of teaching grammar. It should be noted, however, that the explicit method consisted of a ten minute period at the beginning of each class in which a rule and model sentences were presented to the students without an opportunity for practice. The implicit method, on the other hand, was operationalized as the reading of a story which included a high frequency of the structure to be learned. Scott observes that it was not sufficient for the students to merely hear the structure in order to retain it and suggests that if learners are focused on content, they may not pay attention to grammatical form. In addition, the implicit condition did not give the students a "mental heading" (i.e. they were not told what structure they were hearing),

while the testing format referred to the structures by name and asked them to produce the structure. It must be questioned whether this study simulated conditions which are found in any classroom. For example, the students were given no opportunity to practice the structures and had a very limited exposure to the structures. Nevertheless, the study does suggest that making structure and form salient may be more beneficial than relying solely on implicit input as Krashen has suggested.

In an enlightening survey of the possible relationships between formal instruction and grammatical competence, Lightbown (1991) states that there are 5 basic stances regarding the role of instruction: 1.) It does not affect grammatical competency ; 2.) It is essential to high proficiency levels; 3.) It is not necessary for language acquisition but is helpful in speeding up the rate of acquisition and making up for low amounts of input ; 4.) It helps some, but not all, patterns to be acquired; and 5.) It is essential for some structures because of their relationship to the nature of the structure in the L1. Lightbown's study, involving French speaking elementary students enrolled in an English immersion program in Canada, focused on the acquisition of the form "there is" (*"il y a"* in French), a structure which is most closely described by position 5 above. In other words, French speakers require specific instruction on the use of 'there is' because of its relationship to the corresponding structure in French, *il y a.* The study involved classroom observations and student interviews involving a picture description task. The researchers used quantitative methods to analyze interview transcripts from an English immersion class for the frequency of "there is"and its variants. The researchers found one class which had a much higher incidence of "there is" used correctly. An interview with

the teacher of this class revealed that she had purposefully stressed that point in class after hearing students use the direct French translation ("you have" or "we have"). One year later, nine of the ten students in the class who were able to be interviewed were continuing to use the structure correctly, indicating that the focus on form had been beneficial and long-lasting.

A further study (White, Spada, Lightbown, & Ranta, 1991) involving francophone ESL learners between the ages of 10 and 12 also indicated that instruction can affect accuracy levels. The study examined the effects of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback ('input enhancement') within a communicative language program on accuracy in question formation. Only two weeks in length, the study exposed learners to three hours of instruction per week on the topic of question formation and involved a pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test design. An analysis of the results indicated that instruction had had a significant effect on the syntactic accuracy of the learners, and the gains resulting from instruction had not been lost by the time the delayed post-test was administered five weeks later.

While all of the above studies involved classroom instruction, a study by Doughty (1991) investigated the effects of computerized instruction on the acquisition of English relative clauses. Utilizing a pre-and post-test design, the study measured the SLA attainment of three groups: a control group which did not receive instruction, an experimental group that received meaning-oriented instruction, and a second experimental group that received rule-oriented instruction. An analysis of the results showed that both experimental groups had more than double the gain scores of the control group for

accuracy, indicating that instruction improved performance significantly. Of the two experimental groups, however, only the meaning-oriented instruction resulted in improved comprehension scores. Doughty (1991) observes that instruction seems to have raised scores by making the forms more salient, allowing learners access to two levels of redundancy (form and explanation), and giving students more frequent exposure to the forms.

A final study showing the benefit of attention to form is Wechsler's (1987) case study of two Francophone learners of English. Wechsler pioneered a new technique called "interview analysis," a method of eliciting, recording and transcribing students' speech. After the tutor has transcribed the interview with the learner, the two of them correct grammar errors in the transcripts with colored pens. The method is designed to raise learners' awareness of their spoken errors. After a period of several months in which Wechsler met with the subjects three to four times to work on correcting the transcripts of the original oral interviews, the researcher found that the number of oral errors in the learners' spontaneous English had been significantly reduced. Wechsler noticed particular improvement in the use of regular and irregular forms of the past tense, plurals, possessives, and purpose formations using "for" and "to". Interestingly, no significant drop in errors of the third person singular present tense "s" ending was found.

The majority of the studies above strongly indicate that form focused instruction is beneficial to learners. Regardless of the format used--case study, classroom instruction of experimental groups, or computer instruction--it seems clear that attention to form raises learners' scores on the tests that have been given. In most cases, the studies (Doughty,

1991; Scott, 1989; Swain, 1985; White, Spada, Lightbown, & Ranta, 1991), utilized discrete point tests as part of their testing procedures. Some of these studies relied on an oral component (Lightbown, 1991; Swain, 1985; Wechsler, 1987). Only two of the studies reviewed (Bardovi-Harlig & Bergström, 1996; Harley, 1989) measured the effect of instruction on students' writing although their studies did not address the nature of the instruction students received. For example, Bardovi-Harlig and Bergström (1996) used writing as a means to measure the number of past tense errors, while Harley (1989) employed composition as one of three measures of the learners' control of two French verb tenses. A smaller number of SLA studies (Manley & Calk, 1997; Ruin, 1996) have closely examined the relationship between grammar instruction and its effect on writing.

The Effect of Form-Focused Instruction on Writing

Ruin (1996) studied the effect of grammar instruction on the proficiency of advanced learners of English who were native speakers of Swedish. The descriptive study was conducted at a Swedish university and involved the students in an advanced English class. The design consisted of a pre-and post-test administered in three areas: grammar, translation, and composition. The course lasted 9 weeks and involved the explicit teaching of English grammar, with the English as the language of instruction. The study is interesting because Ruin attempted to understand the grammar learning process by giving three different types of tests and administering questionnaires, in which she asked about students' perceptions of the utility of grammar. She used both quantitative analyses of the test results and some questionnaire answers, as well as qualitative analyses of the open-ended questionnaire answers in order to gain a broader understanding of how

grammar instruction affected the proficiency of these Swedish university students. The findings showed significant improvement in the students' performance on discrete point tests, some improvement (though not significant) on the number of errors on the composition test, and no improvement on the translation task. Because there was no control group, Ruin points out that she cannot be sure that the improvement in the learners' scores was due to instruction, but she points to two factors that favor the role of instruction: students had already had extensive exposure to English before the course and the learners held a very positive attitude overall toward the utility of grammar instruction. In an analysis of student responses on the questionnaire, Ruin found no correlation between the students' positive attitude toward grammar and their improvement in accuracy in writing. All students, whether weak or strong, held positive attitudes; however, Ruin points out that the most proficient speakers also placed the most value on grammar instruction.

As in Ruin's study, Manley and Calk (1997) also included a mix of qualitative and quantitative analyses. The study examined whether university level students of French considered grammar instruction valuable in helping them write better compositions. These student reports were compared to students' actual gains in using four specific grammatical forms in their compositions. The instructional component consisted of grammar lessons using four different types of communicative approaches to teaching grammar: the Proficiency Approach (Omaggio), Explicit Grammar Instruction (Terrell), Whole Language, and Processing Instruction (Van Patten). After each grammar presentation, students wrote an essay, which was analyzed for errors committed in the use

of the structure presented. Finally, the students' performance on the first four essays was compared with that on the final essay to obtain a measure of students' improvement. An error comparison for the essays showed that students made significant improvement on three of the four structures presented (noun/adjective agreement, possessive adjectives, and the definite article); however, students' performance on the use of the *passé composé* actually declined.

An analysis of the pre- and post-questionnaires revealed that students perceived grammar as having been useful to them in their writing during the course. When asked if they used grammar information from class to edit their or their classmates' writing, however, only 4 of the 13 answered "yes" and the remainder answered "somewhat" (p. 79). When students were asked to rate the teaching methods used, the results were inconclusive, suggesting, according to Manley and Calk, that students are less concerned with teaching methods than teachers are (p. 80). This study stands out for its use of qualitative methods as part of the overall research design, as well as for its use of classroom data and students' perceptions. It is also one of the few studies that traces grammatical structures from the grammar lesson to the students' writing. Another strength of Manley and Calk's study is its provision of thorough descriptions and documentation of the lesson plans used for the teaching of each structure; however, the researchers do not provide a descriptive account which includes teacher-student dialog and interaction. Furthermore, the reader is not given any information about how the students received or reacted to the lesson. Taking a more ethnographic approach would have increased the descriptive value of the study.

Qualitative Research and Classroom Studies

While Manley and Calk's study (1997) is notable for its use of ethnographic methods, a common criticism of classroom research within SLA has been that many studies lack sufficient documentation and description of data collection methods, analysis techniques, and the researcher's own role. In other words, these studies have ignored the so-called "black box" of the classroom, concentrating, instead, on input and output measures (Long, 1983). A recent review (Nunan, 1992) of 50 studies from the classroom research literature revealed that only 15 of the studies had been conducted in actual classrooms, with 7 additional studies relying partially on classroom-based data. In other words, only a fraction of the reviewed studies had used naturalistic data collection techniques to study classroom-based language acquisition in its context. Nunan found these findings unsettling as the classroom context, itself, is vital to understanding instructed second language acquisition. Reflecting on the importance of the research context in qualitative or naturalistic studies, Nunan (1992) observed,

> The naturalistic-ecological perspective has, as its central tenet, the belief that the context in which the behavior occurs has a significant influence on that behavior...[I]f we want to find out about behavior, we need to investigate it in the natural contexts in which it occurs, rather than in the experimental laboratory. Arguments in favor of field research as opposed to laboratory research are supported by studies of particular phenomena which come up with different findings according to whether the research is conducted in a laboratory or in the field (p. 53-54).

While true classroom-based studies have been a rarity in the last 40 years of SLA research, qualitative classroom research has been even more rare. Davis referred to the "dearth of socially situated SLA studies" in an article published in 1995, and Lazarton's

(1995) informal survey of four major SLA/applied linguistics journals over the previous 10 years revealed that qualitative studies were noticeably underrepresented in three of the four journals[3].

Davis (1995) attributes the lack of qualitative studies within the fields of SLA and applied linguistics to both discipline-based traditions and confusion over the nature of qualitative research. Citing Gee (1990), Davis observes that, in many cases, researchers have not been socialized into the discourse of qualitative research. Traditionally trained in the positivist, or quantitative, research paradigm, borrowed from psychological experimental research, some SLA researchers have tended to view qualitative research as relying on non-quantitative methods and being, therefore, "non-rigorous" (Davis, 1995, p. 132)[4].

While some studies, for example that of Schmidt & Frota (1985)[5], may combine both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection and analysis, the underlying philosophical approaches to research of the two research paradigms are striking in their differences. With their origins in the physical sciences, the tenets of positivism contrast in many ways with those of naturalistic inquiry, which has its roots in the philosophy, theory, and methods of anthropology (Davis, 1995). Borrowed from Lincoln and Guba (1985), Table 2.1 below demonstrates the contrasting world-views of the research paradigms of *positivism*, the underpinning of the traditional, quantitative approach, and *naturalism*, the basis of ethnographic and qualitative research[6].

Ellis (1990) reminds us that, optimally, researchers should adopt a variety of

Contrasting Positivist and Naturalist Axioms (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 37)
Table 2.1

Axioms About...	*Positivist Paradigm*	*Naturalist Paradigm*
The nature of reality	Reality is single, tangible, and fragmentable.	Realities are multiple, constructed and holistic.
The relationship of the knower to the known	Knower and known are independent, a dualism.	Knower and known are interactive, inseparable.
The possibility of generalization	Time- and context-free generalizations are possible.	Only time- and context-bound working hypotheses are possible.
The possibility of causal linkages	There are real causes, temporally precedent to or simultaneous with their effects.	All entities are in a state of mutual simultaneous shaping, so that it is impossible to distinguish causes from effects.
The role of values	Inquiry is value-free.	Inquiry is value-bound.

methods, both qualitative and quantitative, in order to further our understanding of classroom language acquisition:

> There is a continual need for ethnographic research directed at identifying significant classroom processes and also for experimental research to try to establish causative links between instruction variables and learning. There is also a case for the use of introspective methods to investigate how individual learners respond to instructional events. Above all, there is a need for hybrid research, i.e. research that combines the procedures of both hypothesis-forming and hypothesis-testing methods (p. 202)[7].

Underscoring the promise of the ethnographic approach, which encompasses the introspective methods mentioned in the above quote from Ellis, Van Lier (1988) observes that although "there may be no 'telling it as it is' (Stenhouse 1975), a principled [ethnographic] approach to CR [classroom research] may come closer to 'seeing it as it is' and draw consequences that lead to 'doing it better'"(p. 237).

Metalinguistic Knowledge

Related to the debate over the effect of grammar instruction on proficiency is the question of the role of metalinguistic knowledge in SLA . While the grammar translation method emphasized a student's ability to recite grammar rules, theorists (Bialystok 1988, Sharwood Smith, 1988) stress that articulated knowledge is not always synonymous with an understanding of grammar. Referring to her model of language proficiency, which consists of two continua, +/- analyzed and +/- automatic, Bialystok (1988) concedes that if knowledge becomes analyzed, the learner may be able to formulate rules. Moreover, analyzed knowledge can provide the basis for metalinguistic knowledge. Nevertheless, Bialystok (1988) is quick to underscore the fact that articulated knowledge and metalinguistic knowledge are not equivalents, but rather two types of knowledge that are

"enabled" by analyzed knowledge (p.40). Sharwood Smith (1988) refers to articulated rule knowledge as a "rather special metalinguistic ability" that is not an automatic result of "grammar consciousness-raising" (i.e. his term for form-focused instruction) (p. 55). Indeed, Sharwood Smith stresses that in deciding whether to emphasize rule articulation or even have students learn by rote, teachers must consider a variety of factors, including the "type of learner" and the "general learning context." (p.55).

Studies by Seliger (1979) and Sorace (1985) appear to support the positions held by Bialystok (1988) and Sharwood Smith (1988) with regard to the relationship between articulated rule knowledge and the use of rules in production. Sorace (1985) suggests that metalinguistic rules may not be used in production; rather, learners may use so-called "performance rules," belonging to the learner's "procedural knowledge, which define the conditions for the appropriate application of internalized rules" (p. 241). Similarly, Seliger (1979) posits that pedagogical rules are not stored as teachers present them. Instead, these rules go through an "inductive process," characterized by learner variables, such as pre-existing knowledge, proficiency, attitude and motivation, perceptions, and the amount of intake available (p. 368). Seliger suggests that, although pedagogical rules may undergo a number of changes, they are, nonetheless, useful because "they serve as a mechanism to facilitate the learner's focusing on those critical attributes of the real language concept that must be induced" (p.368). Thus, this focusing appears to be necessary for internal rules to be formed[8].

The body of research, including that by Seliger and Sorace, investigating the relationship between articulated rule knowledge and language (Furey, 1987; Green &

Hecht, 1992; Han, 1996; Hulstijn & Hulstijn, 1984) has yielded often contradictory results that either discount or underscore the importance of articulated rule knowledge in SL proficiency. Seliger's (1979) early and often-cited study asked the following series of questions, which sum up many of the queries found in the related research:

> Does having a conscious rule, either from a teacher, grammar book, or formulated by the learner, mean that the learner knows what to do with it? Does having a good rule that one can verbalize result in good performance, and conversely, does having a clearly bad rule mean that bad performance will necessarily result? (p. 360-1).

Investigating the performance of monolingual English-speaking children, bilingual children, and adult ESL learners, Seliger examined the relationship between rule knowledge and performance on a grammar task involving the choice of articles, a/an. Students were asked to take part in a picture identification task in which participants gave the name of each object pictured. If the learners used an article, they were asked about the rules for using a/an. Seliger found no relationship between the learners' rule knowledge and their performance on the picture identification task. In other words, the performance of the participants who stated an incorrect rule was not significantly different from those who stated a correct rule. Thus, Seliger concludes that "being able to state a rule is not assurance of good performance, just as not being able to state a rule is not an indication of poor performance" (p. 364). He observes that the rules held by learners are often idiosyncratic, due to the fact that learners hear rules in class and reformulate them in their own way (p. 366). Finally, Seliger interprets his results to indicate that language learning is not a passive process of storing rules but an "active process of reconstructing an internal model" (p. 366).

Sorace's (1985) findings and conclusions are similar to those of Seliger. Investigating the development of metalinguistic knowledge and the relationship between this knowledge and language use, Sorace studied the language learning of Scottish learners of Italian. Two groups of learners, beginning and intermediate, were given a written grammatical judgement test (GJT), an oral picture description test, and an interview. Sorace found that few students, including those who scored well on the GJT, were able to state rules. She concluded that the ability to state rules is a skill developed late in L2 learners, including those who have been taught in formal setting, as Sorace's subjects had. The majority of the learners in her study had difficulty verbalzing rules although the more proficient speakers were better able to do so. Sorace posits that rule articulation "cannot be identified with all analyzed or metalinguistic knowledge but rather represents an advanced specialized form of it" (p. 249). She goes on to suggest that

> Formal learners tend to have analyzed mental representations of the L2 system without being able, particularly in the initial stages of the learning process, to apply them in production. In other words, the interlanguage of formal learners is characterized by a predominance of *metalinguistic* over *linguistic* abilities, whereas it is usually the reverse in the competence of native speakers, and also in the interlanguage of informal acquirers (p. 240).

Both Seliger (1979) and Sorace (1985) compare the results of their studies to those predicted by Krashen's SLA model and find striking incompatibility. Seliger questions Krashen's Monitor Hypothesis, which states that learners will be able to use their monitor, or internal editor, given sufficient time. Interestingly, Seliger's study purposefully allowed students as much time as they needed on the picture identification task; however, students were still not able to apply rules correctly. Similarly, testing Krashen's Learning / Acquisition Hypothesis, Sorace questions the distinction made

between the two types of learning based on the fact that the learners in her study, beginners and intermediate students alike, had learned their Italian solely in formal settings. She disagrees that the better performance of the intermediate learners was due solely to having more acquired knowledge because all language learning for both groups had taken place in a classroom. She states that "the small portion of subconsciously acquired knowledge cannot be responsible alone for the marked difference in knowledge between beginners and non-beginners" and calls for an end to the rigid separation between learning and acquisition in Krashen's model (p. 250-251).

Two further studies (Furey 1987; Han 1996) address the relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge, or the learner's ability to articulate a rule and his/her actual usage of the rule. Furey (1987) studied the performance of 38 advanced adult ESL learners on a verbal story-telling task and an explicit rule knowledge task. The subjects were evaluated on their ability to produce five grammatical target patterns in speech. For each pattern, the students were divided into two groups based on their level of explicit knowledge, high or low, as evidenced by their performance on the explicit rule knowledge task. No significant differences were found between the two groups for any of the five patterns. Thus, Furey concluded that explicit rule knowledge did not enable subjects to perform better on the storytelling task. Far from discounting the role of explicit knowledge, however, Furey concedes that less proficient learners may rely more heavily on metalinguistic knowledge to learn the form and then forget the explicit knowledge once the form has been learned (p. 60). As her research subjects were advanced learners, Furey posits that they may have already lost recourse to the explicit knowledge they once

may have possessed; following this line of reasoning, Furey calls for replications of her study using subjects who are less advanced, and as a result, closer to their initial exposure to grammatical target structures.

Like Furey (1987), Han (1996) also investigated the relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge; however, her study focused exclusively upon learners' knowledge of verb complements rather than on a variety of grammatical structures. The researcher tested 48 ESL learners at the college level using a grammatical judgement test (GJT) in both timed and untimed conditions. The former condition was intended to measure implicit knowledge and the latter, explicit knowledge. In addition to the GJT, the learners were also tested using both an oral production test, designed to measure implicit knowledge, and an interview, measuring explicit knowledge. In general, Han found that learners demonstrated confusion about rules and an inability to verbalize the rules of verb complementation. A statistical test of correlation showed a weak relationship between the learners' implicit and explicit knowldge of verb complementation. In other words, rule knowledge did not affect the learners' abilities to apply the rules of verb complementation productively.

While the preponderance of research results points to a disconnect between rule knowledge and productive use, two studies (Green & Hecht, 1992; Hulstijn & Hultijn, 1984) found a relationship between these two types of knowledge. In a large study (N=300), Green and Hecht surveyed German learners of English at the secondary and college levels, in addition to surveying British junior high school native speakers of English. The subjects were presented with twelve incorrect sentences and were asked to

both correct the sentences and state the rule that had been broken in each sentence. Green and Hecht found that fewer than half (46%) of the German junior high school students could state a correct rule although the learners were able to correct the sentences 78% of the time, indicating "that a large proportion of errors are corrected without recourse to a viable explicit rule" (p. 176). Green and Hecht found that if students had been able to state a correct rule, 97% were able to produce a correct correction. Referring to Seliger (1979), the authors observe, "While it is true to say then that, if pupils have a correct rule available, they can in nearly every case also produce a correct correction, we should not be misled into thinking that they need the rule to produce the correct correction" (Green & Hecht, 1992, p. 175). Considering the gap between the percentage of learners who could produce a rule and those who could correct the sentences (46% versus 78%), Green and Hecht question whether "the rule actually led to the correction or whether the correction was effected by 'feel,' which then prompted the rule" (p. 178). Green and Hecht then go on to suggest that the learners in their study appeared to operate on 'feel'; however, the learners in their study were not asked about the processes they used in the experimental task or in their language learning assignments. Thus, the study could have benefitted from the use of student self-reports in order to avoid the researchers' conjectures about the processes students rely on in language learning.

A final study (Hulstijn & Hulstijn, 1984), which supports the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge, specifically articulated rule knowledge and performance, involved adult learners of Dutch who were tested on their ability to retell a story under

four conditions: limited time, unlimited time, attention to information, and attention to grammar. The learners were asked to state a rule for two Dutch word order patterns and their level of rule knowledge was compared to their performance on the story retelling tasks. The researchers found that rule knowledge was linked to the learners' performance on all four conditions, indicating that metalinguistic knowledge, particularly articulated rule knowledge, does affect proficiency, a finding which may be at odds with those of Seliger (1979), Sorace (1985), Furey (1987) and Han (1996).

Transfer

Although studies concerning the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and proficiency are conflicting with regard to the role they ascribe to articulated rule knowledge and its relationship to proficiency, studies by Hulstijn and Hulstijn (1984) and Green and Hecht (1992) indicate that rule knowledge is linked to learners' performance. In addition, a number of studies discussed earlier (Doughty, 1991; Lightbown, 1991; Manley & Calk, 1997; Ruin, 1996; Scott, 1989; Swain, 1985; Wechsler, 1987; White, Spada, Lightbown, & Ranta, 1991) demonstrate that exposure to form-focused instruction appears to help students in a variety of tasks. These studies point to the importance of exposure to form in instructed SLA. However, what has not been examined in SLA studies is whether grammatical knowledge is helpful to students outside the grammar classroom. Is it, for example, available to be accessed in other ESL classes, content classes at the university, or literacy tasks outside of school?

The question of whether knowledge is available to be transferred to other contexts and settings is a question that has occupied psychologists and educational theorists and

philosophers for at least a century. In fact, Detterman (1993) observes that it has been "one of the most actively studied phenomena in psychology. Regardless of orientation, philosophical perspective, or school of psychology, nearly everyone has something to say about transfer" (p. 5). In his essay, *The Aims of Education* (published in 1929, but delivered as a speech in 1912), Alfred North, Lord Whitehead, a professor of philosophy at both Cambridge and Harvard, urged teachers to teach for transfer when he exhorted them to " beware of what I will call 'inert ideas'–that is to say, ideas that are merely received into the mind without being utilized, or tested, or thrown into fresh combinations" (p.2).

As a result of cross-disciplinary differences, it is useful to define the concept of transfer in order to avoid confusion. For example, within SLA, the term refers to cross-linguistic influences (i.e., the effect of an L1 on L2 learning) (Odlin, 1989), whereas within psychology it refers to "the degree to which a behavior will be repeated in a new situation" (Detterman, 1993, p.4), and the way in which "prior learning [affects] new learning or performance" (McKeough, Lupart, & Marini, 1995). For the purposes of this study, references to transfer will denote the definition utilized within the field of psychology.

In psychology, a distinction is made between types of transfer: Detterman (1993) mentions no fewer than six distinct types corresponding to three aspects of the term. *Near transfer* is to situations that are similar, except for a few significant differences. Detterman (1993) cites the example of learning to draw a three-inch line and returning later to learn to draw a longer line. In contrast, *far transfer* involves using knowledge in

situations that are new and unfamiliar. An example of *far transfer* would be taking part in a list-learning experiment and then being able to memorize a poem more quickly because of the involvement in the earlier experiment (Detterman, 1993, p. 5). Another distinction made is between *specific* and *general transfer*. The former occurs when the content of the two tasks overlap, while the latter occurs when general skills and strategies from one task are used in a task in a dissimilar situation (Ormrod, 1998, p. 324). Finally, a more recent distinction between transfer situations is that between *deep structure* and *surface structure*. Detterman (1993) gives a useful definition of the two terms: "An example is that all car dashboards give the same information, but that their dial configurations are different. *Deep structure* is the same, but *surface structure* is different. On the other hand, an airplane dashboard contains dials similar to a car's, but the information presented by those dials is different. For car and plane dashboards, there is a similar surface structure but a different deep structure" (p. 5).

Factors Influencing Transfer

While there is great controversy in the fields of psychology and educational psychology with regard to whether transfer actually takes place (Detterman & Sternberg, 1993), there seems to be some theoretical consensus on the conditions that would be necessary if a learner were to transfer knowledge and skills from one setting to another. In a review of the research, Ormrod (1998) cites a number of factors influencing the degree to which transfer is likely to occur:

- "amount of instruction time": Research indicates that the likelihood of transfer increases when students spend more time on a concept or task. Ormrod also mentions that studying fewer topics in depth seems to lead to better transfer

abilities than studying many topics superficially.

- "extent to which learning is meaningful, rather than rote": Meaningful information appears to be retrieved and transferred more easily than that learned through rote. Thus, teachers should encourage students to relate new information to things they already know.

- "extent to which principles, rather than facts, are learned": Research indicates that people are able to transfer principles with more success than facts. Thus, the recommendation to teachers is to focus on principles and strategies, while realizing that certain facts are also important.

- "variety of examples and opportunities for practice": Transfer appears to be facilitated if learners are given the opportunity to practice the new skill or use the new knowledge in a variety of situations and contexts. Using knowledge in a variety of contexts allows learners to store the new knowledge in association with those contexts and improve the chance for retrieval.

- "degree of similarity between two situations": The chances of transfer are increased if the new situation appears to be similar to a previously-encountered situation. Ormrod observers that this underscores the value of bringing authentic activities into the classroom; students should be given an opportunity to practice the new knowledge in ways that will help them in future studies and the "real world."

- "length of time between the two situations": Transfer is the most likely to occur soon after the knowledge or skill has been acquired. Thus, new topics should be introduced close to the time that they will be used and practiced by the learners.

- "extent to which information is seen as context-free, rather than context bound": If learners perceive new information as being related only to a specific topic or area of study, they are less likely to transfer it to a new situation. The implication is that new material should be related to other fields of study and the world outside the classroom as often as possible (pp.324-5).

Workplace Literacy Studies

While studies investigating transfer date back to classic studies by E.L. Thorndike in the first decade of the 20th century, a literature search was unable to find any studies investigating the construct of transfer within the field of SLA. However, a tangentially

related field in which some transfer-related research has taken place is that of workplace literacy. A recent study (Mikulecky, Lloyd, Siemantel, & Masker, 1998) investigated the phenomenon of transfer of skills beyond workplace literacy classes using a case study format involving 12 individuals. The authors note in their literature review that expectations among learners, teachers and funding sources are usually quite high in workplace literacy classes; all individuals involved hope that the information from the class will transfer beyond the classroom to the work lives and private lives of the students (p. 52). As noted by Mikeulecky et al., "These expectations often extend to expanded and productive literacy practice, increased educational aspirations, and improved attitudes and senses of personal effectiveness with literacy. *Unfortunately, transfer of literacy skills is neither automatic nor often far reaching"* (p. 52 emphasis added).

Using a case study format, the researchers tracked the progress of twelve individuals who worked at one of three firms where workplace literacy classes were in place. The information for the learner case studies was taken from classroom observations, analysis of materials and assignments, interviews with teachers, learners, family members, and co-workers, and weekly practice report checklists completed by the learner. The goal of the study was to investigate the role of the following factors, which an earlier pilot study had indicated as having the greatest influence on transfer beyond the workplace literacy classroom: "instructional elements; learner predispositions; and external demands and opportunities" (Mikulecky et al., 1998, p. 53).

The individuals involved in the study held a wide range of jobs, but they all had in common a desire to improve their literacy skills and general education. Two of the case

studies focused on ESL students, Trang and Rosetta. Trang, a recent immigrant from Thailand who worked as a stocker at a cosmetics firm, reported few changes in his workplace literacy practices because he had few opportunities to speak English in the workplace; however, he reported several changes in his home literacy practices, including reading books from class at home, reading his children's homework with them and showing them his own homework, and beginning to consider getting his GED. Rosetta, a Spanish-speaking machine operator at the cosmetics firm, reported numerous changes as a result of taking the literacy course. On the job, she began to speak more in meetings and began to recognize when people were joking with her. At home, she read an English book for the first time for pleasure, read the newspaper, and checked out several books in English from the library. She also reported praying in English, watching and understanding the television program "Oprah" better than before, and keeping a list of vocabulary. The class improved her confidence greatly.

The study concludes with a number of recommendations for increasing transfer from the literacy classroom to the workplace and beyond, some of which are relevant to ESL courses: course developers should investigate the demands faced by the learners on the job and at home before planning the course; time should be spend with the learners developing goals since a lack of goals appears to limit transfer; the instructor should "try to actively develop positive rapport and develop links to learners' lives"; lessons ought to "aim for a mix of learner-centered and workplace-centered goals and activities," as situations that encompass both types of goals are the most successful; and finally, teachers should be aware that learners may use them as models for discussing, listening, and

working collaboratively (Mikulecky et al., 1989, pp. 134-35).

Summary

In this chapter, the areas of research relevant to the present study were examined. First, the contested role of grammar instruction was addressed. At the heart of the current debate over the role of grammar is whether all kinds of linguistic input are able to be accessed by the learner in communication. The debate has found its expression on both an anecdotal level, as well as a more theoretical plane, which has focused on the dual nature of knowledge. A number of classroom-based studies have been cited as evidence by both sides in the debate over the role of grammar.

After an examination of the debate over grammar, the chapter turned to the growing consensus among many in SLA that utilization of multiple research methods, including qualitative and quantitative, may allow for a more balanced and accurate view of classroom processes and interaction. The majority of classroom studies addressing the efficacy of grammar have been largely quantitative in nature up to this time.

A third focus of the chapter was the relationship of metalinguistic knowledge to learners' abilities to articulate rules. While a number of studies have shown that there is a weak relationship between a learner's ability to state a rule for use of a grammatical structure and his/her ability to correctly use the structure, other studies indicate a stronger relationship between these two types of knowledge.

Finally, the concept of learning transfer, a construct from the field of psychology, was introduced. A number of factors thought to make transfer more likely were enumerated and a study from the field of workplace literacy, which may hold implications

for the present study, was outlined. The body of research in the field of transfer underscores the idea that transfer cannot be assumed.

Notes to Chapter 2

[1] The Natural Method was a name used for a group of reformist language teaching methods being developed at the end of the 19th century, which sought to make second language learning more like first language learning. Associated with this approach, L. Saveur (1826-1907) opened a school in Boston in the late 1860s which became known for its focus on oral interaction in the classroom and using questions to present and elicit language. Closely related to the natural method, the Direct Method, pioneered by a Frenchman, F. Gouin (1831-1896), among others, was influenced by the thought of the German philosopher and scientist, Alexander von Humboldt, who once said, "A language cannot be taught. Once can only create conditions for learning to take place" (Celce-Murcia, 1991b, p.4). Gouin began to publish on his approach, which emphasized the ability to use the language, called for grammar to be taught inductively, and which forbade the use of the mother tongue in the second language classroom (Celce-Murcia, 1991b). The Direct Method became popular in Europe and was introduced to the U.S. in the early 20th century. It became widely known for its adoption by Maximillian Berlitz, the father of the Berlitz language schools.

[2] James J. Asher is known for his Total Physical Response (TPR) approach to language learning, while Harris Winitiz' developed the model of Optimal Habit Reinforcement. Both belong to category of "Comprehension-based Approaches" that emphasize the development of receptive skills, especially listening comprehension, while

not specifically addressing oral production, which was assumed to follow naturally from aural comprehension (Celce-Murcia, 1991b)

[3] Lazarton (1995) reviewed studies published in *Applied Linguistics, Language Learning, Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* and *TESOL Quarterly* over the previous 10 years. Of the four journals, she found that only *TESOL Quarterly* had begun to increase the number of qualitative studies it had published over the previous 10 years. In addition, she noted that *TESOL Quarterly* was the only journal of the four to have published a list of qualitative research guidelines.

[4] The adoption of a clearly defined list of qualitative research guidelines by *TESOL Quarterly* counters the notion that such research is undemanding. The published guidelines provide specifications for the collection, analysis, and reporting of data in order "to ensure that studies are credible, valid, and dependable rather than impressionistic and superficial" (Qualitative Research Guidelines, 1998).

[5] Schmidt and Frota's (1985) diary study and linguistic analysis is often cited in the literature as a successful blending of both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection and analysis. Schmidt, an applied linguist and researcher, documented his experiences learning Portuguese in Brazil in a diary study which was combined with a quantitative analysis of his linguistic progress conducted by Frota, his Portuguese teacher and tutor.

[6] Despite the unquestionable differences between the two approaches, Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) describe an emerging awareness among some qualitative researchers that positivism and naturalism share some important similarities as well, including an adherence to a "model of natural science" and to the conviction that the researcher's values and commitments should not sway or affect the research process (pp. 10-11). Thus, a cadre of researchers have raised doubt about the ability of traditional ethnography to "portray the social world" and they have questioned the ethnographer's ability to be neutral, championing, instead, more politically engaged forms of ethnography (pp. 10-11). Lincoln and Guba's (1985) comparison of the naturalist and positivist axioms reflects to some degree the current sensibility within ethnography which recognizes the value- and context-bound nature of inquiry (p. 37).

[7] Van Lier (1988) has taken issue with the view, expressed here by Ellis (1990), that the strength of ethnography is in its ability to generate or suggest hypotheses that may be then tested through quantitative or psychometric methods. Van Lier calls this view the 'weak view' of ethnography, while he subscribes to the 'strong view,' the idea that ethnography is a valid approach to research in its own right and not merely a prelude to positivist studies.

[8] This finding is similar to the Pedagogical Grammar Hypothesis, which has been proposed by Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1988):

Instructional strategies which draw the attention of the learner to specifically structural regularities of the language, as distinct from the message content, will under certain specified conditions significantly increase the rate of acquisition over and above the rate expected from learners acquiring that langauge under natural circumstances where attention to form may be minimal and sporadic (p.4).

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to give an overview of the methodology employed in the present study. The chapter begins with an introduction of the researcher, participants, and the research setting. Then the principle research questions of the study are outlined. Finally, each of the data collection phases is described with regard to its intent and the methodology used. Because the study used a predominantly qualitative approach to data collection, one of the important goals of this chapter is detailed disclosure and thick description of each of the stages of data collection.

Researcher

The research took place at the intensive English program (IEP) where I am an instructor. At the time I began to collect data for the present study, I had been employed in the IEP for nearly six months as a part-time instructor, tutor, and substitute teacher. Despite having been employed at the IEP, with the exception of one student, whom I had taught briefly several months before, I began the study unacquainted with the students in the Level 4 grammar class who participated in this study. During the session in which the major part of the research was conducted, I was sharing an office with Wendy, the ESL teacher whose Grammar 4 class I observed as part of my research. At the time Wendy agreed to participate in the research project, we were casually acquainted. She hoped participation in the project would help her develop as a teacher and having recently finished a classroom research project for her master's thesis, she was happy to help others involved in similar projects.

I decided to undertake the present study involving ESL grammar learning and transfer for two main reasons. First, having been, at various times, both a student and teacher in the language classroom, I have been fascinated with the structure of languages and how they function. I remember thinking as I was studying German grammar in college that constructing a sentence in German was very similar to assembling a puzzle as I sought to align genders, articles, verb forms, and noun forms into a functional sentence. Indeed, initially it seemed impossible as a student to consider the many grammatical requirements of the German language as I was attempting to speak. Still, sometime after having studied the language for many years and while living in a German-speaking environment, I made the mysterious transition from laborious effort in constructing sentences to what McLaughlin (1990) would call automaticity. Clearly, as the history of language pedagogy reminds us, familiarity with grammar in no way ensures communicative ability. However, in my own experience and in that of my students, there has appeared to be a connection between knowledge of structure and the eventual ability to employ that structure in communication. Thus, the question of the utility of learning grammar, specifically when and how such learning becomes accessible to the learner in production, has long been of interest to me as a teacher and as a learner.

My interest in grammar teaching and learning became more focused when, as a graduate teaching assistant, I taught an intermediate grammar course for matriculated ESL students at a large university on the West Coast. The majority of the students in the class were immigrants who had learned colloquial English in American public schools without having studied formal English grammar. For many of the students, my class or its

precursor provided the most extensive exposure to English grammar the students had had during their education. Despite the initial dismay of many of the students at being mandated to take the required course, after the course began, a number of the students expressed relief at finally being given the tools to correct and edit their own writing; however, their writing provided conflicting evidence of the effectiveness of the grammar curriculum. As a teacher, I wondered whether the traditionally challenging grammar structures covered in class, ranging from a review of the tense system to article usage, found their way, appropriately used, into the students' written work for their content courses. I also wondered about the impact of the grammar they had studied on their use of English outside of school. Not surprisingly, these questions remained unanswered, as a teacher is given few glimpses into the lives of his or her students outside the classroom.

As a result of my experience teaching the ESL grammar course for matriculated students and my natural interest in language structure, the seeds for the current study were planted. Having moved away from the institution where I had received my graduate education and having begun to teach in the IEP of a large land-grant institution in the West, I no longer had contact with the matriculated immigrant learners whom I had taught earlier. Accordingly, I decided to focus my research on the experiences of ESL students who were learning grammar in an IEP. Although I am interested in the extent to which grammar instruction transfers to all areas of a student's language usage, due to constraints of time and feasibility, the current study is limited to the extent to which grammar learning transfers to the students' work in their reading/composition class and to a Picture Description Task (PDT) outside of class.

Participants

The research participants were Level 4 ESL students at the intermediate level in a mid-sized intensive English program (IEP) located at a large land-grant university in the Pacific Northwest. The students were enrolled in an ESL grammar class which met three times weekly for 50 minutes at a time. They were also enrolled in a Reading/Composition class, which met daily for a total of 9 hours per week. The students were enrolled for a total of 21-23 hours of ESL instruction per week, which included Grammar, Reading/Composition, Listening/Speaking, and one or two elective courses covering a variety of topics.

The learners, the majority of whom were from Asian countries, ranged in age from their late teens to mid-thirties. Most of the students wanted to study at an American university, in many cases the parent institution of the IEP, although some were learning English in order to pursue job-related or personal goals in their home countries. The university where the IEP is located recognizes completion of the IEP's Level 5 as fulfilling the English proficiency requirement for entrance into the university. Thus, many of the students in the study, all of whom were in Level 4, were planning to become undergraduates at the IEP's parent institution after completion of the next level (Level 5) in the program.

After I made a class announcement describing my study and asking for volunteers (see Appendix 1 for the information sheet I gave to Level 4 students), all 15 students in the Level 4 Grammar class signed up to participate in the study. In actuality, however, the students were not all able or willing to participate in each phase of the research. Table

3.1 lists the participants and their level of participation in each of the five phases of the research . Pseudonyms have been used for all of the individuals participating in the study.

While I had a positive response to my initial request for participants with all of the students agreeing to participate, it became clear in the first two phases of my research that two of the three Arab students seemed unable to participate fully. However, each of these students participated in at least 2 phases of the research: Abdullah in Phases 1 and 4, Adly in Phases 2 and 4, and Jabbar in Phases 1, 2, and 4. Although their participation in the research was limited, I retained the data I had collected from these students in order to preserve as much diversity as possible among the participants. Aside from the uneven participation among this group of students, the level of participation on the part of the students as a whole was consistent and quite enthusiastic.

Originally expecting a much smaller group of students to be interested in taking part in my study, I was surprised when Wendy's entire class of 15 students expressed interest in participating. While I initially considered limiting the number of participants, I finally decided to incorporate all of the students into my study because I felt I could learn more from a larger group of participants. Although having 15 students participate in the study contributed to a larger workload for me as a researcher, it was a manageable task. I had sufficient opportunity to speak with each of the participants numerous times and to collect data relevant to each participant through the five phases that comprised the research study.

Participants and their Level of Participation by Phase

Table 3.1

Name	Gender	Age	Country	Phase 1: Questionnaire	Phase 2: Interview #1	Phase 3: Interview #2	Phase 4: Writing	Phase 5: Follow-up
Abdullah	M	35	Saudi Arabia	X			X	
Adly	M	19	Kuwait		X		X	
Curt	M	23	Korea	X	X	X	X	X
I-Fong	F	29	Taiwan	X	X	X	X	X
Jabbar	M	21	Bahrain	X	X		X	
Jong-Ho	M	29	Korea	X	X	X	X	
Juan	M	28	Mexico	X	X	X	X	X
Ling	M	21	Taiwan	X	X	X	X	
Masaaki	M	21	Japan	X	X	X	X	X
Miki	F	23	Japan	X	X	X	X	X
Rob	M	19	Japan	X	X	X	X	X
Sang-Jun	M	29	Korea	X	X	X	X	
Yoshi-nori	M	22	Japan	X	X	X	X	X
Yousuke	M	18	Japan	X	X	X	X	X
Yukiko	F	23	Japan	X	X	X	X	

Note. An "X" denotes participation.

Participant Profiles

The following section provides an introduction to each of the participants in this research project. Pseudonyms have been provided for each of the participants.

Abdullah: Of all of the participants, I had the least contact with Abdullah, a Saudi Arabian man in his mid-thirties. He completed the questionnaire, but failed to sign up for any of the interviews. I did discover, however, that he had a wife and four young children who had accompanied him to the United States. As a result of his family commitments, he was very busy and found it difficult to keep up with his school work. Abdullah had studied E nglish in Saudi Arabia in high school for three years and had come to the IEP for work-related reasons. At the time the study began, he had been at the IEP for one session. A quiet, reserved man, he was being sponsored by his employer in Saudi Arabia.

Adly: A young Kuwaiti in his late teens, Adly had been at the IEP for 5 months when the study began. He participated in just one interview; however, I got to know Adly much better in a later session when he was a student in one of my classes. Adly had studied English for 8 years in junior high and high school before coming to the IEP. He was attending the IEP in order to eventually enroll at Northwest University as an undergraduate in Engineering. Adly was a very personable, talkative young man, who did not appear to spend very much time on his studies. He entered Northwest University as an undergraduate in the year 2000 summer term.

Curt: Curt, a Korean college student in his early twenties, had studied English in middle school and high school in Korea, as well as during his first two years of university.

After his sophomore year in college, he served his mandatory stint in the Korean military, and after he was finished, he came to the U.S. to study English at the IEP for six months before returning to his studies. At his university in Korea, he had been studying international trade and economics, and he said that he hoped to work as a fund manager for an international company someday. He also had plans to attend an American graduate school in the future. A friendly, outgoing young man, Curt enjoyed playing basketball and computer games. Curt repeatedly told me that he was not confident of his English ability or grammar knowledge; however, he did well in his classes and was an extremely hard worker. He graduated from the IEP's Level 6 and returned to his studies in Korea in December 1999.

I-Fong: A 29 year-old Taiwanese woman, I-Fong, had studied English for 6 years in secondary school. She had graduated from a Taiwanese university with a degree in early childhood education and had worked as a pre-school teacher in her country before coming to the U.S. Although she had initially hoped to enter graduate school in the U.S., she changed her mind once she had been at the IEP for 6 months. By that time, she missed her family and was exhausted from studying English around the clock. Although I-Fong hoped to use English in her career once she returned to Taiwan, she was also learning English at the IEP because she liked the language. She told me that English to her was "like a song, a kind of drama" and that learning was "fun." She also liked the American form of education, which she referred to as "open education." A gentle, sensitive woman whose main interest was traveling, I-Fong was a curious and dedicated student who studied diligently for her classes, which she found difficult. In fact, she told

me that she did nothing but go to class, study, eat, and shower. When I interviewed her later as a Level 5 student, I-Fong was very tired and homesick. She had given up her dream of attending graduate school in order to return home.

Jabbar: One of a growing group of Arabic-speaking young men who had begun attending the IEP, Jabbar was 21 years old and from Bahrain. A good-natured, extroverted individual, he had studied English in his home country beginning in the 4th grade. At the time he participated in the study, he had been in the U.S. for 9 months, having studied at an IEP in Texas before coming to Northwest University. Jabbar had attended an English-speaking university in Bahrain, but he had been dismissed because of poor grades. He told me that he had spent time with friends instead of studying. He told me he had had too many distractions in his home country, and, as a result, his parents had sent him to America. Since coming to the U.S., Jabbar told me he had become more motivated and wanted to attend an American university. In Fall 1999, he transferred to a community college. A very likable young man, Jabbar began a friendship with a fellow student, Yukiko, with whom he studied. She also acted as an advocate for him with Wendy when it appeared that Jabbar might not pass Grammar 4.

Jong-Ho: A 28 year-old engineering doctoral student at a Korean university, Jong-Ho had studied English for six years in secondary school and in an intensive program in Korea. He hoped that improved English would help him to get a good job as a research scientist in Korea once he finished graduate school. He mentioned that he especially wanted to become proficient at giving presentations in front of foreign audiences, a skill he would need in his future career as a researcher. Jong-Ho came to the

U.S. in January 1999 and began in Level 1; by the time he returned to Korea in August, he had completed Level 4. A soft-spoken, good-humored young man, he enjoyed mountain climbing and traveling.

Juan: A new student at the IEP, Juan had just gotten married and moved to the U.S. two weeks before the summer session began. Juan was a 28 year-old Mexican college graduate who had gone to a bilingual elementary school in Mexico as a child. From the ages of 6 to 11, he had spent half of each school day immersed in English. As a result, he had become fluent in the language; however, after he left the bilingual school at age 11, he had no further opportunity to practice English until he got married and came to Pleasant Heights, the town where Northwest University and the IEP were located.

While I was conducting my research, Juan's wife was a Ph.D. student at Northwest University, and Juan hoped to either begin studying for an MBA or start a food-related business after studying at the IEP. Having studied food science in Mexico, Juan was interested in pursuing the idea of opening a tamale restaurant in Pleasant Heights. He had found an American partner at his church and was in the process of doing a feasibility study and making plans. Regarding his goals for learning English, Juan hoped to be able to "understand and have correct conversation in English." As a result of his early training in English, Juan said that he often had a feeling about what was correct even though he could not remember explicit grammar rules. A friendly, gregarious, and enthusiastic young man, Juan had made two sets of friends: English-speaking friends whom he met through the local Catholic church and Latino friends whom he had met at Latino night at a local nightclub. Because his wife had lived in Pleasant Heights for three

years before he moved there, Juan benefited from the social network she had constructed. For instance, a local family from the church had "adopted" him and his wife, including them in all family events and celebrations. Compared to the other study participants, Juan was very well-integrated into the community and had many opportunities to use English.

Ling: At the time this study was conducted, Ling had been attending the IEP for eight months. A 21 year-old Taiwanese man, Ling wanted to eventually study Management Information Systems at Northwest University. Ling's goal for learning English was to qualify for a better job in his home country. He was considering working in the U.S. after graduation; however, he said he would probably return to his home country when he was finished with his education. A curious, out-spoken young man, Ling enjoyed playing basketball, exercising, and watching action movies. At the end of the summer session, Ling left the IEP to attend a regional community college; however, he returned a year later to Northwest University as a transfer student.

Miki: A very motivated 23 year-old Japanese woman, Miki had been admitted to Northwest University for graduate study in crop science. However, because she had not attained the requisite TOEFL score required by the graduate school, it was necessary for Miki to enroll in IEP classes. At the time the study was conducted, Miki was in her first session at the IEP, but she had already started to work on a project in the crop science department. She felt pressure from her department to complete her studies at the IEP quickly so that she could start graduate school in Fall 1999. Needing to complete Level 6 or attain a TOEFL score of 550, Miki elected to finish Level 6, which she was finally able to do in December of 1999. In January 2000, she began her graduate studies. Her studies

at the IEP were fraught with tension as her sponsoring department continually threatened her with the prospect of losing funding if she did not make satisfactory progress with her English studies. Miki's immediate goal for learning English was to be able to get a Master's degree in crop science from Northwest University. After graduation, she hoped to return to Japan and get a job as a researcher although she also was considering staying in the U.S. to pursue doctoral studies. A forthright, honest young woman with a likable personality, Maki enjoyed snow boarding and reading novels, especially those by Franz Kafka.

Masaaki: Having attended a Japanese technical college from the ages of 16 to 21, Masaaki had studied English in his home country for eight years, in addition to spending a year studying ESL at a college in Vermont. His goal for learning English was to enter Northwest University as an undergraduate and study mechanical engineering. In the future, Masaaki hoped to work in either the U.S., Japan, or Europe as an inventor, and he assumed his job would involve English in some way. A gentle, quiet, good-humored 21 year-old, Masaaki was never seen without his skateboard; in his free time, he enjoyed skateboarding, snow boarding, watching movies of all kinds, and drawing. Masaaki lived with other Japanese students who were attending Northwest University. When he needed help with his English homework, he would often ask his roommates English-related questions as they were more proficient in English than he was.

Rob: A 19 year-old with diverse interests, Rob was from Japan; however, as he had been born in the U.S. while his father was studying at an American graduate school, he had dual citizenship. Rob stood out among the study participants because, unlike most

of the others, he had already obtained the TOEFL score required by Northwest University (NU) to enter undergraduate studies. Planning to enter NU courses in Fall 1999, Rob had chosen to attend the IEP for one session in order to further strengthen his English proficiency. A highly disciplined and determined young man, Rob credited his success on the TOEFL to his intensive self-study of English grammar undertaken in Japan although he had also studied English in secondary school, in addition to having taken part in an ESL summer program in San Francisco for high school students. His goal at NU was to study either athletic training or zoology; an additional, and very important, personal goal was to play basketball at NU although Rob was not able to try out for the 1999-2000 season as the team roster had already been filled. Rob mentioned several diverse career goals, such as playing NBA basketball, working as an athletic trainer, or studying animal behavior as a zoologist. A good-natured, well-respected young man, in his free time, Rob enjoyed sports, especially basketball, and watching movies, notably movies with a "human interest" theme.

Sang-Jun: Living in Pleasant Heights with his wife and infant daughter, Sang-Jun was a 29 year-old Korean man who planned to study in the MBA program at NU. During the session when this study was conducted, Sang-Jun took the TOEFL and got a passing score, allowing him to enroll as a graduate student at Northwest University for the Fall 2000 semester. Sang-Jun had learned English in secondary school in Korea, in addition to having taken classes later to prepare him for the GMAT and TOEFL. He appeared to have a variety of career options open to him after he obtained his MBA, including returning to his previous job with an international industrial waste treatment company in

Korea, getting a Ph.D. in Business at an American university, and working for an Internet company in California, where he had connections through his brother-in-law. Of all of the study participants, Sang-Jun was the most well-traveled, having spent time over the years in both the U.S. and England as a tourist while visiting numerous family members who were either working or studying abroad. A blunt, opinionated, yet personable man, Sang-Jun told me his interests included watching TV, playing golf and tennis, going grocery shopping (said with a smile), and spending time with his daughter.

Yoshinori: A 22 year-old Japanese college student majoring in political science, Yoshinori had finished his required credits at his Japanese university and was spending his senior year at the IEP at Northwest University. Within his major, Yoshinori's main interest was in Chinese history and the current governmental reforms taking place in that country. When asked about his career goals, he told me that he wanted to get a graduate degree in international relations and begin working as a diplomat with the United Nations before he was 30 years old. Eventually, he said his dream was to become a politician in Japan. An intense, serious young man, Yoshinori had learned English in secondary school and through self-study after graduating from high school. Extremely committed to improving his language skills, Yoshinori discovered during the summer session that a group of Japanese students from his university would be studying at the IEP in the approaching fall session. Concerned that he would feel pressured by his compatriots to speak Japanese outside of class, Yoshinori decided to adopt a Chinese name and attempted to hide his Japanese identity. When he announced his name change in Grammar 4, it came as a surprise to Wendy and most of the students, who at first

assumed that Yoshinori was joking; however, he was serious and did not appear to recognize why others saw humor in his plan to distance himself from his fellow Japanese students. When I spoke with him a few months later, he had returned to using his Japanese name, having found that the students from his university were also anxious to practice their English. Dedicated to fitness and following a healthy life-style, Yoshinori was proud of the fact that he had worked as a bodyguard for a famous person in Japan.

Yousuke: A recent high school graduate from Japan, Yousuke had studied English in secondary school and had already obtained a TOEFL score that allowed him to enter NU as an undergraduate. Like Rob, he was studying at the IEP in order to improve his language skills before fall semester 2000. Of all of the participants, Yousuke seemed the most Americanized; he spoke using American slang and reduced forms like *'cause, wanna, and gonna*, in addition to nearly always wearing a backward-facing baseball cap. Possibly he had adopted these habits because of his strong interest in American football and his desire to play the game at the college level. When I met Yousuke, he had e-mailed NU's football coach in the hope of trying out for the team; however, it was not until the following term that he received a reply from the coach, who then invited him to attend practices and meet the players. While the team for the 1999 season was already complete, Yousuke planned to try out for the 2000 season. In the spring of 1999, before attending the IEP, Yousuke had briefly attended a Japanese university with the plan of studying agriculture. Although he had no particular interest in the subject of agriculture, he told me that the entrance requirements were low and he was, therefore, able to gain admission. Soon, however, he was notified of his acceptance to NU, and he decided to

pursue his studies in the U.S. in lieu of remaining in Japan. Despite the fact that he planned to study athletic training at NU with the goal of working as a strength coach in the future, he told me that if he were to be given a spot on the university's football team, he would readily change his major to something less demanding. It was clear in speaking with him that athletics, rather than academics, were his priority although he did not appear to neglect his studies. Not surprisingly, in his free time, Yousuke enjoyed sports of all kinds, especially football and soccer. An easy-going, yet determined, young man, Yousuke kept in touch with me after the study ended. Taking me up on my offer of help in grammar and writing for students who participated in my study, Yousuke periodically came to my office with questions about editing and organizing essays.

Yukiko: A gregarious, insightful 22 year-old from Japan, Yukiko came to the IEP with very clear goals. Having already graduated from a Japanese university, she had studied English for many years before traveling to Seattle, where she initially began taking English classes at a private language school. Accompanying her mother, who had gone to Seattle for cancer-treatment, Yukiko cared for her mother and studied English at the same time. After her mother's death, Yukiko resumed her English studies; however, this time she enrolled in the IEP at NU. Like Rob and Yousuke, Yukiko came to NU with the goal of studying athletic training. Having experienced a painful knee injury which required surgery, Yukiko, a tennis player, had not had access to a trainer or knowledgeable therapist. Convinced that she could only regain the use of her knee through rehabilitation, she read books on the subject and talked to people who were informed about treating knee injuries. After six months of self-structured rehabilitation and therapy, Yukiko was

able to again play tennis on her university's team. As a result of her experiences, she decided to become a sports injury specialist in order to help others. A talented young woman, Yukiko enjoyed sports and playing the violin. She began taking undergraduate courses at NU during Fall semester 2000.

Instructor Profile: Wendy

An ESL instructor in her mid-thirties, with overseas teaching experience in Japan, Wendy had worked at the IEP intermittently for three years; however, she began to work full-time as an instructor and student advisor in summer 1999. She graduated with her Master's degree in TESOL in 1998, and having finished her own thesis so recently, she was happy to assist me with my research by allowing me to observe her Grammar 4 class. Although Wendy had taught grammar before, she had not developed a signature approach to teaching the subject; thus, the summer session of Grammar 4, which I observed, proved to be an opportunity for Wendy to experiment with a variety of techniques.

Having taken her M.A. course work in the last 5 years, Wendy had been strongly influenced by communicative methodology, which often emphasizes inductive methods and has traditionally discouraged teacher-based explanations and presentations. Thus, in the past Wendy reported feeling guilty when she gave teacher-fronted grammar explanations. Explaining her past experience as a grammar teacher, Wendy commented,

> I think my approach had been this overwhelming guilt factor that if I didn't get the students active and talking immediately, then something was wrong if I was up there in front of the class explaining something. So then I you know saw through my first class that really they needed more explanation before they did things and they needed more models of how to do things and um so then for this class I decided, 'Oh, it's not such a bad thing for the teacher to stand up there and give an explanation. I'm gonna try that!'

[Laughing] (Interview 9/30/99).

Seeing one of her goals for the summer to be professional development, Wendy decided to experiment with a more deductive approach to teaching grammar. As a result, in the first part of the session, she began to experiment with a short grammar presentation on overhead transparencies which she went through with the students after they had finished correcting their homework. Realizing that she did not know who had come to class prepared, she saw the short grammar presentation as a way to make sure that all students had the same basic level of grammar background before going on to grammar practice activities later in the class period.

Wendy envisioned each Grammar 4 class as having a specific structure, and she hoped having such a ritualized structure would help students feel more secure by allowing them to know, in part, what to expect each day:

> I guess the overall class structure, I just thought um you know coming in, correct their homework, talk about their homework amongst themselves, and then if they could get it, then I'd help. And then a small teacher presentat ion of the actual grammar point, and then a practice of it. Um that was sort of my overall structure in my head. One of my other things I wanted to work on was just class rituals. Doing the same thing over and over so they would know what to expect from a class. Cause when I first started teaching I thought, "Oh, variety, variety. I wanna try this. I wanna try this. I wanna try this!" And you know, every class would be different and I thought, "You know, they're probably coming in here thinking, 'What in the heck are we doing today?'" So, I just wanted to get also just a basic class structure and follow it (Interview 9/30/99).

Reflecting on the Grammar 4 class after the session had ended Wendy acknowledged that she had faced a number of challenges in teaching the class. First, since Grammar 4 is only a 3 credit class, compared to 9 credits for Reading/Composition 4 and

6 credits for Listening/Speaking 4, students do not have a great deal of time to spend on grammar homework. Thus, Wendy felt unable to assign work that involved extensive writing because she knew that for many students grammar class was "the last priority for all of their classes." Secondly, there were constraints related to the size of the class (15 students) and the amount of time Wendy, who had an 18-hour teaching load, had available to spend on the class. As a result of these challenges and constraints, Wendy adopted an approach based on having students do as much for themselves as possible. In explanation, Wendy said,

> ..so part of my thing is what can they do for themselves that (..) I mean to not do for them what they can do for themselves and they can correct their own grammar exercises but when it gets to paragraphs and things, they can't. Um, so to let them do as much of the work (..) to also help me as a teacher and the workload (.) um but without it being a waste of their time (Interview 9/30/99).

In combination with her goal of having students do as much for themselves as possible, Wendy also attempted to grow as a teacher. She mentioned "trying a different style and seeing how it worked." In the session the data was collected, Wendy was experimenting with short presentations when introducing a new grammar point, a more deductive means of introducing new material than she had used in the past. Further explaining this goal of experimentation with new techniques, she said that she was "just trying to become more comfortable up there in front of the class making a presentation. And uh just saying this is one way to teach and just becoming comfortable with that one way and going on from there" (Interview 9/30/99).

Research Setting

The study was conducted in the IEP of a large, public land-grant university in the Pacific Northwest. The IEP has been in existence for 15 years and serves a fluctuating number of students ranging from a recent enrollment of approximately 60 students to an enrollment of two years ago numbering well over 100 students. As is typical in IEPs in the West, the changing economic fortunes of the Asian countries have had a strong influence on the session-to-session enrollment in this IEP. The university with which the IEP is affiliated is located in a small, rural town with a population of approximately 25,000, which is located 70 miles away from the nearest metropolitan area with a population of approximately 250,000. The IEP consists of 6 levels. Completion of level 4 fulfills the English requirement for most community colleges within the state, completion of level 5 fulfills the English requirement for undergraduate admission to the university where the IEP is located, and finally, completion of level 6 meets the English requirement for students entering graduate school at the IEP's parent institution.

The ESL program has a communicative focus with the courses in each of the levels having a shared theme which changes each session. For example, during the session in which this study was conducted, the theme was "The Family." In their Reading/Composition class, the students read *A River Runs Through It*, by Norman MacLean, in addition to a textbook chapter from an anthropology text dealing with family structures and relationships. In their Listening/Speaking class, the students watched excerpts from the movie *A River Runs Through It* and gave speeches on topics related to the theme of the family. The grammar classes, unlike the other courses offered to

students, are not linked thematically with the chosen topic; however, many teachers try to contextualize grammar instruction as much as possible by drawing on information and vocabulary to which students are being exposed in their other classes. Wendy occasionally used the context of family relations as a context for the grammar lessons; however, she typically used a variety of contexts and topics to introduce the structures covered in Grammar 4.

Classroom Setting

At the time this study was conducted, ESL courses were held in a number of buildings on the university campus. The Grammar 4 class, however, took place in Wallace Hall, the headquarters of the IEP. Built in the late 1950s, Wallace Hall had originally been a dormitory. In the late 1990s, with declining numbers of students interested in living on campus, Wallace Hall became a source of both office and classroom space. The classroom where Grammar 4 was held is found on the main floor of the building. It is a medium-sized, windowless classroom which can comfortably seat up to 25 students. There is a chalkboard on one wall, a table located at the front of the room, a VCR, and numerous moveable chairs with writing desks. The walls are a yellowed, off-white color and there is an aged green carpet on the floor. On one of the walls is a world map.

Data Collection

The goal of this study was to provide a descriptive account of transfer as it occurred, or failed to occur, among a group of Level 4 IEP Grammar students. As a researcher working within the qualitative paradigm, my goal was to provide an account

involving "thick description," a term coined by the anthropologist Clifford Geertz (1973) to describe the rich, multi-faceted nature of ethnographic accounts. Watson-Gegeo (1992) describes thick description as "taking into account all relevant and theoretically salient micro and macro contextual influences that stand in a systematic relationship to the behavior or events one is attempting to explain" (cited in Davis, 1995, p. 434). Davis (1995) observes that providing thick description allows the reader to be a "coanalyst" of the data collected, allowing him or her to either agree or disagree with the researchers' conclusions (p. 448). One of the bases of such description is the principle triangulation, a term which refers to the use of multiple data sources in order to obtain an accurate view of any phenomenon. The following data sources were used in the present study in an effort to better understand the experiences of a small group of ESL students who were studying grammar in an American IEP: classroom observation, field notes, interviews with students and teachers, questionnaires, an elicitation task, document collection, transcription and discourse analysis.

Research Questions

The present study set out to answer the following research questions:

1. What types of grammar-related input are learners exposed to in their grammar class? For example, what structures are introduced? How are they introduced? What types of form-focused practice, activities, and interaction take place in the class over the course of an 8-week session?

2. Do ESL students involved in this study apply what they have been exposed to in their grammar class to their writing outside of the grammar class? What elements of grammar instruction seem to be transferred from one setting to another? Specifically, do students transfer the grammar structures from grammar class to their writing in their Reading/Composition class?

3. Is there a relationship between students' metalinguistic knowledge of grammar (i.e. their ability to talk about grammar concepts and rules) and their ability to correctly use grammar in their writing?

4. How do students perceive the role of grammar in their English learning experience and particularly in their writing?

Research Goals

The research questions above may be simplified and translated into the four following principle research goals:

1. Providing a descriptive account of an intermediate ESL grammar class.

2. Monitoring the transfer of skills and knowledge from the ESL grammar class to the Reading/Composition class and beyond.

3. Understanding the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge of grammar and students' ability to use grammar structures.

4. Learning about students' perceptions regarding the role of grammar in learning English.

In order to address the research goals stated above, a six-part data collection process was undertaken which involved the following elements:

1. Daily classroom observation in the Grammar 4 class

2. Administration of a written questionnaire focusing on students' perceptions about grammar learning

3. Group interviews focusing on students' experiences learning and using English grammar

4. An elicitation exercise involving a Picture Description Task

5. Collection of students' written homework from Grammar 4 and Reading/Composition 4

6. Follow-up interviews with students and instructors.

Each of these data collection methods is described in detail in the following sections.

Classroom Observation

The Grammar 4 class met three times weekly on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday from 11:10 a.m.-12:00 p.m. Over the course of the eight week summer session, extending from 6/9/99 to 7/26/99, there were a total of 20 class periods, of which I was able to observe 18. On Days 1-3, the Level 4 class was divided into two separate sections of seven and eight students respectively, taught by Jenny and John. I observed Jenny's class for the first three days of the session and was planning to conduct my research in her class as she was enthusiastic about my project. However, on Day 4, due to a scheduling change, Wendy was given responsibility for the class. When I approached her about participating in the study, she was willing to take part. As a result, I began regular observation of her grammar class on Day 5.

Role of the Observer

While observing in the Grammar 4 class, I took the role of an observer who was occasionally a participant. When I initially asked Wendy if she would be willing to have me observe her class as part of my research, she readily agreed and mentioned that it would be helpful to have another native speaker in the classroom. She asked if I would be willing to answer students' questions and participate occasionally in role-plays with her in front of the class. I told her that I would be happy to help in any way that I could. Because she was willing to allow me to observe her class and make my research possible, I was indebted to her and, therefore, willing to give up the role I had earlier assumed I

would take: that of a non-participant observer.[1] Although I spent the majority of my observation time sitting unobtrusively in a desk near the back of the room, at times Wendy asked me to circulate among the students during group work and answer their questions, and I occasionally joined Wendy in presenting short role plays using the grammatical structure being taught on that particular day. Naturally over the course of the session, as a result of my presence in their grammar class and through the interviews I held with the students, I became familiar with them and developed a friendly relationship with them. They felt free to ask me occasional questions during or after class, especially when Wendy was busy.

There were, nevertheless, a few instances in which I found my occasional participatory role to be a hindrance and an impediment to collecting meaningful data. For instance, on Day 13, Wendy asked me to join a group of students which was meeting outside the classroom. The students were supposed to be engaged in a speaking activity which required the use of the past perfect progressive tense in describing actions which had taken place directly before other actions or conditions in the past. The handout given to the students presented a list of statements about students in the class and the students' task was to make some suppositions based on the descriptions of their classmates. For example, the example statement provided on the handout read, "Yukiko's eyes were red." And three possible answers were given: "Maybe she had been swimming before the party; Maybe she had had a fight with her boyfriend; Or, maybe she had been cutting onions." When I joined the group, the students were quiet, so I encouraged them to try to come up with some possible explanations for the statements on the worksheet The structure

appeared to be a difficult one for them, and probably as a result, the students continually looked to me to validate their answers. In my field notes from that day, I observed,

> My presence clearly changed the interaction. I kept being asked why I could use the progressive in certain cases. For example, in response to the prompt, "Jong-Ho couldn't walk straight," I told them you could say, "He had been drinking before the party" because this activity had happened soon before he was seen...One of the reasons students turned to me so much was that we were out of Wendy's sight. Ordinarily, I think they would have tried harder... It may be that the students didn't feel ready to use these two structures orally [Note: the past perfect and past perfect progressive]. This experience underlined how important it is to be aware of the role you are playing as an observer. How much of a participant are you? Once you become a participant, students will defer to you and ask you for answers. That's very natural. I think the best is to be fairly uninvolved. When I've observed groups in the classroom, I've answered occasional questions, but I've never been relied upon as much as I was today.

In that instance, it was clearly impossible for me to maintain both the role of objective observer and classroom helper. Thankfully, such situations were rare, and observing in Wendy's class gave me ample opportunity to be both a participant and a non-participant as it seemed fitting.

Field Notes

As an observer, I took notes on the events and activities in the classroom, focusing on the types of form-focused input the students were exposed to and the interaction that occurred during the class hour. The specific foci of my observations were the grammatical structures introduced, the methods used to introduce the new structures, the types of practice and application activities employed in class, and the nature of the form-focused interaction between Wendy and the students. As a note-taker, I kept a running record of the events that took place during each class. I was, however, not always the

most disciplined of note-takers with regard to keeping track of the time at which events occurred. It was not until Day 10 that I consistently began timing my observations. In other words, observations from Days 1-9 in my notes often refer to the tape recorder counter readings rather that the actual "clock time." Nevertheless, my field notes are a detailed record of the events, activities, and interaction taking place within the Grammar 4 classes I observed. Each class period was tape-recorded, and I transcribed segments of the tapes and included these transcripts in my field notes. (see Appendix 2 for a brief summary of each class period).

Tape-recording

I made a tape-recording of each class period I observed. The purpose of the recordings was to provide a back-up to my observation and to allow me access to exact quotes from the participants. On Days 1-3, I recorded from my desk at the rear of the room, which produced a rather poor quality recording. On Days 5-9, I placed the recorder and microphone on a table at the front of the classroom where Wendy often stood while teaching. Although better than the earlier recordings, these recordings did not pick up the teacher-student conversations occurring along the margins of the classroom. Therefore, on Day 10, Wendy began wearing a tape-recorder in a fanny pack with a clip-on lapel microphone. This set up enabled teacher-student conversations to be faithfully recorded at all locations in the classroom. The various recording formats that were used are summarized in Table 3.2.

In any pursuit that relies on technology, technical difficulties are certain to occur. The present study is no exception. Due to an oversight, the batteries in tape-recorder ran

Recording Formats
Table 3.2

Days 1-3	Recorder mounted on researcher's desk
Day 4	No observation due to class rescheduling
Days 5-9	Recorder mounted on teacher's table
Days 10-19	Teacher wore the recorder in a fanny pack and a lapel microphone
Day 20	No observation due to researcher's teaching schedule

low on Day 13 while I was observing, resulting in an incomplete recording. While not the result of low batteries, the recording for Day 19 was also unsuccessful although no reason for the technical glitch could be found. In addition to recording Grammar 4 classroom sessions, the study's series of three interviews were also recorded, with the tape recorder and microphone placed on a table or desk near the students who were being interviewed. In contrast to the classroom recordings, audio-taping the interviews proved unproblematic, as it was possible to place the recorder close to the research participants and obtain high quality recordings.

Questionnaires

On Day 8, 6/25/99, which was a Friday, I handed out a questionnaire to the Level 4 students asking about their language-learning background, reasons for studying English, and their perceptions of the role of grammar in their efforts to learn English (see Appendix 3 for a copy of the questionnaire). Many of the questions on the questionnaire had been piloted in a series of interviews with Level 4 students in the previous session in order to determine their comprehensibility and appropriateness. In addition to some introductory background questions, the questionnaires contained a total of 8 open-ended questions. Due to insufficient class time, the students were asked to complete the questionnaire at home and return them the following Monday. Considering that the questionnaire was not a graded assignment and that it had been given out before a weekend, it was not surprising that only five students returned their questionnaires the following Monday. By Wednesday, however, ten had been returned, and several students told me they would bring their questionnaires to the next class period. Finally, by the end

of the week, I had received 14 out of 15 completed questionnaires.

Interviews

In addition to class observations and questionnaires, a variety of interview formats were used to fulfill the research goals of this project. First, group interviews were used to draw out the students' perceptions about the role of grammar in their English learning experiences. Later, retrospective interviews were used after an elicitation task, the Picture Description Task (PDT), to learn more about the relationship between students' metalinguistic knowledge and their ability to transfer grammatical knowledge beyond the grammar classroom. Finally, follow-up interviews were undertaken during the subsequent academic term in order to stay in contact with the students, discuss with them what they thought they had retained from Grammar 4, and talk about their use of grammar in their current writing assignments.

Pilot interviews

A pilot study conducted in May 1999 involved interviews with a previous group of Level 4 students. A series of questions concerning the students' perceptions of the relationship between grammar and writing were piloted (See Appendix 9). In addition, students were shown excerpts of ESL student writing completed by students of approximately the same proficiency level (See Appendix 10). The excerpts contained both ill-formed and correct examples of the passive and conditional, two structures to which the students had been exposed in their Level 4 grammar class. The main purposes of the pilot study were, first, to test a number of interview questions for their clarity and ability to elicit information from the participants, and, secondly, to assess the

metalinguistic knowledge and ability of Level 4 students, especially with regard to whether Level 4 was an appropriate level in which to conduct the proposed study.

As a result of the pilot study, I found that students were willing to discuss their language learning experiences and their opinions about the role of grammar and writing in learning English. Moreover, when prompted by a series of questions, the students possessed sufficient metalinguistic knowledge and English proficiency to discuss the form, meaning, and use of the passive and conditional, the target structures chosen for the pilot interviews. Consequently, the decision was made to include a number of the piloted questions in the questionnaire that was administered to students in Level 4. In addition, the assessment was made on the basis of the pilot interviews that Level 4 students had attained a level of English proficiency that would enable the majority of students to talk about their perceptions and opinions about the role of grammar and writing in their language learning, in addition to using metalanguage to talk about their understanding of the structures they had learned in their grammar class.

Group interviews

The group interviews, which focused on students' perceptions of grammar, were conducted on 6/30/99 and 7/1/99. The first interviews were intended to allow me to question the students about their responses on the questionnaires and to allow students to share their experiences as students of English, in general, and English grammar, in particular. The semi-structured interviews were conducted in groups of two and three although I interviewed one student, Yukiko, alone when another student, who was scheduled for an interview at the same time, did not come to the interview.

Due to the fact that I was sharing an office with Wendy during the summer session, I arranged to hold the interviews in the office of a teacher who was on-leave. Students typically sat on a couch under the window or on one of the chairs facing the couch, as I did. A tape-recorder and a microphone were placed on a small table near the couch. As the interviews were often conducted around lunch time, I usually provided simple snacks for the students, which were also placed on the table near the microphone. The interviews were usually between 30 and 45 minutes in length.

The decision to interview students in groups was based on two main factors. First, I had a larger than expected number of students volunteer to participate in my study, and I reasoned that using the group format would allow me to meet all of the participants fairly rapidly and assess their level of interest in participating in the research project. Secondly, there is a strong rationale in the literature for using group interviews (Lewis, 1992, quoted in Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995; Persico and Heany, 1986). Persico and Heany (1986) observe that because group interviews allow for

> interaction and discussion among participants, they will produce meanings that are social products and that probably will be quite different from the prior, socially untested perceptions of any single individual. Group interviews allow the researcher to observe the ways in which interview participants stimulate each other and provide clues to the language, terms, and codes that participants share (p. 1).

Similarly, Lewis (1992) argues that using group interview technique may result in answers of greater detail and completeness than those obtained in interviews with individuals (cited in Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995, p. 161). Indeed, without exception, the group interviews I conducted led to animated exchanges of opinion between the participants. I

had the sense that the students enjoyed sharing their opinions and experiences, in addition to comparing their own observations with those of their classmates.

Picture Description Task

Each research participant, with the exception of Jabbar, Abdullah, and Adly, took part in a Picture Description Task (PDT) and retrospective interview during Week 6 of the session (7/12/99 - 7/16/99). The purpose of this interview was to probe the students' metalinguistic knowledge of the passive voice, a structure they had studied two weeks earlier in their Grammar 4 class. These interviews were conducted individually and were semi-structured in nature. The PDT was intended to elicit the use of the passive voice as students wrote sentences to describe a series of pictures. Taken from Joerg Mueller's *Changing Countryside*, the pictures depict a rural German village as it was transformed into an urban area after World War II. The pictures I chose were from 1953, 1969, and 1972. Students were asked to look at the pictures and write at least five sentences describing the changes they saw from one picture to another. They were instructed to use either the active or passive voice (see Appendix 4 for the PDT worksheet). However, the first student to complete the task, Juan, was not given any direction with regard to the choice between active and passive, in order to observe what he would do. None of the sentences Juan wrote were in the passive voice, so consequently, in the administration of subsequent PDTs, I included the phrase, "Use active or passive voice," in an effort to remind the participants that they had a choice in their writing between the two voices. I did not want to require them to use passive because I wanted to discover whether they could recognize contexts where the passive voice would be appropriate, and, conversely,

other situations where the active voice would be appropriate. Later, in the interviews, the choice to use either active or passive became a subject of discussion.

While seated at a desk and looking at the pictures from *The Changing Countryside*, the students were given approximately 15 minutes to write their descriptive sentences. Then directly afterwards, I asked the participants a series of questions concerning the choices they had made while writing the sentences and their reasons for using or not using the passive voice. I also asked the students a sequence of questions regarding the form, meaning, and use of the passive voice in order to gauge their level of metalinguistic knowledge of the structure. (See Appendix 5 for a schedule of interview questions used during the PDT interviews.) Finally, the last part of the interview was devoted to my collecting additional personal data about each of the participants on a variety of topics including their age, goals for learning English, career goals, and interests and hobbies.

Initially, as I undertook this study, I had not intended to include an elicitation device such as the PDT. Rather, I had hoped to interview students shortly after having written essays in their Reading/Composition 4 class. While reviewing their essays, I intended to ask them about their writing strategies and focus on the use of Level 4 grammatical structures in their essays. Although Level 4 students have traditionally been asked to write essays, during the summer session when the research for this study was conducted, the instructor, John, decided to introduce the essay form late in the session. As a result, it became necessary for me to alter my research plans so that I could collect sufficient data. My intention had been to talk with the students about their writing several

times throughout the session; however, in this particular session, such a research schedule was not possible.

In addition to difficulties presented by changes in the Reading/Composition 4 schedule, a review of the literature revealed serious questions associated with delayed retrospective interviews (Cohen & Hosenfeld, 1981; Ericsson & Simon, 1987; Nisbett & Wilson, 1977; Seliger, 1983). Any interview occurring after a task or event may be termed *retrospective* in the literature; the gap existing between the event and the interview may range from a few minutes to many years (Bailey, 1991). Cohen and Hosenfeld (1981) distinguish between *immediate retrospection*, which occurs directly after an event, and *delayed retrospection*, which occurs after a gap of hours, days, weeks, or years. Most important among the criticisms of delayed retrospection is that the informants will forget what they did and their reasons for doing so; thus, they will provide incomplete reports if there is a time lag between the task and the interview (Cohen & Hosenfeld, 1981). With regard to my original research plan, which involved interviewing students after they had written essays for Reading/Composition 4, if I had interviewed students after they had written and turned in their essays, it would have been at least a day, or likely longer, before I would have been able to interview them. As more time elapsed, the likelihood of a complete report on their writing strategies and experiences using Level 4 grammar structures would have steadily diminished. Thus, I opted to elicit writing from the students using the PDT and interview them directly afterwards, in order to increase the likelihood of obtaining reliable reports.

In this phase of my research, I made the decision to focus purely on the students'

usage of the passive or active voice in the PDT. Since students were exposed to six major grammatical structures during the course of the session in Grammar 4, it would not have been possible for me to speak with each research participant about his or her metalinguistic knowledge of each structure. Thus, I decided to focus on one structure, the passive voice, which often presents problems to intermediate learners and which the students had studied two weeks earlier (see Appendix 6 for a list of Grammar 4 course objectives).

The PDT interviews were held in the office of a teacher who was on leave. Students performed the PDT seated at a large desk, upon which the pictures from *The Changing Countryside* were displayed. While the students were completing the PDT, I was present in the room. I had told students that I would be willing to supply them with unfamiliar vocabulary, so occasionally students would ask me a question. Finally, after the students had completed the PDT, I drew up a chair to the desk where the student was seated, and conducted the interview. Each of the interviews was recorded and relevant passages were transcribed for further analysis.

Follow-up interviews

In the Fall I session, which followed the principle data collection phase of this study, I contacted the research participants who were still living in the area and arranged a follow-up interview. When I set up each interview, I requested that each student bring a piece of writing completed during the current academic term. Of the original 15 participants, 8 remained on campus and were willing to participate in an additional interview. In the intervening months, two of the original participants had returned to their

countries (Abdullah and Jong-Ho) , others had transferred to another academic institution (Jabbar and Ling), another could not be reached (Sang-Jun), and others were unable to participate (Adly and Yukiko).

The follow-up interviews were semi-structured in nature (see Appendix 7 for a schedule of interview questions). As in the earlier interviews, I began with a list of questions I wanted to ask, but in many cases I altered the order of my questions and often their wording, depending on the dynamics of each interview. The interviews were held in my office and typically lasted from 30 minutes to an hour. In most cases, the interviews began with small talk and catching up since I had not seen most of the students since the end of the summer session.

I then asked the students how their classes were going and whether grammar was a concern for them during the current term. I also asked them if they were continuing to learn new grammar items. At the time, the students were enrolled in one of two types of academic programs. Two of the students had already enrolled as undergraduates at the IEP's parent institution, while the remaining six were studying in Level 5 at the IEP. Thus, I asked the students to describe the classes they were taking and the types of writing they were expected to do. Next, I asked them to think back to Grammar 4 class and tell me what they remembered having learned. After showing them a list of Level 4 grammatical structures, I asked them if they used the structures currently in their writing. This led to a discussion of the types of writing in which they used the structures, or if they said they did not use the structures, I asked them why that was the case. I also asked them what they did if they had grammar questions while they were writing and what they

thought might be the best ways for them to work on their problem areas in grammar.

Finally, the last half of the interview was devoted to looking at the writing samples the students had brought with them. At first, the participants described the nature of the writing project, which they had brought with them, and then I asked them to locate any of the Grammar 4 structures in their writing sample. Once they had located one of the structures, for example, the past perfect, I asked them questions about how to form the structure, if it carried a special meaning, and why they had chosen to use the structure in the way they did. I had two major reasons for asking them about structures in their writing: First, I wondered if the students were still able to engage in metalinguistic discussions of the Grammar 4 structures several months after the course had ended. In other words, did it appear that transfer had occurred? And secondly, I was curious about whether the students were using the structures, correctly or not, in their current writing. As was the case with the earlier interviews, the interviews were recorded and selected passages were transcribed for further analysis.

A second series of follow-up interviews were conducted a year later in September and October 2000. The purpose of these interviews was for me to collect information about the students and update my records. Because I had not yet completed my data analysis at that time, I was interested in how and what the study participants had been doing during the intervening year. I was especially interested in their academic progress and their assessment of their English proficiency and whether it was sufficient for the university-level work they were being expected to perform. Since many of the students had transferred to other schools or returned home, I was able to meet with 7 of the

original 15 students.

Collection of Written Documents

One of the main goals of this research project was to monitor the extent to which the participants transferred their skills and knowledge from the Grammar 4 class to their other classes. In order to investigate whether transfer of grammatical knowledge occurred in the students' written work, their assignments from their Reading/Composition 4 class were collected and photocopied for later analysis. Because this particular course was the students' principle writing class,the decision was made to monitor students' assignments from the course. During the summer session, five study guide assignments, a midterm and one essay were collected for each student. The Reading/Composition instructor, John, informed me each time his students had turned in a new assignment. I would then borrow the assignments, copy them, and return them to John. Initially, when agreeing to participate in the research, each student had signed a waver permitting the collection of their written work.

In addition to collecting Reading/Composition 4 assignments, I also assembled handouts, worksheets, homework assignments, and tests from Grammar 4. These documents were added to my field notes and used in creating a descriptive account of the Grammar 4 class. The Grammar 4 assignments and tests were also used as an informal tool to ascertain the participants' understanding of the six structures introduced in Grammar 4.

Textbook Analysis

Because the attempt was made to take into account all of the form-focused input

to which Grammar 4 students were exposed, the textbook was also reviewed with the goal of determining the book's approach and the nature of the presentation of grammatical concepts. A daily source of homework assignments and some in-class practice in Grammar 4, the textbook, *Understanding and Using English Grammar* (Azar, 1999), is widely-used and well-known in ESL grammar classes in the United States and abroad. The framework for the textbook analysis was based on models suggested by Williams (1983) and Benevento (1984), who offer a number of criteria for consideration in the evaluation of textbooks for foreign and second language classrooms. The analysis will include the following categories: communicative focus, attention to form, and authenticity. Table 3.3 lists the textbook analysis framework.

The textbook's editor states that the book embodies an "eclectic approach and abundant variety of exciting material" (Azar, 1999, p. xiii). Now in its third edition, the textbook's preface promises an increased communicative focus consisting of "real communication opportunities," "students' own life experiences as context," and "topics of interest to stimulate free expression of ideas" (p. xiii). The new edition is also said to emphasize and encourage interaction among students through the addition of more oral sections, which are suitable for pair or group work. The preface notes, however, that the degree of interactivity is dependent on the teacher's discretion. Finally, the preface indicates that the new edition contains more variety in types of exercises, including more "free response and open-ended communicative tasks," in addition to more writing, speaking activities, error analysis, and "extended-context exercises" (p. xiii).

The Textbook Analysis Framework
Table 3.3

COMMUNICATIVE FOCUS	• Does the textbook stress communicative competence in teaching structural items? (i.e. Does the book provide opportunities for spoken practice and discussion? Furthermore, are there open ended questions?) • Is there a "range of meaningful activities?" (Benevento, 1984, p. 6)
ATTENTION TO FORM	• Does the book provide sufficient examples that include the structures to be taught? (Williams, 1983) • Does the book give students adequate practice to allow them to become acquainted with the formation of the new structure?
AUTHENTICITY	• Is there an "emphasis on use of language in realistic situations"? (Benevento, 1984, p. 6) • Are "language practice exercises situationalized and contextualized"? (Benevento, 1984, p. 6)

In order to focus the textbook analysis, the decision was made to evaluate the book based on one chapter, "The Passive," rather than on the entire book, which consists of 20 chapters and 7 appendices. The chapter was selected because it had been used in Grammar 4 and because the passive voice had been the focus of the PDT and the retrospective interviews. The chapter consists of eight sub-sections, each of which is preceded by an introduction to the grammatical feature consisting of example sentences, in addition to guidance on forming and using the structure. Within the chapter there are 29 exercises provided for student practice. A discussion of each of the textbook analysis categories follows.

Communicative Focus

Of the 29 exercises, 5 of them are labeled as speaking or discussion exercises, and 6 are open-ended or require the student to generate language. Because there is some overlap in the above categories, a total of 9 exercises involve speaking, discussion, answering open-ended questions, or a combination of all three. The 19 remaining practice tasks call for students to fill-in-the blanks, transform sentences, and conduct error analyses. Table 3.4 lists the types of activities found in the textbook chapter and the number of each activity type found in the chapter. Those activity types considered to have a communicative focus, as outlined in the Textbook Analysis Framework (Table 3.3), are underlined in the table. A review of the types and frequency of the textbook activities indicates that the focus of the practice activities is not on building communicative competence in the learners as just 17% (5 of 29) of the exercises involve speaking, and overall just 31% (9 of 29) allow for any creative use of language by the student. In addition to considering the place of spoken activities and open-ended practice in the textbook, is the question of whether the activities are *meaningful*. In other words, are students allowed to generate their own language and given choices in terms of topics and the grammatical forms they use? A review of the textbook exercises, showed that again only 6 of the exercises, or 20%, allowed students to select their own themes and create original sentences. The following exercise types were seen to be relatively meaningful in that they allowed for student expression and choice of topic: using selected verb forms in a dialog, in which the topic was open; writing sentence-level test items given cues; writing a paragraph about how to make something and allowing

Textbook Activities by Type and Frequency
Table 3.4

Fill in the blank	14
Transformation (active to passive and vice versa)	6
Creating open-ended sentences given cues (oral or written)	2
Creation of a structured dialog (Students given cues)	2
Creation of an unstructured dialog (Ss given some cues)	1
Error analysis / editing	1
Metalinguistic analysis (Ss discuss why the use of the passive inappropriate or inappropriate)	1
Writing a paragraph in response to a prompt	1
Writing test items given cues	1

students to choose their own specific topic; and, finally, completing sentences with personal information given prompts.

Attention to Form

With just 31% (9 of 29) of the activity types involving spoken practice, open-ended formats, and the opportunity to use language in a meaningful way, the book appears to place a fairly low level of importance on building communicative competence in the students. Despite the editor's promises that the book stresses "real communication"(p. xiii), in actuality, the focus appears to be to expose the students to extensive form-focused practice. Indeed, 20 of the 29 exercises included in the chapter, or 70% percent, were either fill-in-the-blank or transformations.

In order to prepare students to complete these form-focused activities, the book exposes students to numerous examples--ranging from two to as many as 16--and grammar explanations at the beginning of each section in the chapter. The form-focused aspect is a strength of the book in that the explanations are uniformly clear and detailed. While the approach to grammar explanations is generally prescriptive, rather than descriptive, occasional references to usage may be found in the chapter. For example, the author notes variations in American and British usage, in addition to mentioning that a specific form of the passive, the "get-passive" is predominantly found in spoken language (p.232). Based on the ubiquity of the author's grammar explanations, examples, and form-focused practice, the degree of attention to form in the textbook is unquestionably very high.

Authenticity

Authenticity in grammar exercises may refer to whether students are expected to

use language in realistic ways in believable, contextualized situations (Benevento, 1984). A review of the exercises in the textbook chapter revealed that in most cases, the exercises consist of sentence-level items, which do not share a context with the other questions in an exercise. Even in the few exercises that are open-ended, the prompts and cues are usually random in topic with no over-arching theme or context. The sole exercises that are linked thematically are a transformation exercise and a writing assignment, share the theme of explaining how to make something. The theme, however, does not extend beyond these two neighboring exercises. Due to the predominance of sentence-based grammar exercises which cover a number of random topics, the text exercises can only be described as lacking a contextualized or situationalized component.

Textbook analysis: Overview

Because Grammar 4 students were assigned daily homework from the textbook and spent part of each class period correcting these textbook exercises in small groups, the textbook became an important source of form-focused input for the students. While many ESL grammar books have attempted to build in authenticity through the use of chapter-based topics and themes, *Understanding and Using English Grammar* has resisted this trend. With its focus on fill-in and transformation exercises at the expense of open-ended, more meaningful activities, the book's communicative focus is low. While a low communicative focus must not be synonymous with attention to form, the inclusion of numerous examples and grammatical explanations, in addition to the highly structured grammar practice exercises, mark this textbook as highly form-focused. Finally, the almost complete lack of contextualized or situationalized exercises in the evaluated chapter reveal the low level of authenticity present in the textbook.

At several points during the session, Wendy mentioned her dissatisfaction with the

Grammar 4 textbook. Chosen by a curriculum committee at the IEP, the textbook had been designated for use in Level 4 and teachers were not given freedom to choose an alternative[2]. Reflecting on the text at a later date, Wendy said she had found the text to be "highly structured with practice on the form but not necessarily the meaning and use" (Personal communication 4/3/00). Nevertheless, she observed that while the text needed to be supplemented with more communicative activities, it could be very helpful for students who were learning the grammatical forms for the first time and needed extensive form-focused practice. Moreover, she noted, that the text could be adapted to many communicative situations; for instance, she noted that simply having students correct and discuss their homework from the book together in groups would be an example of a communicative activity although the book exercises, themselves, were without context and very structured in nature.

Summary

Employing a qualitative approach to data collection, one of the primary goals of the researcher in Chapter 3 was to provide detailed disclosure and thick description of the study's research goals, the participants, and the research setting. In addition, this goal of detailed description was extended to each of the phases of data collection, which included regular classroom observation and recording, the use of a questionnaire with open-ended questions, a series of four interviews conducted using a variety of formats, and finally, the collection of students' written work from their grammar and composition classes.

Notes to Chapter 3

[1] I saw the adjustment in my observation role as an issue involving reciprocity. The spirit of reciprocity, which Glazer (1982) defines as "the exchange of favors and commitments, the building of a sense of mutual identification and feeling of community" (quoted in Glesne & Peshkin, 1992, p. 122) is important in all types of research involving human participants; however, qualitative researchers may struggle more with carrying out the concept because of the "time involved and the nature of the relationships developed between researchers and their others" (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992, p. 122).

[2] During the Spring II, 2000 session, the IEP began to pilot a new grammar book series, which has chapter-level contexts and a more communicative focus.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Introduction

The present study relied predominantly on qualitative methods of data analysis in working with field notes, questionnaires, and transcripts of classroom interaction and interviews. The goal of the analysis phase of the study was to develop a "grounded theory" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), based on themes that emerged from the data. Following an overview of the analytical frameworks employed in the study, the data collected for each of the research questions will be presented.

Data Analysis

The majority of the data collected were analyzed in keeping with the naturalistic, qualitative tradition, which follows an inductive, rather than deductive, pattern (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), the major concern in qualitative data analysis is finding

> the best means to 'make sense' of the data in ways that will, first, facilitate the continuing unfolding of the inquiry, and, second, lead to a maximal understanding (in the sense of *verstehen*) of the phenomenon being studied in its context (p. 225).

The approach used to "make sense of the data" is that of *Grounded Theory* (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) , a term which describes the process of letting themes emerge from the data through "systematic and intensive analysis of empirical data in a microscopic detailed fashion" (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995, p. 297). The researcher then reviews the data, codes it, and organizes the ideas which have become salient as a result of the analysis process. Implicit in the analysis process is a concern with the

> explanatory validity of the claims being made. This will mean constantly moving backwards and forwards between data and analysis, and between data and any theories and concepts developed, and between the data, and other studies or literature (p. 297).

Qualitative methods of analysis were thought to be appropriate for the present study because of the descriptive nature of the research, which had as its goal the better understanding of the grammar classroom and the degree to which transfer occurred in students' writing. The nature of the data collected–interview transcripts, questionnaires, students' writing, and field notes–lent themselves to the "systematic and intensive analysis" referred to by Hitchcock and Hughes.

While the bulk of the data were analyzed using qualitative methods, I found it necessary in two phases of the analysis to utilize quantitative methods, which at different times included the use of tallies, descriptive statistics, and a simple test of correlation, the Spearman-rho Rank Order Correlation (The rationale for choosing this test will be described in detail later in Chapter 4). These methods of analysis were applied to the analysis of the passive sentences written by students during the PDT and to the analysis of students' written work collected in their Reading/Composition 4 class. Although qualitative research, the paradigm to which this study adheres, is generally assumed to utilize qualitative methods of data collection and analysis, Allwright and Bailey (1991) have argued that four possible combinations of data collection and analysis are possible, thus complicating the notion of two unrelated categories of research:

1. Quantitatively collected data can be analyzed using quantitative means (as is common in statistical studies).
2. Data collected quantitatively can be analyzed qualitatively.
3. Data collected qualitatively can be analyzed quantitatively.

4. Data can be collected qualitatively and qualitatively analyzed.

The present study makes use of approaches three and four above.

Transcription:

The recordings of the Grammar 4 classroom sessions and the three sets of student interviews were carefully reviewed and relevant sections were selected for transcription. From the Grammar 4 tapes, I primarily selected form-focused exchanges between the teacher and students, or among students, for transcription. When reviewing the interview tapes, I typically chose to transcribe sections that were comprehensible and directly related to the interview topics. Often, however, a student might say something tangential to the question I had asked, but which was relevant to the overall topic of grammar learning and transfer, and this segment would be transcribed as well. The detailed transcripts created during this phase of the research were added to my field notes. (See Appendix 8 for a list of transcription conventions used in the present study.)

Discourse Analysis:

In the last 30 years, numerous approaches to the analysis of naturally-occurring spoken and written language have arisen out of a variety of disciplines, including linguistics, sociology, psychology, and anthropology (McCarthy, 1991, p. 5). The concern of discourse analysis has been to better understand "how real people use real language, as opposed to studying artificially created sentences" (p. 1). While the field of discourse analysis has traditionally occupied itself with endeavors intending to better understand form and convention in written and spoken language, any study which utilizes naturally occurring spoken data as an object of inquiry could be classified as utilizing a type of discourse analysis. Riggenbach (1999) observes that taking a broader view of discourse "implies that constituents of text are not the only worthy areas of study and that

equally important are such matters as the inferencing of meaning by readers and listeners and the social dynamics that shape speech events and influence the learning environment of the language student" (p.2). With a focus on teacher-student interaction, elements of form-focused input found in the classroom, and learner practices and preferences, the present study is oriented toward what Riggenbach refers to as the study of "macro-oriented" social structures within discourse (p. 4). Specifically, the discourse in the present study consists of transcripts of classroom sessions and student interviews, in addition to students' composition and grammar assignments; all of these data sources consist of naturally-occurring "real language." Rather than focusing on the *form* of the utterances as, for example, conversation analysts would do (Schiffrin, 1994), analysis in this study, rather, concerns itself most closely with the *content* of the utterances.

Classification and Coding:

A range of types of data were collected for this study, including classroom and interview transcripts, field notes, questionnaires, and student assignments. Thus, a variety of analysis techniques were used for each of the data types, and the approaches used included both qualitative to quantitative methods. For example, in seeking to answer research question one, which was concerned with the types of form-focused input students encountered in the classroom, I analyzed field notes and classroom transcripts for instances of form-focused input, seeking to categorize the types of form-focused input I found. Next, in considering research question two, which addressed the transfer of grammatical instruction, the analysis became more quantitative as the Grammar 4 structures found in the students' writing were identified, categorized by structure, and counted in order to learn more about the extent to which students used their knowledge of Grammar 4 structures in their Reading/Composition class. Further, in seeking to

explore research question three, the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and students' abilities to use grammatical structures, I used a hybrid analytical pattern which relied on quantitative methods–counting students' uses of the passive voice–and qualitative methods–thematic analysis of interview transcripts. Finally, in exploring research question four, which addressed students' perceptions of the role of grammar in their language learning, I relied primarily on thematic analysis of interview transcripts and questionnaires. The data analysis methods employed in answering each of the research questions are described in more detail in the following sections.

In the Grammar 4 Classroom: A Descriptive Account

Analyzing Field Notes and Transcripts

The first research goal of this study was to provide a descriptive account of the Grammar 4 class. Because one of the foci of the study was the form-focused input to which students were exposed, the following questions were considered: Which grammar structures were introduced in the class? How were these structures introduced? What types of activities and grammar practice were employed? How can the different interactions occurring in the classroom be characterized? Using these questions as a guide, field notes and transcripts were coded for structure, method of introduction, activity type, participation structures[1], and thematic content.

At length, categories began to emerge from the coded data. First, a typology of activity types was constructed, which emerged from a comment Wendy had made about the three-part structure she envisioned for each class. She mentioned that she intended for each class period to include homework correction, a short teacher presentation on grammar, and grammar practice (Interview, 9/30/99). Indeed, the structure of nearly every class period faithfully corresponded to Wendy's intended structure. Furthermore, a

categorization of types of form-focused input also developed, which provided an overreaching framework for how to view classroom interaction, activities, discussion, and content within the course. The following section, which focuses on research question one, details the following aspects of the course: its content; the types of practice and activities observed; sources of form-focused input; and, finally, the types of form-focused input observed.

Course Content

The Grammar 4 curriculum covers six main grammatical structures: gerunds and infinitives; reported speech; the passive voice; perfect modals; the past perfect and past perfect progressive tenses; and, finally, real and unreal conditional in the present and future. Of the twenty 50-minute class periods that comprised the Grammar 4 summer session, approximately two and one-half class periods were devoted to each new structure, with a short quiz (i.e., 20-30 minutes in length) following each unit.

Each class period faithfully followed a three-part structure that Wendy had adopted early in the session. Hoping to give students a feeling of stability by allowing them to roughly know what to expect each day and intending to simplify her own lesson planning, Wendy decided to use an organizational scaffold which encompassed the following areas: homework correction in groups, a brief introduction of a grammar topic, and grammar practice for the students.

Reflecting after the session had ended, Wendy mentioned further reasons for establishing a ritualized structure within Grammar 4. First, the decision to have students correct their discrete point homework in groups using an answer key corresponded to Wendy's decision to not do for students that which they could do for themselves. Furthermore, the inclusion of a brief grammar presentation which she presented during

each class period using overhead transparencies was borne out of a desire to ensure that all of the students, who varied in the extent of their previous exposure to Grammar 4 structures, had at least a modicum of exposure to the grammar point that would be practiced that day in class. Explaining her rationale for the inclusion of the grammar presentation, Wendy commented that she could not always assume the students had read the textbook before coming to class:

> Even if I say, okay study this chart before you come in, there's no guarantee that any of them have even looked at it. And I can't count on all of them to have that background knowledge when they come in because they might not have done it (..) So I just decided to do the overhead and to be just get more practice with a teacher-focused little point of the lesson instead of thinking, "No, okay, you guys have to do this" (laughter) (Interview, 9/30/99).

Finally, Wendy commented that she had included the grammar presentations because she felt students expected some form-focused information from their teacher. Describing student expectations, Wendy said: "I still think students expect some kind of explanation, some kind of focus like that"(interview, 9/30/99).

While the grammar presentations constituted a predictable, form-focused classroom event, classroom materials also contributed to the grammar-based input available to the students. The materials used in the course consisted of a grammar textbook, *Understanding and Using English Grammar, 3rd Edition (*Azar), which emphasized form and accuracy (see "Textbook Analysis" in Chapter 3 for a thorough analysis of the textbook's approach to teaching grammar); handouts and worksheets, some of which had been created by Wendy and others, which had been photocopied from teacher resource books; and, finally, transparencies used in the daily grammar presentations, all of which had been developed by Wendy with reference to the textbook.

Types of Practice and Activities

Nearly every class period followed Wendy's three-part structure; however, the types of activities and the nature of the practice students received each day varied. Table 4.1 lists the types of activities occurring in Grammar 4 based on Wendy's three-part structure and includes evaluation-related events, such as reviews and quizzes. (See Appendix 2 for a comprehensive listing of the types of activities occurred within each class period of Grammar 4).

Homework correction

Normally homework was corrected in groups of three students who were given an answer key by Wendy. One student was designated each day to read the answers aloud as the students corrected their answers. Most of the students' homework came from the textbook. An analysis of a representative chapter in the textbook (i.e., The Passive),indicated that the majority of the exercises were highly structured (e.g., fill-in-the-blank and transformations). Thus, the discrete point format of the homework lent itself to student self-correction. If students had a question about a particular answer, the students were to discuss the question among themselves and come to a conclusion, if possible. However, if that was not possible, Wendy, who circulated among the groups, could be called upon for further information. The homework correction phase was at times quite

time consuming, lasting as long as 30 minutes on one occasion but normally about 10-15 minutes. While homework was generally corrected in the above manner, there was one day when Wendy read the answers aloud to a cloze exercise students had found challenging. Furthermore, there was another day when pairs were given a few minutes to

Types of Classroom Activities Identified in Grammar 4
Table 4.1

TYPES OF CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES **Based on Wendy's 3-part structure**
I. HOMEWORK CORRECTION
A. Homework correction in groups of three
B. Teacher-led homework correction (Day 14 only)
C. Pair Correction (Day 17 only)
II. INTRODUCTION OF GRAMMAR TOPIC
A. Teacher-led grammar presentation / discussion
1. Using chalkboard (Days 6,7)
2. Using overhead transparencies (beginning Day 9)
3. With reference to the textbook (Days 10, 19)
B. Students working individually on "inductive" worksheet (Day 17)
III. GRAMMAR PRACTICE
A. Group activity - Worksheet (written or oral focus or both)
B. Group activity - Book exercise (written or oral focus or both)
C. Group activity - Role play
D. Group activity - Problem solving (mysteries)
E. Group activity - Discussing / brainstorming (i.e. about homework assignments)
F. Teacher-led class activity-Worksheet practice
G. Class activity -- game
IV. EVALUATION-RELATED EVENTS
A. Quizzes
B. Teacher-led review; Question / Answer sessions before a quiz
C. Teacher returning quiz and discussing specific examples

exchange their assignments, Dear Abby-style letters using perfect modals, and give feedback concerning grammar and meaning. In general, however, homework correction typically took place in groups of three.

Introduction of grammar points

Due to schedule changes, Wendy did not begin teaching the Grammar 4 class until Day 4 when John and Jenny's Level 4 sections were combined. Soon after she started teaching the class, Wendy began to present a short daily grammar presentation on the grammar structure being studied. Designed to focus students' attention and give the class members a common background, the presentations were initially presented using the chalkboard although, beginning with Day 9, Wendy began using overhead transparencies. Drawn from the information given to students in the textbook, Wendy's presentations included example sentences and brief explanations to make the grammar structures clear to students. While the short presentations were usually delivered using an overhead projector, there were rare times when Wendy referred students to examples in their textbooks or gave them an inductive-style worksheet, which asked students to identify grammar structures in use.

Grammar practice

An aspect of Grammar 4 that stood out to me as an observer was Wendy's regular and extensive use of group work. With the exception of two classes, during which quizzes were given, group work occurred in every class period, accounted for a substantial portion of each class, and assumed a variety of forms. At various times over the course of the session, groups worked together on worksheets, book exercises, role play situations, problem solving activities, brainstorming, and homework correction. In rare cases, grammar practice was conducted in a teacher-led activity or a whole-class

activity involving a game. It should be noted that worksheet and book exercises seemed to have either an oral or written focus, which determined the extent to which students spent time focused on writing answers or speaking face-to-face with their group members. In the case of the former, students would generally complete a worksheet or exercise and then compare their answers with the group. In the case of the latter, the focus would be discussion and students would be talking continuously throughout the exercise. In general, exercises with a writing focus were reserved for homework, while those designed to encourage oral communication were chosen for use in class.

Sources of Form-Focused Input

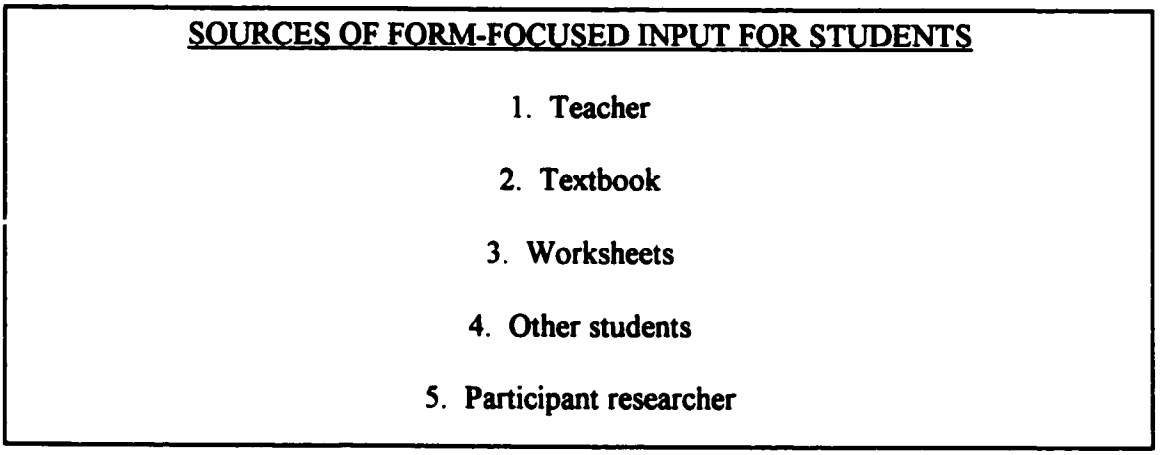
While observing in Grammar 4, it became apparent to me that students were exposed to a wide variety of types of practice and, thus, types of form-focused input. Due to the communicative nature of the class and Wendy's reliance on group work, this input came from a variety of sources. Of course, Wendy's influence as the teacher was of paramount importance in that she answered the students' questions, in addition to structuring grammar presentations and discussions for the class. She interacted with students on a one-on-one basis as she answered their individual questions and led discussions with the whole class. Moreover, Wendy chose the worksheets and activities the students spent time on in class. Although she was not responsible for choosing the textbook, she did have the authority to decide whether to cover some sections of the textbook that were not directly stipulated by the course curriculum. Furthermore, as the course featured a high degree of cooperative work between students, classmates became an important source of form-focused input for Grammar 4 students as they critiqued their classmates' work and strived to answer each other's questions. Finally, as a part-time participant observer, students occasionally received some form-focused input from me in

the form of answers to questions or role-plays presented in tandem with Wendy. Thus, students were exposed to the following types of form focused input summarized in Figure 4.1.

Types of Form-Focused Input

As I coded classroom transcripts and considered the course content, activities, and sources of grammar-based input available to Grammar 4 students, I began to draft a list of categories of types of form-focused input to which students were exposed. The categorization system eventually provided an overriding framework for how to view and understand classroom interaction, activities, discussion, and content within Grammar 4. Table 4.2 lists the categories of form-focused input identified during the present study, followed by a brief description. A challenge was present due to the fact that many segments of teacher-student or even student-student discourse provided multiple types of form-focused input, which made their assignment to a category difficult. At the same time, these types of input appeared distinct and meaningful to me as an observer and researcher; thus, the category system became a means to aid in the descriptive nature of this study, rather than provide an exhaustive listing of every type and instance of form-focused input occurring in Grammar 4. Accordingly, the examples provided for each category of form-focused input in Table 4.2 are intended to be representative and illustrative discourse samples taken from classroom transcripts. In other words, when a discourse sample contained more than one type of form-focused input, I would categorize the excerpt according to the type of input I judged to be the most salient.

Category 1: Form-focused explanation with an emphasis on rule oriented information: Exchanges in this category were characterized by Wendy introducing grammar rules to the students during the short grammar presentations or reminding



Sources of Form-Focused Input in the Grammar 4 Classroom
Figure 4.1

Categories of Form-focused Input with Descriptions
Table 4.2

1. Form-focused explanation with an emphasis on rule-oriented information	Characterized by the teacher introducing grammar rules or reminding students of rules they have learned. Usually involves the use of grammatical terminology.
2. Form-focused explanation with an emphasis on examples	The teacher uses examples to answer a student's question. The teacher may use example sentences or describe a situation to illustrate the use of a grammar structure.
3. Reference to typical usage or meaning	The teacher refers to how a structure is generally used by native speakers (descriptive input) or focuses on the meaning of a particular structure. Reference to meaning may include the teacher simply using the structure in a communicative way with students.
4. Elicitation of the correct structure from the student through questioning by the teacher	The teacher uses a series of questions designed to lead the students to answer their own questions.
5. Correction of the student's utterance by the teacher	The teacher corrects the student by supplying the correct answer or by telling the student that the answer is wrong. No rules, examples, or eliciting questions are supplied.
6. Form-focused input from other students	Students receive grammar-based input from other students with whom they are working. This is a broad category which may include any of the above types of form-focused input: reminders of rules, examples, reference to usage or meaning, elicitation, or correction.

students of rules in one-on-one conversations. Such rule-oriented communication usually involved the use of grammatical terminology and resembled what is often thought of as traditional grammar instruction with its grammar-based explanations. However, within Wendy's classroom a variety of types of form-focused input were available for students, and form-focused input was by no means the most common type of input. In fact, Wendy succeeded in creating a classroom in which students were using the structures to communicate with each other and with her. The discourse samples below represent typical classroom exchanges that used rule-oriented information to expose students to form-focused input.

Conversation 4.1, which occurred on Day 9, was part of one of the short daily grammar presentations used by Wendy to expose students to the grammar topic of the day. The topic was the passive voice, and Wendy referred students' attention to the overhead transparency she was projecting on the back wall of the dimmed classroom. In the discourse sample, Wendy begins to talk about the structure of the passive construction, and then she is interrupted by Jabbar, who is confused by the use of a modal verb with the passive voice that he had seen in his homework. Wendy then responds with a brief explanation to answer Jabbar's unexpected question. She uses both rule-oriented explanation and elicitation to answer his questions and those of another student, Juan, in the following sample:

Conversation 4.1: Form-focused explanation with an emphasis on rule oriented information

W: Okay if everybody can be able to look in the back again, we're going to look at how to make the passive and when you can make the passive. What's the opposite of the passive?

Ss: Active

W: Active, okay. I guess I have to shut the light off. Wanna flip off the light? That's it. Okay, to form the passive, you have a form of the verb be and the past participle of a transitive verb. The past participle usually looks like the

past tense– walked, caught. Usually it's (formed with) -ed.
Jab: (Excuse me)
W: Yeah?
Jab: Here in number 10. Could be written.
W: So written is not is not a regular past tense form because it doesn't end in -ed. So not all of them are regular past participles.
Jab: But could that like could that be the form of the verb be (..)
W: Written is the past participle
Jab: Okay, yeah=
W: =What comes before written in that sentence?
Jab: Could be
W: So in this case it's a form of the verb be plus you could have a modal out here. Could be, might have been, should be, should have been. So you can add a modal to this.
Jua: Modal?
W: A modal. Can, might
Jua: Modal?
W: yes
Jua: M-o-d-a-l?
W: Yes. So we might say, this [pointing to the modal verb on the overhead] is optional, right, you don't have to have it, but you could. All right, so an active sentence..... [Directs students back to the overhead]
(Day 9, c. 166-200)

Later in the same class period after Wendy had presented a short grammar lesson on the formation of the passive, she was asked a question by Juan, who was working with a group of fellow-students. The conversation that ensued is rule-oriented in that Wendy tries to remind Juan about how to form the passive voice. At the same time, Wendy also tries to elicit this knowledge from Juan through questioning, rather than telling him the correct answer.

Conversation 4.2: Form-focused explanation with an emphasis on rule oriented information

Juan: When do you use is and was?
W: Okay, let's take a look at this, next page. So remember, the passive has some form of the verb be and the past participle. So if you look at the first sentence, "Mary helped the boy." What tense is this?
Ss: Past
W: Okay, so the tense is only you're only going to find the tense in the form of the verb be. So here you have the present tense, is. And the past participle. This

past participle will never change. This is always going to be helped, no matter what tense the rest of the sentence is. So let's try to figure this out. If in the active sentence, Mary is helping the boy, what tense is that? (..) present.

Ss: Present progressive

W: So how do you make a present progressive out of be?

S1: Is being

W: Is being, there you go. Is being helped. this is all, this is the chart in your book. Okay the next one,

S? : Has been helped

W: There you go

(Day 9, counter 247)

As in the earlier sample, Wendy uses a brief grammar explanation or reminder to help the students to answer their own questions. In both samples, a short form-focused answer is followed by questions intended to elicit the answer from the students. The overall focus of each exchange, however, is overwhelmingly rule-focused, whereas discourse samples from Category 2 direct students' attention to form through the use of examples.

Category 2: Form-focused explanation with an emphasis on examples: Wendy often used examples to answer students questions, frequently providing students with vivid mental pictures to illustrate the meaning of a particular structure. In fact, examples were one of the most ubiquitous types of form-focused input to which students were exposed in Grammar 4. Wendy used both example sentences to provide students with alternate ways of using a structure (Conversation 4.3) as well as using situations to illustrate the use of a particular grammar structure (Conversation 4.4). Often her situational examples entailed the telling of brief stories or classroom skits featuring Wendy and me (Conversation 4.5 and 4.6).

Conversation 4.3: Form-focused explanation with an emphasis on examples

On Day 7, when reported speech was the grammatical topic, Wendy had written the following verbs and sentences on the board:

say, tell, said, told

She said she loved me.
She told me she loved me.
She said to me she loved me.
She said me she loved me (crossed out)

W: Remember after tell or after told, you need a person or a pronoun. She told me she loved me. She told him she loved him. But after said, there doesn't have to be an object. You have to say after said, you're not saying who she said it to, you're just saying the words. She said that she loved me, but she told me she loved me. The exception for said is to that is if you use this phrase, to plus a pronoun, but it sounds awkward or a very big emphasis. For example, if Curt said, "She didn't tell me she loved me." But Abdullah said, "Well she said <u>to me</u> that she loved me." And you could use this one, but this one is very uncommon, only for emphasis. Questions about say and tell?
S-J: May I ask you something about "She said to me the story" or "He said the story to me." Which one is correct?
W: She said the story (to me.)
S-J: (To me to me or)
W: She said the story to me
S-J: Oh, to me.
W: But we would not say, "She said the story to me." But we would say, "She told me the story." "She said to me the story" =
S-J: =Yeah=
W: =just sounds wrong.

(Day 7, c. 40-60)

Conversation 4.3 above begins with Wendy writing example sentences on the board that illustrate different ways of using reported speech. She includes both correct and incorrect examples. She also includes an example situation in which an awkward variant, "She said to me she loved me," might be found acceptable. Later in the conversation sample, a student, Sang-Jun, asks her a question concerning usage. Thus, in the above sample, at least two broad types of form-focused input are available to students: Example sentences and a situationalized example, in addition to a discussion of acceptable usage. The following conversation sample, 4.4, provides an extended situational example Wendy

related to the class during Day 6, early in the reported speech unit. Wendy had asked the students to tell her the difference between sentences containing immediate reporting and later reporting. When she received no answer, she related the following example.

Conversation 4.4: Form-focused explanation with an emphasis on examples

W: Let me give you um an example. Yoshinori is the teacher and today we are in class and I'm sitting here and I'm reading *The Tribune* and Yoshinori's talking, "Blah, blah, blah, blah, I want you to do page 21." And I say, "Uh, what did he say? What did he say?" And Curt says, "He wants us to do page 21." So , he's telling me immediately what I asked about. But then Abdullah was absent and Abdullah calls me up later and says, "What did he say today in class was our homework." "Oh he said he wanted us to do page 21." So, if you're asking about it right away, that's an exception. It can be an exception. Talk about it later, then you put it in the past."
(Day 6, c.45)

In addition to situational examples, Wendy occasionally introduced brief skits that highlighted the grammatical structures which were being taught in Grammar 4. On at least two occasions, Wendy asked me to participate in a role-play with her in front of the class. Both Conversation samples 4.5 and 4.6 below are taken from these demonstrations designed to introduce a role-play activity. In the former, the grammar focus was reported speech, while the latter provided examples of the use of gerunds and infinitives. In both cases, the students are being exposed to grammatical forms in the context of extended situational examples.

Conversation 4.5: Form-focused explanation with an emphasis on examples

W: Let's imagine that Maria and I have a little piece of paper for each that tells us what we're going to talk about.

M: Okay

W: Blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah [as if reading].
And then we come together for our conversation. Hey Maria could you please substitute for me on Monday?

M: Oh, I'd like to but um I I'm feeling kinda sick and I don't think I'm probably gonna be at school on Monday.

W: Oh, okay=
M: =Um=
W: =Well thanks anyway.
M: Maybe you could ask Sabrina.
W: Okay
W: So then I go to my friend here and say, "Oh, Juan, I'm kinda depressed because I asked Maria if she could substitute for me and she said she was feeling sick, so that she wouldn't be able to do that."
Juan: Oh, bad thing (..) (everyone laughs)
W: Too bad. So something simple like that. Your conversations are gonna be a little bit longer.
(Day 8, c. 27)

Conversation 4.6: Form-focused explanation with an emphasis on examples

W: There are four different situations one, two , three, four– and your directions are on the card. So each group will have a different theme to talk about. And you'll get a list of verbs to try to use. So, for example, Maria and I are in the same group and our directions say, "Plan a birthday party for Jong-Ho, complete with entertainment and food." And try to use these verbs: advise, stop, consider, recommend, enjoy, ask, plan, prepare, remember, want, don't forget and promise." (laughter from the class) So, now we have a little group of friends here and we're discussing his birthday party. I think we should consider giving, Jong-Ho a birthday party because he's going to leave the United States after this session.
M: That's a great idea. You know, I also recommend um making some of Jong-Ho's favorite food. I think we might need to ask some Korean people to help us.
W: Oh, that's a great idea. I think we'd better remember to buy some alcohol because I've heard he likes to drink.
(Ss laughing)
M: Wanda, do you want me to go buy the alcohol(for) the party?
W: (Yes,) don't forget to buy some alcohol.
M: Okay. I promise to buy the alcohol.
W: Okay, and there's more, more verbs.
(Day 5, c.334)

Both of the examples above illustrate the use of extended situational examples to demonstrate the use of a particular grammar structure. In both cases, Wendy used the skits to introduce a class activity, which would be conducted in groups. The role-plays

first presented by Wendy and me also served as an example to the students for how to conduct the activity, itself. Along with example sentences and situational examples, role-plays were used in Grammar 4 to help focus the students' attention on form. In addition to examples, yet another type of form-focused input to which students were exposed were references to the usage and meaning of grammatical structures.

Category 3: Reference to typical usage or meaning: Originally two separate categories, I chose to conflate them in order to reflect the fact that these areas are interrelated and often indistinguishable (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999). Exchanges dedicated to a discussion of usage were descriptive in nature and referred to how a structure is generally used by a native speaker, whereas exchanges focusing on meaning included a discussion of how the form impacts the meaning of an utterance. In addition, reference to meaning could also include the teacher simply using the structure in a communicative way with students. In such exchanges, creating meaning was the purpose of the conversation, and the grammatical form being practiced is simply a means to this end. The following conversation samples provide examples of references to usage (conversations 4.7- 4.9) and meaning (conversations 4.10 - 4.11).

Conversation 4.7: Reference to typical usage
(excerpted from Conversation 4.3)

S-J: May I ask you something about "She said to me the story" or "He said the story to me." Which one is correct?
W: She said the story (to me.)
S-J: (To me to me or)
W: She said the story to me
S-J: Oh, to me.
W: But we would not say, "She said the story to me." But we would say, "She told me the story." "She said to me the story" =
S-J: =Yeah=

W: =just sounds wrong.
(Day 7, c. 50)

Conversation 4.8: Reference to typical usage

S?: If I were, was. Which is correct?
W: Both are in common usage. Both are okay. For the TOEFL, use were.
(Day 7, c. 20)

Conversation 4.9: Reference to typical usage

Note: This conversation took place a few days after Yoshinori had decided to adopt a Chinese identity, which included adopting a Chinese name. For the remainder of the session, he requested to be called Hang-Yi. As was described in Chapter 3, Yoshinori was motivated to take this unusual step because he had heard that a group of Japanese students from his university in Japan would be attending the IEP the following session. Hoping to avoid being pressured to speak Japanese outside of class, he wanted to distance himself from his compatriots by appearing to be Chinese.

W: Hang-Yi
H: Hang-Yi
Ss: (laughter)
H: Which is stronger, had better or should?
W: Which is stronger? You had better study or you should study?
Ss: Should
H: (???) Had better.
W: Really? I think had better is stronger. I feel had better is much stronger. Do you use it stronger? You had better? Yeah
H: Yeah, had better is stronger.
W: Stronger than should. Yeah. The feeling is you had better study or something bad is really going to happen to you. I think parents use that more. (laughs) You had better clean your room now or you're gonna be in big trouble. More for parents to children.
(Day 15, c. 66)

The conversation samples above include teacher-student discussions of how particular grammar structures are used. In Conversation 4.7, which is an excerpt from Conversation 4.3 above, Sang-Jun asks Wendy which of two possible sentences is correct, and she responds by saying that native speakers would not say either. She then tells him what people would say, referring to common usage. Similarly in Conversation 4.8, in a very

brief exchange which took place as Wendy was circulating among groups during Day 7, a student asks about the use of the be-verb in the subjunctive. In response, Wendy distinguishes between common usage, which is very lenient, and the TOEFL, which is more exacting. Finally, in Conversation 4.9, which combines a discussion of both usage and meaning, Hang-Yi (Yoshinori) asks about the difference between the modal verbs, *had better* and *should*. Wendy responds by giving examples of when a person would use either verb after having asked students for their input. The three examples discussed above all include student questions about correctness or how a structure is used. In turn, Wendy's responses are descriptive in nature, referring to common usage. Having looked at several examples of form-focused input referring to usage, it will now be useful to turn to examples of meaning-centered exchanges (4.10-4.11).

In Conversation 4.10, an example of meaning-based, form-focused input, two students, Rob and I-Fong, are working together to solve a murder mystery. The students have been given a description of a murder and a set of cards containing clues. The purpose of the activity was to encourage students to make suppositions about who committed the crime using perfect modals, such as *may have*, *might have*, or *could have*. In the conversation below, Wendy joins the group and participates in the discussion by asking and answering questions. The students use the perfect modal form to talk about the mystery; however, there is no rule-oriented or grammar-based talk taking place. Rather, the focus is on meaning. The grammatical structure being practiced, the perfect modal form, is merely a means to the end, which is solving the mystery. Such communicative, meaning-focused use of grammatical structures is an important source of

form-focused input for students.

Conversation 4.10: Reference to meaning

Rob:	Daniel must have might have killed the victim. Might have
Wendy:	Why?
R:	Uh, uh no uh no no no.
W:	Why do you think he might have killed him?
R:	Uh, no no. Uh Daniel killed to get the money because there is will. Daniel cannot have been killed victim so he doesn't need to kill.
W:	Why?
R:	To get money.
W:	No, he only gets the money after the man is dead.
I-Fong:	Uh
I-F:	He can get the money quickly.
W:	Yeah, the will is, after you die
R:	So, he might have killed
W:	He might have killed him for the money.
R:	For the money.
W:	M-hmm
I-F:	He might have killed.
R:	Killed.
I-F:	Opened, who opened the door? (quietly)
R:	I don't know (quietly). Somebody. So
I-F:	Somebody might have opened the door
R:	And killed the victim. (..) So somebody must have entered.

(Day 16)

While Conversation 4.10 illustrates how form-focused input is present in communicative, meaning-based exchanges, Conversation 4.11 below is centered on meaning and form. The focus of the conversation is the meaning of the phrase " too tired to..." Having just discussed the form of a future-oriented conditional "if clause," Juan now asks Wendy to look at the answer he has written. Sang-Jun also becomes involved in the conversation, determined to understand the meaning of the construction "too tired to..." With its emphasis on "making sense," this discussion of form and meaning provides an example of another type of form-focused input available to students.

Conversation 4.11: Reference to typical usage or meaning

Juan: And here, I don't know here the the uh.
W: You were probably.
S-J: If
J: You will probably be too tired to finish your work today. I wrote, "If I am too tired to finish my work today, I will make it tomorrow.
W: (You have) to say too tired
S-J: (Too tired?)
W: Too tired.
J: If I=
W: = Otherwise, it doesn't make sense.
S-J: (I think too tired,)
J: (If I'm too tired)
S-J: I emphasize tired. I am tired. It's a normal condition.
W: Yeah
S-J: But I use I am too tired. This means I emphasize being tired.
W: Yes
S-J: So, I think, in my case. You do not put in the too.
W: You have to put in the too or it doesn't make sense.
J: If I am too tired
S-J: But what's the different meaning: I am tired, I am too tired.
W: Too tired is you are (so tired) you can't do it. Tired is yes I'm tired.
S-J: (more tired)
W: because I'm more than the regular amount, I can't do something=
S-J: =Aaah. Too tired is I am so tired I cannot do anything. Tired is tired but I can do something.
W: Yeah
(Day 18, counter 60)

Thus, in Conversation 4.11 Wendy emphasized the necessity of using "too" in the construction in order to convey a particular meaning. Sang-Jun initially appeared to be confusing "too tired" with very tired; however, after some time, he recognized what Wendy had been trying to explain to him. While Wendy guided Sang-Jun and Juan in this sample using brief explanations focused on meaning, she more frequently used elicitation to answer students' questions.

Category 4: Elicitation of the correct structure from the student through questioning by the teacher: Exchanges in this category involve Wendy using a series of questions in answer to a students' query. Through her use of questioning, Wendy was often eventually able to lead the student to answer his or her own question. Characterized by an abundance of patience and understanding of students' difficulties, Wendy's use of elicitation was a regular part of her repertoire of teaching techniques. Often employed in conjunction with other techniques, such as brief rule-oriented reminders or an example, elicitation was frequently used as a means of focusing students' attention on form. Because elicitation was used frequently in the classroom, it seemed to be an important source of form-focused input for students, for it trained their attention on the grammatical structures being practiced. Conversation excerpt 4.12, illustrates the effective and regular manner in which Wendy used elicitation to help students answer their own questions.

Conversation 4.12: Elicitation of the correct structure from the student through questioning by the teacher

Sang-J: Is this tense is past or present or futures? [pointing to one of the sentences on the worksheet]
W: This is conditional.
S-J: Conditional. Yeah, I know. But how about the tess? Is the present or the=
W: =The tense?
S-J: Yeah
W: Well. What is this? [pointing to a sentence on worksheet]
S-J: Yeah. Present.
W: Okay, what is this?
S-J: Present
W: Okay
S-J: That's all right?
W: Yeah
S-J: In my country it's not like that. It's a little bit different.
W: Mmm

S-J: We talk a lot about the condition. Real life, present or past. If we mean the future=
W: Look and see. Look and see.
(Day 17, counter 60)

Conversation 4.12 above provides a clear example of Wendy's use of elicitation as a tool to focus students' attention on form. Through a series of eliciting questions posed by Wendy, Sang-Jun is able to answer his own question regarding the tense used in a particular conditional sentence. In Wendy's classroom, elicitation provided an important source of form-focused input for students. Another type of input, used much less frequently, was correction.

Category 5: Correction of the student's utterance by the teacher: Classroom talk in this category involved Wendy correcting the student by supplying a correct answer or by telling the student that an answer was wrong. In the communicative classroom created by Wendy's efforts, such direct correction was very rare although it did occur on occasion but usually only when there was not time or opportunity for a more complete discussion. Examples of brief corrective exchanges belonging to this category may be found below in Conversations 4.13 and 4.14. The first example took place while Wendy was reading answers to a cloze exercise practicing various tenses, including the past perfect; the latter occurred during a discussion of a worksheet focusing on the conditional.

Conversation 4.13: Correction of the student's utterance by the teacher

W: [reading an answer] "I thought about how my life had changed and how wonderful I had become."
Juan: And you could put, "I thought about how my life changed and how wonderful I became." I put the two options, so I=
W: =Yeah, no, I think in this case, you need to put it in=
J: =Past
W: Past perfect

J: Perfect
(Day 15, counter 105)

Conversation 4.14: Correction of the student's utterance by the teacher

W: Yes?
S1: Number 3
W: Yes
S1: Is it possible to "If a woman will work?"
W: No, it's not possible. It's wrong.
(Day 17, counter 88)

While direct correction was very rare, an extremely common type of grammar-based input occurring in the Grammar 4 classroom came from interaction among students in the classroom.

Category 6: Form-focused input from other students: Exchanges in this final category are grammar-based conversations that occurred among students, usually during group- and pair-work. This is a broad category which may include any of the distinct types of form-focused input described in the categories above: reminders of rules, examples, reference to usage or meaning, elicitation, or correction; however, all of the exchanges in category 6 took place in student-student conversations. Because group work played such an important role in Grammar 4, it was necessary to create a category that would reflect the large amount of input students received from each other. Early in the session, I recognized the importance of student-student interaction as an important source of form-focused input, writing in my field notes: "The students do so much pair/group work (most common). There is almost no frontal instruction, so much of the form-focused input in this classroom comes from other students" (Notes, 6/25/99). In fact, Wendy began presenting structured grammar lessons soon after that and as a result,

the amount of teacher-fronted instruction increased; however, group work and the high degree of form-focused input among students remained a striking feature of Grammar 4. The following conversations, 4.15 - 4.16, illustrate how students were able to offer assistance to each other and, thus, provide each other with form-focused input. Naturally, the students' input was not always correct, a fact which at times concerned Wendy; nevertheless, in the exchanges provided below, students' conversations seemed to be effective in focusing group members on form and meaning.

Conversation 4.15: Form-focused input from other students
Note: The following conversation was not recorded; however, I was observing the group and reconstructed the conversation from my notes. The students were taking turns transforming passive sentences into active sentences. Jabbar first read the long passive sentence: "Have you been informed of a proposed increase in our rent by the building superintendent?" And the following conversation ensued:

Jab: I don't know.
S1: Why don't you make a normal sentence, not a question?
S2: The building super is the subject. When you change passive to active, how it is going to change?
S1: You should change to has.
(Then Jabbar reads his answer aloud and almost gets the correct answer. S1 and S2 read it over themselves.)
(Unrecorded, Day 9)

Conversation 4.16: Form-focused input from other students
Note: The following conversation occurred during a role-playing exercise. Two students, Juan and Sang-Jun, have been given a situation to discuss. Then, they are supposed to use reported speech to describe their conversation to a third person, Hang-Yi (Yoshinori).

S-J: It's Friday night. I must have a paper due Monday and I want to work on it. But I have to share a dorm room with my roommate for several months. But my roommate often play music when I'm trying to study and sometimes invites his girlfriend or boyfriend to spend the night and he always asks me to leave so they can have privacy so they can have privacy.
J: So so now you have to use reported speech. (Talking about our conversation)

S-J: (Yeah, yeah. I'm tired of this.)
This is our room too. Can you tell me about advice for this situation?
H-Y: Okay
J: But you have to in the first you have to tell like, "Juan, he asked me, he said me, he told me."
S-J: Tonight is Friday night. I must have a paper due Monday and I want to work in my dorm. But I have sharing a dorm with my roommate for several months. My roommate said to me. Sometimes my roommate often plays the music when I'm trying to study and invites his girlfriend or boyfriend=
J: girlfriend, not boyfriend
S-J: to spend the night (Laughter from all) and asks me to leave so my roommate and friend can have privacy. I am so tired of this, so please tell me about the solution of this situation.
W: Let me stop you. If C has not given advice, you should give advice now.
Y: Uh, I suggest you should uh talk it talk it over with your uh head of dormitory. Did you do it?
S-J: But sometimes we discuss about it and I forgot and I don't mind about my paper and (?????)
W: Let's try to do one more role play before the quiz. (Day 8, counter 50)

In both conversations, students offer a variety of types of form-focused input to their classmates. In conversation 4.15, Jabbar's group members, two Japanese students who are very comfortable with the grammar, attempt to help him through the use of directed questions. Rather than telling him the answer, his groups members, Rob and Yukiko, coach Jabbar, encouraging him to reach the correct answer on his own. Similarly in conversation 4.16, Juan reminds Sang-Jun several times that he should be using reported speech in his summary of the conversation he is describing. In addition, Juan also responds to the meaning of Sang-Jun's statement, telling him that he should be talking about his girlfriend, not his boyfriend. Both examples are a striking reminder that in communicative classrooms a great deal of input available to students comes from fellow students.

Thus, a review of the classroom transcripts and my fieldnotes yielded a wealth of

different types of form-focused input to which students were exposed. While Wendy used a variety of techniques to introduce grammar points, relay information, and answer questions, five basic types of teacher-initiated form-focused input were identified. Interestingly, since group work was such an important feature in the Grammar 4 classroom, communication from other students was another significant type of grammar-related input to which students were exposed.

Transferring Grammar 4 Structures to Reading/Composition 4

While the first stated goal of the present study was to provide a descriptive account of an intermediate ESL grammar class, the second was to monitor the transfer of skills and knowledge from the ESL grammar class to the Reading/Composition class and beyond. In order to study the extent to which learning transfer occurred between the two classes, I collected students' written homework from their composition class. In all, I collected five study guide assignments based on the novel *A River Runs through it*, a midterm exam, and one essay from each student taking part in the study. The assignments were then analyzed for the presence of grammatical structures introduced in Grammar 4. The following section provides an overview of the Reading/Composition 4 class, a description of course assignments and a discussion of the frequency with which students employed Grammar 4 structures.

An Overview of Reading/Composition 4

Reading/Composition 4 is an intermediate IEP course which meets meets 9 hours per week. Taught during the summer session by John, a veteran IEP teacher with extensive overseas teaching experience, Reading/Composition dealt with the topic of

families. The students were expected to read a textbook chapter from an anthropology textbook focusing on family structures in a variety of cultures and Norman Maclean's novel, *A River Runs through it*. Writing assignments drew on information from both sources. (See Appendix 11 for a list of the primary objectives for the course published in the IEP's curriculum.)

A good-humored teacher in his early sixties, John described Reading/Composition 4 as a "discussion-oriented class." He told me that discussion had become even more important during the summer session because of the large size of the class. He saw discussion as a means of testing students' understanding: "The students always say they understand," he said. "So, it's necessary to see if they understand through discussion." Therefore, he had students work frequently in groups discussing the study guide questions while he circulated among the groups. Commenting on his practice, he mentioned that he especially looked for groups that did not appear to be discussing the questions. Then he would try to motivate them through questioning and humor (Interview 7/23/99).

When asked about the role of Grammar in Reading/Composition 4, John responded that it had not played a very important role in the class although he had covered adjective and adverb clauses in class. Transitions, however, had become a main focus in the class as the students had been encouraged to study how they were used in class readings. While grammar had not been a key focus of the class, John said that he regularly called students' attention to grammar structures that he knew they had learned in Grammar 4. An important objective of John's was to help the students see a tie between their grammar, reading/composition, and listening/speaking classes; nevertheless,

he realized that it was not his responsibility to teach all the grammar points. "I couldn't do it," he said, referring to a lack of available class time.

In an effort to help students use correct grammar, John said that at the end of a session he often supplied the students with specific and detailed corrections in their writing. Speaking with me near the close of the summer term, John commented that the students often needed to be given written corrections, rather than editing marks designed to help students correct their own mistakes. The use of such editing symbols had been encouraged at the IEP. After all, he went on, if students make a mistake, it is because they do not know what is correct. When correcting students' work, John would subtract points from the students' scores if they made mistakes on grammar points he felt they should have mastered, given their exposure to them in their classes. For example, students would not be expected to have control over notoriously difficult areas such as articles, whereas John expected words of transition and contrast to be used correctly (Interview 7/23/99).

Course Assignments and Frequency Counts of Grammatical Structures

As a result of John's willingness to cooperate, I was able to collect a number of assignments completed by the study participants in Reading/Composition 4. Then in an effort to learn about the extent to which students transferred knowledge and skills from their grammar class to their reading/composition class, I analyzed the students' writing for the use of grammatical structures that had been introduced in Grammar 4. Because the reading/composition written assignments spanned the entire summer session, the decision was made to look for the grammatical structure that was being taught in Grammar 4 at

the time the homework assignment for Reading/Composition 4 was completed. For instance, when I analyzed the students' first set of study guide questions, which was turned in on 6/23/99, I looked for uses of gerund/infinitive and reported speech since those structures were either being taught at the same time or had been recently taught. Table 4.3 lists the written assignments and exams collected during the study, as well as the targeted grammatical structures.

Structure Use in Written Documents

In order to monitor the transfer of skills and knowledge from the ESL grammar class to the study participants' reading/composition (R/C) class, seven assignments completed by the students for their R/C class were collected. The assignments consisted of five sets of study guide questions, a midterm exam over the novel *A River Runs Through It*, and a five-paragraph comparison/contrast essay.

The seven assignments were reviewed for the use of Grammar 4 structures, which were then coded and categorized as having been used correctly or incorrectly. If the structure was incorrectly used, it may have been due to an error of form, meaning, or use, or some combination of the three. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) observe that it is often difficult to distinguish between the dimensions of form, meaning, and use, in particular the latter two, when considering grammatical structures because "linguistic categories often have fuzzy boundaries" (p. 5). Due to the difficulty involved in clearly identifying the nature of student error and because student error is not the focus of the present study, the decision was made to not categorize error by type but rather to note whether a structure was used correctly or incorrectly. Such a system of classification

Written assignments and targeted Grammar 4 structures
Table 4.3

ASSIGNMENT	COLLECTION DATE	TARGET STRUCTURE
1. Study guide #1 for textbook	6/23/99	gerund / infinitive, rep. speech
2. Study guide #2 for textbook	6/25/99	gerund/infinitive, rep. speech
3. Study guide #1 for *A River Runs through it (AARTI)*	6/28/99	passive voice
4. Midterm exam over *AARTI*	6/30/99	passive voice
5. Study guide #2 for *AARTI*	7/7/99	past perfect
6. Study guide #3 for *AARTI*	7/12/99	Past perfect
7. Comparison/contrast essay	7/26/99	perfect modals conditional (real/unreal in present and future)

note. After each structure was introduced, its level of use continued to be monitored in all subsequent assignments.

addresses the students' attempted usage of the structures and their degree of success in using the structure productively. Attempts were identified as any instance in which the student used the target structure, whether correctly or incorrectly. Thus, a record was kept of the number of attempts the student made to use each structure and the number of times the student successfully used the structure. Such tallies were made for each student on each of the seven assignments.

In order to describe the performance of the research participants as a whole, mean use rates for each structure on each assignment were calculated. In other words, class averages for the level of use for each structure were determined by calculating the number of times all of the students used the structure and then dividing that number by the total number of students. Initially, students' mean use rates were compared for each structure across assignments. Then structure use for particular assignments was focused upon. Finally, in an effort to learn more about the relationship between students' performance in their Grammar 4 class and their level of use of Grammar 4 structures in R/C 4, the data were analyzed statistically using a series of Spearman rho Rank-Order correlations.

Assignment Types

The assignments analyzed for evidence of transfer fell into three main groups: study guide questions, a midterm exam, and a take-home 5-paragraph essay. The conditions under which each of these types of assignments was completed varied dramatically; thus, this variability should be taken into consideration when looking at the students' level of use of Grammar 4 structures in their R/C work because the conditions are likely to affect the extent to which the structures were used. First, the study guide assignments consisted of a number of questions about the reading that the students were doing at the time. The students typically had several days to complete each study guide

assignment, and they were able to complete them outside of class. In contrast, the midterm exam was completed in class and under time pressure. The students had only an hour to complete the short answer questions found on the midterm exam, which covered the novel *A River Runs Through It*. Lastly, the 5-paragraph essay was assigned as homework and students had a week to complete it outside of class. Thus, the study guide questions and the essay, were completed outside of class and under considerably less time pressure than the midterm exam. These conditions likely had an effect on the level of structure use found in each of the three types of assignments.

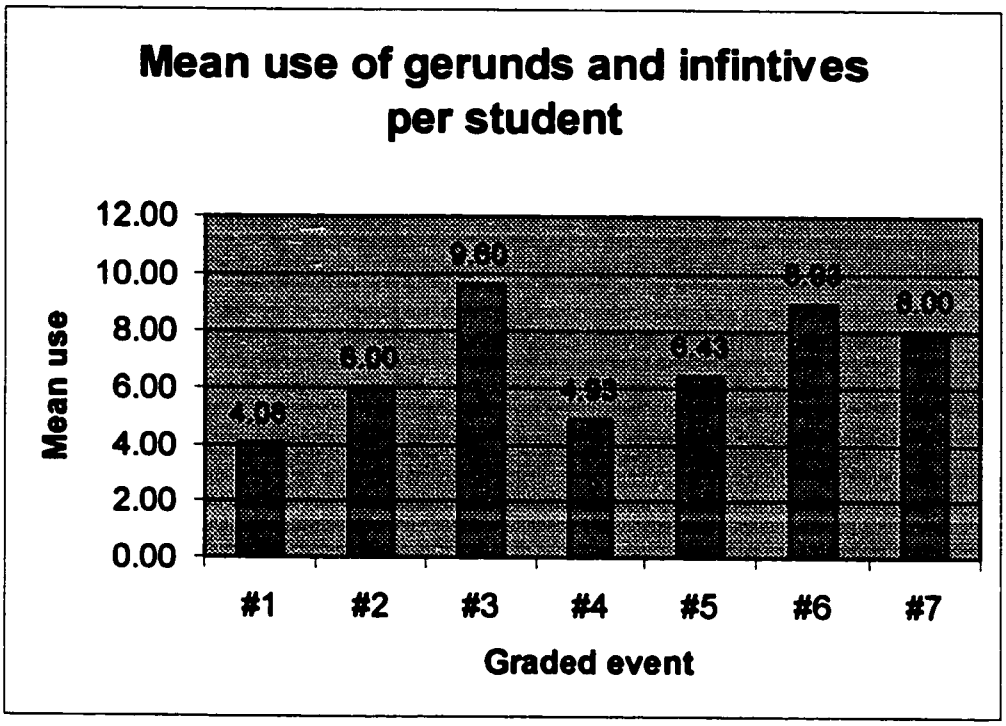
Mean Usage per Student across Assignments

In order to monitor students' levels of usage of Grammar 4 structures as the session progressed, a "mean usage rate" was calculated for each structure in each assignment[2]. The values, which are averages of the different levels of performance for all of the study participants on each assignment, are displayed in Table 4.4. For example, a glance at the table shows that on Assignment #1, each student in the class used gerunds and infinitives an average of 4.08 times. Of course, many of the students used these structures more frequently, and others used them less frequently or not at all. However, the mean usage rate provides a measure of comparison when looking at the usage rates for the structures and whether the rates increased or decreased as the session progressed. Displaying values taken from Table 4.4, the following figures, 4.2-4.4, show the mean structure use for gerunds and infinitives, reported speech, and the passive voice. Graphs for these structures were included because students used them relatively frequently in at least some of the assignments. In contrast, similar graphs for the past perfect, perfect modals, and the conditional were not included because the incidence of these structures in students' writing was extremely infrequent as indicated in Table 4.4.

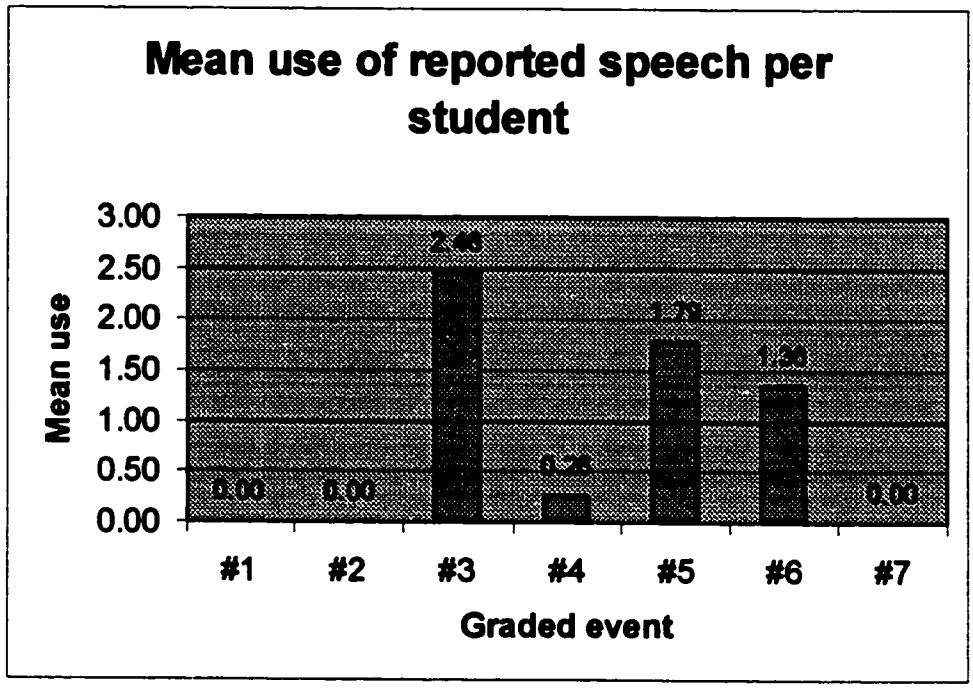
Mean Usage Rates for Grammar 4 Structures Per Student Across Assignments[3]
Table 4.4

Structure	Assign. 1	Assign. 2	Assign. 3	Assign. 4	Assign. 5	Assign. 6	Assign. 7
Gerund/ Infinitive	4.08	6.00	9.60	4.93	6.43	8.93	8.00
Reported Speech	0.00	0.00	2.46	0.26	1.79	1.36	0.00
Passive Voice	-----*	-----	3.20	0.40	4.00	3.07	1.29
Past Perfect	-----	-----	-----	-----	0.43	0.57	0.14
Perfect Modals	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	0.00
Condi- tional	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	0.07

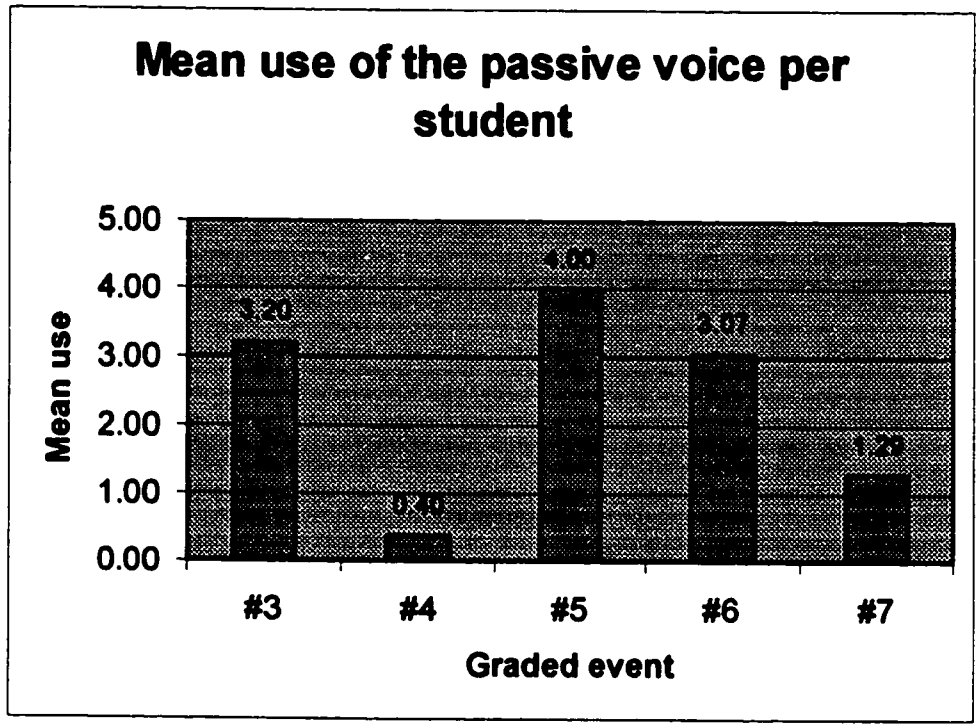
note. A dashed line indicates that a structure had not yet been introduced.



Mean Structure Use for Gerunds and Infinitives
Figure 4.2



Mean Structure Use for Reported Speech
Figure 4.3



Mean Structure Use for Passive Voice
Figure 4.4

Figure 4.2 shows that **gerunds and infinitives** were used consistently by students in all assignments during the session. It is also clear that students used these structures with increasing frequency over the course of the session. For example, for Assignment 1, a set of study guide questions, the mean usage rate was 4.08, while for Assignment 7, the essay, it was 8.00. In other words, if these two assignments are compared, it would appear that the average study participant increased his/her usage of gerunds and infinitives by 100% over the course of the session. However, a variety of factors may have been involved, including the nature of the assignment (see Chapter 5 for a discussion of variables that may have affected the degree to which students used Grammar 4 structures in their writing).

While Figure 4.2 indicates an increase in usage for gerunds and infinitives, Figure 4.3 displays the irregularity with which **reported speech** was used by the study participants in their writing. Figure 4.3 indicates that reported speech was not used by any of the students in Assignments 1, 2, or 7; however, the remaining assignments showed some level of usage of this structure. Over the course of the session, usage rates did not increase. Rather, the usage rates appeared to be dependent on the nature of each assignment. For example, Assignment 3 included specific questions that required this structure[4], whereas Assignments 1, 2, and 7 (two study guides and the 5-paragraph essay) did not require students to quote others. Thus, Figure 4.3 provides an indication of how important the focus of the assignment is in determining the grammatical structures students will use in their writing. In the particular case of reported speech, it was used only in specific, and infrequently occurring, contexts which required the student to quote another person.

Finally, Figure 4.4 displays the usage rates for the **passive voice**, a structure which

was introduced before the students completed Assignment 3. In contrast to the variable usage pattern associated with reported speech, the students' use of the passive voice held fairly constant throughout the session although the structure was used less frequently in Assignments 4 and 7, the midterm and essay. In fact, on Assignment 4 only three students attempted the structure, while on Assignment 7, ten students used it in their writing. It seems that the nature of the two assignments, a timed midterm exam and an essay, affected the students' level of usage of this structure. Possibly the timed nature of the midterm exam made students less willing to experiment with more challenging structures; It is less clear, however, what factors caused students to avoid the passive voice on the essay assignment, which students had a week to complete. Possibly by the end of the session when the essay was assigned, students had decided to "play it safe," deciding to use more familiar structures in the hope of not making grammatical errors. (See "Participants' Perceptions of the Role of Grammar in their Language Learning", Chapter 4, for learners' explanations of why they may avoid using new grammar structures.) A further factor to consider with regard to why the passive was used less frequently in some assignments is that the passive voice, like reported speech, is a structure that is employed in specific contexts. For example, these students had been taught in their Grammar 4 class--and in some cases, in English classes in their home countries-- to use the passive voice when the active subject is unknown or unimportant (Azar, p. 211). Furthermore, in the Grammar 4 class, Wendy specifically noted that passive is frequently found in specific genres, including scientific writing and newspaper reporting (Fieldnotes, Day 9, 6/28/99). Perhaps these guidelines influenced the students' usage to some degree.

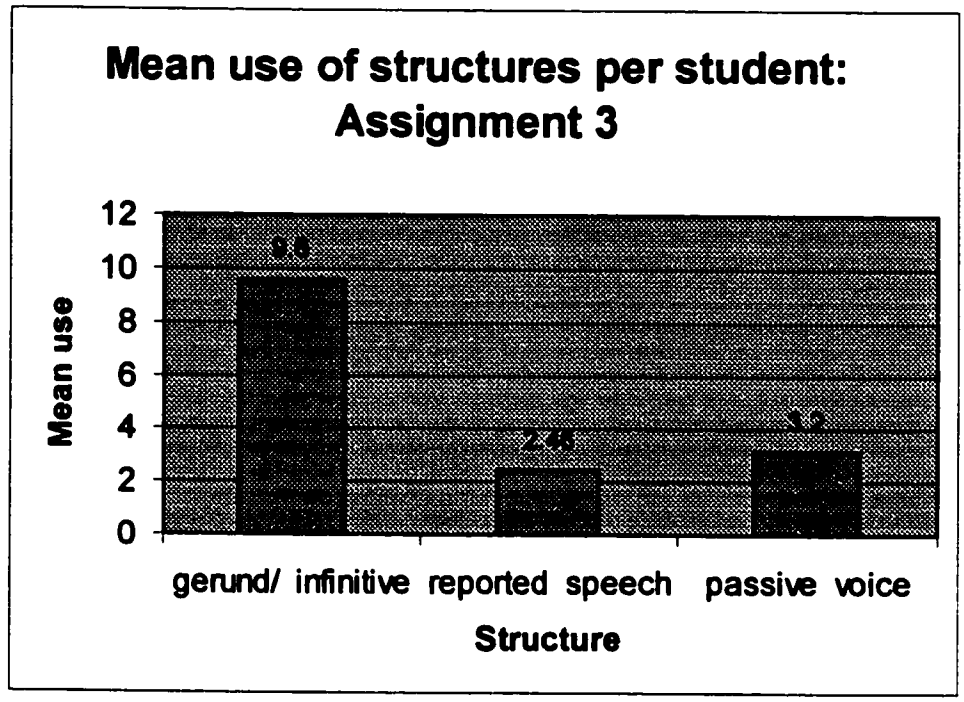
These graphs provide evidence that structure use may be steady frequent, as in the

case of gerunds and infinitives, or highly variable, as in the case of reported speech and the passive voice. It seems likely that a variety of factors play a role in the frequency with which learners use structures in their writing. First, the large number of English verbs that require gerunds or infinitives makes it likely that these structures will be used frequently. In contrast, the passive voice and reported speech are more context specific structures. Secondly, the nature of the assignment appeared to also play a role in the frequency with which students used the Grammar 4 structures. For example, structure use was less frequent on the midterm exam, which was timed.

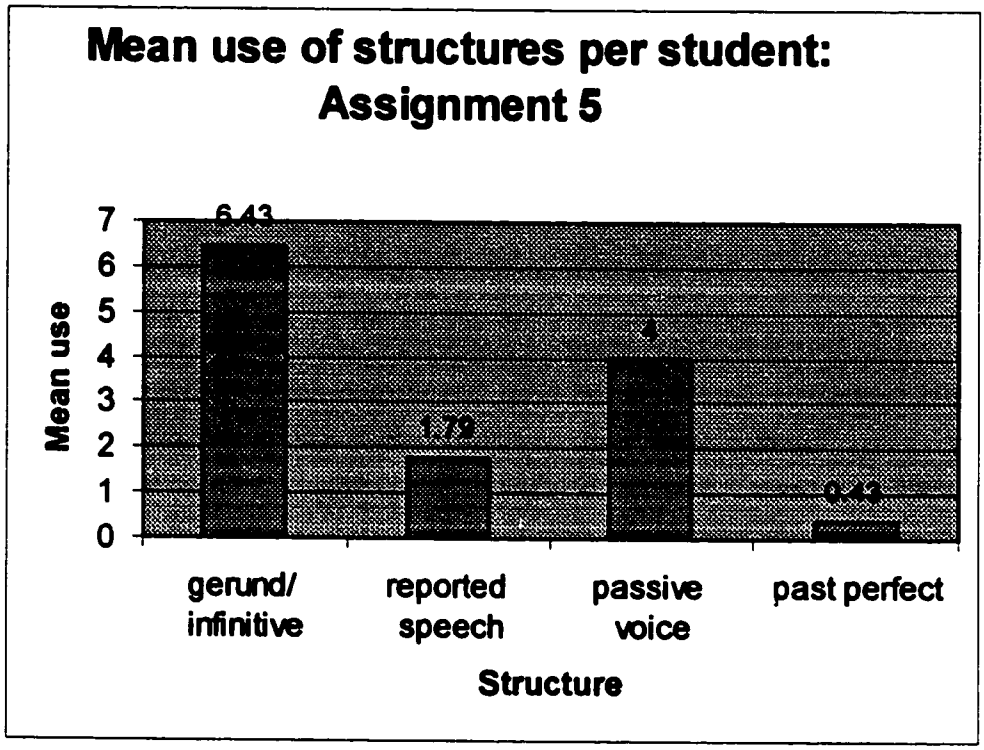
Structure Use in Individual Assignments

In addition to considering the usage rates for the Grammar 4 structures over the course of the session, the usage rates for all grammatical structures used in particular assignments were also considered. Figures 4.5 -4.7 compare the relative frequencies of Grammar 4 structures used in selected assignments. Assignments 3, 5 and 7 were chosen for a closer analysis because they spanned the session from relatively near its beginning to its end. The decision was made to include Assignment 3 in the analysis, rather than an earlier assignment, because it contained a greater variety of Grammar 4 structures, having been assigned after gerunds, reported speech, and the passive voice had been introduced.

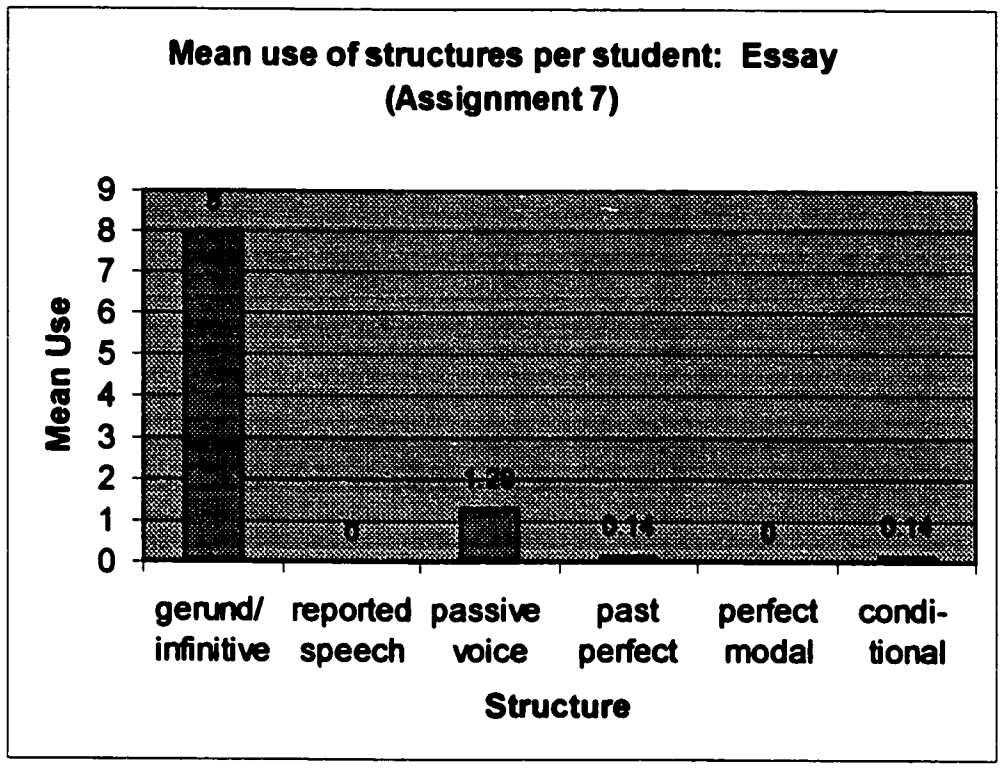
The figures 4.5-4.7 display the varying mean usage rates for all of the Grammar 4 structures in the students' writing. Viewed together, the figures indicate the ubiquity of gerunds and infinitives in the students' writing. However, the three figures also show that particular structures, such as reported speech and the passive voice, are context-sensitive and, thus, are employed to varying degrees in the R/C 4 assignments. In addition, Figures 4.6 and 4.7 underscore the fact that certain structures may be used very rarely or not at all. Structures belonging to this rarely-used category were the past perfect, perfect



Mean Use of Structures per Student: Assignment 3
Figure 4.5



Mean Use of Structures per Student: Assignment 5
Figure 4.6



Mean Use of Structures per Student: Essay (Assignment 7)
Figure 4.7

modals, and the conditional. It should be noted that these three structures were the last to be introduced in the Grammar 4 class; thus, students may not have been as familiar with them. Moreover, a structure such as the past perfect may be easily avoided in many cases without changing the meaning of a sentence (Azar, p. 45). Lastly, these structures are not required or even appropriate in all writing contexts. Thus, a variety of factors may have influenced the degree to which students employed these structures in their R/C 4 assignments; however, it is clear that the degree to which students used the Grammar 4 structures varied dramatically by structure and from student to student.

Spearman Rank Order Correlations

After monitoring the students' use of Grammar 4 structures in their R/C 4 assignments–both across and within assignments–a series of correlation tests were performed to explore the relationship between the students' performance in their Grammar 4 class and the level of Grammar 4 grammatical structure use in their writing. The rationale for performing these correlations was to investigate whether high achievers in Grammar 4 (i.e., those who earned high grades) applied their grammatical knowledge to their R/C 4 work and used Grammar 4 structures frequently in their writing. The decision was made to use a Spearman Rank-Order Correlation because of the relatively small sample size (N varied between 14 and 15) and the presence of non-continuous data (i.e. the scores for grammatical structure use in the students' writing). The Spearman Correlation, which is used when data are not normally distributed, requires the data lists to be rank-ordered. Thus, *rho* tells how the rankings from the two variables (i.e., Grammar 4 performance and grammatical structure use in writing) are related (Hatch and Lazarton, 1991, p. 451). The resulting value for *rho* will always be between -1 and 0 or 0 and +1. Values close to ± 1 indicate a strong relationship between the two lists of rank-

ordered data. After using the Spearman test to evaluate the statistical relationship between achievement in Grammar 4 and the students' level of structure use, the values obtained for *rho* were then checked for significance using a correlation table for Spearman rho correlations (p. 453).

In order to explore the relationship between the students' Grammar 4 performance and the number of grammatical structures used in their writing for R/C 4, a series of four Spearman Rank Order Correlations were performed for each student's Grammar 4 final grade and the number of structures both attempted and used correctly on Assignments 6 and 7. The decision was made to focus the correlation calculations on values from Assignments 6 and 7 because the students completed these assignments after they had been exposed to a majority of the Grammar 4 structures. The analysis of Assignment 6 included gerunds and infinitives, reported speech, the passive voice, and the past perfect, while the Assignment 7 analysis encompassed the above mentioned structures as well as perfect modals and the conditional.

The values obtained for *rho* in each of the correlations (N=14) are displayed in Table 4.5. None of these values was significant at the .05 level of probability, which was .544. Thus, these values did not indicate the existence of a consistent relationship between the students' performance in Grammar 4 and the number of Grammar 4 structures they either attempted or used correctly in their writing for R/C 4. In other words, based on these limited tests of an admittedly small sample size, students who performed well in their grammar class did not use significantly more of the Grammar 4 structures in their writing than their classmates who earned lower grades.

Despite the lack of statistical significance in the correlations between Grammar 4 achievement and structure use, a perusal of the lists of high achievers in grammar and

Spearman rho Rank-Order Correlations for Grammar 4 Attainment and the Number of Grammar 4 Structures Attempted and Used Correctly

Table 4.5

Students' grades in Grammar 4 were correlated with:	**rho value obtained:**
the number of Grammar 4 structures each student attempted on Assignment 6	.420
the number of Grammar 4 structures each student used correctly on Assignment 6	.487
the number of Grammar 4 structures each student attempted on Assignment 7	.243
the number of Grammar 4 structures each student used correctly on Assignment 7	.291

their level of structure use indicates that some of the top grammar students did, in fact, use Grammar 4 structures frequently in their writing. Table 4.6 lists the top five students with regard to Grammar 4 (G4) achievement, the number of Grammar 4 structures attempted in Assignment 6, and the number of Grammar 4 structures actually employed correctly in Assignment 6. Values were taken from Assignment 6 because students attempted a comparatively large number of structures in this assignment, and, at this point, the students had been exposed to a majority of the Grammar 4 structures. The names, which appear in both Column 1 and either Column 2 or 3, have been underlined to indicate that these individuals were high achievers in their grammar class as well as high structure users in their R/C 4 writing.

Four individuals–Yukiko, Curt, Miki, and Yoshinori–appeared in all three of the lists in Table 4.6, indicating that they were both high structure users in their writing for Reading/Composition 4, as well as high achievers in their Grammar 4 class. Interestingly, Yukiko, Miki, and Yoshinori were from Japan, while Curt was from Korea. All of these students had reported studying English for at least six years during secondary school in their home countries. Having arrived at the IEP with some familiarity with the structure of English, the students all reported relying on grammatical information from English classes in their home countries, especially since the class time in Grammar 4 was so limited.

In the Picture Description Task (PDT) interview, Yukiko discussed her use of the passive voice and where she had learned to use that structure: "[The] basic information is from information in Japan. But and uh the meaning of grammar or how to use that grammar is in the United States" (PDT #6, 7/15/99). Similarly, Yoshinori commented that he had already learned the passive voice in his country and stressed that Japanese

High Achievers in Three Categories: Grammar 4 Achievement, Number of Structure Attempts, and Number of Structures Used Correctly

Table 4.6

Final G 4 Grades	Assign. 6 Attempts	Assign. 6 Correct Uses
1. Yukiko	1. Yoshinori	1. Yoshinori
2. Rob	2. Yukiko	2. Jong-Ho / Yukiko
3. Yousuke	3. Curt / Miki	3. Curt
4. Curt / Miki / Yoshinori	4. Jong-Ho	4. Miki
5. Juan / Masaaki	5. I-Fong	5. I-Fong / Jabbar

students learn a lot of English grammar because of their testing system: "...when most Japanese people take an examination for the university, grammar is high weight" (PDT #2, 7/13/99). Curt, too, mentioned that he relied on information from his high school grammar class due to the lack of time available for explanation in Grammar 4. "I think Wendy have to tell us about a lot of things. It's too quick" (PDT #3 7/13/99). Later, he mentioned that if he had questions, he would refer to an English grammar book that he brought with him from Korea which gives explanations in Korean. All of these students, with the exception of Miki, who did not voice an opinion on the subject, relied heavily on grammatical information from previous study. Other students did not enter the IEP with such an extensive background in grammar, and possibly as a result, did not reach such high levels of achievement.

Home Country and Achievement

A striking aspect of the data displayed in Table 4.6 is that the four Grammar 4 students who appeared in all three columns of the table were from Asian countries whose schools typically require six years of English instruction. These students had ranked highest in Grammar 4 achievement and in the extent to which they attempted and used Grammar 4 structures in their writing. I was curious as to whether there was a clear trend with regard to students' home countries and their level of Grammar 4 structure use. In order to compare the performance of study participants by language group, I reviewed the levels of structure use for the study participants on Assignments 2, 3, and 4. These assignments were chosen because all of the participants had turned in these assignments, and, as a result, all of the students would be represented. For each of the selected assignments, the number of structures attempted and used correctly were tabulated for each language group. Next, a set of mean use values was then calculated for each

language group. It should be noted, however, that the numbers of students in each of the groups varied dramatically, as demonstrated by Table 4.7. Nevertheless, despite the discrepancies in the sizes of the groups, looking at their average level of G4 structure usage may provide some indications of relationships that exist with regard to language background and, thus, educational preparation, and the extent to which these students attempted G4 structures in their writing.

Table 4.8 displays the level of average structure use by the five language groups for the three selected assignments. Although the size of the language groups differed dramatically, and results are undoubtedly skewed by the unequal sample sizes, it may be observed that the Korean and Taiwanese students attempted more structures on the average than did the students in the other language categories. Moreover, it is striking that the Arabic-speaking students attempted on the average only half the number ofstructures that the Korean students did; each of these groups were represented by three students. It should also be noted that the Japanese group of 7 students contained a wide variation in the number of structures attempted by individuals; in contrast, the other groups were much smaller and, thus, the mean values obtained for structure use were heavily influenced by the practices of the one or two individuals in the smaller groups. Nevertheless, it is hoped that the data in Table 4.8 may be useful in identifying broad trends in students' usage of the grammatical structures to which they were exposed in Grammar 4.

Picture Description Task: The Relationship between Metalinguistic Knowledge and Structure Use

In addition to providing a descriptive account of the Grammar 4 class and focusing on the transfer of skills and knowledge from Grammar 4 to Reading/Composition 4, a further goal of the present study was to better understand the relationship between

Students by Language Group
Table 4.7

Language Group	Number of Students
Arabic	3
Japanese	7
Korean	3
Spanish	1
Taiwanese	2

Average Level of Structure Use by the Five Language Groups on Assignments 2, 3, and 4
Table 4.8

Language Group	Average Attempted Structure Uses	Average Correct Structure Uses
Korean	32.6	37.3
Chinese	25.0	29.0
Japanese	22.8	27.5
Spanish	17.0	19.0
Arabic	14.0	17.0

students' metalinguistic knowledge of grammar and their ability to use Grammar 4 structures. Students were asked to participate in a Picture Description Task (PDT) in Week 6 of the IEP's 1999 summer session, and twelve of the study participants chose to take part in this phase of the research. The purpose of the task and the subsequent retrospective interview was to probe the students' metalinguistic knowledge of the passive voice, a structure they had studied two weeks earlier in their Grammar 4 class. Of the six structures introduced in Grammar 4, the passive voice was chosen as the focus of the PDT for two reasons: the students had already studied it in class by Week 6, and it is a structure that typically presents learners with difficulty.

The PDT interviews were conducted individually and were semi-structured in nature. The PDT was intended to elicit the use of the passive voice as students wrote sentences to describe a series of pictures. Taken from Joerg Mueller's *Changing Countryside* (1977), the pictures depicted a rural German village as it was transformed into an urban area after World War II. The selected pictures were from 1953, 1969, and 1972. Students were asked to look at the pictures and write at least five sentences describing the changes they noticed from one picture to another. The first participant, Juan, was merely asked to write descriptive sentences, and no mention was made of using the passive or active voice. He used only active sentences, so as a result, in subsequent interviews, I told the students that they could use either the active or the passive voice. I did not want to require them to use passive because I wanted to explore whether they were able to recognize contexts where the passive voice would be appropriate, and conversely, other situations where the active voice would be preferred or obligatory.

The first fifteen minutes of the PDT were devoted to the students writing sentences about the pictures, while approximately the next ten to fifteen minutes were

dedicated to discussing the PDT with the students and asking them a series of questions. (See Appendix 5 for a schedule of interview questions used in the PDT). The questions were designed to address the students' familiarity with the form, meaning, and use of the passive voice, in addition to their level of knowledge of the structure and the degree of comfort with which they were able to use the passive voice in their writing.

In the PDT, students were asked to write a series of sentences, which were referred to in the following interview. I asked students to reflect on their decision-making process while writing, in addition their metalinguistic knowledge about the form, meaning, and use of the passive voice. As intermediate students of English, the study participants had all learned English in their home countries for a number of years, in addition to studying at the IEP. In some cases, the students had attended other intensive programs in the United States. As a result, students possessed metalinguistic knowledge gleaned from a variety of sources. The focus of the present study, however, was to monitor the types of form-focused input study participants were exposed to in the Grammar 4 classroom. Thus, a discussion of the results of the PDT must start with a brief review of the form-focused input concerning the passive voice to which the students had been exposed in Grammar 4. Next, the sentences produced by the students during the PDT will be analyzed both in terms of volume and accuracy, and the interview responses will be categorized with regard to the students' varying levels of expressed metalinguistic awareness. Finally, the nature and accuracy of the rules the students used will be assessed and considered in relation to the students' performance on the PDT.

Form-Focused Input: The Passive Voice

Because Grammar 4 was a three credit class which met for 8 weeks, coverage of each of the grammatical objectives was necessarily brief. Accordingly, Wendy scheduled

two and one-half class periods for the passive voice. On Day 9, Wendy introduced the passive voice, its forms, and its transformations; on Day 10, she introduced the stative passive, participial adjectives, and the get-passive; and finally, on Day 11, after correcting homework in groups and participating in a short review session, the students took a quiz on the passive voice.

Both Days 9 and 10 began with a short grammar presentation by Wendy. During the session when the data were collected, Wendy routinely began each class with a focused grammar presentation, usually aided by an overhead projector and transparencies. On Day 9, she began by discussing the uses of the passive voice:

> We'll start with when you use the passive voice because that's the most important part. It's not used as commonly as usually the active voice. The most common uses of the passive are in scientific writing um so especially if you're going into the sciences or into graduate school, this is important for you to use. It's often used in the newspapers when crimes are being reported. And it's used much more often in written language than in spoken language (Day 9, 11:15).

Following her introduction which centered on the uses of the passive voice, Wendy then presented the students with four overhead transparencies that presented the key points from the students' textbook, in addition to a variety of her own example sentences.

Referring to the first transparency, Wendy mentioned three situations in which the passive is usually used: when it is not known or not important to know who performed an action; when the identity of the agent is unclear; and, finally, when a person wants to avoid identifying an agent. The next transparency dealt with the choice to include the agent in a passive sentence. The first criterion for using the agent was if it is important to know who performed an action: "If the agent was a creative person such as an artist, writer, or inventor, include by [agent] in your passive sentence" (Day 9, OH 2). The second reason for including the agent was if the agent would surprise the listener: "This

dress was made by my husband" (Day 9, OH2). Finally, even if the agent is known, it may be included in a by-phrase in a passive sentence in order to focus attention on the passive subject. The final transparencies showed the verb forms in the passive voice and showed active-passive transformations for three types of verbs, transitive, ditransitive, and intransitive.

On Day 10, Wendy presented the students with overhead transparencies dealing with the stative passive and participial adjectives. The first overhead transparency listed a series of sentence transformations ranging from active, to passive, and finally to the stative passive: "I locked the door five minutes ago; The door was locked by me five minutes ago; Now the door is locked" (Day 10, OH1). Wendy drew students' attention to the fact that the stative passive is used to describe an existing situation, condition, or state, and it does not involve an action taking place; rather, the action happened earlier. In the stative passive, there is no by-phrase, and the past participle functions as an adjective.

Overheads 2 and 3 on Day 10, introduced participal adjectives: active present participles and passive past participles. Wendy stressed that the former, or -ing forms, behave like adjectives or adverbs and have similar meanings to active verbs. The following sentences were given to the students as an illustration: "I love to watch **falling** leaves. = Leaves **are falling**." In contrast, the passive past participles, -ed or -en forms, take on passive meanings when they are used like adjectives or adverbs: "He has a **broken** heart. = His heart **has been broken**." The final overhead, entitled "Talking about Feelings" gave the students example sentences forusing the participial adjectives interested/interesting, bored/boring, and excited/exciting, a commonly challenging grammar point for learners of English. Students were instructed that the past participles

are used to say how people feel: "I was very **interested** in the grammar lesson." In contrast, present participles describe the people or things that cause the feelings: "I was interested in the **interesting** grammar lesson" (Day 10, OH 3). Wendy drew the students' attention to the last example sentence on the page and told them that it would be a good example sentence to remember: "Confusing teachers make confused students."

After having covered the most important aspects of the passive voice on Days 9 and 10, on Day 11, as part of a brief review, Wendy asked students to tell her why people use the passive voice. (A number of students replied, but because of poor recording conditions, I was unable to provide direct quotes; therefore, the following student responses are based on my notes and paraphrased, rather than being verbatim.) Rob mentioned that the passive was used when a person wanted to emphasize the subject. Masaaki added that it might be used to add variety in an essay. Juan said that it is used when one is talking about writers and artists. Again, Rob stated that the passive is used when "I don't have to write who did something or made something." Finally, in response to a second question from Wendy about when the stative passive is used, Curt said that it is used when an "anonymous" person does something (Fieldnotes, Day 11). Thus, the above list is a sample of the uses of the passive that the students were able to provide when asked by their teacher. A number of these uses were mentioned later in the PDT.

Measuring Passive Usage

The PDT analysis phase of this study sought to explore the relationship between students' metalinguistic knowledge of the passive voice and their ability to use the structure in their writing. In order to better understand the extent of students' metalinguistic knowledge and their ability to use the structure, a Passive Scale (PS) was devised for use in analyzing the sentences students produced during the Picture

Description Task. The results obtained from the use of the scale were then ranked. Finally, the rankings for Passive scores were used as a framework for analysis of the students' responses to the interview questions and their performance on the Picture Description Task. The motivation for devising the scale was to move toward being able to quantify students' performance. At issue was whether students who use the structure effectively are able to talk about their use of the structure, and, conversely, whether those who possess metalinguistic knowledge about the passive voice, actually use the structure successfully.

On the Passive Scale (PS), which was designed to recognize students' attempts to use the passive voice, while still taking into consideration their mastery of the structure, students were awarded a point for each well-formed passive sentence they wrote during the Picture Description Task (PDT). For each possible point, .5 was given for correct formation of the passive verb phrase and the possibility of using the given verb as a passive. The additional half point was awarded for correct usage, which included use of the correct tense, general meaningfulness and sense of the sentence, and, finally, agreement between the passive subject and verb. Table 4.9 lists the study participants categorized according to those who did not use the passive voice in their PDT sentences (non-users) and those who did (users). For the latter, the number of passive sentencesattempted are listed, as well as a correctness score, which takes into consideration the

Passive Scale criteria discussed above. According to the Passive Scale, the top five scorers in order were 1.) Rob, 2.) Masaaki, 3.) Miki and Yoshinori, and, finally 4.) Yukikko. It should be noted that all of these top scorers were Japanese. However, in the non-user category, there were a variety of nationalities represented: Japanese (1), Korean

Passive Usage on the PDT
Table 4.9

Non-Users	Users	Attempts	Correctness Score
I-Fong	Rob	3	3
Jong-Ho	Masaaki	3	2.5
Juan	Miki	2	2
Sang-Jun	Yoshinori	3	2
	Yukiko	3	1.5
	Ling	1	1
	Curt	2	.5
	Yousuke	1	0

(2), Mexican (1), and Taiwanese (1).

Passive Use and Metalinguistic Awareness

The following section profiles each of the study participants in terms of their level of passive use on the PDT and their level of metalinguistic awareness as revealed in the interviews following the PDT. Based on their correctness scores on the Passive Scale, students were categorized either as passive users or non-users. Within the group of passive users, participants were classed as high users (scores of 2.1-3.0), medium users (scores of 1.1-2.0), and finally, low users (scores of 0.0-1.0). Each of the profiles of student performance for the passive users includes the sentences students wrote.

High users: Rob and Masaaki

Rob: With a correctness score on the Passive Scale of 3, Rob scored the highest of all the study participants. He wrote three passive sentences and two active sentences in the PDT. While his sentences were not native-like, they did demonstrate a firm grasp of the use of both the passive and active voices. Rob's PDT sentences follow. The sentences categorized as passive are labeled with (P).

1. In 1969, a lot of buildings started to be built. (P)
2. In 1972, clothes of people were better designed. (P)
3. In 1972, all of plants were cut. (P)
4. As time passed, the number of people was increasing.
5. In 1972, no animal was walking.

When asked to reflect on why he had used the passive voice, Rob had ready answers. In Conversation 4.17, he said he used the passive voice in sentences 1-3 because he wanted to emphasize the passive subjects.

Conversation 4.17.

R: Because it's clear uh who who uh I mean, it's clear person did, the people did
Int: M-hm
R: You know, people did something and it changed.
I: M-hm

R: So I want to em- emphasize, you know, the building, or clothes
I: M-hm
R: or plants.
I: M-hm
R: It's clear, so people. I, everybody knows people did
I: M-hm
R: Something. So people designed clothes,
I: Right
R: And people started to build building,
I: M-hm
R: So I didn't use people as subject
I: Oh, okay.
R: Because it's clear.
(016-024, PDT #11)

Rob was similarly prepared when I asked how the passive was formed and when it should be used: "If the subject is obvious for everybody, you can use passive voice. So like, people built this house. This is obvious that people built the built the house. So you can use passive voice" (077+). Later in the interview, he mentioned another reason, one that had been stressed by Wendy: "...if you emphasize some like author who who wrote the book....You can (.) uh no, the book which is written by author...Uh, you can use passive voice" (096+). When asked if the passive had a special meaning, Rob said, "Yeah, I feel a difference. When I see the passive, I think that person who wrote this sentence emphasizes the subject. So when I see the sentence, "Norman McLean wrote *A River Runs Through It*. I think Norman is what the writer want to emphasize...." (105+).

In terms of metalinguistic knowledge, Rob ranked high. He was able to give complete answers to all of the questions I asked during the PDT. As a Japanese student, he had learned the passive voice in school; however, he credits his independent studying

for his present knowledge of English grammar . This intensive studying on his own, in his opinion, is what allowed him to pass the TOEFL in Japan. When asked if he knows passive well enough to use it in his writing, he replied that he does not always know "if this is right grammar or not...But uh, I can feel this is right, so when I write, I can feel this is right or wrong more than before, so...I I I think I improved. Sometimes I get confused uh if I can use passive or active. Sometimes, but yeah yeah sometimes I can I can I can feel good using passive" (141+). In Rob's case, an ability to use passive was accompanied by strong metalinguistic knowledge. The rules that he cited for using the passive voice corresponded to the rules mentioned by Wendy in class and those stated in his textbook.

Masaaki: Like Rob, Masaaki scored high on the Passive Scale. Of the seven sentences he wrote, three were written in the passive voice. His total score on the Passive Scale was 2.5 due to an error in subject-verb agreement in sentence 3. His PDT sentences follow:

1. Transportation had been changed by 1972. (P)
2. Town had developed by 1972.
3. Form of house were changed. (P)
4. In 1972, there are just a few trees.
5. Job style had been changed by 1972. (P)
6. In 1953, people probably had few choices of jobs which was farming or raising animals.
7. In 1972, people could chose any kinds of jobs like office work or police.

When asked why he used passive in his first sentence, Masaaki replied, "Um if I really want to focus what I want to say, I sometimes I use passive. Like um *A River Runs Through It* was written by Norman MacLean. I want to focus *A River Runs Through It.* But I really want to focus on uh Nor-Norman MacLean, I use pass- no active, 'Norman

MacLean wrote *A River Runs Through It*'" (081+, PDT #9). In sentence three, he observed that he had wanted to focus on transportation and, thus, had used the passive voice. Furthermore, he mentioned that he did not "know who changed form of house." Therefore, Masaaki, used the passive voice in these sentences because he wanted to focus on the passive subjects and he did not always know who the agent had been, rules cited by Wendy in the Grammar 4 class.

Like Rob, Masaaki was able to explain how the passive voice was formed and later, to discuss when the structure should be used: "Maybe people use passive and active because of making variety essay" (064+).He also mentioned that a passive subject is not able to perform an action, and thus, must be used in a passive construction: "Transportation cannot change by themselv-es. Someone has to change transportation. So have to use passive" (050+). When asked about the meaning of the passive, he responded that passive and active have "a little bit different nuance, but basically the same meaning." Continuing on, he reflected,

Conversation 4.18

M: It depends on what you want to say. Basically in your writing essay, you really want to talk about me, the subject will change.I mean um
I: if you really want to talk about you and what you did
M: Yeah
I: Are you going to use active or passive?
M: Active
(084+)

Along with Rob, Masaaki ranked high in metalinguistic knowledge. Ready with a reply to all my questions, Masaaki demonstrated a clear understanding of how, why, and when to use the passive voice. Because he had studied English for eight years in Japan, Masaaki said that he had learned how to use the passive voice in Japan. He added, however, that essay writing and writing thesis statements were skills he had learned in the

United States, specifically in Vermont, where he had studied before coming to the IEP. When asked if he felt comfortable using the passive voice, he said that he does and that he tries to use the passive voice to make his writing more interesting: "I have to use the passive voice because if I write always active active, it's gonna um make bored, people who read my essay" (128+). In mentioning, the use of passive in order to bring variety to a piece of writing, Masaaki mentioned a use of the structure that had not been brought up in Grammar 4.

Medium users: Miki, Yoshinori, and Yukiko

Miki: Scoring a 2 on the Passive Scale, Miki wrote five sentences on the PDT, two of which were written in the passive voice:

1. The big road was being established in 1969. (P)
2. The beautiful tree had disappeared by 1972.
3. The shopping center was being established in 1969. (P)
4. Near the pool were many forms in 1953, but they were not in 1969.
5. There are many people in 1972 more than one in 1953.

When asked why she used the passive in sentence one, Miki replied, "Because I don't know the people who (.) established the road and the shopping center shops..." (020+). Interestingly, when I later asked why she had used the active voice in sentence two, she gave an answer that made a distinction between verbs that could be used with human and non-human verbs: "I know the verbs verbs to vers which can use to to material. It's not human." Although I did not completely understand her response, the distinction between material and human subjects came up in later interviews, notably that of Yoshinori. Later Miki mentioned that she had tried to use both active and passive sentences in the PDT because the directions had stated, "Use active or passive." She said that she always tries to pay attention to what teachers expect and want; as a result, she tried to use both types of sentences.

When I asked her if she could tell me how to form the passive voice, she was able to give accurate directions readily, and when I asked her when to use the structure, she mentioned a variety of considerations. First, she said that she was encouraged to use the passive frequently in her English classes in Japan. She mentioned that the passive is useful when "I don't want to say directly or I want to say who did that" and also when a person wants to "focus on the object." When I asked Miki, a crop science major, if the passive voice was more common in scientific writing than in other types of writing, she said that her American professor had encouraged her to avoid using the passive: "My professor said so to me because the sentence in scientific paper should be more easier to understand. Who did or what did that." Miki's observation was very interesting as Wendy had specifically mentioned that the passive was frequently found in scientific writing, a common assumption among many ESL professionals.

Although Miki was able to discuss her rationale for using the passive fairly clearly, explain how to form the structure, and when to use it, she was at a loss when I asked her if the passive possessed a special meaning separate from the active voice. When I asked her if she felt confident using the passive voice, she responded by saying, "When I read a book. I really, I feel I really understand passive sentence. But when I write or speak, I sometimes can't use, I sometimes can't use it." Later, she said that she thought using the structure in speaking was the most difficult and that she did use the passive voice in her writing for John's Reading/Composition 4 class. Clearly, Miki was able to form and use the structure. Moreover, she felt fairly comfortable incorporating it into her writing, if not her speaking. However, the interview pointed out that she was using a confusing rule that based passive use on whether the subject was human or non-human, a rule she had learned in Japan rather than at the IEP.

Yoshinori: Like Miki, Yoshinori achieved a medium designation (2 points) on the Passive Scale. He wrote five sentences on the PDT, three of which were passive; two of the passive sentences were given a .5 rating due to lack of meaningfulness and incorrect subject-verb agreement. Yoshinori's sentences follow:

1. There were many buildings in 1972.
2. The rural life was asked to change by the civilization. (P)
3. In 1953, there were a lot of field, but almost field had been changed buildings, home, and factory in 1972. (P)
4. As compared with 1953, the society in 1972 was industrialized strongly. (P)
5. People in 1972 were more sophisticated than people in 1953.

Among the study participants, Yoshinori stood out for his self-confidence and pride in the high level of grammatical knowledge possessed by his fellow Japanese. When asked to discuss his reasons for using the passive voice in sentences two, three, and four, Yoshinori spoke confidently at length of a rule he had learned in Japan:

Conversation 4.19

Y: Because my answer is I think in okay in Japan I learn I learned passive, no active is basically a person a person people. The rural life or the society is not a person and the society do nothing. Society or uh what should how can I explain that?
I: Like=
Y: Yeah, I think basically active is a person, but passive is not a person.
I: Aah okay
Y: Yeah yeah that's my that's my way when I write down English I think about person not person or uuuh that can do it or that can be done. I think.
I: That can be done.
Y: Or can do or can be done.
I: M-hm so in that case it's passive: that can be done. So that can be done by a person,
Y: M-hm
I: Right? So what's what's the difference there. That can be done or I can do it?
Y: Okay okay. Right. Let me explain. (Laughs) Oh okay, it's a person about person, we can use active or passive both. For example, I I I mm: Billy bought supper.(?). But for example, I killed him or I was killed by him. Or
I: M-hm
Y: I can use both but in that in that things good goods goods I cannot use active.

> For example, society can change the life. Well, maybe it's possible but I think sounds like strange.

(c. 320–375)

In discussing his reason for using the passive voice, Yoshinori's prime consideration appeared to be whether the passive subject was human or non-human. According to his rule, a human subject can occur in either the passive or active voice; however, a thing cannot be an active subject. Alluded to by Miki as well, this rule was one which the Japanese students had learned in their English classes in Japan and not one covered by Wendy or the Grammar 4 textbook.

When asked to explain how to form the passive voice, Yoshinori demurred and said he used the structure automatically: "Basically I don't think. It's maybe kind of feeling" (466+). He also mentioned that using the active and passive voice is not difficult for Japanese people because of their traditionally strong grounding in grammar.

Later I asked him when people should use the passive voice, he mentioned two uses that had not been brought up in class or by other students. First, he said that the passive voice is concerned with whether an action was intended or not:

Conversation 4.20

Y: For example, I went to Moscow. And uh, but if my friend take took me to Moscow. "I was took. I was took. I was took to Moscow." Taken. "I was taken to Moscow."
I: Taken, yeah.
Y: If I use passive sentence
I: M-hm
Y: It means, not my intention. I mean, not my will. I mean. Okay. I went to Moscow. Maybe it's uh my thought,my decide my decision.
I: M-hm
Y: But if I take to Moscow, taken to Moscow, sometimes it's not my intention, not my decision

In addition to the topic of intention or volition, Yoshinori also mentioned that the passive is used frequently with natural phenomena, when I asked him if he had been instructed to

use the passive voice in scientific writing. Finally, Yoshinori also mentioned that using the passive can create more sentence variety in an essay. In fact, his professor in Japan had told him to avoid using the same subject repeatedly.

In response to my query about whether the passive voice possesses a special meaning, Yoshinori said that the passive could be used for insisting: "If I want to insist insist insist uh say properly insist. Maybe passive sentence is effective"(544+). When I asked him to give me an example for this last use, he was unable to give me one.

Yoshinori told me that he had learned about active and passive sentences in Japan before he began studying at the IEP. He mentioned that in order to enter the university in his country, he had to take an English exam in which grammar carried a "high weight." Not surprisingly, Yoshinori told me that he feels using the passive voice is "no problem" and that he tries to use it in his writing: "I think I should try I should try to write down passive sentence because I told you all active is all active sentence is not good very boring" (001+). Although Yoshinori's confidence level was very high and he spoke with confidence about the rules associated with passive, many of his rules were anomalous or incomplete.

He drew on the grammar instruction he had learned in his country and appeared to have incorporated very little of the information he had been exposed to in Grammar 4. Yoshinori's interview raises a series of question about students grammar knowledge: What rules do they actually rely on?,what is the source of these rules?, and are the rules effective and useful?

Yukiko: Also included in the medium-user category was Yukiko, who scored 1.5

on the Passive Scale. She wrote five sentences on the PDT, three of which were in the passive voice:

1. A railroad had been built in 1969. (P)
2. Cows had disappeared in 1969.
3. A supermarket had been built in 1972. (P)
4. The hill had been changed to a factory in 1969. (P)
5. A bus was on the road in 1972.

Yukiko spoke confidently about her reasons for using the passive voice in sentences one, three, and four: "I wanna emphasize a railroad or supermarket or hill. That's why (.) I (.) used passive voice" (PDT #6, 311+). Likewise, she was able to give a general rule for the formation of the passive voice without hesitation; however when asked to discuss when the passive voice should be used, she hesitated and began by saying merely that she used the structure in conversation. Interestingly, she mentioned that our first interview had raised her consciousness about when she used Grammar 4 structures: "After I talked with you, I found when I use passive voice. I found, 'Oh, I use passive voice' (laughter)" (365+). She told me that earlier she had thought she did not use the passive voice; however, after our initial interview she had become more aware of her actual practice. Later she mentioned that she used stative passive phrases like "I was excited" or "surprised." Finally, after giving it more thought, Yukiko mentioned that the structure is used "when we talk about book or uh building or something famous. Because ah that novel was written by someone say Shakespeare, so we should use passive voice when we talk about like that" (420+).

When asked about the structure's meaning, Yukiko mentioned that it has two purposes. First, the passive voice allows the active subject to be hidden: "We use the passive voice when we want to hide subject or we don't know who is the subject, who did something" (438+). In addition, Yukiko mentioned that the passive voice can be used to

give emphasis: "...when we wanna emphasize (.) the time or time or what? Or something, the the uh when we want to emphasize something or time or a person." With regard to the difference in meaning between the active and the passive, she said that the "information is the same, but the emphasis is a little different" (445+).

Yukiko appeared to be a very thoughtful, reflective language learner, ready to consider her practice and articulate it in the interview. Although she initially had difficulty talking about the uses of the passive, throughout the interview she continued to add to the list of ways the structure could be used. Her interview pointed to the fact that students' participation in research may act as a vehicle for raising their awareness or consciousness. According to her experience, Yukiko became more aware of the way in which she used Grammar 4 structures as a result of participating in the interviews.

Low users: Ling, Curt, and Yousuke

Ling: Having written five sentences during the PDT, Ling's score on the Passive Scale was 1 for the single passive sentence he wrote. His sentences follow:

1. There are a lot of buildings [that] were built in 1972. (P)
2. There are a lot of populations moved in this area in 1972.
3. The wild places became so small and people made many roads and streets in this area.
4. In 1972, the area became so convenient for people.
5. In 1953, people could live in the very clean and beautiful environment without any population.

When asked why he had used the passive voice in sentence one, Ling seemed surprised by the question, laughed and said, "I didn't think about it. Just just an ordinary sentence" (PDT interview #4, 259+). Probing further to assess his knowledge of the structure, I asked him if others of the sentences he had written could have been written in the passive voice. He said that number three could have been written as "Many roads and streets were made in this area."

Later, when I asked him how to form the passive, he said, "I don't know how to explain but I just know how to use the rules" (288+). Similarly, when I asked him about when to use the passive voice, he said he was not sure. However, when I asked him if the passive had a special meaning, he was finally able to answer confidently: "No, I don't think the other meaning, Just (.) they change the the form" (321+).

Ling, a student from Taiwan, had learned about the passive voice in high school; however he said he had not studied diligently in high school because he never thought he would need to know English in the future. When I asked him if he felt comfortable using the structure, he said, "Sometimes I also feel some sentences I also feel confused" (370+). When I asked him the types of sentences that present difficulty, he said that the simple past passive sentences were "easy" for him; however, sometimes, the difficulty appeared to be the choice between using the passive or active voice: "Sometimes I when I want to write down a certain sentence...in that case, I I'm not sure I can use the past or not, passive or not" (375+).

Although Ling demonstrated that he was able to use the passive voice during the PDT, he did not possess a high level of metalinguistic knowledge that was able to be articulated. He was unable to tell me why he had decided to use the passive voice during the PDT, how to form the passive voice, and when the structure should be used. On the other hand, he was able to talk about the meaning of the passive voice and at a very general level, his own difficulties with using the structure. Part of his reticence in the interview may have been due to the fact that he questioned why he was being asked to do the PDT. Although he came to the PDT and participated in the interview, he initially seemed skeptical and reluctant to take part as exhibited in his questions about the purpose of the PDT and whether it was necessary for him to participate in it. His attitude at the

beginning of the PDT may have negatively influenced his willingness to answer some of my questions.

Curt: Like Ling, Curt, a Korean student, was classified as a "low user" because of his score of 1.0 on the Passive Scale. Curt wrote only three sentences during the PDT and two of the sentences were written in the passive voice:

1. The area had been developed quickly since 1953. (P)
2. The small pond and stream was disappeared because of the development of the city. (P)
3. These pictures show me the change of this city which is from agricultural society to industrial society.

Sentence one received a .5 designation for incorrect verb tense usage and sentence two received a score of 0 because the word *disappear* may not be used as a passive verb. When I asked him why he had used the passive voice in these sentences, he quickly replied,"I think the passive passive uh just emphasized the subject of sentences. So I just used it...I just want to emphasize this subject" (55+).

Later in the interview when I asked Curt how to form the passive, he answered easily and accurately. Likewise, when I inquired about whether the passive has a special meaning compared to the active voice, he responded confidently: "For me it's the same meaning. Active, yeah. Just just a little bit emphasize." (103+). However, he was at a loss when I asked him about possible uses for the passive voice. He began to answer by saying, "when I don't know who makes (..) who makes this kind of situation. Or no idea. Sorry." Although he started to answer the question by referring to when the active subject is not known, he was unable to complete his answer.

Curt reported that he had learned most of his knowledge about English in his high school English classes in Korea. He commented that the pace of the IEP grammar class was too fast for him. As a result, he preferred to not ask questions in Grammar 4, but

instead go home and consult his English grammar book from Korea. Then if he still had questions he would ask Wendy in class. When I asked about the ease with which he was able to use the passive voice, Curt commented that he tried to use all of the new grammar, including the passive, in his writing for John in Reading/Composition 4. However, earlier, he had commented that the passive specifically presented him with problems when he was reading: "Passive makes the sentence be more difficult when I read some books or something like that...I mean too long. When I see a too long sentence which include passive and some other grammar, it's more difficult to understand" (110+).

Although Curt's passive use score was relatively low, he showed a fair level of metalinguistic knowledge, which he was able to articulate. At least twice he mentioned the ability of passive to emphasize a specific subject, a function of the passive which had been brought up by Wendy in class. Furthermore, he knew how to form the structure and had an understanding of its meaning and use. His understanding of the structure and ability to discuss the passive seemed to promise more than Curt's actual performance on the PDT.

Yousuke: Yousuke wrote five sentences, one of which appeared to be a passive attempt:

1. In 1969, the changes to urban city was starting.
2. In 1972, the city became almost completely an urban city.
3. This area was rural.
4. The big tree which was symbol in 1953 was disappeared in 1972. (P)
5. In 1972, many people moved to this city from other cities.

During the PDT interview, I failed to identify sentence four as a possible incorrect passive construction, classifying it instead as an incorrectly constructed active sentence. As a result, I asked Yousuke if he had consciously decided to use the active voice in his sentences. He replied, "Actually I don't know why...When I choose subject, then I

choose verb, so it's better to use active if if I choose a verb [or word?]" (035+). Through later clarification, it appeared that he first chooses the subject for the sentence and then chooses a verb that fits the subject he has chosen.

When describing the formation of the passive, Yousuke was very brief but able to demonstrate his familiarity with the structure: "Be plus -ed." When I echoed his answer as a question, he explained: "Past part" (048+). He was similarly brief when I asked him about the uses of the passive voice:

Conversation 4.21

I: Right, okay. Good deal. When should people use passive? Are there some times when when it's good to use passive? Do you know what I mean (...)
Y: Subject is known (???), people or. No just thing, thing
I: Ah, if the subject is a thing?
Y: For example, the desk is made by something.
I: Ah, okay. Okay, so the desk is made by something or someone. Anything else?
(059+)

It appeared from his answer that Yousuke thought the passive was utilized when the subject was known and when the subject was a thing, rather than a person. Neither of these rules, however, had been mentioned by Wendy in Grammar 4 although the latter rule had been mentioned by both Yoshinori and Miki in their interviews.

Later in the interview, I asked Yousuke whether the passive voice had a meaning distinct from the active. "Yeah," he replied. "cause we don't know who destroyed the road [referring to an example sentence I had given him]. So if you don't know the person who destroyed the road, it's better to use passive" (066+). When I asked him if using the passive changed the meaning, he replied, "Focus on something or someone." In this exchange, he made it clear that the passive was used when the subject is not known, contradicting his earlier answer that the passive is used when the subject is known. Moreover, he demonstrated that the passive is used to focus "on something or someone."

Neither of these uses of the passive had been mentioned earlier in the interview. On the contrary, Yousuke had mentioned anomalous rules earlier. Here, however, he revealed a greater understanding of the passive voice that he had earlier.

Not surprisingly, as a Japanese young man who had arrived at the IEP from Japan just six weeks earlier, Yousuke reported learning most of his knowledge about the passive, and English grammar in general, in Japan. When I asked him if he had learned any new information about grammar in Wendy's class, he replied, "Most of it I knew" (082+). Although he had made just one attempt to use the passive voice in his PDT sentences, Yousuke told me when I asked him if he felt comfortable using the passive voice, "Yes, no problem." He uses it on a "case by case" basis, but he feels comfortable using it if he needs to.

Yousuke, a young Japanese man, answered the interview questions very briefly. He demonstrated a fairly low ability, or willingness, to articulate his perceptions and insights about his own language use. He rarely elaborated on an answer. An interesting aspect of his interview was his citing of anomalous rules initially for when the passive should be used, only later to contradict them with accurate rules that had been mentioned in Grammar 4. As with many of the Japanese students, Yousuke was using a system of grammar that he had learned in English classrooms in Japan. In some cases, the rules he had learned did not always correspond to those mentioned in his IEP grammar class.

Non-users: I-Fong, Jong-Ho, Juan, and Sang-Jun

Clearly there are problems with assuming that those who achieved a high passive score on the Passive Scale were more proficient at using the passive voice than those who did not. In describing the pictures used in the PDT, there was no requirement for the students to use the passive voice although the structure is frequently used when the active

subject is unknown and the focus of the sentence is on something that has changed. The following section profiles students who chose not to use the passive voice. As in the profiles above, the focus will be on the students' abilities to use articulated metalinguistic knowledge to discuss the form, meaning, and use of the passive voice.

I-Fong: When I asked if she had thought about using the passive voice in her PDT sentences, I-Fong said it had not occurred to her to do so, and explained that she was not sure if the passive voice would have been correct in her sentences. Later in the interview when I asked her to tell me how to form the passive voice, she said she would need to look in a book first in order "to make sure it's the right thing" (178+). When I pressed her for the rule of passive formation, however, she was able to tell me despite her initial lack of confidence.

She told me that one use of the passive voice was to be "objective;" however, she was not able to explain this idea further to me. When I encouraged her to tell me other uses of the passive with which she was familiar, I-Fong told me that she remembered a model passive sentence: "River Heights is located on located on the Palouse area. Located is passive, right?"(210+). On the subject of the meaning of the passive, I-Fong told me that active and passive sentences have the same meaning, but they reveal different information. Referring to two example sentences: "The road was built" and "Someone built the road," I-Fong said, "We can understand who built the road but the first sentence, we can't really understand who built the road" (220+). Later, she mentioned that the active sentence gives more specific information about who built the road.

In contrast to many of the Asian students, I-Fong told me that she had learned most of her knowledge about the passive, and English grammar as a whole, at the IEP. However, she confided in me that she still had a lot of confusion about the passive and

thought she needed to study more. When I asked her if she felt comfortable enough to use it in her writing, she told me that if she understood the "rule clearly," she would use the passive in her writing, but she did not feel as if she understood. She told me that she "seldom" tried to use the structure in John's class. In explanation, she went on: "I need more practice. I think...I don't feel comfortable. I think there's a habit, you know. If I understand the rule, I will use it, but if I uh don't understand clearly, maybe I will forget it and use my my use the passive what I know." Later, she corrected herself and said, "the parts what I know" (278+). Although I-Fong admittedly did not attempt to use the passive voice frequently and was confused about its use, she was very aware of her lack of knowledge and lack of familiarity with the structure. The interview with I-Fong is a reminder that metalinguistic awareness may extend to a person's awareness of the deficits in their knowledge as well as what one has mastered. I-Fong was able to articulate why she did what she did as well as explain the aspects of the passive that were difficult for her.

Jong-Ho: In discussing why he did not use the passive voice in his three PDT sentences, Jong-Ho told me that his use of the passive depended on the subject he chose for the sentence: "[It] depends on the subject if that sentence will be active voice or passive voice" (276+). When I asked him how to form the passive voice, he was able to give me an explanation, and similarly, when I questioned him about he uses of the passive voice, he gave me a complete answer: "If you emphasize something, you must, you you sh- you use passive voice like this way... Paper was made in China, but we don't know what made... paper" (308 +). Later he summarized, two important uses of the passive voice: "Emphasis and I didn't know ... exactly what how who who did something" (330+).

Jong-Ho told me that he had learned most of his grammar information in Korea in high school and in a university English class at his university in Korea that met two hours each week and focused mainly on reading skills. He reported that he felt comfortable using the passive voice in his writing for John. When asked if he ever needed to consult a grammar book, he said that he did occasionally but at other times would just try to use the passive without checking. Better able to articulate his understanding and knowledge of the passive than I-Fong, Jong-Ho had a good grasp of the form, meaning and use of the structure. Nevertheless, he opted not to use the passive voice on the PDT.

Juan: Having written six active sentences during the PDT, Juan told me he had not considered using the passive in his sentences because he preferred the most direct way when he was under time pressure:

Excerpt 4.22

J: Yeah, in this moment no no not really did I think. That's one of my problems uh if I need to do something quickly I think and write and act. I think and take action.(laughs) And if I have time to correct all the things, maybe I can change and I read my work (laughs). But you know when you have a lifestyle, in Mexico City I used to have a very quickly lifestyle. I thought something and act and made the point.

I: And that's okay. So for you the active is more, it's easier, more straight-forward.

J: Yes, yes. I do everything very straight. I don't like to be, of course if I have time I can do better do better things. I can correct all the things, the style, the sweet words (laughs). But if I don't have time, I try to do what I need to do.

I: Yeah, yeah... (PDT #1: 003+)

Juan went on to tell me that if he had had more time, for example an hour, to complete the PDT, he would have tried to "mix" the sentences. Later he explained that the passive voice is "not normal" for him. He went on to say,

> This active sentence is normal for me. I think in English. I was thinking in English so I wrote. The active for me is very easy. But in passive I need to think, or past perfect or those things. First, I need to think in Spanish and then translate because in Spanish we have the past perfect is the same. I

> need to think in Spanish. Maybe in 4 months or 6 months, I don't need need to do ...that (65+).

Despite his decision to avoid using the passive voice on the PDT, Juan was easily able to explain the rule for forming the passive and able to mention several uses of the structure. First, he told me that the passive can be used to emphasize a passive subject. Next, he mentioned that it can be used when "you know that somebody made the action but you don't want to to tell people who made the action" (91+). He showed similar depth of understanding when I asked him about the meaning of the passive and he told me that there was no difference between the passive and active versions of an example sentence I had shown him (Bill destroyed the old house./ The old house was destroyed by Bill.)

Having learned English as a child in a bilingual elementary school in Mexico, Juan had been fluent in English as a child. During the interview he told me that, although he had once been very good at English, he could not remember any of the grammar rules he had learned as a child. As a result, all of his conscious rule knowledge had come from Wendy's class: "Of course I learned it in elementary school. But after 16 years, I forget all the rules. I don't remember any rule... And now I learn them again in Level 4" (145+). When I asked him if he knew the passive well enough to use it in his writing, he told me that he did not although he did not know why. He commented that he had received his worst grade in Grammar 4 on the passive voice quiz. He mentioned that he could understand the passive voice when he heard it used on television, but using it in his own writing was very time consuming and involved first translating from Spanish.

Although, like I-Fong- and Jong-Ho, Juan had opted not to use the passive voice, he clearly understood how to form it and was aware of several instances when it could be used. However, he had not reached a point where he felt comfortable using it in his own

writing. Not having taken an English class since he was 12 years old, Juan still felt that English was "strange" (175+). A very verbal and gregarious person, Juan was strikingly aware of his own practice and able to explain his reasons for not using the passive voice. His level of articulated metalinguistic knowledge was high although like the others in the non-user category, he had chosen not to use the strucure.

Sang-Jun: Sang-Jun had written three active sentences on the PDT. When asked if he had considered using the passive voice, he echoed Juan: "In my opinion, the active is a little bit easy to write some article because it's a little bit familiar. And when we made a passive sentence, we must translate it from active. This is a long time (?) process to make the sentence." Summarizing this point later, he said that if he wrote in the active voice, he had to think once; however, writing in the passive voice necessitated thinking twice. He said he found the passive "hard."

Although he found the structure difficult to use, he was easily able to state a rule for its formation. When asked about the uses of the passive, Sang-Jun mentioned that it is used when "we cannot define the subject exactly." Later he gave me some example sentences to illustrate: "And this building is constructed by some company. Or this building is constructed very beautifully. It's only that." On the subject of the meaning of the passive, Sang-Jun said that he thought the passive form of a sentence was more general and that it depended on the reader's perspective.

Sang-Jun told me that he had learned about English grammar in Korea. He added that he regretted taking Grammar 4 because he was able to read the book and study it himself without the teacher. He said that he preferred Korean books about English grammar to the Grammar 4 textbook because they were more detailed. In his English grammar book from Korea, he could have studied "about ten more kinds of the passive."

He went on to tell me that he had learned sophisticated rules about English in his country, but now he had to learn simplified rules in Grammar 4. He wanted more time to ask the teacher questions and talk about difficult areas of grammar. When I asked him if he knew the passive well enough to use it in his writing, he said that he felt "confident," but he found the passive difficult to understand when he encountered it in his reading of *A River Runs Through It.* After more thought, however, he told me that he was actually not sure how confident he felt in his ability to use the passive. He knew he would need to turn in numerous written assignments when he entered Northwest University's M.B.A. program in the coming semester and he appeared worried about his writing skill.

Sang-Jun appeared to have a lot of respect for detailed grammar rules and felt that he was not being exposed to "sophisticated" grammar explanations in the Grammar 4 class. Able to describe the formation of the passive and mention at least one use of the passive, he possessed a fair amount of metalinguistic knowledge although he was confused about the meaning of the passive. He was clearly aware of his own practice, mentioning that he avoided the passive because it was too time consuming and too "hard."

In sum, the picture description tasks and interviews revealed a wide discrepancy in both the frequency with which students attempted to use the passive voice and the degree to which they used the structure correctly in their writing. When questioned about the PDT, many of the students revealed a high level of metalinguistic knowledge with regard to the passive voice; however, their actual use of the structure did not always seem to be related to their knowledge of it.

Participants' Perceptions of the Role of Grammar in their Language Learning

The final goal of the present study was to explore the study participants' perceptions of the role of grammar in their language learning experience and, in particular, their writing. In order to learn more about the participants' attitudes toward the importance of grammar, they were asked to fill out a questionnaire with open-ended questions and to participate in a small-group interview/discussion focusing on their experiences as language learners (see Appendices 3 and 10, respectively, for a copy of the questionnaire and interview questions).

Questionnaire Analysis

After the questionnaires were collected from the study participants in Level 4, I developed a grid, which listed student answers categorized by individual. Then I categorized the answers obtained from all of the questionnaires and displayed the tallies obtained from all of the participants. Originally, I had intended to include responses from students in Levels 3-6 in the tallies in order to provide a cross-section of student answers from which to analyze those of the Level 4 students. However, due to the volume of data collected in the four main data collection phases of the current study, the decision was made to look primarily at Level 4 student responses as these students are the focus of this study.

A careful review of all of the questionnaires, led to the development of categories for each question on the questionnaire. As some of the students mentioned several ideas in their answers, the decision was made to allow multiple codings for each answer if the student gave a multi-part answer. For example, in response to question #1, "In your opinion, what is the best way to learn a foreign language?," Yukiko wrote, "To live in the country and make friend with native speaker." I considered this answer to correspond to

two categories: "Living in the country" and "Contact with native speakers." Thus, if an answer contained multiple ideas, each individual topic within the answer was represented in a category. Adopting this method of analyzing the questionnaires allowed the often multi-faceted nature of students' answers to be retained. Finally, the results of the questionnaires were reviewed, in conjunction with students' answers from the grammar perceptions interviews, in an effort to draw conclusions about the students' views about grammar learning within their English learning experience.

Questionnaire Responses

In an effort to learn about some of the participants' general beliefs about language learning, the first question on the grammar perceptions questionnaire asked the respondents to describe the best way to learn a foreign language. Some of the fourteen respondents mentioned more than one method or strategy. Table 4.10 displays the students' responses by category.

The second question on the questionnaire asked respondents whether they thought learning grammar was important in learning a foreign language. They were asked to explain their response. The participants' responses listed by category are found in Table 4.11. Four students mentioned that learning grammar is a basic part of language learning. In addition, four students also responded that grammar is important because it allows for effective communication. Other responses included grammar's importance in the skill areas of writing (4 responses), speaking (1 response), and reading (1 response).

Question three of the questionnaire asked respondents in which skill area grammar was the most helpful to them. Of the four skills listed–listening, reading, speaking, and writing–eleven of the participants identified writing as being the most

Questionnaire Responses Regarding the Best Way to Learn a Foreign Language
Table 4.10

Questionnaire Response	Number of Responses
Live in the country where the language is spoken	5
Make friends with native speakers (NS)/Don't speak with compatriots / Talk to NSs	4
Speak a lot	2
Read	2
Practice / Practice what you learn outside of class	2
Find a good school with teachers who enjoy teaching foreign students	1
Memorize vocabulary	1
Study the "basics"	1

Questionnaire Responses Regarding the Importance of Grammar in Learning a Foreign Language

Table 4.11

Questionnaire Response	**Number of Responses**
Grammar is fundamental, "basic" -It's necessary for speaking, hearing, writing, living in the U.S. (1) -It's impossible to learn a language without grammar (1) -Without grammar rules, "your foreign language is bad" (1) -"It's the [basis] for any language" (1)	4
Grammar allows for communication -You can express yourself clearly and be understood (2) -It's necessary for making meaning (1) -Without grammar, sentences are meaningless and may make people feel uncomfortable (1)	4
Grammar is important in writing -in writing research papers and assignments for professors (1) -in writing essays, letters, and memos (1) -in writing correctly (1)	3
Grammar helps in speaking.	2
Grammar helps with reading and writing	1

helpful to them, followed by reading (4), speaking (2), and listening (1). Those who cited writing as being the skill area most affected by grammar mentioned a variety of reasons: knowing grammar allows one to find grammar errors (1 student); in both speaking and writing one is the "author" of his/her words, so grammar is useful in"explaining ideas" (2 students); and finally, knowing grammar can help one to express oneself clearly (2 students).

Question four asked respondents to describe how they learned grammar best. Table 4.12 lists the methods cited by students. The responses to this question reflect a variety of strategies used in learning grammar. Those who cited "practice"as the most effective method of learning grammar did not elaborate in their answers on the questionnaires. However, in the ensuing small group discussions, I asked students to explain their answers more fully. In some cases, the participants mentioned the same learning strategies in their questionnaire responses and in the interviews. Interestingly, given the opportunity to explain their learning styles during the group interviews, many of the students cited new strategies that had not been included in their questionnaire responses. A number of the strategies mentioned could be grouped together by theme; however, others were quite original and unrelated to the other responses. The students' interview responses to the question of how they learn grammar best are discussed below.

The first cluster of strategies for learning grammar mentioned by students in the interviews dealt with **writing**. Both Juan and Sang-Jun mentioned learning grammar as the product of a progression of different kinds of practice. Juan said, "...first you have to do exercises, easy exercises to remind, to put in your mind all of your knowledge and uh

Questionnaire Responses Regarding How Participants Learn Grammar Best

Table 4.12

Method of Learning	**Number of Responses**
Practice	3
Using new grammar after class/ Using grammar in daily life and conversation	2
Remembering correct sentences and using them frequently/ Making sentences using structures	2
Speaking practice (with corrections from a native speaker)	1
Asking the teacher	1
Doing TOEFL-style exercises	1
Reading textbooks with many grammar explanations	1
Doesn't learn through using the book because it's too easy	1
Doesn't know / no answer given	1

then you can use that knowledge for more complex sentences and write and do your own sentences. And then when it is normal for you, you can use it correctly, speak speaking. But you have to iike (???). You have to begin with the start. (Laughs)"(GP #2, 50). Similarly, Sang-Jun mentioned that "I think we study old style. First time we write. Writing is some very good grammar [practice] than speaking. So we practice writing and remember the content and then speak. That is very useful" (GP #2, 40). Similarly, Miki stated that "Writing is good to remember grammar. Make sentence. Make a paragraph. I have to focus on grammar, so yeah, writing is [helpful]" (GP #5, 33).

A second group of responses concerned **the role of reading in learning grammar**. Although he did not elaborate, Jong-Ho mentioned that reading children's novels was the way in which he learned grammar best. Although Yousuke also mentioned relying on grammar book explanations and trying to use the new structures in his writing, he said that looking for the new structures while he was reading was the most effective way for him to learn grammar.

A third cluster of answers focused on the importance of **exposure** to and **thinking about the new grammar** as a means of being able to use it. Ling told me that in order to express himself, extensive thought was essential: "I think think a lot when I want to express my feeling uh my opinion. I think about the grammar. I also uh umm when I'm writing, I also think a lot" (GP #5, 28). Similarly, Jabbar also found extended exposure to and practice with the new structures to be essential to learning new grammar. He expressed frustration with his Grammar 4 class because he felt he did not receive enough exposure to the new structures in class: "We don't practice in the classroom unless we do the homework. Because she's like the teacher's like she writes it like fast (?). It's gotta be in my mind and then when I get back home the first time I practice. And then I have

second time practice. Then I can memorize it. But if I practice one time, it's like, I'm gonna forget about it" (GP#6, 121). When I asked Jabbar how he learned grammar best, he cited, "practice and understanding," and continued saying, "If when I practice that what I'm doing just like uh it's gonna be all the way in my mind" (GP #6, 49). He mentioned that his previous grammar class at the IEP, Grammar 3, had been taught in a way that had been very effective for him. I asked him to explain why that class had been useful for him:

Conversation 4.23

I: So what helped you to understand? What helped you to understand last session?
J: I think practice.
I: Like, from the book? Homework?
J: Yeah, homework practice.
I: Oh, okay. Did you have fill-in-the-blank or your own sentences or?
J: The way the teacher helped a lot because he's like correcting a lot. Even we know he explain every single detail...If I don't understand, like he explain it and I look in the book and write it down in my notes so when I get back home I study from the notes and then I practice. So it's gonna be a lot of practice, so it's gonna be I memorize it in my mind. So that's (???).
I: So he he wrote a lot of details a lot of (examples like)
J: (Yeah). Examples, single details a lot because I make mistakes a lot. When the students make a mistake, he show them for us.
I: Did he tell you a lot of rules? Rules to remember=
J: =No, no, no
I: Just examples?
J: Yeah just
I: So that really helped you?
J: Yeah, a lot.

(GP# 6, 70).

For Jabbar, it appeared to be very important to have time to become familiar with a new structure through practice in class. Ling, on the other hand, cited the importance of time and thought while writing. Both participants mentioned the necessity of thinking about the new structures, and as Jabbar mentioned several times, "getting it in their minds."

Finally, during the Grammar Perceptions interviews, some of the participants mentioned strategies that had not appeared in the questionnaires and were unrelated to other participants' responses in the interviews. For example, Masaaki told me that having tests was the most effective way for him to learn grammar: "Tests is the best way to learn because I will realize which part is the most difficult if I have a test" (GP #1, 34). Later he mentioned that tests motivate him to study, and in order to prepare for grammar tests, he practices by writing sentences. Another strategy came from Curt, who told me that the most effective way for him to learn grammar is to "simultaneously write and speak" (GP #6, 70). He explained that he writes new sentences using the grammar structure and then says the new sentences aloud. He thinks this helps his pronunciation, in addition to helping him learn grammar. Yet another unique answer, came from I-Fong, who told me that she learned best through "play." I asked her to explain her answer more fully:

Conversation 4.24

I-F:	I think if we uh teacher can design a kind of play, a kind of active for students, they will enjoy the learning, I think.
I:	Mm-mm
I-F:	And uh they don't they don't remember the rule of grammar hard hard. They just enjoying enjoying th epractice, the the active.
I:	Mm-hm. So like the activity?=
I-F:	=That's the best way for me.
I:	So that will help you remember=
I-F:	=yeah=
I:	=the rule=
I-F:	=yeah=
I:	=if you do some kind of activity.
I-F :	Because I think the remember the rule of grammar is boring.
I:	Mm-hm
I-F:	Is boring, yeah.
I:	So if you practice it through activity, do you still do you still know the rule.
I-F:	Yeah

(GP # 3, 97).

I-Fong, a pre-school teacher in Taiwan, mentioned play or games as a classroom learning strategy that she preferred. In a later follow-up interview I asked her if she tried to incorporate games and play into her individual language study as well, but she said it was more effective and "more fun" in the classroom (Follow-up I, 290).

In an effort to learn more about students' practice, question five on the questionnaire asked students if they thought about grammar when they wrote in English. Of the thirteen students who responded, the majority-- eleven--said "yes," with two respondents saying they "sometimes" thought about grammar. Only one student responded by saying "not usually." One of the students, who responded that he "sometimes" thinks about grammar mentioned that it is "very difficult" to do so.

Questions six and seven on the questionnaire asked students whether they thought grammar helped them with their writing and whether they used information from their grammar class when they were writing. In response to question six, all of the students responded that grammar was helpful to them. Students mentioned that grammar allows for "exact expression" and allows others to understand. Others mentioned that grammar was necessary for all types of writing and that knowing grammar made writing easier. Finally, still others mentioned that familiarity with grammar allowed for "varied writing" and correct writing.

When asked whether they personally used information learned in grammar class when they were writing, ten students reported that they did. Two respondents said that they "sometimes" relied on information from grammar class, while one student said he did not. Those who said that they were able to use grammar learned in class in their writing included a variety of explanations in their responses. Two students cited specific

Grammar 4 structures, reported speech and the passive voice, as grammatical forms that they had learned in class and now use frequently. Another mentioned that he uses information from grammar class when he writes short paragraphs. Two students responded that they specifically try to use the new structures they learn in their writing. One of these respondents, Juan, explained that he had not studied English grammar since he was in elementary school, and at the time of the questionnaire, he had been in the U.S. for three weeks. Thus, he wrote, "I'm trying to use my few new concepts." The other respondent, Rob, who reported trying to use new structures in his writing, said, "...whenever I learn the new information from my grammar class, I always try to use that. It is really good for me." While the majority of students reported relying on form-focused information from grammar classes in their writing, one student admitted that he did not use information of that nature when he was writing: Jabbar responded, "I write from my mind."

During the Grammar Perceptions interviews/small group discussions, the students talked more about whether they used information from their grammar class in their writing for other classes. The responses were similar to those obtained from the questionnaires with a majority of the students reporting that they try, at least some of the time, to use information from Grammar 4 in their writing. However, in the interview setting they were able to explain more fully why they sometimes avoid using the new structures and why it is difficult for them to use the newly acquired grammatical forms when they write.

Although nearly all of the students who returned the questionnaire reported trying to use the Grammar 4 structures in their writing at least sometimes, in the Grammar Perceptions interviews students explored their reasons for sometimes avoiding the new

structures. For example, Adly said that he normally does not use the new grammar structures in his writing: "I don't know why, but I always use the simple grammar when I speak or write. I don't like to use the complex grammar. Maybe I know the infinitive after to. Simple grammar. But I think I need to use the complex grammar" (GP#1, 170). Similarly, Yousuke, who was taking part in the same small group discussion as Adly, added that simple grammar does not require a special effort, whereas complex grammar does (GP#1, 072). Responding to the same question, Curt mentioned that his Reading/Composition 4 teacher had begun to deduct points for grammar mistakes in writing. He told me, "When I write something, I usually I try to use what I used what I used already...But sometimes because I because I don't want to get a bad score (GP#6, 221). He mentioned later that in the previous session he had made a point of using new grammar structures and new vocabulary in his writing; however, in the current session he was too busy trying to keep up with his reading of the novel *A River Runs Through It* and was reluctant to lose points for making grammar mistakes in his Reading/Composition class.

Finally, in response to whether he used Grammar 4 structures in his writing, Jabbar replied with frustration that he couldn't "use anything." When I questioned him further, he explained, saying," Because we don't practice in the classroom unless we do the homework. Because she's like the teacher's like she writes it like fast..." (GP#6, 121). He went on to say that Grammar 4 was the first class in which he had been exposed to the passive voice and reported speech. However, in his opinion, Wendy seemed to assume that everyone had already learned these structures: "...She teaches us like everybody knows like the passive or reported speech. And just it's like memorized for us. Maybe she think like this or the uh the schedule is like we are all the people like all of the

students supposed to know the passive and reported speech....But for me it's the first time for me for passive" (GP#6, 145). Later in the interview in response to whether he tries to use the new structures in his writing, Jabbar replied,

> No, for me I never try to use passive because because I never never tried before and I don't know what's the passive a hundred percent. How to use it, where to use it and which sentences I have to use it and which situations I have to use it. So I never use the passive or reported speech. I never now thinking to use it (213).

Jabbar was the only student who mentioned having learned the Grammar 4 structures for the first time. One of two Arabic speakers to take part in this phase of the study, Jabbar's experiences were not echoed by the other students in the Grammar Perceptions interviews; however, Adly, a Kuwaiti, admitted to avoiding using "complex grammar" in favor of what he calls "simple grammar."

Finally, question eight asked participants to explain the strategies they employed when they wrote an essay for their composition class. I asked this question in order to discover whether students would mention editing or other form-focused concerns in connection with their writing. Of the fourteen responses, six included a reference to form-focused concerns. Table 4.13 lists the form-focused strategies participants employ when writing an essay for their composition class.

Grammar Perceptions Interviews

The Grammar Perceptions small group interviews were intended to allow students to elaborate on the answers they gave on the questionnaire. Although the semi-structured format of the interviews insured that all of the discussions were directed to a certain extent by the interests of the participants, two of the central topics discussed during the interviews were the types of grammatical information students accessed when writing and the extent to which the students thought their Grammar 4 class helped them

Form-focused Strategies Employed by Participants when Writing an Essay
Table 4.13

Strategy	Number of Responses
Consulting grammar book, dictionary, or class materials	2
Checking grammar / fixing mistakes	2
Checking spelling	1
Using a Grammar 4 structure (participant cited using reported speech frequently)	1

with their writing outside of class.

During the interviews, I asked the students to reflect on the type of grammatical information they usually use when they are writing. In some cases, I asked students what they typically did when they had a grammatical question while they were writing in English. In all cases, I supplied students with some examples of types of grammatical information that might be relied upon such as rules, example sentences, grammar books, or their feeling about what might be correct in order to aid them in answering the question. Table 4.14 displays the primary types of grammatical information drawn on by students in their writing.

The Primary Types of Grammatical Information Used by Students in their Writing
Table 4.14

Type of Grammatical Information	Number of Respondents
Try to remember rule	6
Consult grammar book or dictionary	5
Rely on example sentence	1
Rely on feeling	1
Doesn't check grammar	1

Although only one student, Masaaki, cited feeling as his principle source of grammatical information, five other students mentioned that in certain situations they also rely upon their sense of what is correct. Rob and Ling, for example, both said that their first approach when they have a grammar question is to consult a grammar book or the dictionary; however, if they are short of time, they usually rely on their feeling about what is correct. Similarly, both Adly and Juan said that they first try to remember the rule, but if they cannot remember, they often rely on feeling. Juan's case is especially interesting in that he had learned English as a child in a bilingual elementary school in Mexico.

Although he knew the rules of English when he was a child, now it is very difficult for him to recall grammatical rules; however, he still knows how to use the structures (GP#2).

The responses to this question highlighted the wide range that existed between some of the students with respect to grammar preparation. When asked about the nature of the grammatical information he draws upon when writing, Yoshinori proudly answered, "Japanese English teachers concentrate on teaching grammar, grammar, grammar. I think most Japanese have in the brain most Japanese have a rule of grammar. I mean, chart....Maybe you know Japanese are uh good at memorizing" (GP#2, 173). Later he told me that he had learned all of the structures covered in Grammar 4 when he was in high school. In contrast to Yoshinori's preparation, and that of many Asian students, which allowed him to easily rely on grammatical rules when writing, Jabbar had never been exposed to the passive voice and reported speech in his past study of English. When asked about the type of grammatical information he relied upon in his writing, Jabbar replied that he did not check his grammar when he was writing. He mentioned that he was usually concerned with his vocabulary rather than his writing, yet he did admit later that he had started checking the writing that he turned in to his composition teacher, John: "I never think about like how to correct grammar or not correct. So this is my problem. And now I'm looking for like to change my ways that I take" (GP#6, 174). Thus, the Grammar Perceptions interviews revealed differences in strategies and preparation among the participants.

In addition to highlighting different student strategies with regard to the kind of grammatical information upon which students relied, the interviews also allowed for discussion on the topic of whether the students considered Grammar 4 to be an asset to them in their work in other classes. Of the thirteen students who participated in the

interviews, 8 considered Grammar 4 to be useful to them, while the remaining 5 did not. Those who found it useful cited a variety of reasons: Adly found all of his classes connected, and, thus, he used information from grammar class in his other classes; Although Yukiko had learned all of the Grammar 4 structures in high school in Japan, she was happy to have a review of what she had learned earlier; I-Fong thought that Grammar 4 would help her with harder classes in the future; Rob valued Grammar 4 because it helped him see how the English "system of grammar" works; Both Ling and Masaaki found the information from Grammar 4 useful in their reading/composition class although they observed that it did not help them in all their classes[5]; Finally, Juan found Grammar 4 to be "perfect" because it allowed him to remember the rules of English that he had forgotten since he was a child in the bilingual elementary school.

Although the majority of students found Grammar 4 to be useful to them in their work for their other classes, five of the students did not find the class helpful. Two students, Yoshinori and Sang-Jun, felt that the class was unnecessary for them since they had already studied English grammar extensively in their home countries of Japan and Korea, respectively. Sang-Jun commented that the class was, "Very bored to me. Very easy to understand...I don't need" (GP#2, 230) and Yoshinori commented simply, "We've already learned it [the material]" (GP#2, 235). In a similar vein, Miki commented that the class was "easier than other classes." Continuing, she explained, "Other classes request me more more higher level things..." Referring to the usefulness of material learned in Grammar 4, she said, "Sometimes I can use grammar I learned here when I talk with my friends. It's useful, but I didn't I don't remember I use the grammar I learned here when I have to had to write in other courses (GP#5, 162-180).

Finally, both Jabbar and Curt also commented that Grammar 4 had not helped

them in their other classes, but for very different reasons than those cited by Yoshinori, Sang-Jun, and Miki. As discussed earlier, Jabbar was continually frustrated in the course because he felt it moved too quickly. For example, while he was learning the passive voice and reported speech for the first time, other students, like Yoshinori, were merely reviewing a structure they had learned in junior high or high school (GP#6). Like Jabbar, Curt also reported not finding Grammar 4 helpful in his other classes, but he attributed the problem to his heavy workload as a level 4 student at the IEP. He explained, "Before I use my grammar in my writing, I need some time to practice my grammar what I learned, but I think I don't have time to practice because I spend all my time to read" (GP #6, 151). He went on to explain that reading the novel *A River Runs Through It* for his reading/composition class took most of his time and, as a result, he had little time to focus on the new grammar structures he was being exposed to in Grammar 4. Thus, a brief survey of the students' opinions about the ultility of the course reveals that the students who failed to find the course useful did so because it was too challenging for some and too basic for others.

Summary

In this chapter, the theoretical framework for data analysis in this study was introduced. Because the study relied on predominantly qualitative methods of data collection and analysis, one of the principal goals of this chapter was to provide thick description of the data, which included classroom field notes and transcripts, interview transcripts, samples of student writing, and questionnaires. Finally each of the study's four research questions were reviewed and the data presented and described.

The classroom discourse samples, collected in connection with research question one, made possible the development of a typology of types of form-focused input to

which students were exposed in Grammar 4. In addition to the teacher as an important source of a wide variety of types of form-focused input, the data also revealed the importance of classmates as a source of grammar-based input for students.

The data concerning students' level of structure use in their Reading/Composition class (research question two) indicated great variability with regard to the frequency with which students used Grammar 4 structures in their writing. Although there was no statistical relationship found using a Spearman Rank Order Correlation test, a possible qualitative relationship was identified between Grammar 4 achievement and the level of grammatical structures attempted and used in Reading/Composition 4. This qualitative comparison indicated that the students' home country preparation may play a key role in determining the level at which students transfer grammatical knowledge to their writing.

A further area of inquiry explored by the current study explored the relationship between the participants' metalinguistic knowledge and the level of Grammar 4 structure usage in their writing (research question three). The data revealed a wide discrepancy in the level of use of the passive voice, the focus of the Picture Description Task (PDT), among the participants. Students demonstrated a broad range with regard to their willingness to attempt the structure in their writing on the PDT, as well their ability to use the passive voice correctly. Surprisingly, especially in cases where the passive was completely avoided, a student's ability to articulate his or her metalinguistic knowledge seemed to not be related to whether the students used the target structure correctly, or even whether the students used the structure in their writing.

Finally, in an effort to better understand students' perception about the role of grammar in their language learning experience, data was gathered from questionnaires and the interviews (research question four). Student comments revealed that they view

developing proficiency in grammar as a vital component in developing communicative competence in English. Indeed, many of the students demonstrated a high degree of awareness both with regard to how they learn languages best and, more specifically, with regard to strategies that enable them to learn grammar successfully.

Notes to Chapter 4

[1] Participation structure is a term originated by Susan Phillips (1983) in her study of the Warm Springs Indians, *The Invisible Culture: Communication in Classroom and Community on the Warm Springs Indian Reservation.* The term refers to varying configuations of students in the classroom, which might include students working individually, in pairs, in groups, or together as a whole class in a teacher-fronted activity.

[2] The decision was made to concentrate upon the number of attempts a student made to use the structure, rather than the number of correct uses because the main focus of the present study is transfer and whether students try to use information from their grammar class in their R/C class. However, correct usage rates may be found in Table 4.15

Correct Usage Rates by Assignment for each Targeted Structure: Table 4.15

Assignment	Targeted Structure/ Correct Usage Rate	Number of Students Attempting Structure
1. Study guide #1 for textbook	Gerund / Infinitive (84%) Reported Speech (no attempts)	12
2. Study guide #2 for textbook	Gerund / Infinitive (96%) Reported Speech (no attempts)	15
3. Study guide #1 for *A River Runs Through It (AARTI)*	Passive Voice (60%)	13
4. Midterm exam over *AARTI*	Passive Voice (100%)*	3
5. Study guide #2 for *AARTI*	Past Perfect (67%)	4
6. Study guide #3 for *AARTI*	Past Perfect (75%)	4
7. Comparison / contrast essay	Conditional (100%)**	1

notes. * On the midterm exam only three students attempted to use the passive voice. One student attempted it once, another twice, and the third student three times. Thus, a small number of students used the structure a few times; however, when they used it, they used it correctly.
**On the essay, only one student attempted the conditional, and he used it correctly.

[3] Table 4.4 presents the average usage levels of the participants for the seven Reading/Composition 4 assignments. The table presents the average number of attempts to use Grammar 4 structures made by each participant in his/her writing. With regard to the length of the assignments, there was a range, with students' levels of written output varying by assignment and individual. Assignments 1 and 2, textbook study guide questions, ranged from 91 words (Jabbar) to 450 words (Yukiko), with 250 words being an average length. Assignments 3, 5, and 6, the novel study guide assignments, ranged in length from 170 words (Abdullah) to 914 (Yoshinori), with 450 words being an average. The midterm text, Assignment 4, ranged in length from 100 words (Abdullah) to 230 (Sang Jun), with 190 words as an average. Finally, the essay, Assignment 7, varied in length from 275 words (Abdullah) to 775 words (Yoshinori), with 500 words as an average.

[4] Assignment 3 included a question requiring students to summarize a conversation between Paul and Norman, the two main characters in the novel *A River Runs Through It*. Thus, constructions using reported speech were commonly found in students' answers due to the nature of the question they were answering. A typical student answer follows with the instances of reported speech underlined.

> Norman and Paul talked about a big fish that Norman missed and where big fish are. Suddenly, Norman <u>asked Paul if Paul needed Norman's help</u> and <u>told Paul that Paul might need some help to fix his car</u>... (Curt, Assignment 3, 6/28/99)

[5] Masaaki observed that Grammar 4 was not useful to him in his Listening/Speaking class because of a lack of time to think about grammar. Similarly, Ling found that

Grammar 4 did not aid him in his reading of the novel *A River Runs Through It* because of the challenging word order and style employed by the author Norman Maclean.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter will first review the study's four main research questions and, in light of the results, seek to answer them by drawing on the data collected throughout the study. Next, relationships between the four research areas will be explored, and uniting themes will be discussed. Finally, the study's findings will be considered in light of the implications they hold for teaching and further research.

Research Question One: What Types of Grammar-related Input were Learners Exposed to in the Grammar 4 Classroom?

Grammar 4 students were exposed to a wide variety of types of form-focused input from a variety of sources over the course of the eight-week session. The focus on form came from the method of instruction Wendy used, the types of practice and activities she chose to employ in the classroom, and the way in which she interacted with the students. Moreover, grammatically-focused input available to the students came not only from Wendy, but from the course materials, fellow students, and even, at times, the researcher. Despite the focus on form found in Grammar 4, Wendy succeeded in creating a communicative classroom in which students were encouraged to use the grammatical structures to communicate with each other and with her. The following section reviews the form-focused elements present in Grammar 4 and offers some observations on themes that became increasingly salient to me in my observation of Grammar 4 and in later analyses of classroom data.

Grammar 4 Instruction

Bound by a syllabus that required her to cover six grammatical topics in a total of eight weeks of instruction, Wendy opted for a style of teaching that was more deductive than that to which she had been accustomed. Trained in her graduate program to use

communicative methods, she had long felt guilty about using teacher-centered approaches. However, having already taught a grammar class at the IEP, Wendy had become convinced that the students "needed more explanation before they did things and they needed more models of how to do things" (Interview 9/30/99).

As a result, on Day 6 Wendy began to use a daily short, teacher-led grammar presentation to focus students' attention on the new grammar structure. Her rationale was to make sure that the students all had the same basic background before beginning to practice the structure through an activity. A further reason for her adoption of the grammar presentation was that, in Wendy's opinion, the students expected some teacher-fronted instruction. Thus, with the exception of one day during the session, the grammar presentation became a standard feature of each class period.

Types of Practice and Activities

The other phases of the course, however, were overwhelmingly learner-centered as they depended on students' participation in group activities. Early in the session, Wendy adopted a three-part structure for each class. Hoping to create a class ritual which she hoped would make students feel more secure by helping them to know what to expect each day, Wendy fashioned a class structure that consisted of homework correction in groups, a teacher-led grammar presentation, and finally, grammar practice, which usually took place in groups.

While the group homework correction usually followed a standard pattern of three students correcting their homework together with reference to an answer key, the third element in Wendy's classroom structure, grammar practice, took a variety of forms during the session. It was during this phase of the class that meaning-centered practice using the grammatical structures usually occurred. In some cases, often during a role play or

problem-solving activity, students would become so centered on the activity that language became a means for them to solve the problem, rather than language being their focus. Writing in my notes after a particularly successful murder-mystery problem solving activity, I wrote, "This ...exercise gave students practice in using the forms and solving a mystery, so the language was just a tool to get to a goal, which was solving the mystery" (Fieldnotes, Day 16). It was at such times that the ideal of incorporating form, meaning, and use into grammar instruction, as Larsen-Freeman and Celce-Murcia (1999) advise, became a reality in the Grammar 4 classroom.

Types of Interaction

A particularly important aspect of the Grammar 4 classroom experience for the students was the variety of types of form-focused interaction to which they were exposed. It became apparent to me early in the session that while Wendy provided important form-focused input for the students, the students, themselves, were also the source of a great deal of input for each other. Through my observation, I identified five main interaction structures: Wendy interacting with a group of students; students communicating with other students, either in a group or in pairs; Wendy speaking with individual students; Wendy speaking to the class; and finally, the researcher communicating with a student or a group of students. Of these five possible interaction structures, the first three were by far the most common in the Grammar 4 classroom. Although Wendy gave a daily grammar presentation to the class, it was usually brief (lasting no more than 5-10 minutes), while the bulk of the class consisted of group homework correction and a group activity with Wendy circulating among groups. Thus, group work, as well as Wendy's interaction with individual students and small groups of students were the predominant types of interaction in the Grammar 4 classroom. In almost all cases these exchanges

were focused on the form, meaning, or use of the grammar structure being practiced at the time.

Types of Form-Focused Input

Through analysis of field notes and classroom transcripts, a typology of types of form-focused classroom input was developed (see Table 4.2). Presented in Chapter 4, the list of categories consists of six separate types of input which I identified during my observations. However, the six categories in the typology were not listed with respect to frequency. In actual practice, some of the input types occurred much more frequently than others. Occurring very frequently, and thus quite influential in shaping the tone of the class, were Categories #2, #4, and #6–form focused explanation with an emphasis on examples; elicitation of the correct structure from the student through questioning by the teacher; and finally, form focused input from other students.

Grammar 4 Themes

In reflecting on my time in the Grammar 4 classroom, three main themes present themselves concerning the importance of the teacher's approach, the use of group work, and finally, the role of classroom ritual. Each of these areas may be viewed in connection with its effect on form-focused instruction.

The teacher's approach

First, a perusal of the textbook used in Grammar 4 and the types of activities occurring in the class, led one reviewer of this study to comment, "Sounds boring" with regard to the Grammar 4 class itself. Indeed the textbook takes a traditional approach to the teaching of grammar by offering detailed grammar explanations and a majority of decontextualized exercises, which rely on discrete point formats such as fill in the blank or sentence transformations. In addition, Wendy employed a deductive, teacher-led

grammar presentation in nearly every class period, which also would appear to be traditional, and perhaps uninteresting, in its approach. However, to this observer the class was generally lively, with students eager to participate. Often the classroom became a setting in which meaningful practice of the Grammar 4 structures took place.

The difference between my perceptions of the course and those of the reviewer who thought the course sounded "boring," was likely the opportunity to witness Wendy's interaction with the students and the way in which many of the grammar practice activities stimulated the students' interest. Wendy's use of vivid examples and her persistence in using eliciting questions to help students find their own answers added a communicative component to the class, as did her reliance on meaning-centered practice activities performed in groups.

Related to the question of whether Wendy's classroom would be classified as traditional or communicative, was Wendy's decision to adopt a more deductive approach during the session when the data were collected. I found it fascinating that Wendy made the conscious decision, based on her perception of the students' needs and the time constraints of the course, to incorporate more teacher-fronted instruction into the course. Although this approach was at odds with her graduate training and her belief that inductive methods may produce "longer lasting" results, she felt that in the three class periods she had each week, a short grammar presentation would meet two objectives (Interview, 9/30/99). First it would help insure that all of the students had a common background, whether they had completed the homework or not. Secondly, it would fulfill the expectations for teacher-fronted instruction that Wendy felt some students had. Reflecting in an interview at the end of the session, Wendy admitted that the grammar presentations had just amounted to a "quick review [for those with an extensive

background in grammar instruction]. And for the others it wasn't enough"; however, she also thought that the experiment with a more deductive approach had been useful in that she had tried "a new style" and knew that she could employ a similar approach in the future if she ever wanted to (Interview 9/30/99).

The importance of group work

A second theme that became salient to me in my observation of Wendy's class was the importance of group work as a predominant interaction structure in the Grammar 4 classroom. I was first struck by the power of group work when I observed an exchange (See Conversation 4.15) between Jabbar, Rob, and Yukiko, in which Jabbar was coached very skillfully by his group members to reach an answer. Employing techniques worthy of a teacher, Rob and Yukiko gave Jabbar suggestions until he was nearly able to give the correct answer. I was impressed with the important resources students can be for each other. It must be noted, however, that in a later interview Yukiko confided to me that she would rather work with native speakers or more advanced students than help struggling students like Jabbar. Clearly, there are both advantages and disadvantage to every activity one employs in the classroom. Nevertheless, my observation in Grammar 4 made it clear to me that any study of classroom input and interaction must take into account the role of group work and the nature of the input that students receive from each other. In Wendy's class, for instance, in some class periods, students engaged in more communication with each other than they did with her.

The role of classroom ritual

A final theme that presented itself through my observation in Grammar 4 was the importance of classroom ritual. The rituals Wendy consciously adopted played a major role in structuring the form-focused interactions in which students took part. Wendy's

goal of creating a ritual was rooted in wanting to help students know what to expect and to give each class period a stable structure. In addition to these goals, one element of the ritualized class structure, having students correct the homework themselves in groups, had its genesis in constraints typical of many IEPs in North America. Wendy asked herself the question: "What can they [the students] do for themselves?" As a teacher responsible for providing 18 hours of instruction each week, Wendy had little extra time to mark papers for a relatively large class of 15 students. At the same time, she realized that the students were taking a 21-24 hour course load, and thus, would not place a high priority on homework from Grammar 4, a 3 hour class. Thus, for their sake, she knew she had to limit the amount of homework she assigned, and for her sake, she needed to have the students involved during the correcting phase. While her desire to create ritual was born out of her belief that it might help students feel more secure and, thus, presumably better able to learn, it was clearly also influenced by very practical constraints operating at the IEP.

Grammar 4 Overview

It is apparent that Grammar 4 students were exposed to a high degree of form-focused input, which came from a variety of sources, including Wendy's presentations and explanations, the course materials, and even fellow students. Rather than conform to a direct correction model, in which the teacher corrects the student's utterance, a variety of types of form-focused discourse were identified in the classroom with the use of examples and elicitation being more common than the provision of rules and corrections. Salient themes that emerged from observation in the classroom were the essential contribution of the teacher, apart from materials, in creating a communicative classroom; the vital role played by group work as a source of form-focused input for students; and finally, the

relationship of classroom ritual and the focus on form..

Research Question Two: Do Students Transfer Grammar 4 Structures to their Writing in their Reading/Composition Class?

Before seeking to answer Research Question 2, it is important to acknowledge how difficult transfer can be to identify. If, for example, students use a Grammar 4 structure in their writing, does that prove that transfer occurred between Grammar 4 and Reading/Composition 4? Could the students perhaps be drawing on grammatical instruction they received before coming to the IEP? Likewise, if the students do not use a Grammar 4 structure in their writing, does that mean they are unable to use the structure or that they merely chose not to use the structure while writing? Clearly the occurrence of transfer is difficult to identify; in the present study, the decision was made to define transfer as the students' use of Grammar 4 structures in their writing for Reading/Composition 4 although it must be taken into account that students' structure use could be due to previous learning. In this section, students' levels of Grammar 4 structure use in their Reading/Composition 4 writing will be surveyed and discussed. Then a series of factors that may have influenced the degree of structure use will be considered.

Grammar 4 Structure Use in Reading/Composition 4 Assignments

Most of the Grammar 4 structures made an appearance in the students' writing for their Reading/Composition 4 class; however, the structures were used to varying degrees and some structures were used very rarely or not at all. For example, gerunds and infinitives were used consistently across all seven assignments, whereas reported speech appeared in only half of the assignments. While the passive voice was used moderately in three of its five contexts, it was used very rarely on the midterm (Assignment 4) and the

essay (Assignment 7). Furthermore, the past perfect and conditionals were found very rarely in the assignments for which they were monitored, whereas none of the students used perfect modal constructions in the one context in which the structure was monitored.

Possible Influences on the Degree of Transfer

A review of the data indicated that the following factors may have had an effect on the level of structure use and, thus, the degree of transfer, which occurred in the students' writing: the nature of the structure and the assignment, the students' preparation in their home countries, and personal variables.

Type of structure

Each grammatical structure has its own properties which influence, for instance, how frequently the structure is used in English and whether the structure may, for example, be replaced by another type of construction without sacrificing meaning. As an example, gerunds and infinitives, which were used relatively often in students' writing, are structures which occur frequently in both spoken and written English. Support for this assumption comes from the fact that no fewer than 127 common verbs requiring either gerunds or infinitives as objects are found within a list included in the students' grammar textbook (Azar, 1999, pp. 318-319). In contrast, reported speech is a structure which is highly context-sensitive. In other words, the structure is employed solely in contexts where one is quoting another. Thus, the structure appeared only in contexts in which students were asked to summarize a conversation or explain what a character in the novel had said. Such questions occurred in only four of the seven assignments.

Interestingly, if one is required to paraphrase what a person has said, it is very difficult to avoid using reported speech. In contrast, structures such as the past perfect and passive voice may be easily avoided in many cases without a sacrifice in meaning.

Thus, the individual characteristics of the structures, including the ease with which they can be avoided and the frequency of their use in English, may have influenced whether students used them in their writing.

Nature of the assignment

Although the IEP's intent is for the grammar structures to be "exploited in all classes and taught formally during the grammar class" (Intensive American Language Center Faculty Handbook, section 4.2.1), in actuality, the assignments given in Reading/Composition 4 provided the students with varying levels of opportunity to practice Grammar 4 structures. For example, Assignments 1 and 2, study guide questions over an anthropology textbook chapter, did not invite students to summarize or paraphrase the author's arguments. Thus, on these assignments, the use of reported speech was not necessary, or even appropriate. As a result, there were no instances of this structure in the students' writing until Assignment 3, a study guide assignment over the novel in which students were asked to summarize a conversation between two characters. In this context, the use of reported speech was unavoidable.

While it is not reasonable to expect that students should use every grammatical structure they have learned in each piece of writing, the findings of the present study are a reminder to teachers that the nature of the assignment and the specific tasks students are asked to undertake play an important role in the range of grammatical structures students will employ in their writing. It appears that creating specific contexts for structure use may be necessary to encourage students to attempt to use newly-introduced and unfamiliar structures.

Achievement in Grammar 4

A further factor in the degree of transfer exhibited by Level 4 students may have

been the students' level of achievement in Grammar 4. While the Spearman Rho Rank Order Correlation test failed to establish a significant level of correlation between structure use on Assignment 6 and achievement in Grammar 4, there seemed to be a qualitative relationship between these areas (see Table 4.6). A comparison of top Grammar 4 achievers and the top structure users on Assignment 6 revealed that four individuals appeared in both categories: Yukiko, Curt, Miki, and Yoshinori. (The levels of structure use found for Assignment 6 were representative of those for all the assignments during the course). It appears, therefore, that the students who demonstrated an ability to use the structure on Grammar 4 classroom assignments and quizzes also attempted and succeeded in using the structures more frequently in their writing than the other students. However, two exceptions to this generalization can be found in the performance of Jong-Ho and I-Fong. While these students did not appear in the top 5 ranking for Grammar 4 achievement, they ranked high in their uses of Grammar 4 structures on Assignment 6, indicating that achievement in grammar class must not always be a factor in transfer.

Home country preparation

Of the four students who ranked high in both Grammar 4 achievement and structure use on Assignment 6, all were from Asian countries (Three were from Japan and one was from Korea). Because these students were from countries that typically require at least 8 years of English instruction for students enrolled in public schools, it appears that their academic preparation in their home countries may have played a role in their frequent usage of Grammar 4 structures. In fact, while discussing their use of the passive voice during the Picture Description Task interviews, three of the four top achievers said that they relied primarily on the grammatical instruction they had received in their home

countries. In contrast, some of the students from non-Asian countries, such as Jabbar, did not enter the IEP with an extensive background in grammar. In fact, Jabbar, who grew up in Bahrain, told me that he had learned about the passive voice and reported speech for the first time in Grammar 4. Moreover, as a result of his lack of familiarity with the passive voice, he said, "I never try to use the passive because I never never tried before and I don't know what's the passive a hundred percent..." (GP#6, 213). After being exposed to and practicing the structure for just two and a half days in Grammar 4, Jabbar understandably still did not feel suitably acquainted with the passive voice to use it in his writing in Reading/Composition 4.

Clearly, the students' preparation before they entered Grammar 4 must have played a role in the degree to which they attempted to use Grammar 4 structures in their writing. However, despite the role presumably played by home country preparation, it does not appear to always be a predictor of a students' likelihood of transferring grammatical instruction. For instance on the Passive Scale (see Table 4.9), students from Asian countries, where grammar is stressed, can be found in all four levels of usage, including the non-user category. In other words, some of the Asian students did not attempt or use the passive voice on the PDT. However, it is striking that the highest achievers on the Passive Scale were all from Japan. Likewise, the top four structure users on Assignment 6 were all from Japan or Korea. In addition, when average structure use was calculated for each language group represented in Grammar 4, the top 3 groups were the Korean, Chinese, and Japanese speakers (see Table 4.8). Thus, it appears that the students' preparation in their home countries played a role in the degree to which they were prepared to employ Grammar 4 structures in their writing.

Personal factors

Although all of the high achievers on Assignment 6 and the Picture Description Task were from Asian countries, there were Asian students represented on all four levels of the Passive Scale, ranging from high structure users to non-users. Despite having been exposed to grammar instruction for a number of years before entering the IEP, several students did not exhibit high levels of transfer. Clearly there must be a variety of other individual factors involved in whether students transfer grammatical structures.

The most important personal variable that stood out from the data was how the students' levels of confidence and familiarity with the structures seemed to influence whether they used a grammatical structure in their writing. The performances of I-Fong, Jong-Ho, and Juan illustrate the importance of feeling knowledgeable about the structure. All three of these students were able to talk quite comfortably about the form, meaning and use of the passive voice in the PDT interviews; nevertheless, none of them chose to use the structure in their PDT sentences. While they knew the rules and were able to articulate their knowledge, they chose not to use the structure. When I asked them why they had avoided the passive voice, they gave similar answers. I-Fong replied that she was worried about using the structure correctly. If she understood how to use the passive sufficiently, she said she would use it. She told me, "I need more practice...I think there's a habit, you know. If I understand the rule, I will use it" (PDT, 278). She had not yet reached the point where using the passive voice had become a "habit" for her. Similarly, Juan told me that the passive was "not normal" for him and that it was time-consuming for him to employ the structure in his writing.

While Jong-Ho was not able to tell me why he had avoided the structure in his writing, in talking to I-Fong and Juan, it became clear that they had not reached a point

where they felt comfortable in using the passive voice. Interestingly, they could speak knowledgeably about how to use the structure, yet they did not feel ready to actually employ it in their writing. In the case of I-Fong, her concern for correctness and lack of confidence in her ability kept her from using the passive voice. It had not become a "habit." Similarly, Juan still felt that the passive was unfamiliar and, thus, using it demanded too much time.

Interestingly, in the first follow-up interview two months after the students left the Grammar 4 class, Juan reported to me that he had grown very comfortable with using the passive voice. When I asked him what had changed, he told me that "the pressure" to study for his Grammar 4 final had been a deciding factor. He told me, "I passed three days studying grammar. The rules. And I tried...to study for remember all my life, not only for the exam. So, I think I remember a lot of things, a lot of rules. Now it's really funny because my wife asked me the other day, 'Do you remember which is...the rules of the passive voice?'[He replied], 'Yes, well, when you have...in a sentence, you change the object to subject and then change (???) and you put the was, always the verb 'to be' and then you put the verb in...past participle'" (Follow-up I, 147). Thus, Juan's intensive period of study for the Grammar 4 final seemed to make the difference between his not feeling comfortable enough with the passive voice to use it in his writing and finally being able to employ the structure confidently. In contrast, I-Fong never reported reaching that level of comfort with the passive voice.

A Reference to the Literature: Factors Linked to Transfer

The findings of the present study indicate that a variety of factors may have affected the level at which the study participants transferred grammatical instruction to their writing. The levels of transfer in this study appeared to be influenced by the

following factors: the nature of the grammatical structure being transferred, the requirements of the assignment, the students' achievement in Grammar 4, their preparation in their home country, and personal variables. In addition to these factors, research conducted over the last century within the field of psychology has yielded a list of general conditions that appear to foster learning transfer (Ormrod, 1998, p. 324-5). Drawn from the literature in psychology, the following list of factors believed to encourage transfer will be considered with regard to the findings of this study:

- Spending more time on instruction
- Focusing instruction on meaning instead of rote learning
- Teaching principles over facts
- Exposing students to a variety of examples and types of practice
- Introducing students to situations that are similar to those that will be encountered in the future
- Minimizing the time lag between introduction of a new topic and the time that it will be used
- Helping students to see material as being context free by relating new material to other fields of study

Instruction time

One of the most striking aspects of the Grammar 4 class was its brevity. Meeting just twenty times over an eight week period, the course included coverage of six grammatical topics, as well as quizzes and tests. Each structure received an average of two and a half days of instruction time. Based on the comments of students, such as Jabbar, who had not studied all of the structures before, the amount of instruction time did not appear to be extensive enough for them to employ the new structures confidently in their writing. In fact, a sense of frustration at the lack of time allotted to Grammar 4 pervaded my interviews with Wendy and some of the students. Perhaps more instructional time might have increased the students' levels of familiarity with the structures and, thus, the likelihood of them transferring the structures to their writing.

Meaning-centered learning

The research indicates that teachers need to focus on delivering meaningful instruction that emphasizes principles over facts if they wish to foster transfer. In Grammar 4, Wendy strived to give students an opportunity to use the structures through oral and written practice. Each class period included opportunities for students to practice the grammar in structured activities that ranged from role-playing scenarios to problem solving activities. For example, Wendy gave the students problem solving activities with a mystery theme for both the past perfect tense and perfect modals. These in-class assignments required the students to use the structures communicatively to achieve a purpose: solving a mystery. In addition to in-class communicative activities with an oral production focus, Wendy also assigned several multi-paragraph writing assignments that called for students to respond to a writing prompt and use the grammatical structure being covered at the time.

Despite this meaning-centered practice, some of the Grammar 4 structures were used extremely infrequently by the students in their writing for Reading/Composition 4. In particular, the last three structures to be introduced–the past perfect, perfect modals, and the conditional–were used very rarely or not at all by the students in their writing. It should be noted that despite Wendy's attempts to focus on meaning and communication, the amount of actual time spent on meaning-centered oral practice in class usually amounted to just twenty minutes or less on the average for each class period. In addition, more demanding out-of-class writing assignments were also assigned infrequently due to the time constraints faced by both Wendy and the students. Indeed, the limited time available for the course appeared to work against Wendy's goal of helping the students to use the grammar communicatively through extensive practice.

Using the structure in new contexts

The research indicates that transfer is facilitated if students are given many opportunities for practice in a variety of contexts. Moreover, if a new situation is similar to a previously-encountered situation, the chances of transfer occurring will also be increased. In Grammar 4, Wendy made an effort to present students with vivid examples and she also tried to give the students opportunities to use the grammatical structures in their speaking and writing. However, this practice was often limited in nature due to the time constraints of Grammar 4. Because the research indicates that transfer is more likely to be exhibited if the situation in which the student is operating is familiar, it seems logical to assume that students might have exhibited higher levels of transfer of grammatical instruction to Reading/Composition 4 if they had done more writing in their grammar class using the target structures. However, once again, the limited time spent in class, the students' busy schedules, and the pressure felt by Wendy to cover objectives were constraints upon the amount of writing Wendy was able to assign.

Length of time between instruction and use

The research provides evidence to support the idea that transfer is more likely if the new knowledge or skill is used soon after it has been introduced. The assumption of the IEP has been that the grammar structures introduced in the grammar classes are being reinforced and practiced in the other skill classes as well, yet there was no coordination between Wendy and John, the Reading/Composition 4 teacher, with regard to the kind of writing assignments they gave. Thus, the students were not given assignments in Reading/Composition 4 that required students to practice the grammar structures being covered in their grammar class. It was often possible, therefore, for students to avoid using the new grammar structures in their writing for Reading/Composition 4. Trying to

coordinate at least some of the writing activities and striving to have students use the target grammatical structures in Reading/Composition 4 soon after their introduction, may have led to higher levels of familiarity with the structures among the students and, eventually, perhaps higher rates of transfer.

Seeing structures as context-free

Finally, the body of research on transfer indicates that information which is presented as being context-free in nature is more easily transferred to a new situation than is information seen as being bound to a specific topic or area of study. Thus, linking new material to other subjects and the world outside the classroom is thought to foster transfer. In Grammar 4, the focus was on introducing new grammar points and giving students a variety of types of practice.

Striving to link the grammar structures to the contexts in which they were used, Wendy attempted to link the target grammar structure to its broader usage at times. For example, in her introduction to the passive, she talked about the frequency with which the structure was used in scientific writing and newspaper accounts. She also mentioned the structure's tendency to be found in written over spoken language (Day 9, 11:15). Despite this usage-focused information occurring during the passive unit, students were normally exposed to very little information about actual usage of structures of native speakers and the ways in which the structure might be employed in a variety of types of writing. In other words, students were not forced to think about how the grammar structures might be applied beyond the context of the grammar class. Introducing the students to information about the many context in which the Grammar 4 structures might be found, and even challenging the students themselves to discover the usage patterns of the grammatical structures, as is suggested by Riggenbach (1999), may have led to increased

rates of transfer.

Research Question Three: Is there a Relationship between Students' Metalinguistic Knowledge of Grammar and their Ability to Use the Grammar Correctly in their Writing?

The third research question posed by this study dealt with yet another factor that may influence the degree of transfer of grammatical instruction: metalinguistic knowledge. Seliger (1979) questioned the role played by such knowledge in production when he asked if "having a conscious rule, either from a teacher, grammar book or formulated by the learner, means that the learner knows what to do with it" (p.360). Both Bialystok (1988) and Sharwood Smith (1988) distinguish metalinguistic knowledge from articulated rule knowledge, which Sharwood Smith (1988) refers to as a "rather special metalinguistic ability" (p. 55). The research findings on the relationship of metalinguistic knowledge, particularly articulated knowledge, and proficiency has been contradictory.

The present study investigated the relationship between rule knowledge and proficiency by through the use of a Picture Description Task (PDT) to elicit descriptions using the passive voice. Interviews conducted immediately after the PDT allowed students to display their articulated rule knowledge about the passive voice. A qualitative comparison of the students' proficiency at using the passive voice and their level of metalinguistic knowledge was made by comparing two scales, the Passive Scale and an informal measure of metalinguistic knowledge. The former is described in detail in Chapter 4, and the latter was created by categorizing students' level of metalinguistic knowledge as high, medium, or low based on their answers given during the PDT interview. In awarding a designation for metalinguistic knowledge, I considered whether the student was able to answer the questions and give coherent reasons for the written choices they had made during the PDT. I also considered the level of correctness of the

answers given. Table 5.1 displays the students' Passive Scale ratings and the corresponding designation they received for metalinguistic knowledge

In most cases the students' scores for passive use corresponded to, or were relatively close, to their scores for metalinguistic knowledge. For example, both Rob and Masaaki employed the passive voice in their writing, scoring high on the Passive Scale. Similarly, they also received high designations for metalinguistic knowledge, indicating that they were able to articulate their knowledge of the passive voice, as well as use it intheir writing. Striking exceptions to this correspondence between passive use and articulated rule knowledge are found in the group of four students, indicated by shading in Table 5.1, who did not use the passive voice in their writing. Although the structure did not appear in their writing, all four of the students received a high or medium designation for metalinguistic knowledge, indicating that possession of rule knowledge about a grammatical structure does not ensure that one will use the structure. A variety of personal factors appeared to be influential in the decisions of these students to avoid the passive voice in their writing, the most important of which seemed to be their level of confidence in their ability to use the structure and the degree of familiarity they had with the structure (see "Personal Factors" in the previous section for a discussion of individual variables.)

Picture Description Task Themes

The PDT interviews were interesting to me as a researcher because they offered the opportunity to talk with students in-depth about the decisions they had made with regard to grammar usage in their writing. In addition, the interviews afforded the opportunity to ask students about the source of their knowledge of the passive voice, in addition to a series of questions focusing on the form, meaning, and use of the target

A Comparison of Passive Use and Metalinguistic Knowledge

Table 5.1

Usage level on Passive Scale	Participant	Passive Scale Score	Metalinguistic Knowledge Rating
HIGH	Rob	3.0	high
	Masaaki	2.5	high
MEDIUM	Miki	2.0	medium/high
	Yoshinori	2.0	medium/low
	Yukiko	1.5	medium
LOW	Ling	1.0	low
	Curt	1.0	medium
	Yousuke	0	low
NON-USERS	I-Fong	N/A	medium/high
	Jong-Ho	N/A	medium/high
	Juan	N/A	high
	Sang-Jun	N/A	medium/low

structure. In many cases, the students shared answers and rationales for their practice that were surprising. The following section explores three themes emerging from the PDT interviews that relate either to the role of metalinguistic knowledge in building proficiency or the broader context of grammar instruction.

Anomalous rules

A striking pattern that revealed itself in the PDT data was the existence of consistent anomalous rules held by some of the students. Interestingly, Miki, Yoshinori, and Yousuke offered similar rules when they were asked about the contexts in which the passive voice is usually found. These students, all of whom had studied English for 8 years at the secondary level in Japan, cited a rule in varying degrees of detail that said the use of the passive voice was dependent on whether the passive subject was human or non-human. According to Yoshinori. who seemed to be quite confident in his use of the rule, a human subject could be used in either an active or a passive sentence, while a non-human subject could only be a passive subject. The students' reference to the rule was surprising because it had not been mentioned by Wendy in class, nor had it been cited in their grammar books. Thus, because of the consistency of the rules cited by the students, the fact that the rule had not been taught in Grammar 4, and Yoshinori and Yousuke's assurance that most of their grammar knowledge had been learned in Japan, it appeared likely that this passive-use rule, based on human and non-human subjects, must have had its source in Japanese schools. While perhaps useful in many cases, the rule fails to take into consideration the numerous non-human subjects that may be used in passive constructions.

Thus, the PDT interviews revealed the extent to which prior learning may affect present practice, in addition to highlighting the fact that students may be relying on faulty

rules, which they may never be asked to articulate. In other words, the students may be relying on anomalous rules of which the teacher may never become aware. Indeed, to my knowledge, none of these students mentioned this rule in class or asked Wendy about its usefulness, yet it seemed to direct at least some of their decision making with regard to using the passive voice.

The unpredictable relationship between rule knowledge and proficiency

An additional theme emerging from the data was related to the uncertain connection between articulated rule knowledge and performance. A comparison of the students' ratings on the Passive Scale and their scores for metalinguistic knowledge indicated an overall tendency for correspondence between these two measures. In other words, for the majority of the participants (i.e., seven of the twelve participants who took part in the PDT phase of this project), students who were able to verbalize their knowledge about the passive voice were also able to employ, or at least were willing to try to use, the structure in their writing to some degree. However, at the same time, a number of students displayed a lack of correspondence in their level of metalinguistic knowledge and their proficiency level. For example, the four students listed in the "Non-user" category of the Passive Scale–I-Fong, Jong-Ho, Juan, and Sang Jun-- (see Table 5.1) all exhibited some ability to articulate their knowledge of the passive, yet they did not use the structure in their writing for the PDT. It should be noted, however, that the participants were not required to use the passive on the PDT; thus, it would be inaccurate to say that the students were unable to use the passive voice. However, they chose not to employ the structure despite their ability to articulate the rules pertaining to the form, meaning, and use of the passive voice. Interestingly, both I-Fong and Jong-Ho were among the top 5 structure users on Assignment 6, indicating that they frequently

employed Grammar 4 structures in their Reading/Composition 4 writing. With regard to their use of the passive voice on Assignment 6, I-Fong made one attempt, which was incorrect, and Jong-Ho made three attempts, all of which were correct.

In contrast to the students who avoided the passive on the PDT, one of the students, Ling, wrote one passive sentence during the PDT and, thus, received a Passive Scale score of 1. Thus, he demonstrated an ability to use the passive voice; however, he scored low on the metalinguistic knowledge scale, indicating that articulated rule knowledge must not always accompany an ability to use the structure. A consideration of the examples of the "non-users" and Ling points out the unpredictable nature of the relationship between proficiency and articulated rule knowledge. In the majority of instances, the two measures seemed to correspond; however, in several cases proficiency was accompanied by a low ability to articulate rule knowledge. Similarly, high levels of metalinguistic knowledge were at times also accompanied by a lack of willingness to use the structure. The findings of the PDT mirror the often contradictory results of research on the relationship between displays of metalinguistic knowledge and performance, and underscore the complexity of the relationship between these two constructs.

Questioning the accuracy of accepted grammatical explanations

Finally, the PDT interview with Miki raised an issue of great relevance to grammar instructors: the accuracy and usefulness of traditional grammar explanations given to students. During her interview, Miki commented that her professor in the field of crop science at Northwest University had urged her to avoid the passive voice in her writing in an effort to make her writing easier to understand. This was interesting in light of the fact that Wendy had told the students in Grammar 4 that one of the most common uses of the passive voice was in scientific writing; furthermore, as a result, Wendy told students

considering entering the sciences that this structure would be important for them to know how to use.

Although not mentioned in the students' textbook, the notion that the passive voice is frequently found in scientific writing is one that is heard frequently within the field of ESL. In fact an early article pioneering the study of register in scientific writing called the structure "one of the most salient grammatical features of the register for science and technology" (Tarone, Dwyer, Gillette, & Icke, 1981, p. 123, cited in Johns, 1991, p. 68). Miki's professor may have had a number of reasons for urging her to avoid the passive voice, including Miki's difficulty in using it correctly or even the tendency of students to use the structure excessively. Despite the professor's motivations, it is striking that the advice given to Miki by a professor in her major field contradicted the usage information accepted and frequently transmitted to students by many ESL professionals. Clearly, preferences and conventions in writing vary across disciplines, and Miki's experience helps to underscore how vital it is for students, especially those interested in graduate study, to become aware of the usage conventions within their field and to work towards their mastery. In addition, Miki's comments also act as a caution for ESL teachers to reconsider the validity of generalizations that they may not have not tested themselves.

Research Question Four: How do Students Perceive the Role of Grammar in their English Learning and Particularly in their Writing?

From both the questionnaires and the Grammar Perceptions Interviews it was clear that all of the students viewed grammar learning as a vital component in their study of English. In fact, all of the fourteen questionnaires returned responded positively to the question, "Do you think learning grammar is important when you are learning a language?" When asked to cite the skill area in which grammar knowledge was the most useful, eleven mentioned writing. Based on the students' responses, it was clear that they

valued grammar instruction as being highly important in their language learning and in their writing. The questionnaires and interviews allowed students to address a variety of topics relevant to grammar learning, use, and transfer. The following section addresses three salient themes that emerged from the data collected for Research Question 4.

Familiarity with Individual Learning Styles

The questionnaire and interview data revealed a high degree of confidence among many of the participants with regard to how they learn grammar best. Of the fourteen respondents only one respondent said that he/she was not sure about the method that was best for him or her. The others cited a variety of methods for learning grammar. Jabbar said that he learned grammar best when the teacher pointed out students' mistakes and gave extensive examples. Others cited learning through writing, reading, and extensive practice. Some cited individual methods, such as the use of "play." The students' ability to cite learning strategies that they found useful revealed a high degree of familiarity with their individual learning styles. These high intermediate students were experienced language learners, most of whom knew the language learning methods that were useful for them and were able to articulate the strategies that they used.

Reasons for Avoiding the New Structures

A further theme that emerged from the data dealt with reasons that students may not transfer new grammatical information from one class to another. The students were quite candid in the Grammar Perceptions Interviews and a number of them explained why they avoid using the grammar structures they learn in their grammar class. Both Adly and Yousuke mentioned that they avoid "complex grammar" because it requires more effort (GP#1, 170), while Curt mentioned his concern about making a mistake while using the new grammar, citing his concern about getting a bad score in his composition class.

In addition, Jabbar and Juan mentioned not having received enough practice in class to use the new structures confidently in their writing.

The reasons cited by these students for not transferring new grammatical information to their writing appear to correspond to the factors linked to transfer by this study, as well as those cited in the broader literature within psychology. First, in mentioning their preference for using familiar structures, Yousuke and Adly appeared to be influenced by personal variables such as motivation level and degree of confidence. Similarly, Curt was concerned about correctness and also displayed a lack of confidence in his own level of knowledge. Finally, Juan and Jabbar referred to a lack of time spent on instruction and practice, which translated into a lack of familiarity with the structures. Based on the questionnaires and particularly on the interviews, it seemed that students were generally very aware of their own practice and keenly aware of their shortcomings as English speakers. In addition, most of them were able to pinpoint their reasons for using or not using the new structures, displaying high levels of metalinguistic knowledge in the interviews.

The Usefulness of Grammar 4

A final theme emerging from the data concerned the varying opinions of the students with regard to the utility of the Grammar 4 class. The majority, including those who had previously been exposed to extensive grammar instruction in their home countries, found the class to be useful. They mentioned being appreciative of the opportunity to review and for the way in which Grammar 4 helped them in their other classes. At the same time, five students expressed frustration with the class, three of whom said it was too easy, while two mentioned it was too brief to be useful. These contrasting replies highlight a dilemma faced by the IEP: How should students with

different levels of preparation in their home countries be accommodated at the IEP, a mid-size program that requires students to study all of the skills at the same level? While the majority, eight participants, found the class useful, five, or 38%, did not. Clearly, with students as diverse in preparation as Jabbar, who had never encountered the passive voice or reported speech before taking Grammar 4, and Yoshinori,who boasted that most Japanese people had grammar charts memorized, Wendy faced a severe challenge in meeting their needs and providing appropriate practice. The interviews and questionnaires served to underscore the depth of the challenge and the extent of the differences in preparation and expectations among the Grammar 4 students.

Linking the Research Questions

The findings of this study indicate that the participants, high-intermediate ESL students, had access to a wide variety of form-focused input in their Grammar 4 class, possessed a positive attitude toward grammar instruction, and on the whole had a high level of metalinguistic knowledge. In both the questionnaires and interviews, all of the participants reported that they perceived grammar instruction to be a valuable component in their language learning experience. Furthermore, a majority, seven of twelve participants, said they found Grammar 4 to be useful to them as IEP students. With regard to metalinguistic knowledge, ten of twelve students who participated in the PDT were categorized as possessing either a medium or high level of metalinguistic knowledge on an informal scale.

Because many of the students came to the IEP with a high level of knowledge about English grammar, a majority of them reported relying heavily on grammatical information they had learned in their home countries. Thus, for most of the students, the brief exposure to grammatical structures that they received in Wendy's class seemed to

serve more as a quick review than an introduction to the structure. At times, the students' reliance on information from their home countries became problematic, a fact which was highlighted during the PDT when three of the participants relayed similar faulty rules for forming the passive. In the case of these students, the knowledge they brought with them from their home country was not corroborated by Wendy's instruction, yet they continued to use the anomalous rule, possibly leading to confusion and usage mistakes in their writing.

Discussions of home country preparation during the interviews also underscored the differences that existed with regard to the students' previous exposure to the Grammar 4 structures. Many students, the majority of whom were from Asia, came to the IEP with a strong theoretical background in English grammar, while others were being exposed to the structures for the first time in Grammar 4. Because the IEP placed the students in the same level for all the skill areas, students with little grammar preparation, such as Jabbar, were placed in Level 4 possibly because of strengths in speaking and listening. Thus, the differences in students' preparation presented Wendy with a challenge. While some of the students found Grammar 4 to be a useful review of some key grammatical structures, others, such as Sang-Jun, felt frustrated by the lack of difficulty present in the course. Still others, such as Jabbar, complained that the course was too difficult.

Indeed, home country preparation seemed to play a key role in whether students exhibited transfer of grammatical instruction to their writing in Reading/Composition 4. A tally of structure usage for Assignment 6 showed that the top structure users were all from Asian countries, which typically require at least 8 years of English instruction at the secondary level. (These structure usage rates for Assignment 6 mirror those for all of the

assignments combined.) In addition to inadequate preparation in the home country, the limited instruction time available in Grammar 4, the low number of writing assignments assigned in the class, and the lack of discussion about the contexts in which the grammatical structures may be used were factors that seemed to hamper transfer from Grammar 4 to Reading/Composition 4.

In addition, transfer appeared to be affected by the type of structure in question, the nature of the assignment, the students' level of Grammar 4 achievement (i.e., his/her familiarity with the structures), and a variety of personal variables, including confidence and motivation. Interestingly, with regard to the effect of metalinguistic knowledge on transfer, this study found contradictory evidence. While high levels of metalinguistic knowledge (i.e., articulated rule knowledge) coexisted with high levels of usage for some participants, others opted not to use the structures in their writing despite high levels of metalinguistic knowledge. While many exhibited some degree of Grammar 4 structures to their writing in Reading/Composition 4, the level of transfer varied dramatically by individual, by language group, and by assignment, indicating the complexity of the construct of transfer and the important role played by contextual influences in the process.

Limitations of the Study

One of the most important limitations on the study was the inability of all of the students to participate in all phases of the research. Although fourteen of the fifteen students participated in the Grammar Perceptions Interviews, only twelve were able to participate in the PDT interviews. The students who were unable to participate were Abdullah, Adly, and Jabbar, all of the Arabic-speaking participants. Having the opportunity to talk with these students about their use of the passive and the choices they make while writing would have added a further dimension to the results of the study by

allowing their experience to be described in the same degree of detail as was possible for the other participants.

A further limitation of the present study dealt with class observation and tape-recording. My initial interest in classroom observation had been the form-focused input students received from their teacher; however, as the session progressed, I realized that classmates were also a vital source of form-focused input. Having realized the importance of peer input during group work, I made an effort to observe individual groups and at times, place a tape recorder with groups during group work. I found both of these arrangements impractical, as mere observation without recording resulted in sketchy notes without direct quotes. Similarly, with the latter, I found the sound quality to be poor as the classroom was generally noisy during group work and students were not able to speak directly into a microphone. In future research, I would experiment with the use of multiple recorders placed in different groups and try to arrange for the groups being recorded to work in a quieter setting. Obtaining more quality recordings of group work would shed light on student-student interaction and the nature of form-focused input occurring in group work.

A final observation on the limitations of the present study concerns the breadth of classroom observation occurring in this study. While my focus was the form-focused input occurring in Grammar 4, students were also the recipients of input from John, their instructor in Reading/Composition. Although I was in nearly daily contact with John and was given frequent updates on what he had covered in class, it would have been useful to observe his class on a weekly or bi-weekly basis to receive a sense of the tenor of his class and the nature of the form-focused input his students received. Indeed, future research would be strengthened by a more comprehensive approach to the form-focused input

students received in all of their classes.

Implications for Teaching

The findings of the present study have a number of practical applications to the grammar classroom. First, the study of classroom discourse and interaction revealed a wealth of types of form-focused input available to students. Much of this input was from Wendy; however, some of it came from other students, the textbook, and class assignments. Indeed, it seems likely that greater awareness among teachers of the types of form-focused discourse modes at their disposal and the wealth of techniques available for transmission of grammatical information holds the potential for more deliberate and reflective pedagogical practice in the grammar classroom. In addition, the recognition of the potential for students to transmit grammatical information to their peers through group work reinforces what has long been known about the positive benefits of group work for language learners (McGroarty, 1991, p. 383). The findings of the present study serve to emphasize the potential benefits of group work by emphasizing the possibility of students creating a non-threatening, coaching style rapport with each other.

Of relevance to language teachers as well was the relatively high level of metalinguistic knowledge possessed by a majority of the students who took part in the PDT phase of this study. However, despite a seemingly firm grasp on, for example, the passive voice, several students opted not to employ the structure in their writing, indicating that mere grammatical knowledge is not enough to activate the structure in students' writing. Based on the literature within psychology and the findings of the present study, a number of factors appear to be essential in readying students to transfer knowledge from one setting to another. Key aspects that foster transfer appear to be increasing instruction time, provision of a wide variety of practice types, giving

assignments that mirror the conditions in which the knowledge will be used in the future, and linking the knowledge to a wide variety of contexts. In terms of the grammar class, this translates into giving the students extensive spoken and written practice using the targeted grammar structures. Ideally, the assignments would cover a wide range of topics and writing styles so that students could see how the structure might be used in various contexts. Finally, increasing instruction time, which was limited in Grammar 4 to just 2/ hours per week, appears to have the potential to increase students' confidence and, thus, maximize the likelihood that transfer will occur.

A further observation with regard to transfer concerns the assumption, prevalent in the IEP where the research was conducted, that structures learned in the grammar class will be automatically reinforced through assignments in other classes. However, the findings of the present study indicate that grammatical structure use may be highly variable, based on the nature of the structure, the assignment, the students' familiarity with the structure, and a variety of other variables. Thus, if teachers want to increase the likelihood that their students will experiment with using newly-acquired grammatical structures, they may have to consciously structure assignments to encourage the use of selected structures. Moreover, depending on the structure of the program in which they are working, teachers may be able to coordinate some assignments to offer students additional practice in using targeted grammatical structures in their writing.

A final observation with relevance to teaching growing out of the present study concerns the anomalous grammar rules on which some students may rely. Apparently learned in classrooms in their home countries, the faulty rule for use of the passive cited by Miki, Yoshinori, and Yousuke was not mentioned in class and had not been discussed with Wanda, yet this appeared to be one of the major rules upon which the three Japanese

students relied, judging from the fact that it was among the first rules they cited in the interviews. This finding suggests that grammar teachers should encourage their students to vocalize the rules upon which they are relying and urge their students to articulate their rule knowledge to the extent that they are able, recognizing that this is a specialized kind of metalinguistic knowledge and may not be accessible for every student (Bialystok, 1988; Sharwood Smith, 1988). For example, students may be encouraged to vocalize metalinguistic knowledge through assignments and worksheets that ask students to consider the three facets of grammar usage: form, meaning, and use (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

Directions for Further Research

The present study was limited in scope, concentrating on the form-focused input IEP students received in Grammar 4 during an eight-week session and tracing the students' use of Grammar 4 structures to their writing for Reading/Composition, as well as their use of the passive in the PDT. Additional foci of the study were students' perceptions of the role of grammar in their language learning experience and the role that metalinguistic knowledge played in students' ability to transfer Grammar 4 structures to their writing.

Further research could build upon the foundation laid by the present study through additional attention to, first, the nature of form-focused input available to students in group work from their peers. Although form-focused input from peers was revealed as an important source of grammatical information in the Grammar 4 classroom as the study progressed, technical limitations hampered the full exploration of this information source. Future research could target student-student interaction in groups to further study the nature of form-focused input students receive from their classmates. In addition, a more

comprehensive approach to the study of form-focused input in general could be taken through extended observation in all of the IEP classes attended by the study participants. Future research could monitor the form-focused, grammar-based input IEP students receive in all of their courses through regular class observations and study the degree to which students transfer this information to their writing..

Interesting directions for further research could also include a longer-range study which would follow students from their IEP classes to classes at Northwest University in order to monitor the level of students' transfer of grammatical information from their IEP courses to their writing for university level courses. Students' written work, as well as writing protocols, in which the students' attempts to vocalize their thought processes while writing in the presence of a researcher, could be used to shed light on students' grammatical decisions executed while writing. The insights gained from such protocols could serve as a window into the nature of the grammatical information students are able to access while writing and further explore the terrain covered by Seliger (1979) and others who have studied rule knowledge and its relationship to production.

Yet another direction for future research might involve an investigation of students' transfer of grammatical information from their grammar classes to their spoken language. Monitoring of oral grammar might involve recording students for a period of several hours in a variety of settings. Recordings could then be played with the researcher and student present, and the researcher could conduct an immediate retrospective interview in which the student was asked to reflect on the grammatical decisions and difficulties encountered during the spoken interactions that had been captured by the recording. Such research could complement the inquiry into transfer of written grammar begun by the present study.

Future studies focused on monitoring transfer of grammatical structures to both writing and speaking would benefit from the adoption of a tally system that incorporates usage level and frequency. While the present study was focused on the number of attempts students made to transfer grammatical structures to their writing, the usage tallies did not include information regarding the word length of students' written work. Monitoring students' transfer levels by word units (e.g., number of attempts per 100 words) would allow for more efficient comparison among students and changes in usage levels over time.

Finally, insights obtained from students during the Grammar Perceptions Interviews could be followed-up through further investigation. First, further inquiry into students' previous language learning experiences–including the nature of the instruction, hours per week, and the types of practice–could help illuminate the apparent differences among participants identified by the present study with regard to home country preparation. Further study could also highlight the strategies used by students to help them learn grammar. The findings of the present study indicated that most of the participants had clear ideas about how they learned grammar best, citing a wide variety of strategies. Further research into students' learning preferences and strategies has the potential to increase our understanding of students' individual study practices.

Thus, a variety of directions for further research exist with regard to the study of transfer of grammatical instruction to students' output, both written and oral. To date, very little research has been undertaken in the field of SLA with regard to learning transfer. As the present study has demonstrated, transfer is a complex construct, difficult to predict, quantify, and identify. However, an understanding of this complex process by which language learners access and use grammatical information in a variety of settings is

a vital piece in the puzzle of how individuals gain proficiency in a second or foreign language.

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APPENDIX 1

Information Sheet for Prospective Research Participants

Research on ESL Grammar and Writing

Researcher: Maria Amonette, Ph.D. Candidate at the University of Washington and IEP Instructor

I am researching how ESL students learn grammar and how they use it in their writing. I am very interested in talking to you about your experiences learning English grammar.

I hope you will participate in my study. If you sign up for this study, you will

- be able to practice English conversation with a native speaker, and
- receive extra help on your grammar and writing problems.

As part of the study, I would like to talk to you a few times during the session. Each interview will be 20-30 minutes long.

If you would like to sign up for the study, please sign your name on the sign-up sheet. Feel free to contact me if you have questions. Thank you!

e-mail:
Office phone:

APPENDIX 2

Summary of Class Periods

Day / Date		Activity Type
Day 1		*I observed Jenny's class. She went over the syllabus and administered the diagnostic test. John had the other class of evel 4's.*
Days 2, 3		*Jenny went over gerunds and infinitives. Book Activities.*
Day 4		*Wendy's first day with this class after the teaching schedule got rearranged. She preferred not to have me observe on the first day since she had only a few hours' warning. This was the first day of the "combined" level 4.*
Day 5 (6/18)		Homework correction in groups Group activity - worksheet on gerunds and infinitives Teacher-led class activity - worksheet Group activity - role play
Day 6 (6/21)		Q&A session before quiz Quiz Teacher-led grammar presentation / discussion (on chalkboard): Reported Speech Group activity - oral book practice
Day 7 (6/23)		Teacher returning quiz, discussing items from quiz Teacher-led grammar presentation: Review of noun clauses Homework correction in groups Group activity - oral book practice Teacher-led grammar presentation: clarification of how to use verbs say and tell (chalkboard) Group activity - oral book practice
Day 8 (6/25)		Group speaking activity - role play using reported speech Quiz
Day 9 (6/28)	11:15	Teacher-led grammar presentation on the overhead (OH)– first time using OH for grammar explanation: Passive
	11:23	Group homework correction
	11:32	Teacher-led grammar presentation / discussion continued:

		Passive
	11:40	Group work- book exercise : transformational, Ss discussing answers, checking answer sheet
Day 10 (6/30)	11:15	Group homework correction
	11:30	Teacher-led grammar presentation on OH: Stative Passive
	11:35	Group work - book exercise (fill-in)
	11:40	W. shows Ss reference pages with more information about the passive: Teacher-led grammar presentation / discussion
	11:44	Teacher-led grammar presentation on OH: continued
	11:50	Group work - book exercise (fill-in)
	11:55	Teacher-led quick presentation on "get passive" : refers to the textbook
Day 11 (7/2)	11:10	Teacher-led review for quiz: W. asking questions about the reasons for using passive.
	11:15	Group homework correction
	11:45	Quiz
Day 12 (7/7)	11:10	Teacher-led grammar presentation (OH): Past perfect and past perfect progressive
	11:25	Group activity - Problem solving (solving mystery)
Day 13 (7/9)	11:20	Late start; Group homework correction
	11:35	Teacher-led grammar presentation on OH: Contrasting pastperfect progressive and past perfect
	11:40	Group work -spoken practice (worksheet about class party)
		(NO RECORDING MADE - BATTERIES TOO LOW)
Day 14 (7/12)	11:15	Teacher reading homework corrections / Ss asking questions, teacher answering*
	11:50	Quiz
Day 15 (7/14)	11:10	Teacher-led grammar presentation on OH : Past form of modals
	11:20	Group homework correction
	11:30	More grammar presentation on OH
	11:42	Group activity: Problem solving (solving mystery about Mr. Crabtree's murder)
		(POOR TAPE SOUND / ONLY PARTIALLY TRANSCRIBED)

Day 16 (7/16)	11:14	W. introducing topic of today's class
	11:16	Teacher-led grammar review (using worksheet with perfect modal sentences from Crabtree mystery)
	11:23	Group activity: Problem solving (continuing mystery activity)
	11:55	Group work - Ss exchanging ideas / brainstorming for homework assignment (advice column)
Day 17 (7/19)	11:15	Homework correction in pairs (Ss reading each other's work)
	11:20	Quiz
	11:37	Introduction of new grammar point (conditional)–Student worksheet
	11:45?	Teacher-led presentation / discussion of worksheet and new topic (referring to worksheet, not OH)
Day 18 (7/21)	11:15	Group homework correction
	11:30	Teacher-led grammar presentation on OH: unreal conditionals.
	11:40	Group practice: Worksheets (fill-in from Azar and identification of unreal / real from Grammar Plus.)
Day 19 (7/23)	11:14	W. goes over the day's plan
	11:16	Class activity using conditional: 2 circles, discussing questions requiring use of conditional.
	11:31	Teacher-led grammar presentation using book on past gerunds and infinitives; student questions
	(NO SOUND ON TAPE/RECORDING PROBLEMS)	

Day 20 (7/26) I wasn't present due to my teaching responsibilities. Wendy told me that the students worked in groups on a review sheet designed to help prepare them for the final two days later.

APPENDIX 3
Grammar & Writing Questionnaire
Summer, 1999

Thank you for taking the time to fill out this information. I appreciate your help!

Level _____

Home country:

How long have you been in the U.S.?

How long have you been at the IEP?

Did you learn English before you came to the IEP? Where (type of school)? How long?

Why are you learning English? What is your goal?

1. In your opinion, what is the best way to learn a foreign language?

2. Do you think learning grammar is important when you are learning a language? Please explain.

3. In which area is grammar the most helpful to you? (Please circle your answer)

listening *reading* *speaking* *writing*

Why?

4. How do you learn grammar best?

5. When you write in English, do you usually think about grammar?

6. Do you think grammar helps you with your writing? Why or why not?

7. Do you use the information from your grammar class (or previous grammar classes) when you are writing? Please explain.

8. What strategies (methods) do you usually use w hen you are writing an essay for your composition class? Please describe what you do.

Thanks again for your help with my research.
Maria Amonette

APPENDIX 4

Picture Description Task
"The Changing Countryside"

These are pictures of the same area in Germany, shown in 3 different years: 1953, 1969, and 1972. Please describe some of the changes that you see in the pictures. Try to write at least 5-7 sentences below. You may use the active or passive voice.

If you don't know a word, ask me, and I will help you.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

APPENDIX 5

Picture Description Task Interview Questions:

1. I see you used passive here [referring to the students' sentences written to describe the pictures from *The Changing Countryside]*. Why did you do that? (If the student did not use passive, I asked why he or she had not used it).

2. Can you give me a rule for forming passive? Can you give me a rule for using passive? (i.e. When should we use the passive?)

3. Can you tell me if passive has a special meaning? Often, I'd refer to an example sentence that had a possible passive and active form (e.g. The house was destroyed and the man destroyed the house).

4. Where did you learn about passive? (i.e. Did you learn about it in the Grammar 4 class or earlier?)

5. Do you know passive well enough to use it regularly in your writing?

APPENDIX 6

Level IV Grammatical Overlay

Verbs

1. Past perfect tense / Past Perfect Progressive

2. Simple reported speech with "say," "tell," and "ask"

3. Gerund adn infinitive: Review Gerund as subject, verb + pronoun + infinitive, have working knowledge of referenced list in Blue Azar.

4. Perfect Modals

Transformations

5. Real conditionals / Unreal Conditionals in Present and Future, (mastery at sentence level)

Voice

6. The passive, including the passive with "get" and in contrast to the stative
   Usage:
   participial adjectives (bored /boring)
   Passive and past forms of Gerunds

SOURCE: *Intensive American Language Center Faculty Handbook*, 1995.

APPENDIX 7

Follow-up Interview Questions:

1. How is your semester / session going? Tell me about your classes.

2. Is grammar a concern for you in your classes?

3. For IEP students: Do your teachers this session emphasize grammar? How? Is grammar important?

4. Are you learning new grammar this session? If so, are you learning in class or on your own?

5. Do you remember what you learned in Grammar 4? Why or why not?

6. Do you use the Grammar 4 structures now? If so, which ones do you use? (Note: I showed them a list of structures taught in Grammar 4.)

7. What do you do if you have a grammar question when you're writing?

8. Referring to the student's writing sample: I asked the student to identify a Grammar 4 structure in his/her writing. Then I asked the student about how to form the structure, what it meant, and how it was used. Finally I asked why he/she had decided to use the structure there.

9. What is the best way to work on problematic grammar areas for you? What is the best way to learn grammar in your opinion?

APPENDIX 8

Transcription Conventions

Pauses:

(.) Pause of 1 second or less.
(..) Pause of 1-2 seconds
(...) A long pause of at least 2-3 seconds

Overlapping speech: Two speakers talking at the same time.

A: It's (formed with) the be-verb
B: (Excuse me)

Latched speech: Utterances in which there is no perceptable pause between Speaker A's comments and Speaker B's reponse.

A: We would say, "She told me the story." "She said to me the story"=
B: = Yeah=
A: =Just sounds wrong.

(???): The word is indistinguishable on the tape.

Abbreviations:

Int: interviewer
S1: an unidentified student
S2: a second unidentified student
Ss: more than one student responding at once

APPENDIX 9

Student Interview Questions: Pilot Study
May 1999

Name:

Home country:

Length of time in U.S.: Length of time at WSU:

Length of time learning English:

Level: Grammar grade:

---

1. In your opinion, what is the best way to learn English? How have you learned English?

2. Do you think learning grammar important when you are learning a language? Why or why not?

3. In which area is grammar the most helpful: (please rate the areas from (most helpful) to 4 (least helpful)).

   Speaking_____
   Listening_____
   Reading _____
   Writing _____

   Please explain.

4. Tell me about your grammar class. What have you learned this session? What do you usually do in class?

5. In your opinion, what is the best way to learn grammar?

6. When you write in English, do you usually think about grammar? What do you usually do when you write?

7. Do you think that you use the information from grammar class when you are writing? Why or why not?

Rules:

8. This session, you learned about many structures, including the passive voice and the conditional.

   a.) Can you make a passive sentence out of this sentence:

   Mr. Longman wrote a dictionary.

   b.) Can you think of a rule for how to form the passive? When should you use the passive? Does it have a special meaning?

   c.) Can you make an conditional sentence out of these sentences? (Real /Unreal)

   It will rain today. I will go to Starbuck's.

   d.) Can you think of a rule for how to form the conditional? When should you use the conditional? Does it have a special meaning?

Looking at Structures in Student Writing:

9. a.) Can you tell me why the writer used the passive here?

   b.) Is it correctly formed?

   c.) Is it used correctly? Would another structure have been better?

   d.) Does using the passive give this sentence a special meaning? Please

explain.

10. a.) Can you tell me why the writer used the conditional here?

b.) Is it correctly formed?

c.) Is it used correctly? Would another structure have been better?

d.) Does using the conditional give this sentence a special meaning? Please explain.

APPENDIX 10

Reading/Composition 4 Objectives

READING ASSIGNMENTS:

- Read at least one high school-level textbook chapter.
- Read a short novel.
- Read an article from a popular periodical.

GENERAL READING AND COMPREHENSION SKILLS

- Skim to understand the general meaning of a reading.
- Scan for specific information.
- Identifiy main ideas.
- Identifiy the relationship of main ideas to sub-ideas.
- Form a conclusion based on a series of examples.
- Draw inferences.
- Identify the author's point of view.
- Use context, the dictionary, and morphology to get meaning.
- Understand simile and metaphor.

WRITING OBJECTIVES:

Student's writing should demonstrate the following:

- ability to use their own words persuasively
- variety of syntactic and semantic structures
- control of general/specific paragraphs and the 5-paraagraph essay structure, and comparison and contrast style
- ability to revise, edit, and proofread own writing.

Student should be able to:

- summarize and paraphrase witin a piece of writing
- respond to short essay prompts
- (re)construct and combine sentences
- outiline/organize; write a 5 paragraph essay with a comparison/contrast structure
- use the dicitonary and features of Microsoft Word to correct their own work; use the IEP's writing guidelines.

SOURCE: *Intensive American Language Center Faculty Handbook*, 1995.

Vita

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