

WHAT IS THE INFLUENCE OF FORM-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION OF COPULA AND
AUXILIARY (BE) ON ESL LEARNERS?

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ABSTRACT

This study explored the influence of form-focused instruction (FFI) in teaching English copula and auxiliary (*be*) to English as a second language (ESL) learners. Following the noticing hypothesis, FFI, and the basic principles of curriculum and instruction theory, this study investigates if ESL learners make omission, misuse, or misjudgment errors while acquiring English as a second language. Also, the study examined whether ESL learners show significant improvement in their knowledge of English copula and auxiliary (*be*) after receiving FFI. Previous copula and auxiliary (*be*) research (Jishvithaa, Tabitha, & Kalajahi, 2013; Muftah & Eng, 2011; Unlu & Hatipoglu, 2012) has shown that ESL learners commit omission and misuse errors. It was the aim of this study to investigate that ESL learners commit those errors and to add misjudgment errors to the investigation. Moreover, the study also aimed at examining the influence of FFI on the ESL learners' knowledge of copula and auxiliary (*be*). Previous research on FFI influence (Ellis, 1984; Tomita & Spada, 2013; Valeo, 2013) has shown a positive influence of FFI on learning and acquiring grammatical structures. This study adds more findings by focusing on the influence of FFI on the ESL learners' knowledge of the copula and auxiliary (*be*) in the present tense.

This study was a quantitative quasi-experimental one. It utilized a control group and an experimental group. It followed a pretest-treatment-posttest, control-group design. Participants were 14 ESL learners (10 in experimental group, 4 in control group) who were in two existing groups at two ESL classes in a Midwestern university. The results reflect that participants made

omission, misuse, and misjudgment errors. The participants committed more misjudgment errors and less omission and misuse errors. All participants showed a significant change overtime in regard to making misjudgment errors. The outcomes highlight misjudgment errors as a potential type of errors that ESL learners may commit with copula and auxiliary (*be*). The experimental group outperformed the control group over time by significantly making less omission errors. When compared over time and between groups, participants' scores on the grammatical judgment tasks have shown improvement suggesting a positive effect of FFI treatment on the participants' knowledge of copula and auxiliary (*be*). Further research is needed to involve a larger participant population and more types of copula and auxiliary (*be*) errors.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The deletion and the misuse of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) are common errors that native speakers of other languages commit when they learn English as a foreign language (EFL) or as a second language (ESL). Previous research investigated the omission of the English copula and auxiliary (*be; am, is, are*) by Arab EFL/ESL learners and concluded that (*be*) omission and misuse was due to the negative transfer or interference of Arabic (Alshayban, 2012). As a matter of fact, no copula or auxiliary (*be*) exists in Arabic in the present tense (Swain & Smith, 2001). Additionally, the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) is absent in the Arabic nominal sentences. The Arabic verb “*yaku:n*” (*be*) is absent in the Arabic sentence’s surface structure, but it does exist in the Arabic sentence’s deep structure (Al-shormani, 2012).

According to DeVito (1973) the surface structure represents how we say sentences while the deep structure represents how we understand them. Chafe (1970) referred to the surface structure as the phonetic structure whereas he refers to the deep structure as the semantic structure. Moreover, some linguists describe the surface structure as “the output of the phonological rules or the output of deletion rules—a level of syntactic analysis closest to the actual form of a sentence” (Denison, 1993, p. 479). Denison (1993) also specified the deep structure as “the most abstract syntactic representation of a sentence, sometimes called underlying structure” (p. 476). Table 1 provides examples from both Arabic and English:

Table 1

Verb (be) in Arabic vs. English

| Language | Surface Structure | Deep Structure |
|----------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|
| English | John is handsome | John is handsome |
| Arabic | John wəsi:mun | John yaku:n wəsi:mun |

The English copula and auxiliary (*be*) is considered to be the most irregular verb in most languages. Therefore, part of the difficulty in learning it is due to the issue of marked-ness (Celce-Murcia, Larsen-Freeman, & Williams, 1999). Low competence in the target language might be a source of errors in using English copula (Abushihab, El-Omari, & Tobat, 2011). For instance, Arab ESL/EFL learners would produce forms such as the following (Swain & Smith, 2001):

- He teacher.
- The boy tall.
- He going to school.

The difference between the learners' use of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) and the grammatically accurate use of them seems obvious. Thus, the noticed performance deficiency requires attention and maybe intervention from language teachers and instructors. As a language instructor for many years, I have come across many Arab EFL/ESL learners who tended to omit or misuse the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) (*am-is-are*) in their oral and written productions. It is believed that learners need to understand how and why they must use the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) in a particular way.

As previously mentioned, Arabic speaking EFL/ESL learners are not the only language learners who may find difficulties in understanding and using the English copula and auxiliary (*be*). Native speakers of other languages, as it will be discussed later in this study, may face

similar difficulties in producing such structures. According to Jia and Fuse (2007), native Mandarin speaking ESL learners tend to commit errors (commission and omission) in producing the copula (*be*) structures. Such errors are associated with the difficulty of the English copula (*be*) structures for Mandarin speaking ESL learners. Similarly, Unlu and Hatipoglu (2012), claimed that native speakers of Russian with various proficiency levels in English may find it hard to use the English copula (*be*) in the present simple tense.

As it has been reported, some of the committed errors may fossilize and continue to appear in the learners' performance even after learning English for a long period of time. Such difficulties are assumed to stem from the negative interference of Russian since the copula (*be*) has no present tense in Russian (Unlu & Hatipoglu, 2012). In the same vein, Jishvithaa, Tabitha, & Kalajahi (2013) suggested that native Malay speaking ESL learners have a tendency to commit errors in tense shift, agreement, and misuse of tense verb when they use the English auxiliary (*be*). Malaysian ESL learners are believed to have difficulties understanding and using the English auxiliary (*be*) in the present tense. As Jishvithaa et al.(2013) claimed, such errors are due to the complexity of the English auxiliary (*be*) structures.

Research Questions

The main goal of this study was to investigate the ESL learners' knowledge of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) in the present tense and the influence of FFI on that knowledge. Thus, the research questions were as follows:

1. Do ESL learners make omission, misuse, or misjudgment rrors of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) while acquiring English as a second language?
2. Do ESL learners show significant improvement in their knowledge of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) after receiving form-focused instruction?

Research Questions Analysis and Null Hypotheses

Research Question 1 and Research Question 2 were addressed by descriptive and inferential statistics. Null hypotheses for Research Question 1 and Research Question 2 were as follows:

H₀1. ESL learners do not make omission, misuse, or misjudgment errors of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) while acquiring English as a second language.

H₀2. Form Focused Instruction (FFI) has no significant influence on the Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT) scores of ESL learners.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study originates from the potential influence of form-focused instruction (FFI) on the ultimate grammatical knowledge of language learners. It is also important because it attempts to find possible solutions to linguistic and pedagogical problems that affect ESL learners and their ultimate linguistic attainment. There is a need for empirical evidence of the potential relationship between the ESL learners' knowledge of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) and the influence of FFI in ESL classrooms. Thus, the intent of the current study was to find out evidence toward a prospective relationship between FFI and ESL learners' knowledge of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) in the present tense. The following section provides more details about the ultimate rationale for investigating such a relationship.

Rationale for Designing the Study in Grammar Instruction

As it has been stated, ESL learners face difficulties in learning different aspects of English grammar. Among those aspects is the usage and function of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*; Basaeed, 2013). Therefore, this study aimed at investigating whether ESL learners have necessary knowledge to use the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) accurately and whether grammatical instruction would help in improving their metalinguistic competence. With the

increasing number of ESL learners in the United States, I found it necessary to examine this potential relationship between FFI and grammatical knowledge of copula and auxiliary (*be*).

Teaching grammar or learning with rules in language classrooms has been a controversial issue in the second-language acquisition (SLA) field for decades. Language-skill acquisition theorists claim it would be necessary to secure explicit declarative information about whatever new skill of the second language learners are trying to learn (Ortega, 2009). It is suggested that learning with rules can persist by utilizing controlled operations and theoretically driven processes maintained by conscious attention (Ortega, 2009).

Thus, language teaching approaches should raise the learners' conscious and draw their attention to how language works. It is the responsibility of language teachers and instructors to focus language learner's attention on the distinctive and marked grammatical forms. This may help learners to notice those grammatical forms in less time than it would take if they were left to notice them on their own. Learners are encouraged to notice the divide between what they produce and what the target language demands (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

Many language-learning specialists have advocated the role of grammar instruction against the anti-grammar teaching claims. Moreover, they have questioned the weakened role of grammar instruction in language classrooms (Zhou, 2009). Some language educators claim that grammar instruction should be taught even if teaching it does not help students produce better texts instantly (Nunan, 2005). Nunan (2005) proposed that grammar rules provide language learners with better chances to form and articulate more complex thoughts. In order to see the whole picture, it seems necessary to present a summary of the theoretical positions that support the views of including as well as excluding/reducing grammar instruction in second language

classrooms. The following section highlights some theoretical views on learning and teaching grammar in second language classrooms.

Views Against Grammar Instruction

Several theories support this position; however, this discussion will focus on some of the most influential models as specified by Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Pawlak (2012). The focus will be on the identity hypothesis (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012), the interlanguage theory (Selinker, 1972), the universal grammar-based approaches (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012), and the monitor model by Krashen (1977, 1981, 1982). The following section will provide a summary of each of the mentioned theories, hypotheses, and approaches.

The Identity Hypothesis

The identity hypothesis states that the acquisition of the mother tongue or native language is similar to the acquisition of a second language. In other words, many similarities exist between the first and second language acquisition stages (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012). The “second language learner language displays many of the features of first language learner language plus some additional ones” (Ellis, 1994, p. 106). It is assumed that similarities and differences between first language and second language acquisition rely upon some variables, such as age, type of instruction, type of exposure, and kind of memory (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012). As a result of this hypothesis, the natural and communicative approaches have been introduced into language classrooms with less interference into the natural learning process (Pawlak, 2006).

Interlanguage Theory

Interlanguage theory is a result of research in learner errors (Corder, 1971), and the development of second language acquisition which focuses on unfolding the complexities of second language acquisition (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012). Interlanguage is defined

as “a structurally intermediate status between the native and the target languages” (Brown, 2000, p. 215). Selinker (1972) claimed that trying to learn a second language activates some learning strategies and cognitive processes. These strategies and processes include language transfer (data transfer from first language), transfer of training (interlanguage restructuring as a result of instruction), strategies of second language communication, and overgeneralization of target language rules (Selinker, 1972). In other words, the learner’s language is pictured as a “constantly evolving system rather than an imperfect version of the target language” (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012, p. 31). Interlanguage theory has affected classroom practices by focusing on naturalistic learning conditions through meaningful interaction. Grammar instruction is suggested to be minimized (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012).

Universal Grammar Theory

Universal grammar theory, as proposed by Chomsky (1965), views language as “a generative process existing innately in the human brain and based on syntax” (Hinkle & Fotos, 2002, p. 3). Thus, it is possible to recognize the syntactic universals for all languages (Hinkle & Fotos, 2002). According to universal grammar theory, the learners’ knowledge of their first language enables them to understand and produce structures that they have never heard or been taught before (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012). To put it differently, it is proposed that the learner’s mind has an innate language module which contains a group of abstract and general language principles and parameters. It is assumed that this module determines what shape a language should take (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Language input plays an essential role in the universal grammar-based approaches because it activates language acquisition by stimulating the UG devices (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Input also provides learners with a chance of resetting parameters to second language values (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012). In general,

universal grammar-based approaches view grammar instruction as unnecessary or insignificant. Instead, it emphasizes focusing on meaning in language instruction (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012).

Monitor Model

It is one of the most significant theories in the field of second language acquisition that was provoked by research results into interlanguage which confirmed the “operation of developmental sequences on second language acquisition” (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012, p. 37). Both the monitor model and universal grammar theory are congruent in regard to the existence of an innate ability to acquire language (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012). This model consists of five hypotheses: the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the input hypothesis, and the affective filter hypothesis. In general, Krashen’s monitor model differentiates between learning and acquisition (Krashen, 1981, 1985).

According to Krashen (2003), acquisition is implicit and unconscious while learning is explicit and conscious. Krashen argued that language should be acquired implicitly and unconsciously. He also claims that language acquisition is feasible via sufficient exposure to comprehensible input. Additionally, Krashen proposed that explicit teaching of grammar rules is peripheral and helps learners only in the process of monitoring their output and for editing their written production (Krashen, 1981, 1982; Krashen & Terrell, 1983). According to Krashen (1982), explicit focus on teaching grammar does not support second language acquisition. Although this view of second language learning is not directly related to communicative language teaching, it provided a theoretical basis for communicative language teaching and the nature of grammar role in language classrooms (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). One of the most

popular classroom applications of the monitor model is the natural approach. The approach, as outlined by Krashen and Terrell (1983), highlights the importance of comprehension and meaningful communication. It highlights the importance and adequacy of comprehensible input for language acquisition. The approach aims at helping language learners to develop necessary interpersonal communication skills (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012). In this approach, grammar instruction is unnecessary because as Krashen and Terrell (1983) proposed, “Language is best taught when it is being used to transmit messages, not when it is explicitly taught for conscious learning” (p. 55).

Theoretical Positions for Grammar Teaching

There are many theories and hypotheses which are considered a rational basis for grammar instruction or FFI. Among such theories and hypotheses are the processability theory (Pienemann, 1998), skill learning theory (Anderson, 1982, 1983), the noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990), the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996), and the output hypothesis (Swain, 1985). The following part will briefly shed some light on these notions and concepts.

Processability Theory

In processability theory, Pienemann (1998) assumed that second language learners produce and comprehend second language forms (syntax and morphology) that they can process or handle at a specific stage of development. Otherwise stated, the developmental sequence of syntax and morphology features is influenced by how easy they are to process (Pienemann, 1998). In order for second language learners to use their existing first language knowledge, they must reach a specific level of processing capacity in second language (Pienemann, 1998). Moreover, processability constrains language development and that affects first language and second language acquisition as well as the variations of interlanguage and the transfer from first

language (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012). According to processability theory, grammar instruction can be beneficial if the teachers were able to focus on structures from the “next stage” (Pienemann, 1998, p. 250). In order to do so, teachers must first identify the learners’ current level. Next, previous stages should be checked to make sure that they have been successfully attained (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012).

Skill Learning Theory

Skill learning theory identifies language learning as a cognitive skill (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Anderson (1982, 1983) proposed that learning is a transition or movement from declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge. Declarative knowledge includes explicit knowledge of systems and rules while procedural knowledge includes knowing how to use the rules and the system (Anderson, 1982, 1983). Practice may cause the transition of the declarative knowledge to the procedural one (Ur, 1988). According to this theory, grammar instruction is a “deductive and linear presentation” (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011, p. 5) of grammatical forms and structures. The presentation-practice-production approach is a grammar-based instruction that is deeply rooted in skill learning theory. It consists of three stages: a presentation stage, a practice stage, and a production stage (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). It is claimed that this theory provides a rationale for explicit grammar instruction (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012).

Noticing Hypothesis

In the noticing hypothesis, Schmidt (1990) suggested that it is necessary for second language learners to consciously notice the difference between their language production and the target language forms in order to acquire the second language. If language learners do not figure out how their interlanguage differs from the second language system, they will not be motivated

to use new linguistic forms (Hinkle & Fotos, 2002). According to Schmidt (2001), the boundaries between explicit and implicit knowledge are blurry and hard to identify. It is more like a continuum rather than a dichotomy. Hence, learning has to be conscious because second language acquisition is mainly a result of what learners notice in the second language input (Schmidt, 2001). Furthermore, the noticing hypothesis highlights the intake notion (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012). Intake is defined as “that subset of the input that is comprehended and attended to in some way. It contains the linguistic data that are made available for acquisition” (VanPatten, 1993, p. 436). It is the part of the input that learners have noticed and stored in their working memory for more processing. Intake is what learners internalize and incorporate in their language. Thus, intake is important because it is the basis for language learning (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). According to Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Pawlak (2012), the noticing hypothesis justifies the provision of explicit grammar instruction, along with other communicative skills, for proficient language use. VanPatten (1996) argued that learners should be provided with adequate instruction to learn how to process input correctly so that they can learn grammatical forms while focusing on meaning. The noticing hypothesis will be revisited later in this study.

Interaction Hypothesis

The interaction hypothesis proposes that the engagement of language learners with their interlocutors in meaning negotiation may improve the quality of the provided input (Long, 1996). In other words, interactionally modified input adjusted according to the interlocutor feedback is the most effective type of comprehensible input second language learners can get (Ortega, 2009). According to Long (1996), modified interaction requires some conversational adjustment which leads to input comprehension and language acquisition as an ultimate result. The significance of the negotiation for meaning relies in its facilitation of acquisition by connecting “input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways” (Long, 1996, pp. 451–452). Language learners may apply different language checks in order to negotiate meaning, such as clarification checks, confirmation checks, and comprehension checks (Ellis, 1991).

In regard to grammar instruction, the interactional feedback plays an important role related to the significance of focus on form approach as a type of FFI (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Long (1991) defined as an approach that “overtly draws students’ attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning of communication” (Long, 1991, pp. 45–46). Long assumed that the majority of the grammar of a language can be acquired incidentally while focusing on meaning (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Nevertheless, recent views have considered both incidental and preplanned instruction significant for language acquisition (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011).

Output Hypothesis

In her output hypothesis, Swain (1985) argued that second language learners can increase their second language proficiency by engaging in language production. Relating to the

sociocultural theory by Vygotsky (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012), Swain claimed that learning is a social activity and successful language learning relies, among other components, on collaborative interaction or collaborative dialogue (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Although Swain (1995) admitted the significance of comprehensible input, she argued that it is not enough for effective second language acquisition. Output has three functions: noticing a linguistic gap between the learner's interlanguage and the target language, testing and trying hypotheses about expressing meaning in second language, and the metalinguistic function by which the second language learner reflects on one's and others language (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Skehan (1998) highlighted how output is related to grammar instruction by emphasizing that "output promotes syntactic processing" through focusing on the means of production (p. 16). Such practice is considered as a form-focused practice. To be more specific, collaborative output activities force learners to produce and reflect on language forms and that helps in raising their awareness of troublesome structures (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011).

Definitions of Terms

Auxiliary (be) is a verb that precedes the main verb in a verb phrase, namely (am, is, are).

Copula (be) is *am*, *is*, or *are* as the main verb that links the subject of the sentence with its predicate.

Deep structure is how sentences are understood or the semantic structure of sentences

Descriptive grammar is grammar structures as used by native speakers of a language.

Grammar is the set of rules that describes how words can be arranged to form sentences in a language.

Prescriptive grammar is grammar rules as prescribed in grammar books.

SLA is the field and discipline of second language acquisition which is concerned with the process of learning additional languages.

Surface structure is how sentences are said or the phonetic structures of sentences.

Tense is a feature of verbs which means the time that an action occurs in relation to the moment of speaking. It has three dimensions; present, past, and future. English marks two tenses; past and present while future is expressed by using *will* or *be + going to*.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored in three theoretical frames. These frames are the noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990), FFI (Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001), and basic principles of curriculum and instruction theory (Tyler, 1949). These frames have been chosen because they represent the cognitive and learning frame, the pedagogical frame, and the instructional frame, respectively.

Noticing Hypothesis

Some light has already been shed on the noticing hypothesis in Chapter 1. In this chapter, more detailed discussion is provided on this hypothesis. Noticing is defined as the conscious registration of linguistic forms in memory (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Schmidt (2010) pointed out that “noticing can be operationally defined as availability for verbal report” (p. 132). It is a simple mental registration process of a specific incident or event (Schmidt, 2001). In other words, noticing refers to how the brain registers the new materials with some simultaneous awareness at the time of encounter with something new (Schmidt, 2001). According to Schmidt (1995), learners need to notice the related materials in the linguistic data afforded by the environment in order to learn any aspect of the second language, such as sounds, words, grammar, and pragmatics. Mainly, what is noticed in the input will most likely guide the second

language acquisition process (Doughty, 2003). The noticing hypothesis originates from the claim that learners “must attend to and notice linguistic features of the input that they are exposed to if those forms are to become intake for learning” (Schmidt, 2010, p. 724). Schmidt (1990) differentiated between input (perceived information) and intake (noticed information). He claimed that attention provides and regulates access to awareness and rises noticing which is essential to convert input into intake. That is to say, input needs to be noticed in order to become intake (Swain, 2000). According to Schmidt and Frota (1986), teaching and drilling a specific verbal form in class is not enough for the language learner to learn and start using it. Additionally, it is not enough for that specific form to be apparent in the input. The claim is that noticing, or conscious awareness, of the input is essential for the language learner in order to use a particular form. However, it is difficult to differentiate the absence of noticing from the inability to remember and being able to report the experience of noticing at a later time (Ortega, 2009). Therefore, Schmidt carefully stated,

“the more second language learners notice, the more they learn, and that learning without noticing (that is subliminal learning), even if it exists in other domains of human learning, plays a minimal role in the challenging business of learning a new language.” (as cited in Ortega, 2009, p. 63)

The ability of the learner to attend to the language code can be acquired through internal or external means such as struggling to compose a structure, through a lesson planned by a teacher, or by a reaction from an interlocutor. Those internal and external means make the learners pay attention to new features of second language and they become aware of the divide between their own productions and the utterances of others (Ortega, 2009).

Consciousness-Raising, Noticing, and Language Acquisition

Fotos (1993) claimed that consciousness-raising precedes noticing. Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) defined consciousness-raising as “the deliberate attempt to draw learners’ attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language” (p. 274). In fact, consciousness can be raised by formal instruction or via continuous communicative exposure. As a result, learners may notice a specific linguistic feature in subsequent input (Ellis, 1994; Schmidt, 1990). Noticing is considered to be significant for language processing, and the acquisition of particular linguistic features (Ellis, 1994; Schmidt, 1990).

In regard to language acquisition, noticing plays the role of the “trigger for language processing” and noticing a linguistic feature in input is believed to be a “critical first step” in language processing (Fotos, 1993, p. 386). In a similar vein, Ellis (1990) proposed a theory of language acquisition which advocates that language learners become aware of specific linguistic features of a target language “through formal instruction” (p. 386). Formal instruction is believed to raise language learners’ consciousness of a particular language feature and that makes the learners aware and notice it in subsequent input and events. Eventually, that would lead to the acquisition of that feature (Ellis, 1990). As it has been mentioned heretofore, many researchers have considered noticing as the first step for language processing. Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) suggested that a language learner goes through four general processing steps:

1. A feature in processed input is noticed, either consciously or unconsciously;
2. an unconscious comparison is made between the existing linguistic knowledge, also called interlanguage, and the new input;

3. new linguistic hypotheses are constructed on the basis of the differences between the new information and the current interlanguage;
4. the new hypotheses are tested through attending to input and also through learner output using the new form. (Fotos, 1993, pp. 386–387)

Factors That Influence Noticing in the Input

According to Schmidt (1990), language learners are “not free to notice whatever they want whenever they want” (p. 144). Actually, “a number of factors influence noticeability” in the input (p. 144). These factors are “instruction, frequency, perceptual salience, skill level, task demands, and comparing” (Schmidt, 1990, p. 143). These factors will be briefly discussed in the following section.

Instruction supports noticing by providing structured and differentiated input. Such input, focuses attention and enhances awareness of linguistic forms and features (Skehan, 1998). In addition, instruction may have a significant role in priming learners to notice features through the establishment of expectations about language (Schmidt, 1990). Gleason and Ratner (2013) defined priming as the “presentation of a stimulus (verbal or pictorial) meant to facilitate the retrieval of a target response” (p. 403). In syntactic priming, for example, prior exposure to a particular sentence structure makes subsequent use of that structure more likely (Bock, 1986). As we will see, all the other factors are related and interconnected to instruction in one way or another (Skehan, 1998).

Frequency of a language feature in the input increases the likelihood of that features to be noticed and integrated into the interlanguage of the learner (Schmidt, 1990). There are times when a feature is unnoticed because of some fluctuating attentional demands from somewhere

else. Yet, because that feature or form occurs more often, there will be greater chances for noticing it (Skehan, 1998).

Perceptual salience is the third factor that influences noticing. It involves how prominent a feature or form is in the input. More prominent language features in the input have greater opportunities to be noticed by learners (Skehan, 1998). Similarly, forms that are less perceptually salient are less likely to be observed. Language learners find it difficult to notice forms “with grammatical morphemes that are bound, contracted, unstressed, or syllabic” (Slobin, 1985, p. 1157). Schmidt and Frota (1986) indicated that phonologically reduced forms are noticed late by language learners.

Skill level refers to the learners’ ability to routinize previously acquired structures (Schmidt, 1990). Mandler (1979) proposed that the routinization of previous syntactic structures is essential for the acquisition of new ones. Some learners’ ability to attend to both meaning and form in second language processing is another related factor (Kihlstrom, 1984). In fact, some learners have better noticing ability because they are “more effective input processors” (Skehan, 1998, p. 50). This might be because some learners have a greater working memory capacity or because their analytic processing within the working memory is performed at higher speed (Skehan, 1998).

Task demands refers to how task-based instruction makes learners notice specific necessary features in order to complete a particular task (Schmidt, 1990). Ericson and Simon (1984) pointed out that the information noticed during an instructional task is the information necessarily needed to carry out that task. Moreover, the processing level of the task demands, low or high, may influence the likelihood of noticing a particular feature (Skehan, 1998).

Comparing is the last of Schmidt's factors that influence noticing. According to Schmidt and Frota (1986), input becomes intake when learners "consciously notice the gap" (p. 312) between the input and their own output or performance based on their existing interlanguage system. By noticing the gap, learners become capable of reflecting on and understanding the significance of what they notice (Schmidt, 1990).

The Noticing Hypothesis and Supporting Evidence

During the 1980s, the field of language and second language acquisition was overwhelmingly dominated by natural and unconscious assumptions of language acquisition lead by researchers such as Krashen (1977, 1981, 1982). As a result of questioning those assumptions, Schmidt and other researchers have provided evidence supporting the role of noticing in second language acquisition and learning (Schmidt, 2010).

The first evidence comes from a case study of an uninstructed adult ESL learner whom Schmidt called Wes (Schmidt, 1983). Schmidt (1983) documented that learner's English acquisition during a number of years. Wes was a Japanese artist who immigrated to Honolulu, Hawaii. Wes was considered to be a good ESL learner. In spite of Wes's interlanguage limitations, he was capable of communicating successfully because of his strategic competence. Moreover, he had attained good levels of pronunciation, "fluency, lexical development, listening comprehension, and conversational ability" (Schmidt, 2010, p. 722). His pragmatics developed quickly as well. However, his grammar, morphology, and syntax were limitedly developed. His use of those language aspects was rather inconsistent because he did not care for grammatical details, or maybe he did not notice them (Schmidt, 2010).

Wes relied heavily on conversational interaction and implicit learning. He paid little attention to forms and little conscious reflection about structures. That made Schmidt (1983) to

propose that adult learning of grammar and entirely unconscious language learning is possibly unattainable. Schmidt claimed that conscious attention to form is required because “adults do seem to have lost the still mysterious ability of children to acquire the grammatical forms of language while apparently not paying attention to them” (Schmidt, 1983, p. 172).

More supporting evidence comes from another case study involved Schmidt himself as the subject of the study (Schmidt & Frota, 1986). During his five-month stay in Brazil, Schmidt and Frota (1986) started learning Portuguese. He was enrolled in a five-week class. However, he learned most of his Portuguese via communication with the native speakers. Schmidt and Frota (1986) made comparisons between Schmidt’s daily journals, what was taught in class, and his monthly second language progress audio tapes. They found that having classroom instruction had a positive impact, but the presence and frequency of some forms in communication had a greater influence (Schmidt, 2010). They also found that some frequent forms in the input were not acquired until Schmidt noticed them consciously (Schmidt & Frota, 1986). According to Schmidt (2010), that conclusion was the origin of the noticing hypothesis.

As it has been stated previously, “Learners must attend to and notice linguistic features of the input that they are exposed to if those forms are to become intake for learning” (Schmidt, 2010, p. 724). Furthermore, Schmidt and Frota (1986) found that frequent negative feedback from native speakers was ineffective because Schmidt was unconscious that he was being corrected. That finding suggested the “noticing the gap hypothesis” which conveys the idea that learners must compare their own output with the target language input (Schmidt, 2010).

Another unique case study conducted by Ioup, Boustagoui, Tigi, and Moselle (1994) provided evidence that language learning is not possible without noticing linguistic forms and features. The researchers’ main intention was to investigate the ultimate attainment achieved by

a successful learner of Arabic as a second language called Julie. The findings of the study support the noticing hypothesis as well.

Julie was a native speaker of British English. She immigrated with her Egyptian husband to Egypt at the age of 21. At the time of the study, Julie had been living in Egypt for 26 years. In spite that she had never received any formal instruction in Arabic, Julie spoke Egyptian Arabic to almost a native level. Unlike Wes in the Schmidt (1983) study, Julie paid attention to linguistic features by keeping a daily journal of her observations about the language. She took notes of verbs, nouns, phrases, and grammatical forms used by native speakers. Moreover, she paid attention to negative feedback and corrections from native speakers (Ioup et al., 1994). Thus, noticing along with her aptitude to learn the language played an important role in her success as a second language learner.

More empirical research has provided supportive evidence for the Noticing Hypothesis. For instance, Leow (1997, 2000) conducted a study in which he used a crossword puzzle to control the attention of learners of Spanish. The findings of the study confirmed that the learners did not learn the target structure in absence of noticing. Mackey (2006) investigated the effect of feedback on noticing of second language forms in classrooms. The results of the study showed that more noticing was correlated with more feedback. Also, learners who showed more noticing showed more progress as well. Izumi (2002) conducted a study to compare the effect of output and “enhanced input” on noticing and development (p. 541). It was found that learners exhibited more noticing and more learning.

Noticing Hypothesis and Form-Focused Instruction

As it has been presented in the previous section, research results and theories about attention and awareness propose that attention to language features or forms is essential for

learners' progress in regard to grammatical accuracy (Schmidt, 1983, 1990, 2001, 2010). As a result, form-focused instruction (FFI) has risen as an approach that combines both focus on language forms and meaningful content (Valeo, 2015). Moreover, FFI puts a significant emphasis on consciousness-raising, so that language learners become, inductively or deductively, aware of the target of instruction (Ellis, 2015). The aim of FFI is to activate noticing of "predetermined linguistic forms" (Ellis, 2015, p. 206). FFI differs from natural untutored second language acquisition because it intervenes in the learning process by providing implicit or explicit instruction (Ellis, 2015). Both forms, implicit or explicit, focus on raising second language learners' consciousness of particular grammatical structures and their embedded meanings (Ellis, 2016). Thus, as Schmidt and Ellis propose, consciousness, noticing and grammar teaching play a noticeable role in language learning (Ellis, 2016). With this connection between noticing and FFI in mind, we will proceed to a detailed discussion of FFI.

Form-Focused Instruction

According to Spada and Lightbown (2008), the 1970s witnessed a change in the theoretical views of second language acquisition, as well as a rise of the communicative language teaching pedagogy. The emphasis was on the significance of developing learners' language during their engagement in meaning-focused activities (Spada & Lightbown, 2008). On one hand, more attention was given to interaction among learners and using language to seek and exchange information. On the other hand, not as much attention was paid to learning grammar rules, practicing patterns, or learning dialogues (Brumfit, 1984). As a result, content-based instruction has been developed as a popular type of communicative language teaching in which subject matter is taught by using the target language. As some researchers proposed, language learning and content teaching can be integrated in content-based instruction programs

to help learning language communicatively and meaningfully in social and academic contexts (Snow, Met, & Genesee, 1992). Still, others argue that it is not always true that good content instruction corresponds to good language instruction (Swain, 1988).

As mentioned earlier, the views and the hypotheses of some second language acquisition researchers, such as Krashen (1977, 1981, 1982), advocated that metalinguistic grammar instruction is peripheral and can hardly be beneficial to language acquisition and it may also have a negative effect on learners. It is believed that metalinguistic knowledge is processed differently from the linguistic knowledge that is acquired interactively (Ellis, 2005).

Nevertheless, there has been an increasing awareness that such teaching approaches that focuses on meaning only without any grammatical focus is insufficient. That view, as discussed later in this study, has been supported by adequate research (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Studies conducted on French immersion programs (Harley & Swain, 1984; Swain, 1985) suggested that focus on meaningful content only is not enough for proficient levels of accuracy (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). According to Spada and Lightbown (1993), many studies have demonstrated that FFI can improve second language learners' fluency and accuracy in communicative language teaching and content-based instruction classrooms. The findings also suggested that language learners are able to show development by using advanced language forms (Doughty & Varela, 1998). Lyster (2004a, 2004b) indicated in other studies that FFI is suggested to be useful in improving second language learners' grammatical abilities in both oral and written production tasks. In a meta-analysis of research into the effectiveness of second language instruction, large positive effects and gains of FFI on second language learning are reported (Norris & Ortega, 2000).

However, in some cases, young learners may not benefit from FFI to become proficient second language learners. Yet, older second or foreign language learners exposed to the target language mainly in classrooms find FFI more beneficial. FFI is claimed to compensate the lack of exposure to the target language (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Spada and Lightbown (2008) made it clear that “language acquisition is not an *event* that occurs in an instant or as a result of exposure to a language form, a language lesson, or corrective feedback” (p. 182). They claimed that language acquisition is a more dynamic and developmental process that keeps bringing changes to the learners’ interlanguage (Spada & Lightbown, 2008).

After discussing the rising of FFI, it is quite significant shading some light on FFI as a second language classroom practice. Ellis (2005) defined FFI as incidental or intended instructional activities that are planned to make language learners pay attention to linguistic forms and structures. Others, such as Poole (2005) saw FFI as a type of instruction that promotes the significance of communicative language teaching principles, such as communication authenticity and focusing on students, while sustaining the importance of the explicit study of troublesome second language grammatical forms. FFI emphasizes that language learners attend to the task, form, and meaning (Long, 1996).

Choosing Forms for Instruction

In spite of “the general consensus that FFI facilitates the acquisition of second language grammatical forms” (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011, p. 136), not all grammatical forms and structures respond equally to FFI (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Williams and Evans (1998) suggested that all grammatical forms may need different degrees and kinds of FFI. Second language learners may acquire certain forms communicatively while focusing on the message. Yet, they may need FFI to learn other forms (Doughty, 2003; Ellis, 2008; VanPatten, 2002).

In a set of guidelines for language classroom instruction, Lightbown (2004) proposed that some language forms become easier to learn by focusing the learner's attention and by providing instruction. She also suggested that some language features "are difficult or even impossible to acquire without focused attention and corrective feedback" (p. 75). In fact, some grammar forms are less frequent or hard to notice in the input. To be more precise, function words or grammatical words may need more focused instruction (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Function or grammatical words are words that link or support nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). According to Celce-Marcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999), the verb (*be*), the focus of this study, is a function word that functions as an auxiliary verb as well as a copula or main verb. The copula or main verb links predicates, such as nouns, adjectives, and adverbs with their subjects. Among other roles, the copula also functions as a tense (present, past, and future) carrier and as a subject-verb agreement carrier (Celce-Marcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999). Celce-Marcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) explained subject-verb agreement as follows: "In the present tense the form of the verb (*be*) reflects the person and the number of the subject noun as well as signaling present tense: *I am, he is, you are*, and so on" (p. 53). As an auxiliary verb, the verb (*be*) combines with (-ing) to show the action in the progressive aspect: *is playing* (Celce-Marcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

Harley (1993) has come up with some criteria for second language forms that might need attention or instruction. First, they are different from the learner's first language. Second, they are less noticeable in the input because of their irregularity or infrequency and learners may communicate successfully without them. Finally, learners may also find it difficult to interpret or analyze those forms.

FFI Types and Classroom Instructional Choices

According to Ellis (2005), FFI consists of both traditional approaches and communicative approaches. Traditional approaches focus more on structure while communicative approaches emphasize form through meaning-focused activities. Long (1991) differentiated between two types of FFI: focus on forms and focus on form.

Focus on forms emphasizes teaching and practicing language features systematically according to a structurally organized syllabus. Each lesson is designed to teach linguistic items, one at a time. It integrates different approaches such as grammar and vocabulary explanations, grammar-translation, memorization drills, and error correction.

Focus on form, in contrast, involves instruction that focuses on communicative and interactive tasks. Teachers provide necessary feedback to help learners produce and use the target language accurately (Long, 1991). Language features that need attention are not specified beforehand. However, recent proposals show that focus on form can include instruction that anticipates troublesome features during learners' engagement in communicative activities. So, teachers arrange in advance to intervene and provide any necessary help (Spada & Lightbown, 2008). Moreover, Doughty (2001) stated that focus on form requires that the learner attends to form, meaning, and use during one cognitive process. The focus on form takes place when language learners briefly pay attention to linguistic structures which appear spontaneously in meaning-focused activities. Focus on form can either be initiated by learners through inquiries or by teachers through planned instruction (Loewen, 2004).

There are several dimensions when it comes to instructional options that teachers make in second language classrooms. Since the focus of this study was FFI, the instructional choices are closely related to approaches believed to draw learners' attention to language forms. Spada and

Lightbown (2008) made a distinction between two more FFI classroom approaches: the isolated FFI and the integrated FFI.

According to Spada and Lightbown (2008), isolated FFI can be offered separately from communicative language activities, however, still a part of courses that also provide both communicative language teaching and content-based instruction, or either. Teachers may apply isolated FFI before communicative activities to prepare learners or after activities to focus on difficult language features. This approach, unlike Long's (1991) focus on forms, is not "organized around predetermined points of grammar in a structural syllabus" (Spada & Lightbown, 2008, p. 186). In other words, isolated FFI provides second language learners with opportunities to intentionally learn linguistic forms and their meanings by offering explicit instruction (Spada & Lightbown, 2008).

Integrated FFI draws the learner's attention to language forms while focusing on communication or content (Spada & Lightbown, 2008). It is congruent with the previously mentioned focus on form instruction. That is, both approaches focus on form during communicative activities and the language features in center of instruction "may have been anticipated and planned for by the teacher or they may occur incidentally in the course of ongoing interaction" (Spada & Lightbown, 2008, p. 186). The main focus during integrated FFI is on meaning, but short explanations or feedback are provided to scaffold more meaningful, accurate, and effective communicative interaction (Spada & Lightbown, 2008). It is worth mentioning here that it is possible to provide explicit feedback on errors, grammar terminology, rules, and clarifications in both isolated and integrated FFI (Spada & Lightbown, 2008). From the prior discussion of some approaches of FFI, it is obvious that all the mentioned approaches

require a kind of preplanning, presetting of objectives, and designing of learning experiences which anchors in the third theoretical foundation of this study.

Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction Theory

The basic principles of curriculum and instruction theory by Tyler (1949) provided the theoretical instructional frame for this study. The theory at hand puts emphasis on the significance of goals and objectives in planning and providing learning experiences which corresponds to FFI principles. Tyler specified four basics for developing any plan for instruction.

First, there is a need to specify and identify the learning objectives to be attained. These objectives provide the criteria for materials selection, content outline, instruction development, and test preparation (Tyler, 1949). Second, it is necessary to determine the learning experiences that are likely to lead to achieving the learning objectives. Learning experiences need to be consistent with the designated learning objectives (Posner, 2004). Tyler (1949) described the learning experience as “the interaction between the learner and the external conditions in the environment to which he can react” (p. 63). Tyler also proposed that learning occurs through the learner’s actions and reactions. “It is what he does that he learns” (Tyler, 1949, p. 63).

FFI, whether isolated or integrated, focus on form or focus on forms, provide such experiences by offering chances of communicative based tasks, feedback, and explanations. Tyler (1949) emphasized learners’ engagement in the learning experiences. He also stresses the importance of learners’ satisfaction from participating in the learning experiences and achieving the objectives. The reactions desired in the learning experiences should also be appropriate for the learners’ abilities and aptitude (Tyler, 1949). In fact, there are a variety of experiences that

can be utilized to achieve “the same” objectives (p. 67). Usually, the same learning experiences generate several outcomes, as Tyler proposed.

Third, learning experiences should be effectively organized to have cumulative effects on the learners (Posner, 2004). It is recommended that learning experiences integrate with and build on one another. Tyler (1949) saw organization of experiences as an important element because of its great influence on instruction efficiency. According to Tyler, learning experiences can be arranged and examined over time (vertically) and from one area to another (horizontally).

Effectively organized learning experiences have three main criteria: continuity, sequence, and integration. Continuity is the “reiteration” of major content items (Tyler, 1949, p. 84). Sequence emphasizes that each successive experience builds on the preceding one (Tyler, 1949) or what Smaldino, Lowther, and Russell (2012) called scaffolding. Sequence refers to the vertical relationship between learning experiences (Tyler, 1949). Integration, on the other hand, indicates the horizontal relationship between learning experiences. It stresses the organization of learning experiences in a way that allows learners to correlate and integrate learning experiences from various content areas (Tyler, 1949).

Fourth, there is a need to evaluate the achievement of the learning objectives (Posner, 2004). Evaluation is an important process that determines the extent to which the learning objectives are realized by instruction (Tyler, 1949). Instruments, such as tests, portfolios, questionnaires, and school records are developed to inspect the effectiveness of instruction. Desired behavioral changes are considered as the criterion for objectives achievement (Posner, 2004).

By this theory, the theoretical framework of this study is complete. The basic principles of curriculum and instruction utilizes the linguistic and learning concepts of the noticing

hypothesis and the form-focused instruction mentioned earlier. While the noticing hypothesis justifies the need for drawing and raising the learners' attention to linguistic features and forms, FFI specifies the teaching approaches to do so. Tyler's (1949) rationale provides the blueprint for planned learning activities that have integrated objectives to be achieved (Dick, Carey, & Carey, 2009).

Form-Focused Instruction: Empirical Background and Second Language Classroom Influence

Over the past 40 years, research on FFI has investigated different FFI related issues. Researchers have studied theoretical frames, background issues, constructs' definitions, FFI versus no FFI, types of instruction, etc. (Nassaji, 2016). Earlier research focused on the role of formal instruction on the development of learners' language. That investigation was driven by theories about the role of explicit versus implicit learning and by the role of naturalistic exposure to second language versus formal second language classroom instruction (Nassaji, 2016). However, later investigation emphasized the effectiveness of appropriately provided FFI by shading light on the importance of noticing and consciousness for language forms in the process of second language learning (Nassaji, 2016).

In this section of the present study, a chronological presentation of some research findings, with the main focus on FFI versus no FFI, are discussed to eventually present the intended point of view and to advocate the genuine effectiveness of FFI in ESL/second language classrooms. The studies discussed in this section are considered key studies according to Nassaji's (2016) FFI research timeline. As it has been mentioned, all the discussed studies focus on the effect of FFI versus no instruction as the main theme. As it is not possible and not intended to cover all the studies in this area, narrowing the studies to one main theme has been found necessary due to the

sheer number of studies that have addressed FFI. Thus, what is presented in this section is only a sample of the research that has been conducted on one main theme of FFI.

According to Nassaji (2016), Long (1983) conducted the first study that focused on whether instruction makes a difference in language learning or not. Long reviewed 12 studies that made comparisons to instructed and naturalistic language learning. The focus was on answering a basic question: “Does instruction make a difference?” (Long, 1983, p. 359). The 12 studies approached that question via different comparisons. Yet, Long (1983) classified the studies by utilizing only five types of comparisons which he numbered from 12 to 16. The first type (Type 12), which included four studies, made comparisons between “the relative utility of exposure only and the same total amount of instruction and exposure” (Long, 1983, p. 361). The second type (Type 13) included two studies that compared “the relative utility of differing amounts of instruction and exposure in populations with the same total amount of both” (Long, 1983, p. 365). The third type (Type 14), which also included two studies, focused on “the effect of amount of instruction on populations with the same amount of exposure” (Long, 1983, p. 367). The fourth type (Type 15) highlighted “the effect of amount of exposure on populations with the same amount of instruction” (Long, 1983, p. 370). Three studies were included in this type of comparison (Long, 1983). The fifth type (Type 16) of comparisons emphasized the “effects of amount of instruction and amount of exposure (independently) on populations with differing amounts of both instruction and exposure” (Long, 1983, p. 372). Four studies represented this type of comparison.

Each group of studies will be discussed in the following paragraphs. It is worth mentioning that Long highlighted the importance of those five types of comparisons by specifying two reasons. First, those types provide evidence that supports second language

acquisition theories that are related to the role of instruction in second language acquisition. Second, they address the efficiency of instruction and/or exposure in manipulated situations.

Type 12

In Type 12 of comparisons, four studies focused on ESL in the United States. Three studies involved adolescents and/or adults while one focused on younger and older children (Long, 1983). According to Long (1983), the results of all four studies proposed that instruction plus exposure had no advantage over exposure alone. In fact, one study claimed that students in the exposure-only group performed better (Long, 1983). Also, the results of other studies suggested that exposure was as effective for second language acquisition “as the same total amount of instruction plus exposure” (Long, 1983, p. 363). However, there was a sign, as we will see later, that instruction had an effect in all three studies (Long, 1983).

According to Long (1983), one research was of two groups of students (7th graders to 12th graders) in Honolulu schools. At the beginning, there were 537 students who were tested for ESL acquisition after one or two years in a specific program. Test scores of 329 participants were provided. Seventy students of the 329 were in a mainstream program for one or two years. That group (Group A) did not receive any ESL instruction. The schools of Group A students were located in middle and upper-middle class neighborhoods and there was an average ratio of 110 English native speakers to each non-native speaker in schools. The other 259 students of the 329 were enrolled in different types of ESL programs for one or two years. Their schools were in low socioeconomic neighborhoods. Thus, the ratio of English native speakers to non-native speakers in schools was 25 to 1.

The students in that group (Group B) spoke their native language when they were not in class. Long (1983) indicated that the effect of ESL instruction on two groups of students whereas there were other factors or variables involved. Besides classroom ESL instruction and

exposure there were the total exposure to English outside the classroom, the socioeconomic status of the students, and the parental attitudes towards second language education. Long proposed that differences in ESL achievement between the two groups could not be affiliated with any of the mentioned variables and that included providing or withholding ESL instruction. Students who were in the programs for one year and for two years were included in the comparisons.

Long (1983) stated that the researchers did not employ any inferential statistics in analyzing the data. The researchers depended on the raw scores of each group to conclude that mainstreamed students (Group A-no ESL) did better. They also recommended maximizing students' exposure to the English language and culture in schools while minimizing ESL instruction (Long, 1983). Long (1983) also argued that the study had enough flaws to invalidate the researchers' claim that exposure-only Group A did better without ESL instruction. Long (1983) claimed that the socioeconomic status differences between the groups were the most influential factor in this study. They affected second language proficiency and the academic average scores. The students in Group B (instruction and exposure) "might have been expected to do less well than their middle and upper-middle class peers, regardless of the treatment they received" (Long, 1983, p. 364). Thus, instruction was effective if the rate of second language acquisition was equal for both groups. The chi-square tests data support this point for the one-year group. In spite the fact that the two-year and the overall scores for both years together showed that the exposure-only group did better, instruction might have been effective as well. Results from the first year showed that there was no evidence that exposure alone was beneficial at least for this particular group.

Another study compared students in law classes with students enrolled in both ESL and law classes for seven weeks. Quantitative analysis of the data showed no significant differences between the groups (Long, 1983). In the same vein, another research on was conducted on university students in regular classes and compared them with students in ESL classes for three months. The results showed that there were no significant differences between the matched groups (Long, 1983).

Another study, however, investigated children between six and 10 years and 11–15 years with different levels of ESL proficiency. The students were in mainstream classes and in pull-out ESL classes. The study lasted four years. The results showed that there was no significant difference between groups. Also, there was no effect of age, ESL instruction, or length of residence in the United States. However, after one year there was a sign of a small advantage of older children in instruction plus exposure group (Long, 1983).

Generally, the outcomes of the four studies suggested that there was “no difference between programs of exposure only and the same total amount of instruction plus exposure for children, adolescents, and adults” (Long, 1983, p. 365). However, there were signs of attainable advantages for instruction, and in particular for students with lower second language proficiency levels (Long, 1983).

Type 13

Type 13 of comparisons, as classified by Long (1983), included two studies that compared “the relative utility of differing amounts of instruction and exposure in populations with the same total amount of both” (Long, 1983, p. 365). Both studies researched ESL students in the United States.

The first study concluded that there was no significant difference between the achievement scores of two groups of intermediate and advanced adult students who attended law classes at the University of Michigan. Both groups lived in an ESL environment for seven weeks. Yet, one group had one hour of ESL instruction per day while the other group received two hours of ESL instruction per day (Long, 1983).

The other study focused on elementary and secondary school children. By utilizing an oral interview and the SLOPE test, the ESL proficiency of 331 students in Washington D.C. public schools at the beginning and at the end of the school year were measured. Some children received three, five, or 10 hours of ESL instruction every week. For the rest of the school day, all students were enrolled in mainstream classes. To calculate the percentage of the gain scores for the two groups were divided by “the actual pretest/posttest gain that students made by the total possible gain” (Long, 1983, p. 367). By applying calculations, it was found that students who experienced less instruction had higher percent gain scores than those who had more instruction on both pretests and posttests (Long, 1983). Long (1983) argued that close examination of the raw data showed that students with more ESL instruction made the highest scores on both tests. Long (1983) concluded that when relative utility of differing amounts of instruction and exposure in populations with the same total amount of both was studied, the results were different and nebulous as it was noticed in the previous two studies.

Type 14

The focus in Type 14 of comparisons was on “the effect of amount of instruction on populations with the same amount of exposure” (Long, 1983, p. 367). Two studies were conducted to investigate the mentioned comparison (Long, 1983). The studies researched adult ESL learners in the United States who had different levels of second language proficiency and

various sessions of instruction and exposure. The researchers in both studies matched pairs of students who had equal sessions of exposure but different periods of instruction. The goal was to examine the hypothesis that more instruction was advantageous for the members of each pair or to see if more instruction led to greater proficiency (Long, 1983). In order to quantify exposure in both studies, practice scores for each subject were calculated according to how much English the participants spoke in their interaction with native and non-native speakers of English.

In another study, the proficiency of 11 pairs of students matched for exposure in which the students with more practice had less instruction was investigated. The results showed that students with more ESL instruction had higher scores than those who had less instruction in a considerably greater number of pairs. Long (1983) highlighted that the results of both studies showed that more instruction predicted higher second language proficiency in populations with equal amounts of exposure to the second language. The researchers also suggested that more instruction could indeed make up for less exposure. The researchers argued that more instruction per se might not lead to more proficiency (Long, 1983). However, instruction might provide more opportunities for comprehensible input for the second language learners.

Type 15

Type 15 of the studies compared “the effect of amount of exposure on populations with the same amount of instruction” (Long, 1983, p. 370). There were three studies of this type (Long, 1983). The studies investigated adult ESL learners in the United States with different levels of proficiency.

Again, researchers conducted a study that was similar to Type 14 studies in regard to utilizing the same matched pair design and the same measures of exposure such as practice and length of stay in the United States (Long, 1983). Yet, in this study the pairs were matched for

the amount of instruction and members of each pair were compared according to more or less exposure. The participants in this study were intermediate and advanced ESL learners who were treated by different periods of instruction and exposure for unspecified period of time. The results showed that in 14 pairs matched for the amount of instruction, members with more practice had higher scores in integrative tests in six cases. Also, in 12 pairs matched for instruction amount, members with more exposure (i.e., more residence in the United States) had higher scores in four cases only (Long, 1983).

In another study of Type 15, beginners, intermediate, and advanced adult ESL learners were treated with different periods of instruction and exposure with long residence periods in the United States (Long, 1983). The results showed that in 21 pairs matched for ESL instruction, students with more practice had higher scores in discrete-point tests. The duration of treatment was specified by Long (1983) as “long residence periods in the United States” (Long, 1983, p. 371).

The last study of Type 15 conducted was on 166 adult ESL learners paired in 83 pairs and were matched on Michigan pretest scores (Long, 1983). For 14 weeks, the participants received 22.5 hours of ESL instruction per week. During the study, half of the participants had less exposure to English by living in university dormitories with non-native speakers of English while the other half had more exposure to English by living with American families in a homestay program. There was a posttest that consisted of the Test of English as a Foreign Language scores and class grades in grammar, reading, composition, and speaking. The quantitative analysis of data showed that students with more exposure in the homestay program had significantly higher scores on the Test of English as a Foreign Language. On all the other tests, the scores were also higher.

According to Long (1983), results seemed to contradict with results obtained by previous studies. Long claimed this study was distinguished from the other two studies in two ways. First, the participants in the homestay program volunteered to participate because they might be more motivated by their desire to learn. Thus, their higher scores could not be attributed to the effect of greater amount of exposure only. Second, because this study was concisely reported, it seemed that the participants were receiving that intensive exposure to a second language for the first time. Nevertheless, many of participants in the other two studies lived for a long time in the United States. Hence, Long (1983) assumed that maybe the 14-week exposure period in this study was enough for intermediate and advanced students to achieve some acquisition, but not long enough to attain the maximum possible benefit of exposure. Long (1983) recommended that more data on the amount of instruction and exposure in all three studies to be provided. He also proposed that results studies of Type 15 proved that the effect of instruction in Type 13 studies was genuine. He also claimed that findings of Type 14 and Type 15 studies together would suggest that more ESL instruction could be more beneficial than more exposure for such participants (Long, 1983).

Type 16

Type 16 of the studies shed light on “the effects of amount of instruction and of amount of exposure (independently) on populations with differing amounts of both instruction and exposure” (Long, 1983, p. 372). This type consisted of four studies which all reported a statistically significant positive relationship between the amount of ESL instruction and test scores. In addition, three of the four studies reported statistically significant positive relationship between the amount of exposure and test scores. The results of two studies showed that the relationship with the amount of instruction was stronger than the amount of exposure. However,

the findings of one study showed that the relationship with instruction was weaker than exposure (Long, 1983).

The first study was conducted on participants who were adult ESL learners at intermediate and advanced levels of proficiency (Long, 1983). They lived in the United States for an average of about four years and received instruction for an average of about two years. They were tested by discrete-point and integrative tests. The findings showed positive correlation between the amount of instruction and the tests scores and between the amount of exposure and tests scores.

The second study was conducted focused on children learning Spanish as a second language with beginning levels of proficiency. For one year, the participants received different amounts of instruction and exposure; however, there was a limited amount of exposure to the second language by parents. The discrete-point test scores showed a positive correlation between the amount of instruction and listening scores and the scores of other tests as well. Also, there was a positive correlation between the amount of exposure and listening scores and the scores of other tests (Long, 1983).

The third study involved adult foreign language learners at beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels of proficiency. The participants were treated by different amounts of foreign language instruction and exposure (living abroad) for a year. They were tested by integrative tests. The findings demonstrated a significant correlation between the amount of instruction and the scores on listening for Spanish and French. Also, the results showed a positive correlation between the amount of exposure and the scores on listening tests for French, Spanish, and German (Long, 1983).

The fourth study was conducted researched the effect of EFL instruction and exposure on proficiency levels of 132 adult Japanese learners at beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels of proficiency. The study lasted for an average of about a month. Participants were tested by utilizing discrete-point and integrative tests. The results showed a positive correlation between the amount of EFL instruction and scores on all tests. However, there was no significant relationship between the amount of exposure and test scores and according to Long (1983) that was due to the insufficient amount of exposure.

Long (1983) summarized the outcomes of the 12 reviewed studies by stating that six studies provided significant evidence for the genuine positive effect of second language instruction. However, two studies provided vague findings because they might or might not be interpreted to demonstrate a positive influence of instruction. Three of the 12 studies showed no significant effect of instruction, but they contained some clues that second language instruction might be advantageous. However, one study did not address this issue since all the participants received an equal amount of instruction. Out of the 12 studies, the results of five studies showed that instruction was more effective than exposure (Long, 1983). In general, Long (1983) found instruction to be effective for children and adults. Also, he found instruction to be effective for beginners, intermediate, and advanced students. Scores of discrete-point and integrative tests also were improved with instruction. In addition to “acquisition-rich” environments, second language instruction was found to be effective in “acquisition-poor” environments (Long, 1983, p. 374). Long concluded his study by answering the question “Does second language instruction make a difference?” with “a not-so-tentative Yes” (Long, 1983, p. 380).

Long’s (1983) review provided a threshold to investigating whether FFI instruction makes a difference in language learning or not (Nassaji, 2016). In a similar vein, another early

study conducted by Ellis (1984) researched the effectiveness of formal instruction on learning how to form certain questions such as who, what, where, etc. (Cowan, 2008). In Ellis's (1984) investigation, 13 full-time ESL students, ranging from 12 to 15 years old, at a language unit in London participated in the study. They lived in Britain for different periods of time with the mean of nearly one year. All the students had exposure to English in the language unit which was a non-classroom activity. In addition to differences in age, the students had also different native languages, time spent at the unit, first language level of literacy, personality, and learning style. The audiolingual approach was utilized for question-asking instruction for pedagogical reasons. Instruction consisted of three one-hour lessons for three consecutive days. Each lesson was preceded and followed by elicitation sessions.

The researchers used an elicitation instrument that was adapted from Beebe (as cited in Ellis, 1984). Data were collected during two elicitation sessions by audio-recordings which then transcribed. After quantitative analyses of the data, the results showed that the difference between time 1 (before instruction) and time 2 (after instruction) was not statistically significant for the whole group. That indicated that three-hour question-asking instruction did not help the students to improve in forming and producing "grammatically well-informed" and "semantically appropriate" questions (Ellis, 1984, p. 146). However, students individually demonstrated a remarkable ability in using semantically appropriate and grammatically well-informed questions. In addition, "low interactors" showed more progress than "high interactors" when it came to the use of (when) questions (Ellis, 1984, p. 146). Although Ellis's (1984) study did not prove that question-asking instruction made a difference for children, it did not prove the opposite either. However, the progress of individual participants was in consensus with the results of Long's (1983) review.

Following those two early studies, Lightbown and Spada (1990) examined the effect of FFI in intensive ESL communicative classrooms. What made this study different from the previous studies was its focus on the correlations between ESL instruction and interaction and the development of the learners' second language (particularly, some aspects of the learners' grammatical accuracy). The research was conducted in intensive ESL programs for Francophone (native speakers of French) students in elementary schools in Quebec in Canada. The participants were approximately 100 low intermediate ESL learners (age from 10–12 years old) who was in four classes. All participants received intensive ESL instruction in grade five or grade six for five months (five hours daily). The researchers examined and analyzed the type of FFI that took place in the four classes and the oral performance data of the participants. The analysis included many linguistic features. Among those features was the students' use of *be* and the progressive (*ing*). The researchers chose those linguistic features because previous research had considered them difficult for Francophone ESL learners (Lightbown & Spada, 1990). The researchers utilized a “modified version of the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) scheme to collect the observation data” (Lightbown & Spada, 1990, p. 436). The COLT scheme was used to measure “the communicative orientation of instruction at the level of activity type and verbal interaction between students and teachers” (Lightbown & Spada, 1990, p. 436).

The data analysis included real-time coding that provided detailed description of classrooms behaviors and activities' contents (e.g., form-focused or meaning-based). The analysis of the audiotapes or their transcriptions assessed the instructional behaviors of the teachers. To collect the learner language data, Lightbown and Spada used the picture card game which is a communication task in which the learner provides an oral description of a picture to

the interviewer until he or she can guess which picture is being described. The picture card game sessions were audiotaped and transcribed. Results showed that there were significant differences between the classes in regard to grammatical accuracy. The quantitative analysis revealed that the accuracy in the use of plural (s) was 50% in Class 1 and was about 59% in Classes 2 and 3. However, Class 4 demonstrated the lowest accuracy with 37 percent. Also, analysis showed that there were group differences, and there was an important difference between Class 4 and Classes 2 and 3 together.

In regard to the accuracy in using the progressive (ing), Class 1 had the highest score with about 28% while Class 2 had about 14% and Class 3 had about 15 percent. Class 4 had the lowest accuracy with about 5 percent. The difference between Classes 1 and 4 was significant (Lightbown & Spada, 1990). The analysis of the learners' use of adjectives in noun phrases showed that students in Class 2 were more accurate with about 89% followed by Classes 3 and 1 with about 75% then Class 4 with 59% of accuracy. Finally, the analysis of the correct use of possessive determiners showed that Class 1 achieved the highest accuracy with 74% followed by Class 2 with about 63%, then Class 3 with 56%, and finally Class 4 with 42 percent (Lightbown & Spada, 1990). Lightbown and Spada (1990) concluded that the classes which were more form-focused demonstrated more accuracy at using the grammatical features mentioned above. These findings were similar to Long's (1983) results and congruent with Ellis's (1984) findings in some way.

Also showing evidence for the need of FFI, White (1991) conducted another early experimental study from the perspective of the universal grammar. White's investigation was in response to claims that negative feedback and instruction had limited effect. In her study, White focused on the difference between French and English in regard to verb movement and adverb

placement. Thus, an experimental study was conducted to investigate the effectiveness of ESL instruction on adverb placement. The participants were two groups of 11 and 12-year-old (grades 5 and 6) Francophone ESL learners in intensive ESL programs in the Province of Québec, Canada. One group of 82 students were provided with explicit instruction on adverb placement while another group of 56 students were explicitly instructed on question formation. Data were collected by administering a variety of tests that were devised to test adverb placement.

The participants were pretested once and posttested twice (immediately after instruction and five weeks later). The results showed significant differences between the two groups (White, 1991). In regard to adverb usage, the group that received instruction on adverb placement (adverb group) outperformed the other group with instruction on question formation. The adverb group was able to recognize that adverbs are not allowed to interrupt the verb and the object in English. Further analysis showed that native speakers of French incorrectly assumed (according to their first language) that certain adverb positions were allowed in English. Instruction provided the learners in the adverb group with the necessary guidance to recognize the correct positions of adverbs in English and to perform related tasks with higher levels of accuracy. Once again—and similar to what was concluded by Long (1983), Ellis (1984), and Lightbown and Spada (1991)—ESL learners in this study benefited from FFI and was able to produce the target linguistic features with higher levels of accuracy (White, 1991). Although Ellis's (1984) investigation showed differences between individuals but not groups, FFI was shown to be beneficial for ESL learners.

Similar to Lightbown and Spada (1991), Carrol, Swain, and Roberge (1992) were able to show a positive effect of corrective feedback (reactive focus on form) on the acquisition of

specific French forms among learners of French. The participants in this experimental study were 79 university students who were native speakers of Canadian English. The participants were grouped into intermediate and advanced groups according to their proficiency levels. Those proficiency groups were then divided into experimental and comparison groups. All groups were individually provided with instruction on two rules of French suffixation (-age *and* -ment). The experimental groups were provided with corrective feedback while the comparison groups were never corrected. Data were collected by asking the participants to individually provide a certain number of sentences containing the target structure. Correct answers were scored and coded for analysis. Quantitative analyses of data showed that the experimental groups that were provided with corrective feedback did significantly better than the comparison groups that were not provided with any feedback. Such reported results are similar to the previously discussed findings from other studies that also concluded that FFI had positive influence on second language learners' levels of accuracy.

Following their earlier investigation of the role of FFI in ESL classrooms (1990), Spada and Lightbown (1993) continued to research the effect of FFI by conducting a quasi-experimental study. The study examined how FFI and corrective feedback influenced the development of questions of ESL learners. The participants were 10 to 12-year-old Francophone ESL learners in intensive communicative language teaching programs in elementary schools in Montreal in Canada. All participants were at low levels of ESL proficiency. The students were grouped in two experimental classes and one comparison class. The experimental classes were provided with nearly nine hours of FFI and corrective feedback on question formation in English. They received instruction for two weeks. The comparison group received the regular teaching of the communicative language teaching intensive programs. Data were collected by

audiotaping and transcribing the oral production tasks of the learners in a pretest and two posttests. Accuracy and developmental progress analyses were performed on the data.

Results showed that the experimental groups did better than the control group in forming questions in English (Spada & Lightbown, 1993). The findings of the study indicated that FFI and corrective feedback provided in a communicative interaction context had positive effect on ESL development (Spada & Lightbown, 1993). Comparing the results of this study with the results obtained from the previously discussed studies, including Ellis's (1984) study, it can be realized that they all share the same conclusion (i.e., FFI has a positive contribution to second language development).

In the same manner with the studies discussed earlier, Lyster (1994) was able to demonstrate a significant positive influence of FFI on the sociolinguistic competence of second language learners. However, Lyster's study was different from the previously discussed studies by focusing on the analytic-experiential aspect of FFI. In other words, Lyster emphasized the effect of analytic teaching strategies such as focusing on accuracy of phonological, grammatical, functional, discourse, and sociolinguistic features of second language. Lyster also highlighted the experiential teaching strategies and the authenticity of themes and topics as content.

In this experimental study, the participants were 106 eighth grade French immersion students (Lyster, 1994). They were enrolled in five classes at three schools. Those schools were located in areas near Toronto in Canada. The treatment was implemented on three experimental classes. The participants in the experimental and in the two comparison classes were pretested and post tested twice by utilizing some sociolinguistic tests that were developed by Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (Lyster, 1994). All five classes were observed to determine any differences among the classes and to document teaching strategies applied by the teachers.

The collected data were analyzed by different measures such as the analysis of variance. The results showed that functional-analytic instruction had significant effects on improving the students' oral and written abilities in using (vous) in appropriate, accurate, and formal situations. Also, the students showed a significant improvement in their ability to recognize "contextually appropriate" French (Lyster, 1994, p. 279). These findings are similar to the previous results discussed above. Once more, FFI effect on second language learners is demonstrated to be positive in spite of the examined language feature.

Like Lyster (1994), Day and Shapson (2001) were able to demonstrate a positive effect of FFI on learners' development in second language classrooms by integrating formal, analytic-functional, and communicative instruction to second language classrooms. In this experimental study, the participants were 315 seventh grade early French immersion students from four school districts in Vancouver area in Canada. The experimental group consisted of six classes, and they were provided with the instructional treatment, which was designed to focus on the conditional in French, from five to seven weeks. The control group, on the other hand, consisted of six classes who received their regular classroom instruction. Data were collected by means of pretests and posttests. The results showed that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group in writing in the posttest and in the follow-up test.

Further analysis of the individual class data showed that the development in speaking was greater and more consistent for the experimental class than for the control group (Day & Shapson, 2001). The findings suggested that learners in the experimental classes benefitted from FFI in writing and in speaking as well. In regard to the group performance, the findings of this study are similar to Lyster's (1994) study and the other previously discussed research. Particularly, the individual oral growth of the participants in this study is related to Ellis's (1984)

findings that also indicated that learners individually demonstrated a remarkable oral ability in using the target structure in a semantically appropriate and grammatically accurate way. The results congruently demonstrate a positive and genuine influence of FFI on second language learners as groups and as individuals.

In a more recent study, Tomita and Spada (2013) investigated the role of FFI in regard to learner investment in second language communication in classroom setting. Learner investment is defined as “a desire to learn a second/foreign language taking into consideration learner’s socially constructed identities” (Tomita & Spada, 2013, p. 591). The participants were 24, first-year female high school students in Japan. All the students were from one class in the English program. The study lasted for a year in which the students received 50-minute lessons that contained 15 minutes of meaning-focused instruction and another 15 minutes of FFI that emphasized both form and meaning. All students completed tasks that are related to both types of instruction. Data were collected via students’ diaries, observations, audio- recorded and video-recorded interactions in the classroom, motivation questionnaires, emotional temperature questionnaires, interviews, and stimulated recalls. After turn, discursive, and statistical analyses of data, results showed that FFI helped the learners to invest in second language communication by creating social contexts for them which encouraged the learners to form their identities as second language learners. According to Tomita and Spada (2013), FFI provided the learners with useful language, identity, and interaction opportunities and resources. Although this study was conducted from a “cognitive-interactionist perspective” (Tomita & Spada, 2013, p. 591), positive FFI effects were reported because the learners were given the opportunity for noticing and raising their awareness of the grammatically accurate forms. These results are similar to the

previously discussed findings from other research that also found positive influence of FFI on second language learners.

Like the previous studies, Valeo (2013) conducted a study to examine the influence of FFI on second language learners. Yet, Valeo's study approached the effect of FFI from a different angle; it researched the effect of FFI on language learning and on content learning in a content-based language program for adults. In content-based language teaching, the second language is not presented through language itself but through subject matter (Valeo, 2013). The participants were 35 women and one man who all attended classes in an ESL program for adult newcomers in Canada. All the participants were trained to work as professional childcare providers. The participants were low-mid intermediate language learners. Upon their request, 16 students attended Saturday class while 20 students attended the evening class with two meetings every week. The total instruction time was five hours per week for each group. The participants in one group received the treatment instruction for 10 weeks with a total of 50 hours of instruction while the other group received non-treatment instruction for 13 weeks. Childcare content was provided to both groups. However, the Saturday group was provided with the FFI while the evening class received meaning focused instruction only. Data were collected through a survey, pretests, immediate and delay posttests, tests of the content, and instruction audio recordings.

Regarding language learning, results showed that both groups demonstrated development in language learning (Valeo, 2013). None of the groups showed obvious advantages over the other and that might be due to the types of measures used as Valeo (2013) concluded. In regard to content learning, the outcomes showed that the FFI group had significant and constant benefits and they outperformed the MFI group. Valeo related such surprising findings to different

possibilities. First, the provision of FFI in content-based language teaching did not only enhance form, but also had positive effect on content recall (Valeo, 2013). Second, the FFI might have assisted the learners by providing them with more opportunities to comprehend the content language. According to Valeo (2013), there has always been a “comprehension-based relationship between content and language in content-based language teaching” (p. 41). The findings of this study are different from the results of the studies discussed earlier because they highlight the positive influence of FFI on subject matter learning instead of the typical correlation between FFI and second language acquisition.

Closure

As can be seen from the literature discussed above, particularly in the case of FFI versus no FFI, it appears that FFI has a positive correlation with second language/ESL learners' development. The findings support the concept that FFI plays a significant and genuine role in developing grammatical and morphological accuracy for second language learners. That conclusion applies to second language learners as groups and as individuals. Learners in second language classrooms provided with FFI show evidence that they outperform second language learners with no FFI received. That has been demonstrated in oral and written language skills and with various language features. The results also support the positive influence of FFI in communicative language teaching and in content-based language teaching as well.

Moreover, the findings align with the noticing hypothesis and the FFI pedagogy, both which emphasize the significance of consciousness-raising thus noticing of language features and forms for second language learning. The results also suggest that an appropriate provision of FFI can be effective for language acquisition. In addition, the findings suggest that teaching approaches that do not focus on grammatical forms are considered inadequate. However, there is still a need for more investigation of the influence of FFI on language improvement among second language/ESL learners. The more we discover about FFI, the better we can provide learners with effective language instruction second language/ESL classrooms. Although the previous discussion of some FFI key studies is broad and includes various target language features and structures, the next section narrows the discussion to research findings about the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) structures and patterns in English. Particularly, how FFI influence the use of the copula (*be*) and the auxiliary (*be*) by EFL/ESL learners.

Empirical Background of Copula and Auxiliary (*be*) Acquisition

This study focused on the use of the English verb (*be*) as a copula and as an auxiliary. Copular verb (*be*) can be used in predicative constructions such as copular construction that includes a direct subject and a nominal, adjectival, or locative predicate (Becker, 2000). For example, (He is a student) is a nominal predicative construction. The auxiliary (*be*) on the other hand, can be used for forming the progressive as in (Mary is eating; Dik, 1983). This study investigated two structures: the predicative constructions and the progressive aspect. The following sections discuss some research findings in regard to the acquisition of the copula (*be*) and the auxiliary (*be*). The discussion includes the acquisition of the copula among monolingual English speaking children, bilingual children, and ESL/EFL learners. The discussion also proposes how the acquisition of the copula (*be*) and the auxiliary (*be*) can be problematic for English learners as a first language or second language.

Copula (*be*) Acquisition Research

Becker (2000) researched copula (*be*) acquisition in child English by focusing only on predicative instructions during the root or optional infinitive stage. Becker (2000) noted that children during that stage may not succeed to “mark finiteness overtly in main clauses” (p. 57). Gleason and Ratner (2013) made a clear definition of that stage as a phase in which children (ages from 2 to 3) may add tense inflections to main clauses and sometimes they do not do so. Instead, they produce infinitive verb forms. Becker examined data from four children (ages from 2 to 3) who were acquiring standard American English as their first language. Data were acquired from the Child Language Data Exchange System (CHILDES) database. Results showed that three of the children overtly produced a large number of (*be*) utterances in nominal predicates while (*be*) was mostly omitted in locative predicates. The results for the fourth

participant (who was older) were the same, but he demonstrated depressed rates of overt (*be*) for both nominal and locative predicates. The exposure to African American was assumed to be the reason for that difference since it allows the omission of copula (*be*) in main clauses.

In regard to adjectival predicates, findings showed that the participants largely produced overt copula (*be*). Data analysis showed that children acquiring English tended to produce an overt copula (*be*) with nominal and adjectival predicates, but null copula (*be*) with locative predicates. Particularly, copula (*be*) was more overtly produced with individual-level predicates than with stage-level predicates. According to Carlson (1980), individual-level predicates are more permanent and personal, for example, being a man, whereas stage-level predicates are more temporary or accidental, for instance, being in the school. Becker (2000) claimed that copula (*be*) is overt in individual-level predicates because of the temporal anchoring of the clause which she defines as “the binding of an appropriate head by the tense operator” (p. 62). Becker assumed that temporal anchoring is required in all main clauses and that can be done by the insertion of the copula (*be*). Thus, children may omit the copula (*be*) in stage-level predicates because it is not necessary to meet the required temporal anchoring because of the presence of the aspect phrase. On the other hand, individual-level predicates are totally lexical and that requires temporal anchoring by inserting the copula (*be*). In other words, Becker found a correlation between copula (*be*) omission and semantic features of predicates. The findings of Becker’s study have shed some light on why monolingual acquirers of English tend to omit the copula (*be*) in particular structures which will serve as a threshold to the next discussion.

In a more recent study, Fuertes and Liceras (2010) took Becker’s (2000) analysis of the copula (*be*) in English as a departure point, but they focused on the distribution of copula (*be*) in the data from two English/Spanish bilingual children. Fuertes and Liceras analyzed data from

the four English monolingual children from CHILDES analyzed by Becker and data from two English/Spanish bilingual children that the researchers themselves had contributed to CHILDES. As in Becker's study, the results showed that the distribution of the omission of the copula (*be*) in the bilingual data was decided by the nature of the predicate. In the English bilingual data, however, the omission patterns were different from those in Becker's study. In Fuertes and Licerás's data the total number of omission was very low, and the data showed no significant differences between the individual-level predicates and the stage-level predicates. According to the researchers, the very low omission of the English copula (*be*) was due to the cross-linguistic influence of the two Spanish copulas (*ser* and *estar*).

Furthermore, Fuertes and Licerás (2010) proposed that the bilingual as well as monolingual children were able to differentiate between individual-level and stage-level predicates which was proved by their use of covert copula (*be*) for stage-level predicates and overt copula (*be*) for the individual-level predicates. Copulative constructions were found in English and in Spanish, but English was found lexically ambiguous because the overt and the covert copulas were encoded in the same structure. However, that was not the case in Spanish which was considered unambiguous in that respect. That explains the Spanish to English influence (unambiguous to ambiguous) as the researchers suggested.

The findings of the two previous studies explain how the English copula structures are problematic for young native acquirers of English. Also, they reveal the influence of first language on the acquisition and use of the copula (*be*) in another language (Spanish to English). With these outcomes in mind, the next section discusses research related to the influence of different first languages on acquiring the copula (*be*) in English and the related instructional implications.

In another bilingual study, Jia and Fuse (2007) conducted a study for five years to investigate how six English grammatical morphemes were acquired. The copula (*be*) was among those examined morphemes. The goal of the study was to compare and chart the acquisition trajectories and levels of proficiency and to identify the age-related differences when acquiring those morphemes. The participants were ten children and adolescents who were native speakers of Mandarin. They arrived in the United States between the ages of 5 and 16 years. The morphological proficiency was measured in “obligatory contexts during spontaneous speech” (Jia & Fuse, 2007, p. 1280).

There were 16 testing sessions. Each session lasted four hours and consisted of five linguistic tasks. Participants’ performances were transcribed and coded (Jia & Fuse, 2007). The obligatory context of copula (*be*) was the subject and its predicate (a noun or adjective phrase). The expected correct use of the copula (*be*) was using (*be*) in the accurate tense with the appropriate subject-verb agreement. The results showed that the copula (*be*) structure was mastered by five participants only. Statistical analysis of the data showed that the participants produced the copula (*be*) structure with a medium level of accuracy. The younger participants outperformed the older participants (younger: 78.05%, older: 64.67%). In fact, the errors committed by the participants were omission errors (dropping the required copula) and commission errors (substituting the required copula with another).

The findings demonstrated that omission errors were the most common type of errors committed by the participants. The rate of omission errors for the copula (*be*) was almost 30 percent. Thus, Jia and Fuse (2007) concluded that after five years of living in an English-speaking country, the participants still committed errors (commission and omission) in producing the copula (*be*) structure which indicates the difficulty (medium level of difficulty when

compared to the other structures) of the English copula (*be*) for second language learners. The findings of Jia and Fuse's study are similar to the previously discussed results from other studies that also proposed the difficulty of the copulative constructions in the English language. While the Spanish/English bilingual learners seemed to benefit from the Spanish copulas (*ser* and *estar*) to learn the English copula (*be*), Mandarin did not help in mastering the English copula constructions.

In the same vein but with a different native language, Unlu and Hatipoglu (2012) researched how native speakers of Russian acquired the English copula (*be*) in the present simple tense. The study aimed at determining if English foreign language learners in Russia, with different levels of English proficiency, would or would not face any difficulties producing and using the English present simple tense copula (*be*). The participants were 76 students at Russian state schools in Moscow. They were divided into three groups. The first group included 30 students (ages 8–10) who received English instruction twice a week for a year. The second group also consisted of 30 students (ages 11–12) provided with English instruction three times a week for four years. The third group had 16 students who received five weekly sessions of English instruction for five years. The researchers utilized a questionnaire and two diagnostic tests to collect data. Quantitative and qualitative analyses of the data revealed that the participants tended to omit or misuse the copula (*be*) forms. Despite the fact that such errors disappeared with more exposure to English, some errors were fossilized and continued to appear in the participants' productions for longer periods of time (up to eight years of English instruction).

Unlu and Hatipoglu (2012) concluded that native speakers of Russian with different levels of proficiency in English found it difficult to use the English copula (*be*) in present simple

tense. Such difficulties were due to the incomplete understanding of the copula (*be*) rules and their applications. Moreover, there was a negative transfer of first language at the morphological level because when the English copula (*be*) was followed by an adjective, a participle, or a prepositional phrase, it was translated with a Russian verbal predicate and that might have caused the omission and misuse of the copula (*be*). The findings of this study are consistent with previously discussed results from other studies that also agreed on the difficulties learners faced when they used the English copula (*be*).

Also investigating the acquisition of copula among EFL learners, Alshayban (2012) examined the phenomenon of copula (*be*) omission by Saudi EFL learners. He also investigated how the negative transfer from Arabic to English caused the omission of the English copula (*be*) by Arab EFL learners. The participants in this study were 100 male students at the English department at Qassim University in Saudi Arabia. Fifty of the participants were in the intermediate level (Level 3) while the other 50 were in the advanced level (Level 7). Data were collected via essay writing.

The results indicated that the omission of the copula (*be*) in English was due to the negative transfer from Arabic since Arabic does not have the copula (*be*) in the present simple tense (Alshayban, 2012). The results showed that the participants omitted the English copula (*be*) in present simple tense more frequently than in other situations (about 69%). The findings also revealed that students with intermediate levels of proficiency made more errors than the advanced students in regard to using the copula (*be*) in present simple tense. Further analysis showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the advanced and intermediate participants in regard to the committed errors in using the copula (*be*) in the past tense, the future tense, and after (*there*). The findings of this study correlate with the findings of

the other studies discussed earlier in this sections that also demonstrated the tendency of first language and second language learners to omit or misuse the English copula (*be*). Furthermore, the results showed how both positive and negative transfer/interference from first languages affected learning and using the copula (*be*) in English.

Several other studies (Abushihab et al., 2011; Al-Buainain, 2007; Alduais, 2012; Al-Shormani, 2012; Diab, 1997) investigated and analyzed grammatical errors made by Arab EFL learners. These investigations showed similar results to Alshayban's study regarding the omission and misuse of the English copula (*be*) by Arab EFL learners. Such incompetence could be related to the negative transfer/interference of Arabic and to the learners' incomplete understanding of the copulative constructions in English.

Auxiliary (*be*) Acquisition Research

Regarding the auxiliary (*be*) acquisition, Cancino, Rosansky, and Schumann (1975) conducted an early study to investigate the acquisition of the English auxiliaries by native Spanish speakers. The participants were five native speakers of Spanish (ages 5–33 years) from different socioeconomic backgrounds, and different levels and nature of exposure to English. At the beginning of study, the participants had already been in the United States for less than three months. All of them did not receive any formal ESL instruction of any kind. They were either exposed to English through peers in public schools or via other nonnative speakers of English at work.

The researchers visited the participants twice a month. Each visit lasted an hour over a period of 10 months. Data were collected by spontaneous speech recording, experimental elicitations, and preplanned sociolinguistic interaction. The results showed that the auxiliary (*be*), specifically (*is*) in declarative utterances, was acquired first by all the participants. In fact,

the auxiliary (*is*) appeared in 80% of the declaratives. Once again, the auxiliary (*is*) was the earliest to appear in 80% of the interrogatives. In general, the auxiliary (*is*) appeared first in the total number of auxiliaries made in declarative, negative, and interrogative utterances. Cancino, Rosansky, and Schumann (1975) associated the early appearance of the English auxiliary (*is*) with the existence of a similar form in Spanish (*ser*). Such similarity, as Fuertes and Licerias (2010) found when they examined the acquisition of the copula (*be*), helped the learners acquire the English form of the auxiliary (*be*). These findings support the idea that a first language may have a positive transfer/interference on acquiring not only the English copula (*be*), but also the English auxiliary (*be*). According to Cancino et al. (1975), acquisition of the English auxiliary (*be*) took place without providing any formal ESL instruction.

However, not all first languages have positive interference/transfer on learning specific aspects of second languages. Muftah and Eng (2011) researched the acquisition of the English auxiliary (*be*) in non-past contexts by adult Arab EFL learners. The participants were 77 Arab EFL learners who were undergraduate students from science and social science disciplines at two universities in Yemen. The age average of the participant was around early 20s and they were at different proficiency levels of English (lower-intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advanced). By the time they got to college, all participants had already had at least seven to eight years of EFL instruction. Yet, most of the participants had scarce or even no exposure to English outside the classroom.

Data were collected by utilizing an oral production task (ORPT) or a picture-based task. The participants were asked to look at pictures and narrate the story as shown by the pictures. The participants were prompted to use verbs and phrases given under each picture. Quantitative analyses of the ORPT data showed that the participants frequently omitted and misused the

English auxiliary (*be*): *am*, *is*, and *are*. The researchers concluded that adult Arab EFL learners, even at advanced English proficiency levels, tend to omit or misuse the English auxiliary (*be*) constructions because of “the complexity in mapping between surface forms and underlying abstract features” (Muftah & Eng, 2011, pp. 101–102).

Also, the EFL Arab learners’ failure to produce the English auxiliary (*be*) is expected to be due to the influence of Arabic as a first language. The findings of this study are similar to the results of most of the previous studies conducted on the acquisition and production of the English copula (*be*). Those studies have agreed upon the difficulty of both copula and auxiliary (*be*) constructions in English and the negative transfer/ interference of the native language.

Just like Muftah and Eng (2011), Jishvithaa et al. (2013) also investigated the acquisition of the English auxiliary (*be*). However, this investigation considered data from Malaysian ESL learners. Data from the Malaysian Corpus of Students’ Argumentative Writings were analyzed to investigate how the English auxiliary (*be*) present tense verbs were used in the compositions of Grades 4 and 5 students from four different secondary schools in Malaysia. The results showed that Grades 4 and 5 ESL students committed 392 errors using the English auxiliary (*be*) which represented more than 23% of the total attempts. Errors types included tense shift, agreement, and misuse of tense verb. The findings also indicated that in spite of receiving ESL instruction for nine to 10 years, the Grade 4 and Grade 5 ESL learners still had difficulties understanding and using the English auxiliary (*be*) in the present tense. As the researchers suggested, the erroneous attempts by the students were due to the complexity of the English auxiliary (*be*) which requires more instructional interventions. The findings of this study relate to the results of previously discussed research in regard to the learners’ interlanguage and the complexity of both auxiliary and copulative (*be*) in the English language.

Conclusion

Taken as a whole, the studies on the English copula (*be*) and the auxiliary (*be*) have shown that both copula and auxiliary (*be*) structures are linguistically challenging for language learners. Learners of English as a first language, second language, or foreign language tend to omit or misuse these linguistic constructions. Difficulties in acquiring such constructions are believed to be due to the complexity of these constructions, the development of the learners' interlanguage, or the interference/transfer of native languages. Several studies have suggested some interventions to overcome challenges related to learning the copula and auxiliary (*be*) in English.

However, there is a limitation to the findings of these studies because they did not investigate the influence of specific instructional approaches on learning the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) in ESL classrooms. There is a need for empirical evidence of the potential relationship between the ESL learners' knowledge of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) and the influence of FFI in ESL classrooms. Thus, the intent of the current study was to find out evidence toward a possible relationship between FFI and ESL learners' knowledge of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) in the present tense. Moreover, previous studies were mainly conducted among EFL or ESL learners who shared certain first languages. The current study focused only on ESL learners with various first language backgrounds. This variation was expected to provide more evidence of the potential effect of FFI on ESL learners' knowledge of the copula and auxiliary (*be*). In addition, none of the previous studies utilized grammaticality judgment tests to detect any improvement or change in the learners' knowledge of the target structures. The studies on the copula and auxiliary (*be*) relied mainly on analyzing oral or written productions of the learners, or both, and the errors committed in those productions. The current

study is anticipated to be different in regard to using grammaticality judgment tests to shed some light on the metalinguistic competence of the participants before and after providing FFI.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Design of the Study

This study was a quantitative quasi-experimental one. It utilized a control group and an experimental group. It followed a pretest-treatment-posttest, control-group design. This design involved at least two groups, wherein only one group received the new treatment, but both groups were pretested and posttested as specified by Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2009). The procedure section below describes how each group was treated during the study.

Rationale for Research Design

A quantitative method was constructed to examine aspects of the theoretical framework that I had already established in Chapter 1. The research questions and the null hypothesis below were best answered and evaluated by a quantitative approach that could utilize the results toward answers, inferences, confirmation, or rejection (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

Since this study focused on ESL learners in their formal ESL classrooms, a quasi-experimental without random assignment of participants (as participants had been already enrolled in two ESL classes) was suitable (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The control-group design was used because the control group did not receive any treatment (i.e. FFI). Moreover, a pre/posttest design was adopted in this study as it is a well-known practice in second-language

research to ensure compatibility and to measure the effect of treatment in quasi-experimental studies (Nunan, 1992).

Research Questions

As stated previously, the primary goal of this study was to investigate the ESL learners' knowledge of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) in the present tense and the influence of FFI on that knowledge. Thus, the research questions were as follows:

1. Do ESL learners make omission, misuse, or misjudgment errors of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) while acquiring English as a second language?
2. Do ESL learners show significant improvement in their knowledge of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) after receiving FFI?

Null Hypotheses

The null hypotheses for Research Question 1 and Research Question 2 were as follows:

H₀1. ESL learners do not make omission, misuse, or misjudgment errors of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) while acquiring English as a second language.

H₀2. Form Focused Instruction (FFI) has no significant influence on the Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT) scores of ESL learners.

Independent and Dependent Variables

The independent variable in this study was the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) FFI instruction in the present tense: *am-is- are*. (See the Participants section for more details.) The first dependent variable was the omission, misuse, and misjudgment errors committed by the participants. The second dependent variable was the participants' scores on the Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT).

Participants

As specified by Dick et al. (2009), the description and characteristics of the participants include their “entry behaviors, prior knowledge of the topic, prior achievements, ability levels, and group characteristics” (pp. 92–94). The following part sheds light on these aspects as they are interwoven together throughout the description of the participants.

This study started with 25 participants; yet, the number was reduced to 14 participants due to participant loss. The scores of four participants ($n = 4$) were excluded from the pre/posttest scoring because those participants did not show up for the posttest. The scores of two participants ($n = 2$) were also discarded because the participants missed answering the second page of the pretest. The scores of five participants ($n = 5$) were not taken into account because they were high enough (31 or 32 out of 32) to indicate the participants’ mastery of the structures under investigation at the time of the pretest. Thus, the final number of participants was 14. Ten were placed in the experimental group ($n = 10$) and four were placed in the control group ($n = 4$).

All participants were enrolled in ESL classes in a Midwestern university. They were identified as ESL learners enrolled in ESL formal classes. ESL students in formal ESL classes were chosen to participate in this study because they were expected to find some difficulties in using the copula and auxiliary (*be*). Also, they were expected to have the required entry behaviors (i.e., the ability to understand oral and written instructions and to efficiently read and write in English). According to the data provided by the Language Background Questionnaire LBQ (Table 2), the participants were between 19–29 years old. Regarding the participants’ native languages, there were 12 participants ($n = 12$, 86%) who were native speakers of Arabic.

One participant ($n = 1$, 7%) was a native speaker of Chinese, while the other participant ($n = 1$, 7%) was a native speaker of Hindi.

Table 2

Age, Native Language, Instruction Duration and Location, IELTS/TOEFL Scores, and Proficiency Levels as Reported by Participants in the LBQ

| Participant | Age | Native Language | Home Country EFL | USA ESL | IELTS | TOEFL | Proficiency Level |
|-------------|-----|-----------------|------------------|---------|-------|-------|-------------------|
| N03 | 23 | Arabic | 7 Yrs | 2 Yrs | --- | --- | high intermediate |
| N04 | 26 | Arabic | 6 Yrs | 2 Yrs | 5.5 | --- | high intermediate |
| N07 | 29 | Arabic | 6 Yrs | 4 Yrs | --- | --- | advanced |
| N08 | 22 | Arabic | 7 Yrs | 1.5 Yrs | --- | 79 | middle advanced |
| N09 | 27 | Arabic | 6 Yrs | 3 Yrs | 4.5 | 60 | intermediate |
| N10 | 24 | Arabic | 6 Yrs | 5 Yrs | 5.0 | --- | intermediate |
| N11 | --- | Arabic | 6 Yrs | 1 Yrs | --- | --- | high intermediate |
| N12 | 23 | Arabic | 3 Yrs | 1.2 Yrs | --- | --- | beginner |
| N16 | 19 | Chinese | 13 Yrs | 1 Yr | --- | 67 | low advanced |
| N17 | 19 | Hindi | 7 Yrs | 4 mon | 6.5 | --- | middle advanced |
| B04 | 25 | Arabic | 1 Yr | 2 Yrs | --- | --- | advanced |
| B05 | 24 | Arabic | 7 Yrs | 3 Yrs | 5.5 | 65 | high intermediate |
| B07 | 22 | Arabic | No | 1.5 Yrs | 5.5 | 55 | intermediate |
| B09 | 28 | Arabic | 1 Yr | 4 Yrs | 5.0 | --- | intermediate |

In regard to studying English in their home country or prior knowledge of the topic (Dick et al., 2009), Table 2 shows that only one participant ($n = 1$, 7%) did not study English at all in their home country. Two participants ($n = 2$, 14%) mentioned that they studied English in their home country for one year. One participant ($n = 1$, 7%) studied English for three years. A larger number of five participants ($n = 5$, 36%) confirmed that they studied English for six years. Those who studied English for seven years in their native countries were four participants ($n = 4$,

29%). Again, only one participant ($n = 1, 7\%$) confirmed studying English for 13 years in their home country.

Regarding the years of ESL instruction in the U.S. (See Table 2), the 14 participants had a range of four months to five years of ESL instruction. One participant ($n = 1, 7\%$) had four months of instruction. Two participants ($n = 2, 14\%$) had one year of instruction. A participant ($n = 1, 7\%$) had a year and two months of instruction while two participants ($n = 2, 14\%$) had instruction for a year and five months. A larger number of three participants ($n = 3, 21\%$) were provided with instruction for two years while in the United States. Two participants ($n = 2, 14\%$) stated having instruction for three years. Two participants ($n = 2, 14\%$) had instruction for four years and only one participant ($n = 1, 7\%$) reported being instructed for five years.

The participants' IELTS or TOEFL scores, or both (Table 2), were an indication of the participants' prior achievements and proficiency levels. The scores were reported by nine participants only ($n = 9$). For those nine participants, I was able to infer their proficiency levels accordingly. The IELTS scores were between 4.5 and 6.5, while the TOEFL scores were from 55 to 79. So, the inferred proficiency levels were between intermediate and middle-advanced. The rest of the participants ($n = 5$), provided their proficiency levels according to their ESL class assessment which were between beginner and advanced levels.

Regarding grammar instruction (Table 3), two participants ($n = 2, 14\%$) stated that they were not provided with any instruction neither in their home country nor in the United States. However, one participant ($n = 1, 7\%$) was provided with grammar instruction in both their home country and the U.S. Ten participants ($n = 10, 71\%$) had instruction in the United States. Yet, one participant ($n = 1, 7\%$) was provided with instruction, but did not mention where. Six out of the 12 participants ($n = 6, 43\%$) who were provided with grammar instruction stated that their

language instructors always provided them with grammar instruction or explanations. However, the other six participants ($n = 6$, 43%) declared that their teachers sometimes provided them with grammar instruction or explanations.

In regard to the helpfulness of grammar instruction, 13 participants ($n = 13$, 93%) found grammar instruction helpful while one participant ($n = 1$, 7%) did not respond to that question (Table 3). Seven participants ($n = 7$, 50%) believed that some English-language structures were more difficult than others were. Only three of those seven participants were able to identify the past tense, perfect tense, and tenses in general as the most difficult forms of the English language. The other seven participants ($n = 7$, 50%) did not specify any structures or forms of English that were more difficult for them.

Table 3

Participants Experience and Opinion of Grammar Instruction

| Participant | Grammar Instruction | Grammar Provided by Instructor | Grammar Instruction is Helpful | Some Structures More Difficult |
|-------------|---------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| N03 | home/USA | always | Yes | Yes/not specified |
| N04 | USA | always | Yes | Yes/present perfect |
| N07 | USA | sometimes | Yes | No |
| N08 | USA | sometimes | Yes | No |
| N09 | none | none | Yes | No |
| N10 | USA | sometimes | Yes | Yes/not specified |
| N11 | USA | sometimes | Yes | Yes/not specified |
| N12 | USA | always | Yes | No |
| N16 | none | none | Yes | No |
| N17 | Yes | sometimes | Yes | Yes/tenses |
| B04 | USA | always | Yes | Yes/past tense |
| B05 | USA | sometimes | Yes | No |
| B07 | USA | always | --- | Yes/not specified |
| B09 | USA | always | Yes | No |

Target Structures

The target structure in this study was the use of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) in the following sentence patterns adapted from Kolln and Funk (2002):

- a. noun/pronoun (subject) + be + noun
- b. noun/pronoun (subject) + be + adjective
- c. noun/pronoun (subject) + be + adverb/time-place
- d. noun/pronoun (subject) + be + (verb + ing) the present progressive tense

Instructional Materials

The instructional or treatment materials for this study consisted of a PowerPoint presentation and a workbook (Appendices A and B) designed and produced by me who could be considered a subject-matter expert (SME). An SME is supposed to be knowledgeable about a particular content area (Dick et al., 2009). Therefore, I utilized my 17 years of experience in teaching second language and designing second language courses and took the responsibility of designing the instruction, with the help and revision of another SME from the Department of Languages, Literatures, and Linguistics at Indiana State University.

Validity of the Instructional Materials

In order to ensure the validity of the instructional materials and the instructional design in general, I, with the help of the content SME, conducted a formative evaluation. According to Dick et al. (2009), a formative evaluation of instructional materials is the process that is used to provide data to revise the instruction in order to make it more efficient and more effective. The main goal of this evaluation is to revise the materials during the developing process. In other words, the new instructional materials are tested with a sample of the target learners during the development phase, and then the results are used to improve the materials (Kemp, Morrison, & Ross, 1994).

Internal formative reviews, evaluation, and inspection of the instruction and its materials, from the learners' perspectives were also conducted. Then, a formative evaluation and external reviews were conducted with real-target learners. There were one-to-one formative evaluation and small-group formative evaluation. These evaluations consisted of the following sections: (a). plan and procedure for formative evaluation, (b). attributes of target audience vs. try-out learners, (c). information about individual try-out learners, (d). questionnaire and response from each try-out learner, (e). distribution of scores on pre-and post-assessment, (f). analysis of the collected data, (g). revision of the instruction, and (h). summary report.

In the internal formative evaluation, I, along with an SME in content and instruction, reviewed the instructional materials and the design, internally. The designer conducted a thorough examination to ensure that there were no obvious errors, such as typos. He also checked the outcomes, assessments, and activities and how they were aligned with the needs and the characteristics of the participants. The designer was also involved in deep discussions and put a lot of work into identifying errors or performance malfunctions of the instruction or its materials. Moreover, the designer employed extra effort to align and integrate the outcomes, assessments, and the activities. During the internal evaluation process, objectives, strategies, illustrations, sequences, and vocabulary words were modified, edited, or eliminated from instruction.

In the external formative evaluation, a one-to-one formative evaluation was conducted with one of the target learners (not participating in the study). Then, a small-group formative evaluation was administered with two participants (not participating in the study) who were representatives of the target learners.

Generally speaking, the instruction used in this study was expected to be effective, valid, and reliable because it would lead to the achievement of the instructional goal, the subordinate objectives, and the terminal objectives. It was expected to come to a conclusion that the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) instruction was needed for ESL learners. The learners' proficiency in using and producing (*am-is-are*) was improved among the tryout learners.

Instructional Design

As it has been stated earlier, the instruction provided in this study was designed by me. The FFI instruction for this study was primarily developed from the planned FFI approach (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis et al., 2001; Grim, 2008; Qin, 2008). I applied the main steps of Dick, Carey, and Carey systems approach model (Dick et al., 2009):

1. Front-End Analysis
2. Learning-Task Analysis
3. Learner/Context Analysis
4. Objectives and Assessments
5. Instructional Strategy Development
6. Instructional Materials Production

Instruments

The instruments consisted of the following:

- A. A language background questionnaire (Appendix D) consisted of 10 items that provided information about the participants' age, length of English instruction in home country and in the United States, TOEFL/IELTS scores, native language(s), proficiency level, grammar instruction preferences, and previous experiences with grammar instruction. More details are provided in the procedure and results sections.

B. A pretest (Appendices E, F), which was a Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT), consisted of 32 grammaticality judgment sentences was administered. It was timed (10 minutes) and the grammatical and ungrammatical sentences were balanced. The items covered all the targeted structures equally with the exact number of sentences (Appendix G for pretest/posttest blueprint). There were two versions of the pretest to counterbalance the test and to guarantee that participants did not take the same test twice.

The pretest was administered to the participants to determine their previous mastery of all or some of the structures that were targeted by this study. It was also utilized to confirm or disconfirm homogeneity of the two groups at the time of the pretest. It was designed by me and it was proved to be reliable and valid by a research committee member who is a linguist and a second language researcher. The pretest/posttest was designed for this study because there were no previous known tests that focused on assessing ESL learners' knowledge of the English copula and the auxiliary (*be*) in the present tense (*am, is, are*). Designing tests by researchers for the purpose of a study is a common practice in the field of ESL (Nunan, 1992). A blueprint for the pretest/posttest was also provided for the test items (Appendix G). The investigation of a specific grammatical structure provides various ways of data collection measures. It depends on the research questions (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Since this study investigated the omission and misuse of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) and the influence of FFI on acquiring and producing such structures, I chose GJTs to collect data for this project. Such a choice was justified in the following lines. According to Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), grammaticality

judgments “refer to a speaker’s intuition concerning the nature of a particular utterance” (p. 34). The participants were requested to determine if given utterances are grammatically correct or not. Mackey and Gass (2005) referred to grammaticality judgments as acceptability judgments. Acceptability judgments tasks also require providing the learners with grammatical and ungrammatical sentences to consider them acceptable first language or second language sentences or not (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Although both terms mean the same thing, this study used the grammaticality judgments term henceforth to avoid any confusion. GJTs have been known as a common and widespread instrument for assessing the linguistic competence of second language learners (Tremblay, 2005). In an earlier study, Schachter, Tyson, and Diffley (1976) investigated the ability of 100 ESL learners to distinguish between “well-formed” and “malformed” (p. 67) sentences involving the formation of English relative clauses. GJTs were utilized and were suggested to be valid for data collection. Many other studies followed the Schachter et al. study and all administered GJTs to collect data from second language learners. Studies conducted by Bley-Vroman, Felix, and Ioup (1988), Gass (1994), and White (1985) suggested that valid data for second language research can be provided by GJTs. In general, GJTs have been suggested to be useful tools to investigate the metalinguistic competence of second language learners (Gass, 1994). Thus, I have decided to use GJTs in this study because of their usefulness, validity, and practicality.

- C. A posttest (Appendices E, F), which was similar to the pretest, was utilized to examine the influence of instruction (treatment) on the experimental group and to detect changes (if any) in the control group’s acquisition of the target structures. Two

different, but equal versions were utilized to avoid repetition and to counterbalance the test.

Reliability and Validity

As justified earlier, GJTs have been known as a common and widespread instrument for assessing the linguistic competence of second language learners (Tremblay, 2005). The reliability of the GJT in this study was examined by comparing the scores of the GJT1 (pretest) with the scores of the GJT2 (posttest). Pearson correlation coefficient was computed between the mean scores of the pretest (GJT1) and the posttest (GJT2) by 14 participants. The correlation between the pretest and posttest scores was $r(14) = .899, p < 0.05$. This result displays a high overall test-retest reliability of the GJT (Garret, 1965). Moreover, the Kuder-Richardson 21 (KR-21) was computed as a reliability measure for dichotomously scored items (Mehrens & Lehmann, 1991). Since the items of the GJT in this study were scored as (correct or incorrect), the KR-21 was utilized. The reliability coefficient was $r(32) = .515$, which is believed to be a reasonable level of reliability and internal consistency of the GJT (Mehrens & Lehmann, 1991).

In regard to validity of the GJT, it is important to indicate that all types of validity are interrelated, and they are not considered as independent aspects of validity (Gay et al., 2009). However, this study focused on a specific content area of English forms (i.e., particular structures of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) in the present tense). For this reason, the content validity of the GJT was examined.

According to Gay et al. (2009), content validity is “the degree to which a test measures an intended content area” (p. 155). It is “determined by expert judgment” because “there is no formula or statistic by which it can be computed, and there is no way to express it quantitatively” (Gay et al., 2009, p. 155). As explained above, this study targeted four structures of English

copula and auxiliary (*be*), adapted from Kolln and Funk (2002), and they were evenly covered and tested by the 32-item-GJT. The blueprint of the GJT, or the pretest/posttest (Appendix G), demonstrates how item validity and sampling validity (Gay et al., 2009) were supported. Objectives, forms, number of items, criterion levels, and proportions were all considered to establish validity of the GJT. Moreover, the “expert judgment” mentioned by Gay et al. (p. 155) was provided by me and one of the research committee members, who both had enough experience and expertise to be considered as SMEs (Dick et al., 2009).

Implementation Procedure and Data Collection

Data collection and the implementation procedure followed a certain timeline. Table 4 summarizes the timeline of this study.

Table 4

Timeline for Implementation Procedure and Data Collection

| Group | Day 1 | Day 2 |
|--------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Experimental | 1. presentation/informed consent | 1. Treatment |
| | 2. LBQ | 2. Posttest |
| | 3. pretest | |
| Control | 1. presentation/informed consent | 1. Regular class activities |
| | 2. LBQ | 2. Posttest |
| | 3. pretest | |

Note. LBQ = language background questionnaire

The procedure is detailed as follows:

- I. On Day 1, I presented the project to the potential participants as a part of the recruiting procedure.
- II. After I explained the informed consent process, the potential participants expressed their desire, to participate or not, by checking the correct box. Then, they signed the informed consent to verify their decision. This stage took place on Day 1 as well.

- III. The participants completed the language background questionnaire (Appendix D) on day one and prior to the instruction session on Day 2. The questionnaire provided essential background information about the participants.
- IV. For both groups, the pretest was administered on Day 1 to reveal any existing mastery of the target structures and to confirm or disconfirm homogeneity of the two groups at the time of the pretest. The pretest was timed, and the participants were allowed 10 minutes to complete it.
- V. For the experimental group, the treatment/FFI of copula and auxiliary (*be*) was provided on Day 2. The treatment materials were 45 PowerPoint presentation slides and a workbook. The slides contained the objectives, rules, and examples of the targeted structure. It is important to indicate that the instruction for the experimental group followed certain instructional strategies. According to Dick et al. (2009), an instructional strategy is a comprehensive plan to reach an instructional goal. It consists of the sequence of intermediate objectives and the learning activities leading to the ultimate instructional goal. Moreover, it includes the specification of student groupings, media, and the delivery system. Usually, the instructional activities include preinstructional activities, content presentation, learner participation, assessment, and follow-through activities. For the purpose of this study, an overall plan of activities was presented to demonstrate how to achieve the instructional goal. There are many different ways to sequence and present content to participants. In order to create the strategy for this instruction, the following questions were answered: How are the materials grouped and sequenced? What activities and

exercises are used to present the materials? How do assessments measure a learner's success?

The plan is a formal document used to guide and control the delivery of instruction by answering the following questions:

- a. Why? Why is the problem addressed by the instruction?
- b. What? What is the work that will be performed on the instruction? What are the major products?
- c. Who? Who are involved and what are their responsibilities within the instruction?
- d. How? How are they organized?
- e. When? What is the timeline and when will particularly meaningful points be completed?

The format and the duration of the instruction were determined as a single setting instructional design. Table 5 presents the modules and chunks organization plan.

Table 5

Modules and Chunks Organization Plan

| | Module Chunk | Type of Learning |
|---|---|------------------|
| 1 | Starting a sentence with a noun/subject pronoun | Procedural Rule |
| 2 | Adding the present form of verb be (am-is-are) | Procedural Rule |
| 3 | Adding a noun/adjective/ adverb | Procedural Rule |
| 4 | Joining nouns/adjectives/adverbs | Procedural Rule |
| 5 | Aligning the produced sentence with given sentence patterns | Procedural Rule |
| 6 | Producing sentences with (am/is/are) | Procedural Rule |
| 7 | Producing sentences with (am/is/are) + verb + (ing) the present progressive tense | Procedural Rule |

For the instructional lesson, the organization strategy is as follows:

- Objectives Sequence and Cluster

This instruction was a one instructional lesson with objectives clustered by chunks and sequenced within and across these chunks (Table 6).

Table 6

Objectives Sequence and Clusters

| | Objectives Sequence | Objectives Cluster |
|---|---|-------------------------------|
| 1 | Starting a sentence with a noun/subject pronoun | 1.1.0, 1.1.1, 1.2.0, 1.2.1, 1 |
| 2 | Adding the present form of verb be (am-is-are) | 2.1.0, 2.1.1, 2 |
| 3 | Adding a noun/adjective/ adverb | 3.1.0, 3.1.1, 3 |
| 4 | Joining nouns/adjectives/adverbs | 4 |
| 5 | Aligning the produced sentence with given sentence patterns | 5 |
| 6 | Producing sentences with (am/is/are) | 6.1.0, 6.2.0, 6 |
| 7 | Producing sentences with (am/is/are) + verb + (ing) the present progressive tense | 7.1.0, 7 |

The previous table demonstrates the covered objectives as follows:

- Cluster 1 includes the following objectives:

1. When requested orally or in writing, the participants will be able to start a sentence with a noun or a subject pronoun with the right choice every time.

- 1.1.1 When asked orally or in writing to select a noun, the participant will choose a noun correctly according to the definition of nouns in English.

- 1.1.0 Given the term *noun*, the participant will be able to define the term as a word that refers to people, places, or things.

- 1.2.1 Upon written request, the learner will be able to select a correct subject pronoun all of the time.

1.2.0 Given the term *subject pronoun*, the learner will be able to specify correctly the pronouns: *He, She, It, I, You, We, and They*.

- Cluster 2 includes the following objectives:
 2. Given the tense (present), the participant will be able to add the present form of the verb *be* (am, is, are) with accurate subject-verb agreement.
 - 2.1.1 When asked orally or in writing, the participant will be able to select the present forms of *the English copula and auxiliary (be)* the English copula and auxiliary (be) with 100 % accuracy.
 - 2.1.0 Given the term *present be verb*, the participant will be able to name: *am, is, and are*.
- Cluster 3 include the following objectives:
 3. Upon oral or written request, the participant will be able to add a noun, an adjective, or an adverb to the sentence with accurate choice every time.
 - 3.1.1 When asked orally or in writing, the participant will be able to select a noun, an adjective, or an adverb according to the definition of each.
 - 3.1.0 Given the terms *noun, adjective, and adverb*, the participant will be able to define each term with 100 % accuracy.
- Cluster 4 includes the following objective:
 4. Having the subject/subject pronoun, the correct form of verb "*be*," and the noun/adjective/adverb, the participant will be able to join the previous elements respectively to form a grammatical sentence with 100% accuracy.
- Cluster 5 includes the following objective:

5. Given the sentence patterns of the verb (*be*): (N + be + N), (N + be + ADJ), (N + be + ADV), and (N + be + V + ing) the participant will be able to align the produced sentence with one of the sentence patterns successfully with 100% accuracy.
- Cluster 6 includes the following objectives:
 6. When requested in an oral or written way, the participant will be able to produce and compose sentences with (am, is, are) orally or in writing with 100% accuracy.
 - 6.1 When asked in writing or orally, the participant will be able to write at least 5 full/complete sentences about oneself with two or less grammatical errors per sentence.
 - 6.2 In a classroom interaction, the participant will be able to answer an oral question(s) without omitting or misusing (*am/is/are*).
 - Cluster 7 includes the following objectives:
 7. When asked, the participant will be able to form the present progressive tense with 100% accuracy every time.
 - 7.1 When requested, the participant will be able to use the auxiliary (*be*) and verb + ing to form the present progressive tense with 100% accuracy.
- VI. For the control group, the participants were provided with a writing task on day two. The task did not contain any copula or auxiliary (*be*) instruction, so the participants were not exposed to any FFI related to the target structures. The writing task did not aim to enforce the production, nor did it provide knowledge of the target structures.

The task prompted the participants to describe their hometowns, and the events that were taking place there.

- VII. Posttest. The posttest was administered on day two. It was administered after FFI instruction for the experimental group and after the writing task for the control group. Both groups were tested and timed (10 minutes). Both groups were given different but equal versions of the test.

Data Analysis

For data analysis, statistical analyses were completed using the statistical program SPSS. The statistical analyses included descriptive and inferential analyses.

A Levene's test for equality of variance and an independent t test were run to check for homogeneity between groups at time of pretest. The Levene's test is used to check the variances in the groups while the independent t test is an inferential statistical test that decides if the difference between the means of two different groups is statistically significant (Field, 2009). In fact, the test of homogeneity of variance produces an F statistic and a significance value or p value (Field, 2009).

For a pre/posttest and two groups design and for analyzing Research Question 1, descriptive analyses were utilized on the number and type of errors committed by the participants. The types of errors included omission errors (e.g., *He a student), misuse or commission errors (e.g., *The boys is at school), and misjudgment errors which are erroneous judgment about grammatically correct sentences (e.g., marking "He is late" as incorrect or ungrammatical). Inferential analyses were conducted by running 2x2 ANOVAs and a t test on these error measures to evaluate potential changes over time and to examine differences between the groups.

For Research Question 2, descriptive and inferential analyses were used on the scores of the pre- and posttest. Descriptive analyses were applied to compare the scores of the experimental group to the scores of the control group over time. The scores of the two groups were compared to find changes over time. Inferential analysis was conducted by running a 2x2 ANOVA to examine the change over time, and the differences between the groups by comparing the scores of the experimental group to the control group.

Correlation analyses were also utilized to examine potential relationships between the biographical information and the tests. Correlations were run between several factors, including first language, years of English instruction in home country, years of ESL instruction in the United States, and type of grammar instruction provided by instructor.

Summary

This chapter presented the methodology adopted in this research and the rationale behind such adoption. Moreover, more details were provided about the research questions, null hypotheses, and independent and dependent variables. The structures targeted by this investigation were presented and the instruction materials, design, and strategies were introduced as well. In addition, this chapter shed light on data collection, data analysis, and implementation procedures. The next chapter will focus on presenting and analyzing results of this study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Investigating the influence of FFI of copula and auxiliary (*be*) on ESL learners was the focus of this study. This chapter presents the results of the data analyses. Descriptive and inferential analyses were utilized to analyze data derived from the pre/posttests. SPSS was used to analyze data. Data are reported and analyzed as they relate to the participants' homogeneity.

Homogeneity Among Groups at the Time of Pretest

Inferential analysis provides inferences or generalization beyond the results (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Thus, a Levene's test for equality of variance and an independent *t* test were run to check for homogeneity between groups at the time of pretest. The results showed that the homogeneity was not violated, with Levene's test for equality of variance, $F(12) = .465$ and with a *t* test, $p = .701$. Since ($p > .05$), the groups' variances and means could be treated as equal and the groups could be considered homogenous at the time of the pretest.

Results for Research Question 1

Research Question 1 (Null 1) investigates whether ESL learners make omission, misuse, or misjudgment errors of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) while they acquire English as a second language. The null hypothesis assumes that ESL learners do not make omission, misuse, or misjudgment errors of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) while acquiring English as a second language. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were utilized to analyze and report data.

Descriptive Analysis

In this section, the results of the pre- and posttests are presented to look for the copula and auxiliary (*be*) errors committed by the participants and to look for changes over time from the pretest to the posttest. The investigation included three types of errors: omission errors, misuse (commission) errors, and misjudgment errors (erroneous judgment of perfectly grammatical sentences).

Error analysis for the experimental and control groups in the pretest and in the posttest. It shows the ranges, means, and standard deviations for the different types of errors committed by the participants over time. Misjudgment errors ranged from .00 to 6.00 in the pretest, with an average of 2.21 ($SD = 1.85$). In the posttest, misjudgment errors ranged from .00 to 3.00, with an average of .57 ($SD = 1.01$). This shows some improvement over time. As it can be seen, omission errors ranged from .00 to 4.00 in both pretest and posttest, with an average of 1.50 ($SD = 1.50$) for the pretest and with 1.43 ($SD = 1.50$) for the posttest. This shows very little change from pretest to posttest in regard to omission errors. Misuse errors, on the other hand, ranged from .00 to 6.00 in the pretest, with an average of 2.43 ($SD = 1.74$) and ranged from .00 to 7.00 in the posttest, with an average of 2.07 ($SD = 2.16$). Again, the change was very small over time.

Inferential Analysis

Inferential analysis provides inferences or generalization beyond the results (Mackey & Gass, 2005). For further analysis, a paired-samples t test was conducted to compare omission errors, misuse errors, and misjudgment errors over time (pre-posttest). Table 7 demonstrates that misjudgment errors showed a significant change over time. The effect size is very large, which indicates that the participants as a group showed a decrease in their misjudgment errors; therefore, indicating that they were better able to recognize correct uses of the copula and auxiliary (*be*) at the time of the posttest. Yet, omission errors did not change significantly over time. There was no significant change over time for misuse errors as well.

Table 7

Paired T Test of Error Types (Pre-Post)

| Errors (Pre-Post) | Mean | SD | SE | t | df | Significance | Cohen's d |
|-------------------|------|------|-----|------|------|--------------|-------------|
| Misjudgment | 1.64 | 1.82 | .49 | 3.37 | 13 | .005* | .901 |
| Omission | .07 | .99 | .27 | .27 | 13 | .793 | .072 |
| Misuse | .36 | 1.98 | .53 | .67 | 13 | .513 | .180 |

Note. * $p \leq .05$, two-tailed

Going further, I looked at potential change over time while comparing the two groups, experimental versus control, by running 2x2 ANOVAs for omission errors, misuse errors, and misjudgment errors. The results showed that there was a significant difference over time between the groups, indicating that the treatment group outperformed the control group over time by significantly reducing their number of omission errors more than the control group, $F(1, 12) = 4.956, p = .046, \eta_p^2 = .292$. The large effect size indicates that the change could be a result of the treatment. That would be the most likely reason for the change over time. Table 8 presents the results of these analyses for omission errors.

Table 8

*Omission Errors Comparison over Time and over Time*Group*

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Significance | Partial Eta Squared |
|--------------|-------------------------|----|-------------|------|--------------|---------------------|
| Time | .18 | 1 | .18 | .46 | .511 | .037 |
| Time * Group | 1.89 | 1 | 1.89 | 4.96 | .046* | .292 |

Note. * $p \leq .05$.

In regard to misuse errors, Table 9 shows that there was no significant change over time, $F(1, 12) = .029, p = .867, \eta_p^2 = .002$. Neither the experimental nor the control group showed any significant change over time, with $F(1, 12) = 1.048, p = .326, \eta_p^2 = .080$. There was no significant difference between the two groups in regard to the misuse errors.

Table 9

*Misuse Errors Comparison over Time and over Time * Group*

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Significance | Partial Eta Squared |
|--------------|-------------------------|----|-------------|------|--------------|---------------------|
| Time | .06 | 1 | .06 | .03 | .867 | .002 |
| Time * Group | 2.06 | 1 | 2.06 | 1.05 | .326 | .080 |

Note. * $p \leq .05$.

Misjudgment errors, as can be seen in Table 10, had a significant change over time, $F(1, 12) = 8.12, p = .015, \eta_p^2 = .404$, but there was no significant effect between the groups over time, $F(1, 12) = .032, p = .861, \eta_p^2 = .003$.

Table 10

*Misjudgment Errors Comparison over Time and over Time * Group*

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | <i>df</i> | Mean Square | <i>F</i> | Significance | Partial Eta Squared |
|--------------|-------------------------|-----------|-------------|----------|--------------|---------------------|
| Time | 14.63 | 1 | 14.63 | 8.15 | .015* | .404 |
| Time * Group | .06 | 1 | .06 | .03 | .861 | .003 |

Note. * $p \leq .05$.

In general, the results showed no improvement over time in regard to omission and misuse errors. Yet, there was a very slight improvement over time regarding misjudgment errors.

Results for Research Question 2

Research Question 2 (Null 2) investigates the effect of FFI on ESL learners' knowledge of copula and auxiliary (*be*). The null hypothesis assumes no significant influence of FFI on the GJT scores of ESL learners. Descriptive and inferential statistics were applied to analyze and report data. In this section the pre- and posttest scores of the experimental group and control group are reported. Then, descriptive and inferential results are presented.

Descriptive Analysis

The pretest scores for the experimental group ranged from 18 to 29 out of 32, while on the posttest, the scores were from 22 to 32 out of 32. In contrast, the pretest scores of the control group ranged from 21 to 28 out of 32 while their scores on the posttest ranged from 19 to 31 out of 32. Table 11 and Table 12 summarize scores for both groups.

Table 11

Experimental Group Scores on GJT Pre-posttest

| Participant | Pretest Score | Posttest Score | Change |
|-------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| N03 | 84.38% (27/32) | 93.75% (30/32) | + 9.37% (+ 3) |
| N04 | 90.63% (29/32) | 100% (32/32) | + 9.37% (+ 3) |
| N07 | 71.88% (23/32) | 78.13% (25/32) | + 6.25% (+ 2) |
| N08 | 90.63% (29/32) | 96.88% (31/32) | + 6.25% (+ 2) |
| N09 | 56.25% (18/32) | 68.75% (22/32) | + 12.5% (+ 4) |
| N10 | 78.13% (25/32) | 90.63% (29/32) | + 12.5% (+ 4) |
| N11 | 75.00% (24/32) | 81.25% (26/32) | + 6.25% (+ 2) |
| N12 | 90.63% (29/32) | 100% (32/32) | + 9.37% (+ 3) |
| N16 | 90.63% (29/32) | 100% (32/32) | + 9.37% (+ 3) |
| N17 | 78.13% (25/32) | 93.75% (30/32) | + 15.62% (+ 5) |

Table 12

Control Group Scores on GJT Pre-Posttest

| S | Participant | Pretest Score | Posttest Score | Change |
|---|-------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|
| 1 | B04 | 65.63% (21/32) | 59.38% (19/32) | - 6.25% (- 2) |
| 2 | B05 | 81.25% (26/32) | 78.13% (25/32) | - 3.12% (- 1) |
| 3 | B07 | 78.13% (25/32) | 81.25% (26/32) | + 3.12% (+ 1) |
| 4 | B09 | 87.50% (28/32) | 96.87% (31/32) | + 9.37% (+ 3) |

Further descriptive analyses were conducted and the results in Table 13 show that the experimental group performed better over time ($M = 25.80$, $SD = 3.58$) on the pretest and ($M = 28.90$, $SD = 3.45$) on the posttest. By contrast, the participants in the control group showed only

a slight improvement ($M = 25.00$, $SD = 2.94$) on the pretest and ($M = 25.25$, $SD = 4.92$) on the posttest. These results provide potential answers to research question 2 and its null hypothesis.

Table 13

Descriptive Data for Experimental Group vs. Control Groups over Time

| Group | Test | Mean | Minimum | Maximum | SD |
|--------------|----------|-------|---------|---------|------|
| Experimental | Pretest | 25.80 | 18.00 | 29.00 | 3.58 |
| | Posttest | 28.90 | 22.00 | 30.00 | 3.45 |
| Control | Pretest | 25.00 | 21.00 | 28.00 | 2.94 |
| | Posttest | 25.25 | 19.00 | 31.00 | 4.92 |

Inferential Analysis

Additional analysis was conducted by running a 2x2 ANOVA to examine the change over time and the differences between the groups by comparing the scores of the experimental group to the control group. Results in Table 14 showed that there was a statistically significant change over time, $F(1, 12) = 16.267$, $p = .002$, $\eta_p^2 = .576$. Moreover, between the two groups over time, there was a significant difference, $F(1, 12) = 11.604$, $p = .005$, $\eta_p^2 = .495$. Overall, the difference between the two groups was in favor of the experimental group with large effect sizes for both of these findings.

Table 14

*Experimental vs. Control Group GJT Scores over Time and over Time * Group*

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Significance | Partial Eta Squared |
|--------------|-------------------------|----|-------------|-------|--------------|---------------------|
| Time | 16.03 | 1 | 16.03 | 16.27 | .002* | .576 |
| Time * Group | 11.60 | 1 | 11.60 | 11.78 | .005* | .495 |

Note. * $p \leq .05$.

For a more thorough data analysis, correlations were run between the biographical information and the tests, but the results did not provide new information that was not already obtained from previous analyses. Correlations were run between several factors, including first language, years of English instruction in home country, years of ESL instruction in U.S., and type of grammar instruction provided by instructor. No relevant significant correlations were found.

Summary

This chapter reported and analyzed data obtained from the pre- and posttests by utilizing descriptive and inferential analyses. The results addressed the two research questions and the null hypotheses. The results shed light on the types and numbers of copula and auxiliary (*be*) errors committed by the participants in the experimental group and the control group and the changes that took place over time. Generally, the descriptive results showed no improvement over time in regard to omission and misuse errors, but there was improvement over time regarding misjudgment errors. Inferential results indicated significant improvement for misjudgment errors over time. For the omission errors, there was a significant difference between the groups over time. Inferential results also revealed that as a whole the participant groups showed a significant improvement over time for the copula and auxiliary (*be*), but when we look at Time*Group, we see a significant difference between the groups in regard to their knowledge of the copula and auxiliary (*be*). An improvement is noticed in the direction of the experimental group indicating that the change over time was due to them, not the control group. The next chapter will provide a discussion of the findings, implications, recommendations for future work, and the overall concluding remarks.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter offers a discussion of the findings, answers to the research questions, and evaluation of the null hypotheses. Conclusions are drawn, recommendations are made, and limitations are discussed. Discussions and findings are tied in with previous literature about FFI.

Summary of the Study

The overriding purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of FFI on the knowledge of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) of ESL learners. The results highlighted the types and numbers of copula and auxiliary (*be*) errors made by the participants in this study. The scores on the pre/posttest GJT were statistically analyzed to arrive at any potential answers to the research questions.

Discussion

Research Question 1

The first research question investigates if ESL learners commit omission, misuse, or misjudgment errors of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) while acquiring English as a second language. The null hypothesis assumes that ESL learners do not make omission, misuse, or misjudgment errors of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) while acquiring English as a second language.

Second language learners were shown to make omission, misuse, and misjudgment errors with the English copula and auxiliary (*be*). Descriptive analyses of the pretest demonstrated that misjudgment and misuse errors were the most committed errors by the participants in this study. Misjudgment errors ranged from zero to six errors with an average of 2.21, while misuse errors ranged from zero to six with an average of 2.43. The participants made less omission errors on the pretest and the errors ranged from zero to four with an average of 1.50. On the posttest, misjudgment errors were from zero to three, with an average of 0.57. Misuse errors ranged from zero to seven, with an average of 2.07 on the posttest. Omission errors ranged from zero to four with an average of 1.43. These results support findings from previous research which also concluded that ESL/EFL learners had the tendency to omit and misuse the copula and auxiliary (Abushihab et al., 2011; Al-Buainain, 2007; Alduais, 2012; Alshayban, 2012; Al-Shormani, 2012; Diab, 1997; Fuertes & Licerias, 2010; Jia & Fuse, 2007; Jishvithaa et al., 2013; Muftah & Eng, 2011; Unlu & Hatipoglu, 2012).

However, the current study investigated misjudgment errors as well. It was shown that the ESL learners committed misjudgment errors by marking grammatically correct copula and auxiliary (*be*) structures as incorrect. Thus, it was established that making misjudgment errors was an indication of the learners' knowledge of the copula and auxiliary (*be*) as those errors decreased after the FFI treatment was applied. These outcomes help shed light on misjudgment errors as a potential type of errors made with copula and auxiliary (*be*) and on improvement that followed the FFI treatment.

Going beyond error making, the *t test* analyses revealed that when comparing error types over time (pre/posttest), misjudgment errors showed a significant change over time ($M = 1.64$, $SD = 1.82$, $SE = .49$), $t(13) = 3.37$, $p = .005$, two-tailed, $d = .901$. Apparently, the effect size was

very large which indicated all participants made less misjudgment errors. These results indicate that participants become better at recognizing the correct use of the copula and auxiliary (*be*) at the time of the posttest. However, omission errors did not exhibit any significant difference over time ($M = .07, SD = .99, SE = .27$), $t(13) = .27, p = .793$, two-tailed, $d = .072$. Misuse errors also did not show significant change over time ($M = .36, SD = 1.98, SE = .53$), $t(13) = .67, p = .513$, two-tailed, $d = .180$.

Further investigation of potential changes over time was conducted by comparing the two groups, experimental versus control. The 2x2 ANOVA analyses for omission errors, misuse errors, and misjudgment errors showed that omission errors decreased significantly over time between the groups. Apparently, the treatment group outperformed the control group over time by significantly making less omission errors than the control group, $F(1, 12) = 4.956, p = .046, \eta_p^2 = .292$. The medium effect size indicated a tendency towards the influence of the FFI treatment. This reduction in omission errors aligns with the notion that second and foreign language learners find FFI beneficial (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). It also aligns with Long's (1983) findings that FFI instruction is effective. As stated previously, different studies showed that omission errors among other errors were due to the incomplete understanding of the copula and auxiliary (*be*) rules and their applications (Abushihab et al., 2011; Al-Buainain, 2007; Alduais, 2012; Alshayban, 2012; Al-Shormani, 2012; Diab, 1997; Fuertes & Liceras, 2010; Jia & Fuse, 2007; Jishvithaa et al., 2013; Muftah & Eng, 2011; Unlu & Hatipoglu, 2012). So, more exposure to FFI instruction enabled the learners to commit fewer errors and improve their knowledge of copula and auxiliary (*be*) rules as it can be inferred from the results of this study.

In regard to misuse errors, there was no significant change over time, $F(1, 12) = .029, p = .867, \eta_p^2 = .002$. The two groups did not show any significant change over time, $F(1, 12) =$

1.048, $p = .326$, $\eta_p^2 = .080$. There was no significant difference between the two groups in regard to the misuse errors which reduces the chance of the influence of FFI treatment. As stated heretofore, there is a common consensus that FFI improves the acquisition of second language grammatical forms (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Yet, not all grammatical forms and structures respond equally to FFI (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). As suggested by Williams and Evans (1998), all grammatical forms may need different degrees and kinds of FFI. The participants in this study did not improve significantly in regard to the misuse errors maybe because those errors were less noticeable (Harley, 1993) and the participants found it difficult to interpret or analyze them. Different or more FFI exposure might have been needed for more salient improvement since there was one session only of FFI.

Interestingly, misjudgment errors had a significant change over time, $F(1, 12) = 8.12$, $p = .015$, $\eta_p^2 = .404$. However, that change might not be considered as an effect of the FFI treatment because there was no significant effect between the groups over time, $F(1, 12) = .032$, $p = .861$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$. As a whole, everyone in the study was better at reducing their number of misjudgment errors but that does not appear to be a result of the treatment. By taking the tests, the students might have become more aware of the copula and auxiliary (*be*) which led to improvement for all participants. These findings highlight how simple awareness could have allowed for better judgment on the GJTs. Following the noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990), it is likely that both participant groups in this study consciously could have noticed the misjudgment errors and were able to make better judgements over time. According to Schmidt (2001), the boundaries between explicit and implicit knowledge are blurry and hard to identify. Hence, the participants might have acquired the correct structures implicitly.

The null hypothesis for this question was rejected since it was evident that the ESL learners in this study have committed omission, misuse, and misjudgment errors while acquiring English as a second language.

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 examined the effect of FFI on ESL learners' knowledge of copula and auxiliary (*be*). The null hypothesis assumed that there was no significant influence of FFI on the GJT scores of ESL learners.

Second language learners' knowledge of copula and auxiliary (*be*) appeared to be positively impacted by FFI showing improvement in participants' GJT scores. The improvement points out that the ESL learners in the experimental group were able to show a significant improvement in their knowledge of the copula and auxiliary (*be*) by being able to recognize omission errors, misuse errors, and to make better judgments about correct structures. These findings support the results of previous research (Carroll et al., 1992; Day & Shapson, 2001; Ellis, 1984; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Long, 1983; Lyster, 1994; Spada & Lightbown, 1993; Tomita & Spada, 2013; Valeo, 2013; White, 1991). The findings of previous studies showed that FFI has a positive link with second language/ESL learners' development. Those outcomes support the concept that FFI plays a significant and genuine role in developing grammatical knowledge for second language learners. Learners in second language/ESL classrooms provided with FFI outperformed second language learners with no FFI received. The findings align with the Noticing Hypothesis and the form-focused instruction pedagogy as they both emphasize the significance of consciousness-raising and noticing of language features and forms as a means for second language learning.

The key finding in this study is that the experimental group showed a statistically significant improvement over time while the control group showed an insignificant change over time. In other words, the change was more salient for the experimental group. This key finding indicates that FFI treatment has a positive influence on the ESL learners' knowledge of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*). Also, the large effect sizes, over time ($\eta^2_p = .576$) and between the groups ($\eta^2_p = .495$) support the inclination towards the belief that the change was due to the positive influence of the FFI treatment on the participants' knowledge of the copula and auxiliary (*be*). That influence made the participants more aware of the copula and auxiliary (*be*) use, and thus made fewer errors. This finding aligns with previously mentioned results of previous research that also highlighted the positive influence of FFI on learning grammatical structures.

The influence of the FFI treatment can also be seen in the decrease of the omission errors of the copula and auxiliary (*be*). The greater understanding of the need of the copula and auxiliary (*be*) led to the significant decrease in making omission errors over time between the groups. The experimental group outperformed the control group over time by significantly making less omission errors. The large effect size ($\eta^2_p = .292$) indicates that the improvement in the copula and auxiliary (*be*) knowledge was likely because of the FFI treatment.

Limitations of the Study

There were three key limitations to conducting this study. As a quasi-experimental study, the most significant limitation to this investigation was the very small participant population. Due to administrative and teachers' willingness issues, I had limited access to a number of participants in their already existing formal ESL classes. Moreover, there was a loss of participants because they either missed the pretest (or part of it), the posttest, or both.

The second limitation discussed here was the tenses of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*). The focus was on the present tense of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) as it was reported by previous research as the most problematic tense for ESL learners (Alshayban, 2012; Celce-Marcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999; Swain & Smith, 2001). Since this study focused on investigating the learners' knowledge of English copula and auxiliary (*be*) in the present tense only, the third limitation was that there were no existing valid and reliable tests known to assess knowledge of such a narrow aspect of the English grammar. Thus, I, with the help of a subject matter/ESL expert, designed pre/posttests (GJTs) to be used for data collection. Generally, limitations are part and parcel of any investigation. However, if these three limitations are addressed in future research, researchers may be able to obtain more data and reach more generalizable findings.

Implications

It is believed that the findings of this study would add to the literature in the field of ESL/second language. This study focused on investigating the influence of FFI of copula and auxiliary (*be*) on ESL learners. Unlike previous studies (Abushihab et al., 2011; Al-Buainain, 2007; Alduais, 2012; Alshayban, 2012; Al-Shormani, 2012; Diab, 1997; Fuertes & Liceras, 2010; Jia & Fuse, 2007; Jishvithaa et al., 2013; Muftah & Eng, 2011; Unlu & Hatipoglu, 2012), this study had a broader scope. It investigated misjudgment errors as well as omission and misuse errors. Moreover, although the number of the participants was small, it included Arabic, Chinese, and Hindi as participants' native languages. Most of the previously mentioned studies focused on one native language. Although the current study focused on the copula and auxiliary (*be*) in the present tense only, its results supported those in previous research. The findings showed that ESL learners tend to make omission, misuse, and misjudgment errors with the

English copula and auxiliary (*be*). So, it is recommended that ESL/second language teachers be aware of such errors and provide remedies as needed. The findings also showed that FFI had a positive influence on ESL learners' knowledge of copula and auxiliary (*be*) which also supported the findings of previous research (Carrol et al., 1992; Day & Shapson, 2001; Ellis, 1984; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Long, 1983; Lyster, 1994; Spada & Lightbown, 1993; Tomita & Spada, 2013; Valeo, 2013; White, 1991).

As it has previously been stated, form-focused instruction is a classroom practice and whether it is incidental or intended, it includes instructional activities that are planned to make language learners pay attention to linguistic forms and structures (Ellis, 2005). Thus and as an implication of this study, ESL/second language teachers are encouraged to consider FFI among their pedagogical choices and make sure that they anticipate and address linguistic difficulties with grammatical structures in general and with copula and auxiliary (*be*) in specific.

In addition, FFI promotes the significance of CLT principles, such as communication authenticity and focusing on students, while sustaining the importance of the explicit study of troublesome second language grammatical forms (Poole, 2005). FFI emphasizes that language learners attend to the task, form, and meaning (Long, 1996). Thus, it is suggested that even CLT advocates consider FFI as a classroom pedagogical practice.

Recommendations for Future Studies

There is much we need to know about the influence of FFI on learning and acquiring the English copula and auxiliary (*be*). There are many questions that can be asked in future studies on FFI and its influence on copula and auxiliary (*be*). It is important to continue to explore errors made by ESL/second language learners and how they can be reduced through intervention. English as a second language classes will continue to gain importance and research should

continue investigating ESL classes and programs to provide teachers and learners with better teaching and learning experiences.

As was seen in the results of this study, FFI had a positive influence on the learners' knowledge of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) and that was recognizable in the error reduction over time and between groups. However, more copula and auxiliary (*be*) types of errors should be identified and investigated for better understanding of their nature and how FFI may affect them. As was mentioned above in the limitations section, future investigations should include more forms and tenses of the copula and auxiliary (*be*). The effect sizes of the treatment were shown to be large, with $\eta_p^2 = .576$ over time and with $\eta_p^2 = .495$ between the groups. Thus, it is more important for this study to be repeated with much larger participant population for findings that can be more generalizable.

Conclusion

This study set out to investigate if ESL learners made omission, misuse, or misjudgment errors with the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) and the influence of FFI on ESL learners' knowledge of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*). Based on previous research in these areas it was expected that ESL learners would commit such errors and that FFI would have a positive influence on ESL learners' knowledge of copula and auxiliary (*be*). Moreover, the results showed that the participants committed more misjudgment and misuse errors and less omission errors over time. However, misjudgment errors were reduced significantly over time. However, omission errors and misuse errors did not show any significant change over time. Between the groups and over time, omission errors and misjudgment errors showed a significant decrease while misuse errors did not exhibit any significant change. Results also showed a significant

positive influence of treatment on the posttest scores. The influence was over time and between the groups indicating that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group.

Additionally, the investigation of misjudged errors provided new information about copula and auxiliary (*be*) errors and had not been discussed in other research. Only errors with the English copula and auxiliary (*be*) in the present tense were highlighted and that was unique to this study. The treatment was effective in helping students to improve their understanding of the English copula and auxiliary (*be*). In spite of all the limitations, this study may still be able to contribute to the body of literature on FFI and the copula and auxiliary (*be*) as well as provide a better understanding of ESL pedagogy.

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APPENDIX A: POWERPOINT PRESENTATION

FORM-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION (FFI)
FOR ENGLISH COPULA AND
AUXILIARY (*BE*) USE IN THE PRESENT
TENSE FOR ESL LEARNERS
CLASSROOM PRESENTATION

1

TERMINAL OBJECTIVE

In classroom written production, ESL learners, at ESL 103B, will be able to produce and use (*am, is, are*) and (*am, is, are + ing*) with accuracy of 100%.

2

Step 1
Starting the sentence with a NOUN or a SUBJECT
PRONOUN

SUBORDINATE OBJECTIVES

1.1.0 Given the term *noun*, define the term as a word that refers to people, places, or things.

1.1.1 When asked orally or in writing to select a noun, choose a noun correctly according to the definition of nouns in English.

3

Noun

Nouns are words that are used to name an animal, person, idea, place or thing.

E.g.  *apple*  *camera*  *sheep*  *Eiffel Tower*

4

Activities 1-2 workbook page 1

In pairs or groups of three, complete activities 1,2 in your workbook.

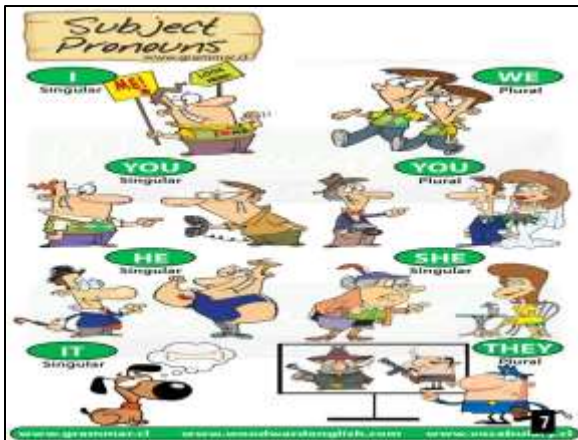
5

SUBORDINATE OBJECTIVES

1.2.0 Given the term *subject pronoun*, specify correctly the pronouns: *He, She, It, I, You, We, and They*.

1.2.1 Upon an oral or written request, select a correct subject pronoun all of the time.

6



Subject Pronouns

- You are my friend.
- I am your friend.
- It is a friendly cat.
- They are friends.
- He is my friend.
- She is my friend.
- We are friends.
- You are friends.

8

Activities 3-4 workbook page 1

In pairs or groups of three, complete activities 3-4 in your workbook.

9

SUBORDINATE OBJECTIVE

1. When requested orally or in writing, start a sentence with the right noun or a subject pronoun every time.

10

Starting a sentence with the right noun or subject pronoun.

- I am sick.
- It is a small cat.
- They are students.
- Tom is my classmate.
- She is a wife.
- We are late.
- You are a good student.

11

ACTIVITY 5 workbook page 2

In pairs or groups of three, complete activity 5 in your workbook.

12

Step 2
Adding the present form of verb *be*

am

is

are

SUBORDINATE OBJECTIVE

2.1.0 Given the term present *be* verb, name: *am*, *is*, and *are*

13

The present forms of verb *be*

be

am

is

are

14

The present forms of verb *be*

VERB TO BE

15

The present forms of verb *be*

| | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | I <i>am</i> a student. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | You <i>are</i> a student. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | She <i>is</i> a student. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | He <i>is</i> a student. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | You <i>are</i> students. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | We <i>are</i> students. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | They <i>are</i> students. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | It <i>is</i> a book. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

16

ACTIVITY 6 workbook page 2

In pairs or groups of three, complete activity 6 in your workbook.

17

SUBORDINATE OBJECTIVE

2.1.1 When asked orally or in writing, select the present forms of verb *be* with 100 percent accuracy.

18

Selecting (*am, is, are*) among other words

19

ACTIVITY 7 workbook page 2

In pairs or groups of three, complete activity 7 in your workbook.

20

SUBORDINATE OBJECTIVE

2. Given the tense (present), add the present form of the verb *be* (*am, is, are*) with accurate subject-verb agreement.

21

Adding the present form of the verb *be*

| | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Tom +is+ my classmate. | She +is+ a wife. | We +are+ late. |
| You +are+ a good student. | I +am+ sick. | It +is+ a small cat. |
| | They +are+ students. | |

22

ACTIVITY 8 workbook page 3

In pairs or groups of three, complete activity 8 in your workbook.

23

Step 3
Adding noun/adjective/adverb

SUBORDINATE OBJECTIVES

3.1.0 Given the terms *noun*, *adjective*, and *adverb*, define each term with 100 % accuracy.


3.1.1 When asked orally or in writing, select a noun, an adjective, or an adverb according to the definition of each.

24

Defining and selecting nouns, adjectives, and adverbs


• A noun is a word that refers to people, places, or things.

policeman




• An adjective is a word describes properties of nouns.

small



• An adverb is word describes how, when, where, why, or to what extent an action occurs

here



25

ACTIVITIES 9-10 workbook page 3-4

In pairs or groups of three, complete activities 9 and 10 in your workbook.


26

SUBORDINATE OBJECTIVE


3. Upon oral or written request, add a noun, an adjective, or an adverb to the sentence with an accurate choice every time.

27


Adding a noun, an adjective, or an adverb to a sentence



He is a + policeman (n).



It is + green (adj).



I am + here (adv).

28

ACTIVITY 11 workbook page 4

In pairs or groups of three, complete activity 11 in your workbook.

29

Step 4 Adding all elements

Noun/Subject pronoun + *be* + noun/adjective/adverb

SUBORDINATE OBJECTIVE

4. Having the subject/subject pronoun, the correct form of verb *be*, and the noun/adjective/adverb, join the previous elements respectively to form a grammatical sentence with 95% accuracy.

30

Joining the elements

31

examples

32

ACTIVITY 12 workbook pages 4-5

In pairs or groups of three, complete activity 12 in your workbook.

33

Aligning sentences with their patterns

noun + *be* + noun

- Ahmad is a student.

noun + *be* + adjective

- They are smart.

noun + *be* + adverb

- Tom is here.

35

ACTIVITY 13 workbook page 5

In pairs or groups of three, complete activity 13 in your Activity Book.

36

Step 6

Producing sentences with *am/is/are*

SUBORDINATE OBJECTIVES

- When asked in writing or orally, the participant will be able to write at least 5 full/complete sentences without omitting or misusing (*am/is/are*).
- In a classroom interaction, the participant will be able to answer an oral question(s) without omitting or misusing (*am/is/are*).
- When requested in an oral or written way, produce and compose sentences with (*am, is, are*) orally or in writing with 100 % accuracy.

37

ACTIVITY 14 workbook page 5

In pairs or groups of three, complete activity 14 in your workbook.

38

Step 7
producing sentences with noun/pronoun + be + verb + ing

Present Progressive Tense

TERMINAL OBJECTIVES

7.1 When requested, the participant will be able to use the correct auxiliary (*be*) + verb + ing with 100% accuracy.

7. When asked, the participant will be able to form the present progressive tense with 100% accuracy every time.

39

examples

- He **is eating** an apple.
- She **is playing** tennis.
- It **is raining**.
- Tom **is coming**.
- I **am reading** a book.
- We **are leaving** now.
- You **are making** noise.
- They **are sleeping**.

40

ACTIVITY 15 workbook page 6

In pairs or groups of three, complete activity 15 in your workbook.

41

END OF LESSON

42

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APPENDIX B: WORKBOOK

Introduction

This workbook is designed for ESL learners .It is directed toward avoiding errors committed by these learners when they form and produce specific structures with the English copula and auxiliary (*be*). This workbook is intended to be used as the practice part of the instructional materials. Learners are supposed to use this workbook in alignment with the PowerPoint presentation and classroom instruction.

Organization

This workbook contains seven steps. Each step provides activity or activities that help in accomplishing the learning objectives of this instruction. The first step presents starting the sentence with a NOUN or a SUBJECT PRONOUN, the second step demonstrates adding the present form of the copula *be* (a-is-are), the third step shows adding a NOUN, an ADJECTIVE, or an ADVERB, the fourth step demonstrates joining all elements, the fifth step shows how to align the produced sentence with given sentence patterns, and the sixth step concludes all steps by producing full sentences with am, is, and are. The seventh step focusing on using the auxiliary *be* to form the PRESENT PROGRESSIVE TENSE (be + verb + ing).

Features

This workbook is designed to walk the learners in the shadow of the instructional PowerPoint presentation and classroom instruction. It provides the learners with exercises and activities to insure the learning of the intended skills. There are a total of fourteen activities throughout this workbook. Each activity or exercise enforces the learning and the acquisition of the targeted skills. The activities prompts different behaviors form the learners. They require the learners to define, fill in the blanks, circle, underline, complete, match, put in order, and compose full sentences. There are appendices that provide the learners with charts for definitions, rules, and answer key.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank everyone who has helped in accomplishing this work.

Dedication

This workbook is dedicated to all devoted educators.



Abdulaziz Ibrahim Alraddadi

raddadiesl@hotmail.com

Dear learners,

This workbook is designed for classroom instruction. It is supposed to help you grasp or strengthen certain skills. All activities and exercises are made to help you come over specific learning difficulties. It does not substitute other ESL materials or textbooks.

Abdulaziz I Alraddadi

Step 1: Starting the sentence

Starting the sentence with a NOUN or a SUBJECT PRONOUN

OBJECTIVES

- 1.1.0** Given the term *noun*, define the term as a word that refers to people, places, or things.
1.1.1 When asked orally or in writing to select a noun, choose a noun correctly according to the definition of nouns in English

Activity 1

Fill in the blanks in the following definition:

A noun is a _____ that refers to _____, _____, or _____.

Activity 2

Underline nouns in the following list of words:

Tim – she – bus – eat – pen – London – slow – on – classroom – cat

OBJECTIVES

- 1.2.0** Given the term subject pronoun, specify correctly the pronouns: He, She, It, I, You, We, and They.
1.2.1 Upon an oral or written request, select a correct subject pronoun all of the time.

Activity 3

What are the subject pronouns in English?

They are: _____, _____, _____, _____, _____, _____, _____

Activity 4

page2

Circle subject pronouns in the following sentences:

1. She is a student.
2. We are Americans.
3. They are from different countries.
4. I am sleepy.
5. It is on the desk.

OBJECTIVE

1. When requested orally or in writing, start a sentence with the right noun or a subject pronoun every time.

Activity 5

Fill in the blanks with an appropriate noun or subject pronoun.

1. _____ is a student.
2. _____ are citizens.
3. _____ are from different countries.
4. _____ am a fireman.
5. _____ is a cute bird.

Step 2: Adding am-is-are

Adding the present form of the copula *be*: am, is, are

OBJECTIVE

- 2.1.0 Given the term present *be* verb, name: am, is, and are

Activity 6

Complete the following statement.

The present forms of the verb *be* are: _____, _____, _____.

OBJECTIVE

- 2.1.1 When asked orally or in writing, select the present forms of verb *be* with 100 % accuracy.

Activity 7

Underline the present form verb *be* in the following list of words:

page3

is – she – I – am – will – was – are – on – work – were

OBJECTIVE

2. Given the tense (present), add the present form of the verb *be* (am, is, are) with accurate subject-verb agreement.

Activity 8

Fill in the blanks with the correct present verb *be*.

1. Jim _____ a student.
2. They _____ good citizens.
3. We _____ from different countries.
4. I _____ a fireman.
5. It _____ a nice car.

Step 3: Adding N-ADJ-ADV
Adding noun/adjective/adverb

OBJECTIVES

- 3.1.0** Given the terms noun, adjective, and adverb, define each term with 95 percent accuracy.
3.1.1 When asked orally or in writing, select a noun, an adjective, or an adverb according to its definition.

Activity 9

Match the terms from column **A** with their definitions from column **B**.

| Column A | | |
|----------|-----------|-------|
| 1. | noun | _____ |
| 2. | adjective | _____ |
| 3. | adverb | _____ |

| Column B | |
|----------|---|
| a. | a word describes properties of nouns |
| b. | a word refers to people, places, or things |
| c. | a word describes when, why, where, and how an action occurs |

Activity 10

page4

Write n (noun), adj (adjective), or adv (adverb) in front of the correct words:

- | | |
|-------------|--------------------|
| 1. car () | 2. similar () |
| 3. ugly () | 4. early () |
| 5. well () | 6. Vigo County () |

OBJECTIVE

3. Upon oral or written request, add a noun, an adjective, or an adverb to the sentence with accurate choice every time.

Activity 11

Add an appropriate noun, adjective, or adverb to the following sentences.

1. He is a _____.
2. We are at school_____.
3. They are _____ people.
4. I am _____.
5. Susan is a _____.

Step 4: Joining all elements

Joining nouns/subject pronouns + *be* + nouns/adjectives/adverbs

OBJECTIVE

4. Having the subject/subject pronoun, the correct form of verb *be*, and the noun/adjective/adverb, join the previous elements respectively to form a grammatical sentence with 100% accuracy.

Activity 12

Put the following words in order to form grammatical sentences.

1. are – we – Japan – from: _____.
2. late – are – they: _____.

3. next – she – is: _____.
4. a cat – Tom – is: _____.
5. tall – am – I: _____.

Step 5: Aligning sentences with their patterns

Aligning the produced sentence with given sentence patterns

OBJECTIVE

5. Given the sentence patterns of the verb *be*: (N + *be* + N), (N + *be* + ADJ), and (N + *be* + ADV), align the produced sentence with one of the sentence patterns successfully with 100% accuracy.

Activity13

Match sentences from Column A with the correct sentence patterns from Column B.

| Column A | | Column B | |
|----------|---------------------------|----------|-----------------------|
| 1. | Sam is a pilot. | _____j) | noun + be + adverb |
| 2. | Julia is beautiful. | _____k) | noun + be + noun |
| 3. | The children are upstairs | _____l) | noun + be + adjective |

Step 6: Producing sentences

Producing sentences with am-is-are

OBJECTIVES

- 6.1 When asked in writing or orally, the participant will be able to write at least 5 full/complete sentences without omitting or misusing (*am/is/are*).
- 6.2 In a classroom interaction, the participant will be able to answer an oral question(s) without omitting or misusing (*am/is/are*).
6. When requested in an oral or written way, produce and compose sentences with (am, is, are) orally or in writing with 100 % accuracy.

Activity 14

Use the present form of the verb *be* to write five complete sentences about yourself, school, family, etc.

1. _____.
2. _____.
3. _____.
4. _____.
5. _____.

Step 7: Producing present progressive tense

Producing sentences with *be* + verb + ing

OBJECTIVES

- 7.1 When requested, the participant will be able to use the correct auxiliary (*be*) + verb + ing with 100% accuracy.
7. When asked, the participant will be able to form the present progressive tense with 100% accuracy every time.

Activity 15

Choose the correct answer.

1. The man (is eating – is eat – eating) an apple.
2. They (is watching – watching – are watching) TV.
3. I (am taking – take – taking) a test now.
4. Look! Tom (is jogging – is jog – jogging) with his friend.
5. Listen to the engine! It (is run – is running – running) well.

WORKBOOK APPENDIX

MEMORY AID

- **NOUNS** are words that refer to people, places, ideas, or things.
- **ADJECTIVES** are words describe properties of nouns.
- **ADVERBS** are words describes how, when, where, why, or to what extent an action occurs.
- **SUBJECT PRONOUNS** are: he, she, it, you, I, they, *and* we.
- **PRESENT FORMS OF VERB *be***: am – is – are
- **VERB BE SENTENCE FORMULA:**
noun/subject pronoun + am/is/are + noun/adjective/adverb
- **PRESENT PROGRESSIVE FORMULA:**
noun/subject pronoun + am/is/are +verb + ing

ANSWER KEY

- **ACTIVITY 1:** word, people, things, places
- **ACTIVITY 2:** Tim, bus, pen, London, classroom, cat
- **ACTIVITY 3:** he, she, it, I, you, we, they
- **ACTIVITY 4:** 1. she, 2. we, 3. they, 4. I, 5. it
- **ACTIVITY 5:**
 1. she/Mary/Tim (Answers may vary)
 2. They (Answers may vary)
 3. we/they/you (Answers may vary)
 4. I
 5. it (Answers may vary)
- **ACTIVITY 6:** am, is, are
- **ACTIVITY 7:** is, am, are
- **ACTIVITY 8:** 1. is, 2. are, 3. are, 4. am, 5. is
- **ACTIVITY 9:** 1. b, 2. a, 3. c
- **ACTIVITY 10:** 1. n, 2. adj, 3. adj, 4. adv, 5. adv, 6. n
- **ACTIVITY 11:** (Answers may vary)
 1. student, 2. now, 3. nice, 4. late, 5. nurse
- **ACTIVITY 12:**
 1. We are from Japan. 2. They are late. 3. She is next.
 4. Tom is a cat. 5. I am tall.
- **ACTIVITY 13:** 1. b. 2. c. 3. a.
- **ACTIVITY 14:** (Answers may vary)
- **ACTIVITY 15:**
 1. is eating
 2. are watching
 3. am taking
 4. is jogging

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APPENDIX C: INFORMED CONSENT



ID CODE: _____

Bayh College of Education
 Department of
 Teaching and
 Learning

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Study Title: THE INFLUENCE OF FORM-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION ON ESL LEARNERS

To the potential participant

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Abdulaziz Alraddadi (Principal Investigator) and Dr. Noble Corey (Faculty Sponsor/Co-Investigator), from the Department of Teaching and Learning at Indiana State University. This study is being conducted as part of a dissertation. **Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary which means that you do not have to participate in it. Please read the information below and ask questions about anything you do not understand, before deciding whether or not to participate.**

ELIGIBILITY

You have been asked to participate in this study because you are an ESL learner who is taking ESL instruction in a regular ESL classroom.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study aims to investigate how grammar instruction affects the knowledge of ESL learners in ESL classes.

PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following things:

1. The total time commitment for your participation in this research is about 100 minutes or 1.7 hours.
2. This session is the first session of the research process and it is held in your regular ESL103B classroom (Room A109 [from 10:00 to 10:50 a.m.] or Room A012 [from 2:00 to 2:50 p.m.], Root Hall). It will be during your regular class schedule on Monday 5/1, 2017.

3. The researcher will present the project, in a ten-minute presentation, and ask you to participate in this research.
4. The researcher will explain this consent form to you. He will help you understand every item and walk you through the whole process.
5. You will be provided with a copy of the informed consent in your native language (e.g., Arabic, Chinese, Greek, Hindi, or Spanish) for better understanding.
6. Read the consent carefully. Then, check the box that matches your desire (YES/NO), sign the consent form and volunteers will be provided with a copy for their records. The informed consent process is expected to take 20-minutes.
7. Volunteers will complete a language background questionnaire for 10-minutes. The purpose of this questionnaire is to provide the researcher with information about you as an ESL learner.
8. After completing the language background questionnaire, you will be asked to take a pretest. The pretest consists of 32-items and you will be allowed 10-minutes to complete this test.
9. The second session will also take place in your regular ESL103B classroom (Room A109 [from 10:00 to 10:50 a.m.] or Room A012 [from 2:00 to 2:50 p.m.], Root Hall). It will be held on Wednesday 5/3, 2017.
10. In the second session, you will attend a regular writing lesson for 35-minutes. The researcher will guide you through the activities and tasks.
11. During the lesson, you will be asked to complete a writing task in which you write an essay about your hometown.
12. After completing the lesson, the researcher will ask you to take a posttest that is similar to the pretest. The posttest consists of 32-items and you will be allowed 10-minutes to complete the test.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

By participating in this research, you will not be exposed to more than minimal risks or discomforts as known to the principal investigator and faculty sponsor. No physical, physiological, psychological, social, legal, or financial risks or harms might result from participating in this research. Your participation in this research is similar to participating in any regular ESL103B class. The assigned activities and tasks will be similar to what you usually complete in classroom throughout the semester.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

As a participant, you are not expected to benefit directly from this research. Your ESL proficiency might improve. The outcomes of this study might help ESL instructors and teachers

find more effective classroom instruction. Also, conducting this research may encourage more efforts to investigate the effect of form-focused (grammar) instruction on ESL learners.

CONFIDENTIALITY

1. Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law.
2. Confidentiality will be maintained by using envelopes to distribute and collect research documents, limiting presence in classroom to the students and researcher, and by assigning ID codes. ID codes will be used on all research notes and documents. Only the principal investigator and the co-principal investigator (faculty sponsor) will be able to connect your real name to your ID code after the data collection process.
3. The ID codes will be alphanumeric characters that cannot be connected to your real identity without using the informed consent document. For example, the participants' code names will be something like, N123, N456, B123, B435, etc. When mentioned in the study, the principal investigator will refer to the participants by their given ID codes.
4. You must use your ID code when completing the language background questionnaire, pretest, and posttest. **You must not write your real name on the language background questionnaire, pretest, or posttest.**
5. Research materials, such as the background questionnaire, pretest results, posttest results, and other data files will be stored at the faculty sponsor' office in a secured file cabinet. However, informed consent documents will be locked separately in a password protected safe at the sponsor faculty office. The principal investigator and the faculty sponsor will have an exclusive access to those materials.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

1. You can choose whether or not to be in this study.
2. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.
3. You may refuse to answer any questions you do not want to answer.
4. There is no penalty if you withdraw from the study and you will not lose any benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.
5. Withdrawing from this study will neither affect your grades in this class nor your relationship with your ESL 103B class instructor. Your instructor will not be able to know who is participating and who is not.
6. If you withdraw during or after data collection, your data will be returned to you or destroyed.

7. After signing the informed consent, you can simply ask to withdraw from this research at any time by emailing the researcher at: aalraddadi@sycamores.indstate.edu.-
8. You may not answer the questionnaire or take the pretest and/or the posttest.
9. During the first or the second session, you may express your desire to withdraw from the research to the researcher and you will be excluded from any research procedures.
10. You will not be allowed to leave classroom because the sessions are scheduled classes. Instead, you will be asked to complete regular classroom writing activity included in the research documents envelope.
11. After data collection sessions or after class, you may e-mail the researcher at: aalraddadi@sycamores.indstate.edu to express your wish to withdraw.
12. It is a must that you totally understand that **you have no obligation to participate or continue participating in this research.**

IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about this research, please contact:

Principal Investigator

Abdulaziz I Alraddadi
 Department of Teaching and Learning
 Bayh College of Education
 University Hall Room 218
 Indiana State University
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RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

If you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, you may contact the Indiana State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) by mail at Indiana State University, Office of Sponsored Programs, Terre Haute, IN 47809, by phone at (812) 237-8217, or e-mail the IRB at irb@indstate.edu. You will be given the opportunity to discuss any questions about your rights as a research subject with a member of the IRB. The IRB is an independent committee composed of members of the University community, as well as lay members of the community not connected with ISU. The IRB has reviewed and approved this study.

I understand the procedures described above. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction.

Please check the box that matches your desire:

Yes, I will volunteer and I have been given a copy of this form.

No, I will not volunteer.

Printed Name of Subject

Signature of Subject

Date

APPENDIX D: LANGUAGE BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

ID Code: _____

Please, answer the following questions:

Age:

What is your native/first language(s)? _____

Did you study English in your country? Y/N

If yes, for how long or in what grades? _____

Have you taken any standardized English tests? Y/N

If yes, can you remember your score? IELTS _____ TOEFL _____ Other _____

How long have you been studying English in the United States? _____

What is your current proficiency level? (Circle) Beginner Low Intermediate
 Intermediate High Intermediate
 Advanced Other (Specify):

Have you ever taken grammar instruction in English language classes? Yes/No

If yes, where? (Circle all that are applicable): in my country in USA Other (where):

Do your English instructors provide any grammatical explanations or feedback in classroom?

Yes/No

If yes, how often do they do that? (Circle) Always sometimes never
 only when I or someone asks

If provided with grammar instruction or explanations? Do you find it helpful in understanding how to use the language? Yes/No

Do you find some particular English structures to be more difficult than others? Yes/No

If yes, can you give an example?

APPENDIX E: PRETEST/POSTTEST (VERSION 1)

ID CODE:

INSTRUCTIONS

Read the following sentences and put an (**X**) in the brackets next to sentences that are **NOT grammatically correct**. Put a (\checkmark) in the brackets next to the **grammatically correct** sentences. There are **32** sentences. PLEASE, COMPLETE THE TEST BY YOURSELF. DO NOT CHECK A GRAMMAR BOOK. DO NOT WORK WITH A CLASSMATE.

Dear participant,

The purpose of this test is to help with the investigation of the acquisition of English as a second language. The results of this test will not be used to assess you in any way and they will be kept confidential. Thank you for your participation.

1. Mary is a student. ()
2. We are good in soccer. ()
3. John and Tom is here. ()
4. I eating dinner now. ()
5. They are doctors. ()
6. She smart. ()
7. The books over there. ()
8. He is reading an interesting book. ()
9. Sam is a New York police officer. ()
10. My students are always on time. ()
11. The cars is in the garage. ()

12. The players trying to catch the ball. ()
13. They brothers and sisters. ()
14. The items is misplaced. ()
15. We are in the 21st century. ()
16. The plane taking off at the moment. ()
17. Those women is nurses at the hospital. ()
18. The baby is happy. ()
19. You are late! ()
20. I am watching TV. ()
21. Cats and dogs are enemies. ()
22. Guns dangerous. ()
23. All children early this morning. ()
24. Look! Sammy is drive his new car. ()
25. Now, they husband and wife. ()
26. The school is open. ()
27. Her books are everywhere. ()
28. The neighbors are playing loud music. ()
29. These men is clowns. ()
30. Their jokes is funny. ()
31. I am home. ()
32. The students are taking the test. ()

END OF TEST

Thank you

APPENDIX F: PRETEST/POSTTEST (VERSION 2)

ID CODE:

INSTRUCTIONS

Read the following sentences and put an (X) in the brackets next to sentences that are **NOT grammatically correct**. Put a (✓) in the brackets next to the **grammatically correct** sentences. There are **32** sentences. PLEASE, COMPLETE THE TEST BY YOURSELF. DO NOT CHECK A GRAMMAR BOOK. DO NOT WORK WITH A CLASSMATE.

Dear participant,

The purpose of this test is to help with the investigation of the acquisition of English as a second language. The results of this test will not be used to assess you in any way and they will be kept confidential. Thank you for your participation.

-
1. Dean is a cop. ()
 2. They are good players. ()
 3. Mary and her husband is here. ()
 4. He watching the game now. ()
 5. They are firefighters. ()
 6. Sami smart. ()
 7. The kids over here. ()
 8. She is writing a long letter. ()
 9. Sam is a hunter. ()
 10. My father is always on time. ()
 11. The fire trucks is in the garage. ()

12. The coaches trying to throw the ball. ()
13. They cousins and friends. ()
14. The packages is lost. ()
15. We are in a new world. ()
16. The train leaving at the moment. ()
17. Those ladies is teachers at the school. ()
18. The boy is sad. ()
19. We are early! ()
20. I am reading a book. ()
21. Men and women are different. ()
22. Weapons scary. ()
23. All students late this morning. ()
24. Listen! Bobby is play music. ()
25. They one family. ()
26. Shops are closed now. ()
27. Their toys are all over the place. ()
28. My neighbors are watching a movie. ()
29. Those girls is young. ()
30. His ideas is silly. ()
31. I am outside. ()
32. The children are playing games. ()

END OF TEST

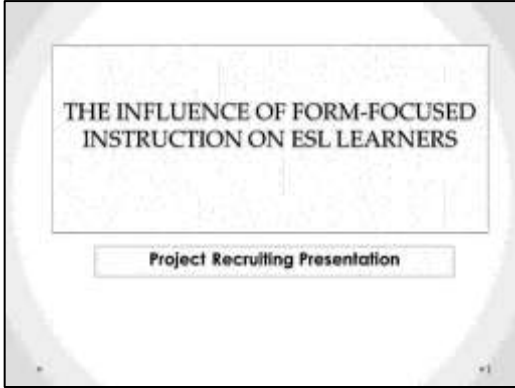

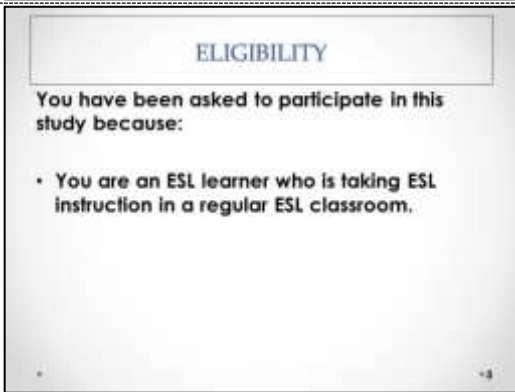
Thank you

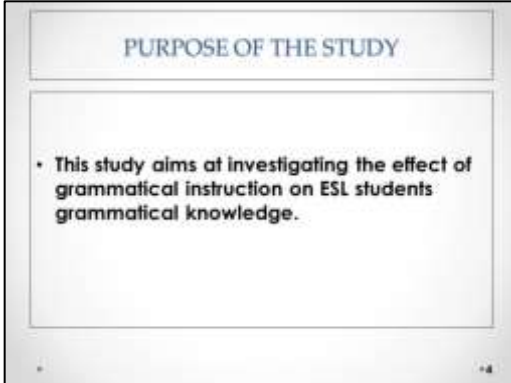
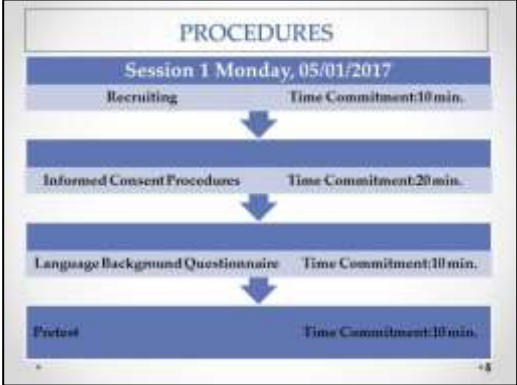
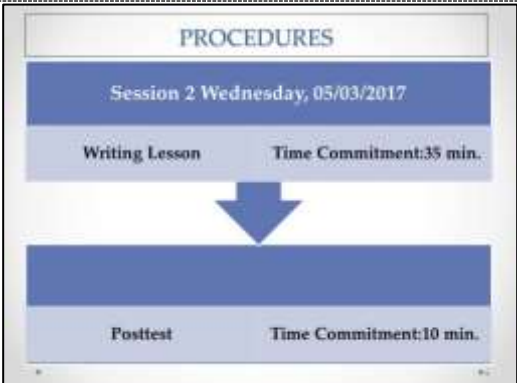
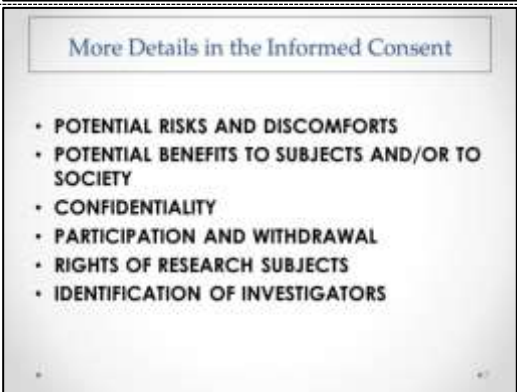
APPENDIX G: PRETESTS/POSTTESTS BLUEPRINT

| | Objective | Form | Number of Items | Criterion Level | Proportion |
|----------|---|------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-------------------|
| 1 | Forming the (noun/pronoun + be + noun) sentence pattern | Grammaticality Judgment Task | Eight Items | 100% accuracy | 25% |
| 2 | Forming the (noun/pronoun + be + adjective) sentence pattern | Grammaticality Judgment Task | Eight Items | 100% accuracy | 25% |
| 3 | Forming the (noun/pronoun + be + adverb[time/place]) sentence pattern | Grammaticality Judgment Task | Eight Items | 100% accuracy | 25% |
| 4 | Forming the (noun/pronoun + be + verb + ing) sentence pattern | Grammaticality Judgment Task | Eight Items | 100% accuracy | 25% |

APPENDIX H: RECRUITING PRESENTATION STORYBOARD

Recruiting Presentation: “WHAT IS THE INFLUENCE OF FORM-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION OF ON ESL LEARNERS?”

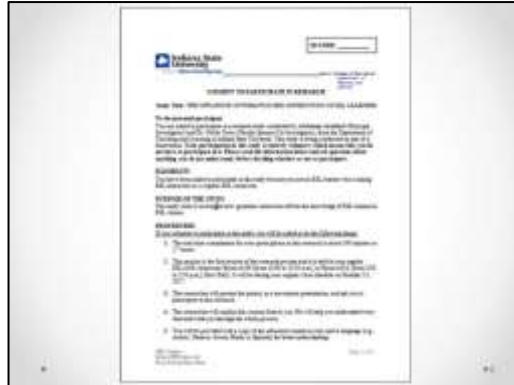
| Slide# | Slide Topic | | Script |
|--------|------------------------------------|--|---|
| 1 | <u>Title</u> |  | <p>Principal Investigator (PI): Hi everyone! My name is Abdulaziz. Today I am here to ask you to participate in my research. This is the title of the project (IP reads the title from slide#1).</p> |
| 2 | <u>Invitation to participation</u> |  | <p>PI: You are asked to participate in this research and you are totally free to volunteer or not! This study is conducted by me as the principal investigator and Dr. Corey as the faculty sponsor.</p> |
| 3 | <u>Eligibility</u> |  | <p>PI: Why you? You are learners of English as a second language and you are attending ESL classes in which you take language instruction. This makes you perfect potential participants for this study.</p> |

| | | |
|---|--|--|
| <p>4 <u>Purpose of the study</u></p> |  | <p>PI: What is the purpose of this study? This study investigates the influence or effect of grammatical instruction on the language or grammatical knowledge of ESL learners.</p> |
| <p>5 <u>Procedure 1</u></p> |  | <p>PI: Here are the steps or the procedures of your participation for today. As you can see, part of the recruiting step, we'll move to the informed consent (IC) procedures. Then, completing the language background questionnaire, finally, the pretest!</p> |
| <p>6 <u>Procedures (continue)</u></p> |  | <p>PI: On next Wednesday, we will continue with the rest of the procedures. By that I mean the writing lesson and the posttest.</p> |
| <p>7 <u>Transition to the informed consent and its contents</u></p> |  | <p>PI: Now, let's move to a very important step in your participation. It is the informed consent (IC) procedure. Your understanding of the information in the IC is very critical to your participation in this study. Let's cover each item in the IC. Please, feel free to ask any question. (PI distributes the</p> |

documents envelopes and asks them to take the first document out).

PI: You will find a copy of the IC in English and a copy in your native language.

8 IC page 1



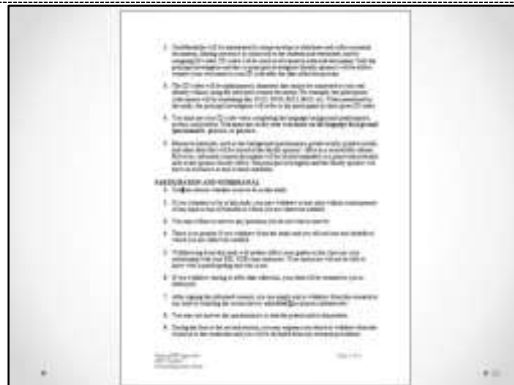
PI: As you can see, this is the first page of the IC.
(PI reads page#1 of the consent and explains every item on that page)

9 IC page 2



PI: Now, let's move to next page#2. Do you have any questions so far?
(PI reads and explains page#2)

10 IC page 3



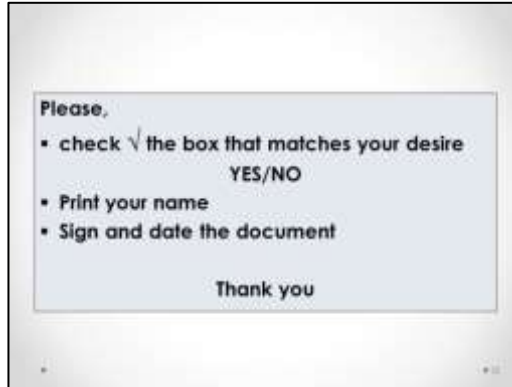
PI: Now, any questions?
If you do not have any questions, let's move to page #3.
(PI reads and explains page#3)

11 IC page 4



PI: Any questions about page#3? If you are okay, let's read page#4 together. (PI reads page# 4 and explains everything on that page)

12 What do you think?



PI: Now, please check the box that matches your desire: YES/NO. Print your name. Sign and date the document. Put the IC back in the envelope.

APPENDIX I: IRB APPROVAL LETTER



Institutional Review Board

Terre Haute, Indiana 47809
812-237-3288
Fax 812-237-3092

DATE: April 27, 2017

TO: Abdulaziz Alraddadi, PhD
FROM: Indiana State University Institutional Review Board

STUDY TITLE: [1019717-3] WHAT IS THE INFLUENCE OF FORM-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION OF COPULA AND AUXILIARY (BE) ON ESL LEARNERS?

SUBMISSION TYPE: Revision

ACTION: APPROVED
APPROVAL DATE: April 26, 2017
EXPIRATION DATE: April 25, 2018
REVIEW TYPE: Expedited Review

REVIEW CATEGORY: Expedited review category # [enter category, or delete line]

Thank you for your submission of Revision materials for this research study. The Indiana State University Institutional Review Board has APPROVED your submission. The approval for this study expires on April 25, 2018.

Prior to the approval expiration date, if you plan to continue this study you will need to submit a continuation request (Form E) for review and approval by the IRB. Additionally, once you complete your study, you will need to submit the Completion of Activities report (Form G).

This approval is based on an appropriate risk/benefit ratio and a study design wherein the risks have been minimized. All research must be conducted in accordance with this approved submission.

This submission has received Expedited Review based on the applicable federal regulation.

Informed Consent: Please remember that informed consent is a process beginning with a description of the study and insurance of participant understanding followed by a signed consent form. Informed consent must continue throughout the study via a dialogue between the researcher and research participant. **NOTE: You must use the electronically stamped informed consent document that has been uploaded into IRBNet.**

Reporting of Problems: All SERIOUS and UNEXPECTED adverse events must be reported. Any problems involving risk to subjects or others, injury or other adverse effects experienced by subjects, and incidents of noncompliance must be reported to the IRB Chairperson or Vice Chairperson via phone or e-mail immediately. Additionally, you must submit Form F electronically to the IRB through IRBNet within 5 working days after first awareness of the problem.

Please note that any revision to previously approved materials must be approved by the IRB prior to initiation. Please use the appropriate revision forms for this procedure.

Modifications: Any modifications to this proposed study or to the informed consent form will need to be submitted using Form D for review and approval by the IRB prior to implementation.

Please note that all research records must be retained for a minimum of three years. If those research records involve health information, those records must be retained for a minimum of six years.

If you have any questions, please contact Dr. Kim Bodey within IRBNet by clicking on the study title on the "My Projects" screen and the "Send Project Mail" button on the left side of the "New Project Message" screen. I wish you well in completing your study.